

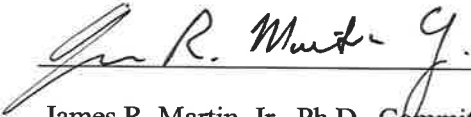
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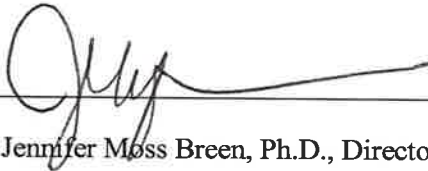
Date



Leah Georges, Ph.D., Chair



James R. Martin, Jr., Ph.D., Committee Member



Jennifer Moss Breen, Ph.D., Director



Gail M. Jensen, Ph.D., Dean

A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCES OF THE
POLICE CHIEFS IN MASSACHUSETTS

By
TIMOTHY BONADIES

A DISSERTATION IN PRACTICE

Submitted to the faculty of the Graduate School of Creighton University in Partial
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Abstract

This study explored the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. Using a phenomenological approach, semi-structured telephonic interviews of nine active Massachusetts police chiefs were conducted, recorded, and transcribed. Dedoose was used to identify thirteen areas of thematic similarity, and multiple rounds of coding resulted in the emergence of three core themes: navigating complex political environments, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balancing police culture with external influences. Chiefs ascribed the existence of the phenomenon to multiple factors including unique policing roles and responsibilities, a rigid organizational structure, the influence of union representatives and civil service requirements on organizational behavior, differing values between departments and their communities, influence from politicians who possess limited knowledge of policing, and internal organizational dynamics involving experienced and new officers. The integration of identified topic areas into new or existing leadership training programs is discussed, potential evaluation components are identified, and implications for leadership in public sector, rigid organization, and policing contexts are discussed and evaluated.

Keywords: cognitive dissonance, leadership, collaborative leadership, training

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In a comprehensive survey of over 1,000 law enforcement professionals, Schafer (2010) found that officers in formal positions of authority defined the successful law enforcement leader as possessing characteristics most closely identified with transformational or servant leadership styles. These characteristics, which included communication and personal care for subordinates, improved leadership efficacy but the participants opined that cultural, structural, and political barriers in police departments prevented law enforcement leaders from fully employing this type of leadership. Similarly, Vito, Suresh, and Richards' (2010) examination of police leaders from 23 U.S. states obtained similar data, with leaders overwhelmingly identifying that the ideal police leader should, "express and follow the values of servant leadership" (p. 681).

While these studies suggested law enforcement leaders may value transformational or servant leadership characteristics, a significant body of research indicates law enforcement departments are often led via transactional mechanisms, including management-by-exception, non-participatory leadership, and rules-based administration (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Crank, 1998; Densten, 1999; Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta, 2009). For example, Stamper (1992) surveyed 52 police chiefs and 92 of their immediate assistants and found that chiefs defined their own leadership styles as visionary, inclusive, and creative while their assistants opined that the chiefs were much more involved in process than in actual leadership. In a similar finding, a survey of 90 police managers found as officers assumed organizational leadership positions, they shifted priorities toward resource allocation, external communications, change management, and monitoring outside forces while maintaining that motivating personnel

was their primary leadership responsibility (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012). This seeming disconnect between what police leaders identify as their leadership priorities and their actions suggests that law enforcement leadership in practice may differ from the theoretical constructs valued by leaders in the field. This may indicate that cultural, structural, or political influences may prevent leaders from employing particular leadership techniques or that leaders' perceptions of their actions differ from how their subordinates observe and assess their leadership behaviors.

Using data gathered from police chiefs serving at police departments in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, this study aimed to better understand the relationship between chiefs' preferred leadership practices and their experiences actually employing leadership in police organizations. Through a structured phenomenological approach, the study attempted to explore the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations.

Statement of the Problem

The unpredictable and often dangerous nature of police work necessitates the existence of confident and capable department leaders. From strategic issues such as budget and training to tactical guidance, effective police leaders ensure departments prioritize, train, and operate efficiently and effectively. Unfortunately, a variety of studies including Crank (1998) and Hannah et al. (2009) indicated that leadership behaviors are often underdeveloped within law enforcement organizations. Specifically, Crank (1998) stated that police leadership is often not well developed because of police culture, the bureaucratic structure of police departments, and the civil nature of the job. Densten

(1999) identified a predominance of management-by-exception among high-ranking police officials, suggesting that senior officers are mainly passive leaders focused on correcting deviations from the status quo. Similarly, Bruns and Shuman (1988) analyzed five years of survey data and concluded police departments possess a strong predisposition toward authoritative, non-participatory leadership.

In addition to these study findings, survey data also indicated that many officers rate a majority of formal leaders as relatively poor (Schafer, 2010). Observers suggest culture, bureaucracy, and the unique nature of law enforcement may place constraints on leadership processes within police departments, and poor department leadership may decrease efficiency, lower job satisfaction, and adversely impact professional development. This information is particularly interesting in light of Schafer (2010) and Vito, Suresh, and Richards (2010), who suggested chiefs view servant-style leadership as ideal.

With this apparent conflict between the leadership techniques chiefs appear to value and the techniques chiefs appear to employ, it is important to develop a deeper understanding of how they navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead. Practically, this dissonance has significant implications for police leaders, their officers, and the citizens offered services by police departments. Generally, people attempt to reduce dissonance by selectively processing information in a manner that aligns with their existing beliefs, increasing the favorability of chosen alternatives, and ignoring information that may increase dissonance (Burnes & James, 1995; Jermais, 2001; Molehnbergs, Prochilo, Steffens, Zacher, & Haslam, 2017). When experiencing organizational change initiatives, cognitive dissonance among both leaders

and employees may result in a bias toward retaining status quo choices or the interpretation of information in favor of status quo choices (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988).

For police leaders who experience dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, the dissonance reduction strategies they employ may significantly impact the information they use to make critical leadership decisions, the tactics they employ, and the organizational change initiatives they engage in. As a chief, selectively processing data or ignoring information that may increase dissonance risks missing critical safety trends, misallocating scarce manpower and resources, or employing leadership strategies that do not align with department culture. When attempting to implement organizational changes, the existence of dissonance between how a chief wants to lead and how he or she does lead may result in changes that attempt to align the department with the chief's chosen style or engender opposition from subordinates.

More broadly, developing a deeper understanding of how chiefs navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead may help chiefs employ effective dissonance reduction strategies and aid in the development of leadership training that prepares future chiefs to perform in spite of dissonance created by the organizational structures they exist within. Quality leadership is essential as police obtain and employ more sophisticated technologies. Understanding how Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead is a necessary step toward developing training, processes, and structures that create and sustain good leaders who can execute intricate policing strategies, effectively employ advanced technologies, and lead functional departments.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations.

Research Question

Literature around police chief leadership behaviors suggests police leaders value transformational and servant leadership behaviors but often practice in a transactional manner (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). This study aimed to examine how police chiefs in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts experience the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead. To explore this area, this phenomenological study focused on the following research question:

Research Question: How do Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations?

Aim of the Study

The aim of this study was to inform training opportunities to help organizational leaders navigate effective leadership practices within the confines of their organizations. The study also aimed to contribute to the development of recommendations for an evidence-based leadership training curriculum for city, town, and university police chiefs serving in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

Methodology Overview

This study employed a qualitative research methodology to examine the lived leadership experiences of police chiefs in Massachusetts. Specifically, the study used a

phenomenological approach to examine police chiefs' experiences navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. According to Creswell (2013), a phenomenological study describes how individuals experienced a certain shared lived experience or phenomenon. Van Manen described the lived experience as naming "the ordinary and the extraordinary, the quotidian and the exotic, the routine and the surprising, the dull and the ecstatic moments and aspects of everyday experience as we live through them in our daily human existence" (2017, p. 803). In focusing on the shared lived experience, phenomenology aims to use examples as a means of capturing experiences as they are lived through. By reducing individual experiences with the phenomenon or concept to a shared, universal 'essence,' phenomenological studies develop a composite description of a phenomenon that each individual experienced in a unique, subjective manner.

To obtain this composite description, I conducted semi-structured interviews of nine active police chiefs in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The interviews consisted of one main question and seven follow-up questions and were administered telephonically, recorded, and transcribed. I took field notes during each interview, and journaled when appropriate to ensure my experiences were properly bracketed. I spoke with my committee to discuss interviews and develop a coding strategy. Next, I used Dedoose, a software application used in the collection and analysis of research data, to identify 13 areas of thematic similarity that I grouped into coded clusters. I then analyzed these coded clusters for presence and co-occurrence, which resulted in the emergence of three core themes. I then composed these themes into a composite summary that describes how police chiefs in Massachusetts experience navigating the cognitive

dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations.

Definition of Relevant Terms

The following terms are used operationally within this study:

City: An identified geographic area incorporated in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and recorded as a City by the Massachusetts Secretary of State (“CIS: Massachusetts city and town incorporation,” ND). A city is governed by a city or town council. It may have a mayor or city manager as a chief executive officer, but such positions are not required.

Town: An identified geographic area incorporated in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and recorded as a Town by the Massachusetts Secretary of State (“CIS: Massachusetts city and town incorporation,” N.D.). A defined geographic area governed by an elected board of selectmen. Selectmen may approve a town administrator to manage daily affairs or execute management authority without an appointed professional.

Police Department: A sworn law enforcement agency for any city or town that is responsible for preventing crime and enforcing state laws and city ordinances

Police Chief: The executive level position within a police department. The chief is appointed or approved by the city or town government and is responsible for department operations, including organizational structure, business processes, and asset allocation.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Personal Biases

According to Bryant (2011), delimitations are factors that prevent findings from being applied in a universal manner. This study had one major delimitation related to the unique nature of the surveyed population. Namely, the study's findings are only fully applicable to police departments in Massachusetts. The disaggregated nature of law enforcement in the United States and the wide variety of hiring standards, training regimens, and leadership conceptions between departments in different jurisdictions limits the ability to compare at a wide level. Outside of Massachusetts, departments are bound by different rules, policies, and legal requirements. With each state responsible for determining standards related to officer training, education, and authority, departments vary wildly in size, scope, and authority, and applying this study's results without accounting for each unique environment may result in improper comparisons.

While delimitations reference the applicability of findings, limitations represent methodological limits that influence interpretation of findings (Price & Murnan, 2004). This study had one main limitation related to the variable nature of the police chief position in Massachusetts. In Massachusetts, towns, cities, and universities vary widely in size and population, and these variations greatly impact police department size, budget, and authority. Due to these variations, police chiefs' experiences with leadership-related actions vary widely, and the study's participating chiefs range from leading large departments serving large cities to leading small departments serving smaller municipalities. This ensures that participants experienced leadership in varying contexts, which may have resulted in the creation of shared themes that do not entirely reflect the leadership experience in some settings. Along with this limit, the study's focus and

sample size makes it an appropriate representation of police officers in Massachusetts, but not an appropriate sample construct or size to represent a larger body of law enforcement officers. Finally, the chiefs who participated in the study did so voluntarily and self-selected in order to participate; this limited the population and introduced some self-selection bias to the sample.

In addition to study limitations, my personal experiences, beliefs, values, and education may have consciously or unconsciously impacted aspects of the study (Smith & Noble, 2014). I worked as a full-time or part-time law enforcement officer for approximately fourteen years and served as the equivalent of a police chief on two occasions. Furthermore, I worked with police in Massachusetts, including chiefs, to develop a new basic police training academy for city, university, and transit police. These experiences impacted how I understand leadership in a law enforcement context and provided me with opportunities to lead within a law enforcement environment. Doing so enabled me to experience the cognitive dissonance between how I wanted to lead and how I actually did lead, and also exposed me to the unique culture of Massachusetts policing.

Leader's Role and Responsibility in Relation to the Problem

Leadership played a significant role in this study. The study used the lived experiences of police chiefs to develop an understanding of how Massachusetts police chiefs experienced navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within their departments. Chiefs' shared leadership experiences provided great insight into the leadership issues faced by police chiefs in Massachusetts, and offered information on preferred leadership styles and internal or external constraints

that impact a variety of police departments throughout the Commonwealth. Leadership theory and research provided context to this study; while the research on police leadership in Massachusetts is limited, a body of police-related leadership research does exist and aided in contextualizing study results.

Significance of the Study

With existing research appearing to demonstrate differences between police leader style preferences and actions, forming an understanding of how chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead adds to the scholarly research and literature in the field and may improve practice and policy (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Crank, 1998; Densten, 1999; Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta, 2009). First, the literature does not include any significant examinations of police departments in Massachusetts, and no previous studies appear to have explored chiefs' leadership experiences in the Commonwealth. By focusing on this heretofore unexamined population, this study added to the body of literature in the field. Law enforcement is a particularly disaggregated area of research due to the significant differences in the composition, authorities, and structure of departments, and examining an unexplored area within the law enforcement space added new and important information to the body of knowledge and increases insight into a complex area.

Next, the literature does not include any in-depth examinations of the gap between perceived ideal police leadership styles and the actual actions of police leaders. The literature clearly identifies the differences between police leaders' preferred style and their actions but does not specifically explore leaders' perceptions of this gap and reactions to this gap (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). Focusing on this

unexamined area added to the body of literature in the field and broadened knowledge of the context within which police leadership is practiced.

Furthermore, the literature does not provide insight into cognitive dissonance as it impacts law enforcement leadership. While studies involving the impact of cognitive dissonance on health behaviors, management, marketing, and even group dynamics do exist, the topic has not been explored in a law enforcement context (Brockner, 1992; Jermais, 2001; Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988; Staw, 1976; Telci, Maden & Kantur, 2011). Instead, the literature has focused on emotional dissonance, or the discrepancy between how officers feel and the emotions they display while conducting policing activities (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Kwak, McNeeley & Kim, 2018, Schaible & Gecas, 2010). While this subject matter area provides important information, it does not offer specific leadership-related data and does not provide insight into leader experiences. Exploring how cognitive dissonance impacts law enforcement leadership added to the existing literature and generated new areas for future exploration.

In addition to increasing the field's body of knowledge, this study will help improve practice and policy within Massachusetts police departments. Developing a deeper understanding of how chiefs navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead may help chiefs employ effective dissonance reduction strategies and aid in the development of leadership training that prepares future chiefs to perform in spite of dissonance created by the organizational structures they exist within. The research may also inform future Massachusetts chiefs about the creation of new organizational structures and policies that are more responsive to real or perceived organizational constraints. Through its examination of leader experiences, this study's

data broadened understanding of the leadership environment within Massachusetts police departments and, in doing so, aided in the development of strategies to increase leader training and effectiveness.

Summary

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. While examinations of the leadership climate in Massachusetts police departments are rare, the existing general literature suggests that law enforcement leaders value transformational or servant leadership characteristics but often lead in a transactional style (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). This disconnect required additional examination, and developing an understanding of how chiefs in Massachusetts experience leadership within real or perceived organizational constraints expanded the literature and has the potential to positively influence practice and policy.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Law enforcement officers participate in a high-risk occupation where they are required to make split-second decisions, exercise a significant amount of discretion in applying rules and regulations, and respond to crisis situations. At the same time, officers operate within the public sector and exist within hierarchical department systems which are largely governed by bureaucracy and process. These two often competing elements have created a unique environment where law enforcement leaders must navigate and support often rigid bureaucracies while simultaneously developing officers who can work independently and make correct decisions in dynamic situations.

As a result, law enforcement culture has been widely studied in an attempt to understand the system that makes up such a unique environment. Although there is significant variation between individual police departments, the research suggests some shared structural and cultural attributes that exert extremely powerful influences on officers (Woody, 2005). First, the typical police department is a hierarchical system where authorities are given to positions, not individuals, and officers must exist within this bureaucratic department structure (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Next, conforming to police culture is required to begin and maintain a law enforcement career. According to Woody (2005), police endure a complex and stressful acculturation process beginning at the academy and continuing throughout the duration of a career. This acculturation process includes the development of new and distinct language, adherence to uniformity and chain of command, and the recognition that officers are separate and distinct from non-officers. Officers appear to develop some additional attitudinal similarities, including a distrust of civilians, negative impressions of

primary supervisors and managers, an overreliance on process by supervisory personnel, and a role orientation toward enforcement and order maintenance (Brown, 1988; Crank, 1998; Paoline, 2003; Paoline, 2004; Skolnick, 1994). Woody (2005) identified a rigid conformity to standards that manifested itself in high levels of loyalty to fellow officers and suggested that this combination of rigidity and in-group bias tends to push officers toward isolation from social and family relationships.

While no monolithic police culture exists, the research suggests the typical department is hierarchical and militaristic and the officers that exist within the typical department possess unique shared training and experiences, strong in-group bias, an affinity for process, and an orientation toward enforcing laws. To provide background on how law enforcement leaders have behaved within this unique system, this review will examine literature focused on leadership in the policing context. Drawing from a variety of case studies, narrative examinations, and data-driven reports, the review provides an overview of the existing law enforcement-related leadership research, summarizes key findings from significant authors within the field, and examines three factors that influence how leadership is applied and experienced in the police context.

First, the review examines the topic of public sector leadership. In recent years, public sector leadership has emerged as a separate and distinct area of study from private sector leadership, and the review will define public sector leadership, describe major characteristics, and examine how leadership is expressed and experienced within the public sector environment. In doing so, the review will provide insight into the bureaucratic structures and conceptions of leadership that influence public sector employees, including police officers.

Examining public sector leadership will provide some insight into the structures that police leaders operate within, but those leaders face far different circumstances than typical public sector employees. As such, the review next examines how leadership is perceived within law enforcement departments. Drawing from articles published in peer-reviewed journals, the review focuses on literature that identifies unique characteristics of law enforcement leaders, quantifies and describes law enforcement leadership, and examines specific cases of law enforcement leadership in practice. Searches for these subject matter areas in the literature uncovered a variety of studies involving American, Australian, British, Norwegian, and Canadian police and police departments, and the review includes data from each of these locations. Taken together, the subject matter areas provide some insight into the structures and themes that influence law enforcement leaders.

Next, the review will examine the topic of crisis leadership. Unlike most public sector employees, law enforcement officers participate in a high-risk occupation where the chances of crisis involvement are high, and this impacts every element of law enforcement culture. Hannah et al. (2009) suggested crisis events fundamentally alter behavior and, as such, concluded that crisis leadership is different than non-crisis leadership. This is particularly applicable in the police context, and this section of the review uses sources from law enforcement, industry, military leadership, and extreme event leadership to explore how leadership is executed and experienced in crisis situations.

Finally, the review will examine cognitive dissonance theory (CTD). Developed by Festinger (1957), CDT suggests that when an individual holds two mental

representations that contradict, he or she will feel unpleasant until altering these representations so they align. Within the unique and specific leadership environment of a police department, leader style preferences appear to differ from leader actions. Using data gleaned from examinations of how cognitive dissonance presents in leadership, management, and organizational change experiences, the review will identify theoretical explanations for that difference and will provide necessary background that will aid in understanding how chiefs experience navigating the contradiction between how they want to lead and how they do lead. When combined with an examination of general public sector leadership, law enforcement leadership, and crisis leadership, this section will provide the context necessary to understand the environment within which leadership is practiced in the law enforcement context.

Public Sector Leadership

Various authors focused on leadership in law enforcement, including Schafer (2009) and Murphy (2008), opined bureaucratic interference negatively influenced law enforcement leaders and forced officers to act more like managers than true organizational leaders. While Schafer (2009) and Murphy (2008) did not explicitly link bureaucratic interference to departments' status as public sector entities, the nature of departments as public organizations with monopolies over law enforcement-related tasks suggests some examination of leadership in public sector entities is necessary to fully understand the cultural constraints law enforcement leaders operate within.

Structure of Public Organizations

According to Anderson (2010), public organizations are fundamentally different from private organizations as a consequence of the functions they provide to society. Law enforcement departments, which administer unique and distinct safety and security services and possess exclusive power to detain, arrest, and even harm or kill individuals in rare cases, conduct activities that no private organization is legally permitted to engage in. Along with departments' unique charters and legal authorities, city law enforcement officers are recognized almost universally as city employees. In Massachusetts, the focus of this examination, law enforcement departments fall under the oversight of a city council, mayor, or town manager and function as one of several departments that make up a city's governance structure. Based on these characteristics, Massachusetts law enforcement departments are public sector entities and, as such, exist within the unique environment that characterizes public sector operations.

Rainey and Bozeman (2000) cautioned against making simple, general distinctions between public and private institutions, stating that doing so is overly simplistic and does not account for the many environmental factors that influence organizations. Nevertheless, the research appears to indicate that many scholars do view public and private institutions as fundamentally different and, consequently, believe that leadership may be executed and experienced in ways unique to each organization type. Borins described public sector organizations as "usually large bureaucracies structured to perform core tasks with stability and consistency and resist change or disruption" (2002, p. 467). According to public choice theory, these organizations are typically monopolies, and have little competitive pressure to innovate (Borins, 2002). This translates into a

desire for stability, predictability, and equity and, according to Wright and Pandey (2009) results in a reliance on structural mechanisms to limit individual discretion and promote uniformity in how employees interpret and respond to work situations or tasks.

In most cases, these mechanisms are evident in how a public sector entity is structured and how processes are formalized. This structure typically includes a hierarchical organizational construct, well-codified rules and regulations, and a reliance on downward communication (Wright & Pandey, 2009). Furthermore, public agencies demonstrate significantly higher levels of formalization of certain functions such as personnel and purchasing (Anderson, 2010). Due to their unique, governmental role, public sector entities also often receive direction from politicians, courts, and legislatures (Kellis & Ran, 2012). This causes public sector entities to focus on governance-related objectives and, as a result, these entities tend to prefer stability, reward employees in unique ways, and attract a different employee profile than private sector entities.

Stability in Public Organizations

Multiple authors, including Borins (2002), Kellis and Ran (2012), and Srivastava (2014) indicated that the stability-seeking nature of public sector entities impacts employee behavior and leadership style choices. When combined with Wright and Pandey's (2009) description of public sector entities as rigidly hierarchical, rules-based, and reliant on top-down communication, this stability-seeking nature appears to discourage strong leadership in some cases. For example, Bertelli and Lynn (2006) and Warner and Hefetz (2008) suggested that strong leadership in public sector entities risks contravening the democratic process as these entities are structured to receive direction and guidance from elected representatives or the court system. In order to ensure that

public sector entities are able to respond appropriately to the political environment in which they exist, they often have strong, centralized controls and personnel systems that discourage innovation and punish unsuccessful change attempts (Borins, 2002).

Furthermore, these entities often have difficulty with individualized accountability, as accountability within rigid, hierarchical structures inspires public sector employees to become “overly rigid, subject to scapegoating, and become more focused on being held accountable than on performing the task at hand” (Kellis & Ran, 2013, p. 131). In some cases, a reliance on politicians for guidance and a rigid hierarchical structure may work to adversely impact employees’ feelings of control and empowerment. After analyzing Goulet and Frank’s (2002) organizational commitment survey data indicating public sector employees demonstrated the lowest level of organizational commitment among public, private, and nonprofit workers, Bullock, Stritch, and Rainey (2015), opined the data suggested public employees display lower commitment because they have a diminished sense of control as a result of external constraints placed on the organization and the general “public” ownership of the organization.

As a result of these characteristics, Valle (1999), Van Wart (2013) and others suggested that public sector organizations must increase flexibility and empower leaders to prevent discouragement among employees. Valle (1999) opined that the public sector requires leaders who will promote flexibility and adaptability, while Van Wart (2013) also indicated that, in order to succeed in the modern age, public sector managers must improve certain transactional and transformational leadership skills, including empowerment. Others, such as Dunoon (2002) suggested that, while leadership is necessary in public sector organizations, even considering certain approaches such as

charismatic leadership has limited utility due to the structure and function of the public sector. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) and findings from Sarros, Tanewski, Winter, Santora, and Densten (2002) appear to compliment this suggestion; in examinations of American firefighters and Australian public employees, the researchers found that centralization decreases the likelihood that public organizational leaders will employ transformational leadership strategies.

For context, transactional leadership is a leadership style characterized by the use of benefits or punishments to inspire subordinate behavior. According to Avolio and Bass (2002), transactional leadership occurs if a leader rewards or disciplines followers based on performance. Bass (1985) identified two types of transactional leadership. These include contingent reward, a leadership approach where work performance and adherence to standards is exchanged for material or psychological compensation, and management-by-exception, a leadership approach where leaders identify standards and act to correct deviations from these standards.

Conversely, transformational leadership is a leadership style characterized by the articulation of an energizing vision and goals that inspire employees and benefit the organization or community. Burns (1978) stated transformational leadership occurs when leaders and organization members both participate in the leadership process and elevate each other to a higher level of motivation. Bass (1985) suggested that transformational leaders focus on organizational goals and work to realize team members' higher-level motivations. By motivating and inspiring employees, transformational leaders provide meaning to employees' work and inspire them to commit to the vision and goals that

benefit the organization. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership has four components:

1. Individualized consideration: the degree to which a leader attends to a subordinate's needs, provides empathy and support, and communicates respectfully. Leaders who treat employees as unique individuals possessing unique talents, ideas, and opinions demonstrate individualized consideration.
2. Intellectual stimulation: the degree to which a leader challenges conventions, encourages creativity, and stimulates subordinates. Leaders who encourage innovation and respect employees' ideas and opinions demonstrate intellectual stimulation.
3. Inspirational motivation: the degree to which a leader articulates a vision that inspires subordinates. Leaders who emphasize a shared vision to achieve team goals demonstrate inspirational motivation.
4. Idealized influence: the degree to which a leader provides an ethical, respectful, and trusting role model. Leaders who are admired, trusted, and respected by followers demonstrate idealized influence.

In the context of policing, these components were described by Andreescu and Vito (2010), who surveyed 126 police managers from 23 US states. Using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - XII, a multi-question, Likert-based test that describes leader behavior using 12 subscales, Andreescu and Vito (2010) asked participating police leaders to place themselves in the position of a subordinate and select the characteristics of the leader they would like to have. Respondents identified leadership behaviors that corresponded with elements of transformational leadership,

including “ready assumption of a leadership role, creatively responding to conflicting demands with persuasive arguments to motivate followers while predicting future outcomes with accuracy and facilitating the followers’ integration in the organization” (Andresescu & Vito, 2010, p. 576). Deluga and Souza (1991) provided additional specificity to the use of transformational leadership in a policing context, describing the transformational police leader as responsive to individual officer needs, approachable, less military in manner than the traditional police leader, and more likely to be sensitive to rational influencing attempts by subordinate officers.

Employee Profiles in Public Organizations

In addition to offering different structural and operational challenges than private sector entities, public sector organizations appear to attract a different employee profile than those individuals who work within the private sector. Anderson (2010) found significant differences between public and private managers in terms of leadership style and motivation. Specifically, Anderson (2010) identified that managers in public social insurance agencies were achievement-motivated and possessed a change-oriented leadership style while private managers were motivated by power and relied on intuition as a primary leadership driver. Similarly, Balfour and Wechsler (1990) determined public employees derived fewer feelings of affiliation from membership in their organization than private sector employees did, but were more committed to their organization’s goals and values. Furthermore, Bullock et al. (2015) reviewed data that indicated public sector workers in most nations were more motivated to serve the public and are less motivated by financial rewards than their private sector counterparts. Finally, Tummers and Knies

(2013) opined that job security and regular pay increases were more important to public sector workers than ensuring they were involved in meaningful work.

Along with attracting employees who appear to value service and stability, public sector organizations appear to reward employees in ways not practiced by private sector companies. This is most apparent in the inability of public sector managers to provide compensation-based awards, which differs significantly from the private sector. Bullock et al. (2015) reviewed data collected in the International Social Survey Programme's Work Orientation 2005 module. The module consisted of data collected from 43,400 survey respondents from 32 countries who answered questions about their attitudes toward work and private life and their work organization and working conditions. After reviewing this survey data, Bullock et al. (2015) stated that public sector managers and employees feel that the public sector's formalized compensation practices prevent managers from being able to provide employees with monetary compensation in exchange for performance. Wright and Pandey (2009) identified a weak relationship between rewards and employee performance and opined that often ambiguous and difficult-to-quantify performance goals made it difficult for employees to see some direct benefit as a result of specific work tasks. While the literature suggests public employees do not appear to be primarily motivated by money, this data does indicate that the rigid structure of public institutions may hamper managers in their efforts to devise and execute individualized leadership approaches.

While Rainey and Bozeman (2000) appropriately cautioned against making simple distinctions between public and private institutions, the literature does suggest that public and private institutions do demonstrate some significant differences. From the

roles and responsibilities of an organization to the way it is structured to the degree to which it relies on members of the political system to influence its operations, private and public sector entities are fundamentally different in structure and function. When combined with the different types of employee motivations evident in public and private institutions and the contrast in compensation expectations, it is clear that public sector institutions recruit different types of employees, manage them in a particularly unique fashion, and provide them with different contexts through which they execute and experience leadership.

In spite of these differences, public sector organizations require some type of leadership in order to achieve what governments require (Dunoon, 2002). And, while Dunoon (2002), Rafferty and Griffin (2004), and Sarros et al. (2002) highlighted the difficulties inherent to practicing transformational and charismatic leadership within a public sector organization, Wright and Pandey (2009) suggested that the obvious structural constraints of the public sector do not preclude employees from practicing transformational leadership. Instead, the authors opined that transformational leadership is in fact common and useful in the public sector.

In totality, the literature describing general public sector leadership roughly corresponds with studies focused on leadership in law enforcement. Both generally highlight structural constraints, emphasize the degree to which management supersedes leadership, and provide data indicating some transformational and charismatic leadership strategies are nevertheless practiced successfully in a general public sector leadership and a specific law enforcement leadership context. From the literature, it is likely that law

enforcement departments' public sector status has contributed to their structural, organizational, and fiscal similarities to other public sector concerns.

Along with these parallels, however, there are still some significant differences between police departments and other public sector entities that may influence how leadership is experienced and executed in a law enforcement context. From unique authorities to a rigid hierarchical structure to dangerous and unpredictable job tasks, law enforcement differs significantly from the typical public sector job. General public sector work has no analogue to many areas of law enforcement operations and, as such, it is necessary to examine the literature on law enforcement leadership in an effort to completely understand the factors that influence how law enforcement officers lead and experience leadership.

Law Enforcement Leadership

A review of police-specific leadership research provides essential background and context to the unique ways leadership is employed and experienced in police departments. First, it is generally agreed that leadership is a key driver of proper performance in policing but a variety of sources, including The UK Home Office's 'Police Leadership: Expectations and Impact' report, identify a distinct lack of an identifiable standard within police leadership (Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004). Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) conducted a large-scale review of available literature on leadership in law enforcement. The review covered works published between 1990 and 2012 and examined a variety of topics, including the impact of rank on police leadership and the characteristics of police leaders. From the review, which examined 57 peer-reviewed journal articles, the authors concluded that most research was

based on perceptions or small case studies and, as such, did not allow for the “creation of clear and objective measures of what leadership is” in a police context (p. 8). Overall, the literature is mixed, with some sources documenting the existence of positive, effective police leaders and other sources documenting ineffective, transactional department managers. This mixed and often unclear nature of the literature was best described by Sarver, “A review of the literature in law enforcement has revealed little in regard to leadership style and its relationship with leadership outcomes, effectiveness, personality, and various characteristics” (2008, p. 52).

Traits of Police Leaders

In spite of the somewhat conflicting nature of the existing research, several common themes and trends appear in findings across a variety of locations, including the United States, Canada, Europe, and Asia. First, police leaders in multiple contexts have demonstrated positive leadership characteristics and have engaged in generally effective leadership. In a study where Maryland State Police officers completed the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) during basic training and then were assessed by supervisors after one year on the job, Mills and Bohannon (1980) identified that the most successful officers were achievement-oriented and functionally intelligent. The CPI is a highly reliable, multi-item self-report test that assesses interpersonal behavior and communication and it is used to predict an individual’s reaction under defined conditions and to obtain information on how others view and assess the individual. According to the authors, an achievement orientation and functional intelligence appear repeatedly as indicators of positive leadership in studies of leadership and police effectiveness. As

such, Mills and Bohannon (1980) opined that some police officers possess leadership characteristics that are common to all leaders and “stable across situations” (p. 683).

Police leaders also appear to possess some additional traits common in a large sample of business leaders. Using an updated version of the CPI, the CPI-260, Miller, Watkins, and Webb (2009) provided the CPI-260 to 102 leaders of an American federal law enforcement agency during the first week of a leadership development training course and then again six months after completion of the training course. Miller et al. normed results against existing scores from the business world and determined that study participants possessed leadership traits similar to a large sample of business leaders, especially in the areas of self-management, organizational capabilities, team building, problem solving, and sustaining an organizational vision.

These traits appear frequently in either in actual law enforcement leaders or are identified as highly valued by active officers. For example, in an autoethnographic study in a large city police force, Murphy (2008) found that officers preferred transformational leadership approaches and particularly admired leaders who demonstrated values consistent with those of their followers. After conducting semi-structured interviews with twenty-eight officers over a series of days, Murphy (2008) concluded that, while officers appeared to prefer transformational approaches to leadership, the formal power of upper management often constrained leaders and prevented them from employing creative strategies to solve policing problems.

In another study that examined personality patterns and traits, Laguna, Linn, Ward, and Rupslaukyte (2009) used the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) – 2 to examine the existence of authoritarian personality traits among police

officers. The MMPI-2 is a multi-question, true/false test that is used to assess personality traits and diagnose mental health disorders. The instrument is also commonly used by police agencies as a pre-employment psychological test (Laguna et al., 2009). While the MMPI-2 does not specifically reference authoritarianism, it provides three content scale scores, including Cynicism, Anger, and Antisocial Practices, that are correlated and have been used to describe the stereotypical authoritarian police personality (Kenney & McNamara, 1999). Laguna et al. (2009) administered the MMPI-2 to groups of new (approximately one month on the police force) and experienced (15-29 years on the police force) officers and assessed the results for the existence of authoritarian-like features. Both groups demonstrated profiles that fell within the normal range of psychological functioning, and Laguna et al. concluded that time spent as a police officer “does not lead to increased levels of authoritarian traits” (p. 103).

While some studies have identified the existence of positive leadership characteristics in samples of police leaders, other literature documents less useful leadership traits in similar groups. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), a reliable instrument that evaluates transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles and enables users to measure how they perceive leadership behaviors in themselves and others, Densten (1999) gathered data from 480 senior Australian law enforcement officers. These officers recorded the frequency of leadership behaviors displayed by their superiors, and Densten compared submitted data to MLQ norms. He found that the observed law enforcement organization heads were mainly passive leaders focused on correcting deviations from the status quo. Densten (1999) identified this style of leadership as management-by-exception, or a focus on correcting

issues that deviate from the norm and stated that surveyed individuals assessed their leaders' effectiveness as less than the norm. Densten concluded that police leaders only demonstrated basic leadership competency, which reflected a lack of formal training.

Similarly, Bruns and Shuman (1988) analyzed five years of survey data and concluded police departments possessed a strong predisposition toward authoritative, non-participatory leadership. Using the Likert Management Systems Scale, an instrument that measures the position of an organization on a continuum between authoritative and fully participative, Bruns and Shuman (1988) obtained data from 365 officers over a four-year period. Together, respondents assessed their departments as behaving in a benevolent-authoritative fashion, a category marked by highly concentrated control, top-down decision making, little interaction between superiors and subordinates, and a punishment/reward-based motivation system (Bruns and Shuman, 1988). In a similar study involving 161 Police Chiefs from Texas, Sarver (2008) determined that 35% of the Chiefs self-identified as transactional leaders and 31% assessed their leadership approaches as passive or avoidant in nature. These characteristics were similar to the benevolent-authoritative organizational approach described by Bruns and Shuman (1988) and suggest the existence of transactional leadership approaches in a variety of law enforcement contexts.

The existence of transactional leadership approaches in a variety of law enforcement contexts may result from decreased flexibility and creativity on the part of police leaders, and this decrease is evident in both self-assessment data and survey results. First, while Miller et al.'s (2009) analysis of CPI-260 self-assessment data determined participating police leaders possessed self-management, team-building,

problem solving, and organizational vision traits similar to business leaders, the police leaders scored significantly lower than the comparative sample on the scales of flexibility, sensitivity, and creative temperament (Miller et al., 2009). According to Miller et al. (2009), these leaders may perceive they have less flexibility and room for creativity than business executives and, as a result, default to rank- and control-centric leadership styles (Delattre, 1996). Next, based on a survey of a diverse group of police leaders, Schafer (2010) found that policing possessed a strong tradition of resistance to change as well as limited leadership development systems and opined that this tradition stifled the emergence of leadership among subordinates and limited the ability of younger officers to model successful leaders. When combined with limited creativity and flexibility, a change-resistant orientation likely increases the use of transactional techniques and limits transformational approaches.

Police Leadership Strategies

With the research suggesting police leaders possess a variety of traits and preferences, the strategies these leaders employ also vary considerably. As a matter of practice, many police leaders appear to approach their positions as managers, not leaders. First, Mayo (1985) determined that police leaders allocated more time to daily operational work than to long-term strategic leadership. Similarly, Rainguet and Dodge (2001) stated that police chiefs spend a significant amount of time on human resource issues, decreasing the attention they can devote to the mission of the department, its goals, and the needs of the department and community. Stamper (1992) obtained similar results by surveying 52 police chiefs and 92 of their immediate assistants about the chiefs' leadership tendencies and subject matter focus. During the survey, the chiefs

defined their leadership styles as visionary, inclusive, and creative. When asked to assess their chiefs' style and focus, assistants opined that the chiefs were much more involved in process than in actual leadership.

In an early study that offered insight into the reasons subordinates may perceive police leaders as favoring management over leadership, Kuykendall's 1977 examination of a large urban US police department suggested that leaders transitioned from personnel-centric to task-centric leadership when involved in stressful situations or when moving from project planning to implementation. In these situations, Kuykendall (1977) found officers in stressful situations emphasized mistakes, fixed blame, and handed out penalties, effectively becoming more directive and less people oriented. When asked to characterize their own leadership strategies, law enforcement leaders from around the world concurred with these findings; in a survey of police leaders, Girodo (1998) found that the majority of responders characterized their leadership style as Machiavellian, or means-end managers, and stated that police leadership is best exercised through the application of power and control.

While many police leaders appear to prefer transactional leadership approaches, various chiefs have employed strategies aimed at empowering officers. In a study of Chiefs of Police in Wisconsin, Kapla (2005) found that a full 41% of chiefs surveyed characterized their leadership style as transformational, and 56% of the sample integrated at least some components of transformational leadership into their approach. In Canada, some Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) detachments have implemented transformational leadership in a very effective manner. Murphy and Drodge (2003) examined the execution of leadership in a mid-sized Royal Canadian Mounted Police

(RCMP) detachment and concluded that the detachment contained several effective leaders who articulated clear organizational visions and empowered others. Those leaders, which Murphy and Drodge identified as transformational, possessed significant relational strengths and the ability to turn constraints into opportunities to accomplish a shared vision. These characteristics positively impacted their teams and improved productivity and were evident in a multitude of other studies focused on law enforcement leaders from a variety of locations (Kapla, 2005; Murphy, 2008).

In addition to the use of transformational approaches, some law enforcement agencies have employed unique leadership strategies to improve morale and productivity. The most famous example of unique leadership approaches was a shared leadership strategy used by the Broken Arrow, Oklahoma Police Department. Most police leadership is hierarchical and position-based, and the concept of shared leadership is quite rare in American police departments. Shared leadership occurs when power is divided among co-workers rather than concentrated in superiors and influence is exerted in peer, lateral, upward, and downward contexts. Furthermore, shared leadership environments distribute tasks across the hierarchy, participate in team-based problem solving, and share decision-making efforts. (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce, 2004; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). In Broken Arrow, police leaders considered input of multiple officers and shared goal-setting and decision-making power among officers.

By inspiring a shared vision and considering the input of multiple participants, these tenets possess some characteristics of a transformational leadership approach. These similarities were clearly reflected in surveys of Broken Arrow officers, who articulated that the shared leadership approach they practiced made officers feel “more

empowered and committed to their organization” (2008, p. 155). Furthermore, Steinheider and Wuesterwald concluded that the experience suggested top department leadership possessed the ability to transform employee conceptions of the agency in a positive and effective manner, and even suggested that implementing a shared leadership model could allow executive-level leaders more time to concentrate on strategic planning, facilitating change, and continual agency transformation (2008). Overall, this shared leadership experience represented a rare deviation from the typical police department structure and demonstrated such a deviation could produce a positive leadership climate.

Unique Influences on Police Leadership

In addition to the influences exerted by a police department’s public sector status and hierarchical nature, several other unique cultural factors impact how leadership is exerted and experienced within a department. These factors shape how officers view their leaders, and how leaders are accepted and respected by their subordinates. First, police officers strongly believe that leaders must be credible and competent police officers with a background in on-the-ground policing. To study this factor, Rowe (2006) relied on the insights of junior police officers to develop a picture of law enforcement leadership. Rowe’s team spent 18 weeks embedded with British police units and gathered ethnographic data from approximately 250 officers in an attempt to understand junior officers’ attitudes toward those in senior positions. Rowe found that frontline officers respected leaders who possessed considerable direct experience with on-the-ground policing. Conversely, junior officers did not respect officers who had reached upper echelons without a significant amount of ‘street time.’ Overall, Rowe’s work suggested that junior officers’ perspectives on leadership identified operational credibility as the

central component of quality law enforcement leadership. Murphy (2008) also highlighted those leaders who “walked the talk” as the most respected by their subordinates (p. 176).

In a similar fashion, Schafer (2009) documented an interaction in which a leader from a large city agency stated that the greatest challenge to effective leadership in law enforcement is “interference from the upper echelon of the department that may be out of touch with the way things actually are on the streets” (p. 250). With both leaders and junior officers identifying operational credibility developed through “street time” as an essential component of law enforcement leadership, it is apparent that leading a police department requires some adherence to police-specific cultural norms.

Along with “street time,” education and in-group biases also appear to influence a leader’s effectiveness in a law enforcement setting. In a survey of over 200 city managers in Pennsylvania, Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) also identified the perception of differences between junior and senior officer experience as a predictor of organizational leader performance. While Rowe (2006) and Murphy (2008) based their findings on information provided by subordinates, Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) gathered the feedback of city managers in an effort to identify positive and negative performance indicators and leadership preferences of department chiefs. The authors determined the existence of two major indicators, namely education level and in-group status at the time of hiring. Those chiefs who lacked a college education polled poorly, and individuals who were hired from outside the department demonstrated poor performance indicators when assessed by city managers. This second conclusion aligns with Hannah, Campbell, and Matthews (2010), who stated that if a group sees its leader as being representative of

the group, members are more likely to support that leader. By installing a leader who did not align with the existing group prototype, departments that selected leaders from outside the existing organizational structure may have made it more difficult for them to perform effectively.

Rowe (2006), Murphy (2008) and Hannah et al. (2010) all highlighted perceived differences between categories of officers that resulted in a lack of appreciation for formal leaders. In a similar fashion, Krimmel and Lindenmuth's (2001) data indicates a deep level of mistrust for chiefs viewed as out-group members due to their limited prior affiliation with their departments. In concert, these findings suggest that law enforcement leadership is deeply tied to a specific level of operational credibility developed through long-term street service in a particular department. This aligns with combat-related research such as Little (1964) that indicated leaders who are deeply connected to their soldiers and share hardships with them are seen as more effective.

Cunningham, Jones, and Behrens (2011) commented that the modern Chief of Police must "embody the qualities of a military general, a corporate CEO, and a political diplomat, sometimes at the same time (p. 77)." With this wide and varied job description, it is perhaps unsurprising that the literature does not present a coherent definition or concept of police leadership. Dozens of studies, most of which focused on individual departments or small, country-specific case studies, documented law enforcement leaders as employing a wide range of successful and unsuccessful leadership behaviors. The disaggregated nature of law enforcement makes the scattered literature somewhat predictable, as departments have different policies, hiring practices, and conceptions of leadership in response to unique environmental and legal situations. Furthermore, authors

typically focused their efforts on closed cases with limited applicability, which likely served to mask some trends related to leadership choices and approaches. One very general theme that did appear evident, however, is that earlier research is filled with examples of transactional and management-by-exception, while more recent research seems to include more examples of transformational or shared leadership approaches (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Crank, 1998; Densten, 1999; Kapla, 2005; Kuykendall, 1977; Miller et al., 2009; Murphy, 2008; Murphy & Drodge, 2003; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008).

While it is unclear if this data represents an actual trend, the majority of the research seems to suggest that many police leaders either struggle to employ effective leadership techniques or exist within bureaucratic structures that limit their abilities to implement effective strategies. Furthermore, unique cultural factors including the amount of a leader's "street time" and in-group biases also appear to exert significant influence on a chief's ability to lead. The department's status as a public sector entity responsible for reacting to high-risk events may represent one potential reason for these limitations and unique cultural constraints, and the next portion of this review examines crisis leadership to provide a better understanding of how this unique responsibility of police departments impacts leaders' capabilities, perspectives, and leadership approaches.

Crisis Leadership

Policing is a high-risk occupation that exposes involved officers to hazardous driving conditions, dangerous individuals, and dynamic circumstances. According to the National Law Enforcement Officers Memorial Fund, one American law enforcement officer is killed in the line of duty every 58 hours, resulting in over 20,000 deaths since

1791 (“Facts & Figures,” n.d.). To prepare officers for this high-risk environment, police departments often employ boot camp-style initial experiences and provide yearly training designed to improve decision-making processes in dynamic and dangerous situations. Other organizations that expose employees to high-risk circumstances, including military units and fire departments, employ similar techniques and maintain hierarchical leadership structures similar to those found in most American police departments. This section of the review will explore literature related to leadership in high-risk situations in an effort to identify commonalities evident across disciplines. Drawing from studies of leadership execution in military, police, firefighting, and industrial operations, the section will highlight how leadership is expressed in high-risk or crisis situations.

Leadership in Catastrophic Contexts

During catastrophic events, group members are liable to become so overly aroused and emotional that the way they process information and make decisions is fundamentally distorted. Hannah et al. (2009) offered a framework to examine leadership in such situations and categorized police officers as facing unique contingencies that significantly impact leadership processes. The authors identified five dimensions of extreme contexts, including location in time, magnitude of consequences, physical or psychosocial proximity, and form of threat, and explained that these dimensions define a situation’s level of extremity and influence leadership responses. Next, Hannah et al. described the impact of critical events on leadership and suggested that individuals look to leaders to take action and centralize authority as forms of threat become overwhelming. According to the authors, critical events may cause people to engage more intently and typically increase affinity for centralized and autocratic leadership.

Furthermore, critical events can result in the breakdown of organizational roles, require individuals to maintain a high level of vigilance for extended periods, and may even immobilize some individuals due to unforeseen emotive responses. In this environment, leaders who identify a clear goal and those who provide rapid, authoritative responses are more likely to be followed, even if their decisions are poor.

In an analysis of Gladstein and Reilly (1985), Isenberg (1981), Dynes (1983), Mulder, Ritsema van Eck, and de Jong (1971), Hannah et al. (2009) gathered data that indicated decisive leaders are more effective in crisis situations. In extreme events, Hannah et al. (2010) found that directive, decisive, and goal-oriented leaders who established clear guidance and direction to followers were assessed as more effective. For example, if a leader provides clear goals and expectations during a crisis event, team members are likely to display less emotional reactions to stressors during the event.

These conclusions were supported by Heldal and Antonsen's (2014) research from the industrial community and Weick's (1993) exploration of the most significant disaster ever experienced by a US Forest Service firefighting team. Heldal and Antonsen's *Team Leadership in a High-Risk Organization* (2014) examined a Norwegian aluminum plant with a highly present risk of major accidents. Through observation, interviews, and questionnaires, the authors studied how team members experienced leadership in a high-risk environment. Participant responses indicated team members in this environment desired a leadership style that involved forcefully addressing errors and mistakes, taking a clear stand toward issues, and developing trust with subordinates. Simultaneously, team members wanted leaders to remove unnecessary rules and avoid a regulation-only based approach to leadership.

Although Weick (1993) focused on a much different event, his conclusions underscored the importance of continuity, structure, and communication in high-risk situations. Weick chronicled the sad story of the 1949 Mann Gulch disaster. The disaster occurred when thirteen firefighters died fighting a mountainside blaze in Montana. Sixteen firefighters parachuted into Mann Gulch to fight the blaze, which quickly trapped the team and created a panic environment. The team leader instructed members to drop their tools and shelter behind a fire he himself set for protection, but most members ignored his instructions and attempted to outrun the flames. The leader and the one man who followed his instructions survived, while only one man who ran from the flames lived through the experience.

Post-event analysis identified a list of factors that contributed to the breakdown; first and foremost, the team was newly formed and had not trained together frequently and, as such, the men perceived their team construct as weak (Weick, 1993). This weak construct fell apart in the face of threat, and each man pursued what he thought was his own best interest instead of recognizing team leadership and hierarchy. Furthermore, team members possessed weak trust relationships with the team leader, and these weak trust relationships caused them to question his initial instructions and enabled them to disregard his orders during the crisis. This analysis aligned with Hannah, Campbell, and Matthews (2010), who indicated when a sufficient level of trust is not met during a crisis event, leadership influence may not take place and in extreme cases mutinies may occur. Weick (1993) ultimately concluded that organizations with strong roles, team identities, and high levels of trust between members will perform better in crisis situations than organizations that lack those attributes.

Flexibility during Crisis Events

Baran and Scott (2010) identified similar themes after analyzing one-hundred reports of “near-miss” situations in which firefighters provided retrospective accounts of situations where they or team members narrowly escaped injury or death. With the objective of developing a grounded theory of leadership processes within extreme events, the authors defined leadership as “the social process of reducing contextual ambiguity through interaction to achieve goals” and identified common themes from the near-miss reports (p. 46). Through their review, they found that leadership in dangerous contexts required participants to continually make sense of their environment through framing, constantly communicate, and always assess the intended and unintended consequences of their actions. In addition to these items, the authors identified that successful crisis leaders encouraged questioning and enabled team members to help interpret volatile situations. Instead of directing and controlling every action of their subordinates during a crisis event, these successful leaders trusted their subordinates’ insights, allowed subordinates to help frame the situation, and initiated alternate courses of action after developing an understanding that a situation had dramatically changed. Kapucu and Van Wart (2008) also found this adaptive approach essential in crisis and concluded that “catastrophes require leaders to be flexible” in the decision-making process (p. 731). This conclusion aligns with Little (1964), who determined that successful combat leaders become less formal as a crisis escalates, and with Burgess, Riddle, Hall, and Salas (1992), who suggested that effective crisis leaders are more approachable, less intimidating, and receptive to obtaining input from others.

Organizational Position during Crisis Events

In addition to identifying flexibility as key to successful crisis performance, Baran and Scott (2010) highlighted a tenuous connection between formal organizational position and leadership capacity during an extreme event. In other words, the characteristics and actions that seemed to result in positive outcomes during crisis events – flexibility, questioning, enabling, collective ambiguity reduction – were not always initiated from formal leaders. Because most organizations that face extreme events such as law enforcement agencies, fire departments, and military units are hierarchical in nature (Wong, Bliese, and McGurk, 2003), the authors suggested that participants in these organizations must “negotiate the shifting demands of crisis situations with respect to a variety of formal structures” (p. 47). Frequently, this negotiation is aided in crisis by the existence of these formal positions, which appear to provide all participants with a reasonable understanding of how other group members will think and behave given their assigned roles (Baran & Scott, 2010).

According to Hannah et al. (2010), we know very little about how crisis leadership really operates and what constitutes effective leadership in dangerous contexts. The complex, emotionally-charged nature of crisis events makes it difficult to accurately determine how leaders and team members will react, and the motivations that drive behavior in critical situations may make it almost impossible for leaders to truly influence their teams (Arndt, Greenberg, Pyszczynski, Solomon & Simon, 1997). However, several key themes are evident throughout crisis leadership literature focused on a wide variety of military, law enforcement, industrial, and firefighting applications. First, the use of decisive and directive behavior appears to improve perceptions of a leader’s performance

in a critical event. Somewhat paradoxically, so too does flexibility and a willingness to revise strategies based on input from subordinate team members. Trust also appears to heavily influence a leader's crisis performance, with trusted leaders performing well in critical incidents and a lack of trust leading to discord and even a refusal to abide by a leader's strategy. Finally, leaders who inspire positive emotions tend to be more effective in crisis situations.

Several of these positive characteristics are reflected in the general literature on law enforcement leadership, which suggests that some law enforcement leaders possess the temperament and ability to effectively lead in crisis. Furthermore, from sharing values with subordinates to turning constraints into opportunities to relying on field experience to frame and contextualize crisis situations, crisis and non-crisis leadership approaches appear to share some commonalities. In the law enforcement-specific literature, Kuykendall's (1977) finding that law enforcement leaders became more directive and less people-oriented during crisis and reverted back to a personnel-centric leadership style appears to indicate that a law enforcement leader must have the ability to move into and out of crisis leadership mode as necessary, and developing a leadership style that is able to incorporate the factors common to both crisis and non-crisis leadership may help a law enforcement leader succeed in a variety of situations.

Cognitive Dissonance

With the literature suggesting the existence of a disconnect between what police leaders identify as their leadership priorities and their actions in practice, the review will next examine cognitive dissonance. Law enforcement leaders must lead within a unique culture and organizational structure, and the research indicates the public sector nature of

police departments as well as their unique responsibilities and acculturation processes impact the leadership environment and require the application of varied leadership strategies. To examine the evident gap between priority and practice, the review will explore how cognitive dissonance presents in general leadership, management, and organizational change research. While the research concerning cognitive dissonance in police leadership is slim, the review will examine how leaders in a variety of other contexts experienced, demonstrated, and worked through dissonant behaviors. In doing so, the review will provide a theoretical background that aids in understanding how chiefs recognize and experience the contradiction between their style preference and leadership actions.

According to Festinger (1957), cognitive dissonance theory (CDT) suggests that people strive for behavioral consistency whenever possible. When a person holds two or more ideas, beliefs, or attitudes that contradict or are inconsistent and it is not possible to maintain this behavioral consistency, he or she will experience a state of ‘dissonance’ until it is possible to resolve the state (Aronson, 1969; Festinger, 1957). Three main circumstances cause dissonance to occur. First, counter-attitudinal behaviors, or circumstances when individuals act in a way that is counter to an attitude or belief that they hold, will create cognitive dissonance. Second, free choice, or the ability to choose the best option while simultaneously recognizing that all available alternatives are imperfect, will also inspire cognitive dissonance. Third, effort and commitment can also inspire dissonance; in order to seek behavioral consistency, people will exaggerate the positive attributes of existing actions or systems and discount attributes of alternative actions or systems (Jermais, 2001).

When dissonance, which Hinojosa, Gardner, Walker, Cogliser, and Guillifor (2017) described as an uncomfortable affect and Burnes & James (1995) described as a “frustrated” feeling occurs, individuals are motivated to search for ways to reduce the discrepancies between inconsistent ideas. Reducing discrepancies creates a stable state with minimal dissonance. According to Burnes & James (1995), it is unlikely that dissonance can ever be entirely avoided, but it can be reduced by attitude or behavior changes. This reduction is typically achieved by changing beliefs to reduce distance between ideas, acquiring new information that updates or outweighs the inconsistent ideas, or reducing the importance of the beliefs, attitudes, or ideas in question.

While Festinger (1957) theorized that individuals experience dissonance when they encounter inconsistent cognitions, Steele (1988) opined that individuals are motivated to maintain a positive self-image and dissonance occurs when ideas or experiences threaten this positive self-image. A desire for a positive self-image produces the need to justify decisions, rationalize past choices, and mentally suppress information indicating past decisions were incorrect (Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988). All of these actions aim to decrease or eliminate information that conflicts with an individual’s positive self-image.

In a break from Festinger (1957) and Steele (1988), Stone & Cooper (2010) defined dissonance as being related to adherence to cultural standards. He posited that dissonance begins when an individual behaves in a certain manner that conflicts with culturally or personally acceptable behavior standards. When an individual engages in a behavior and then assesses that behavior against some cultural criteria, any discrepancies between the two creates dissonance that the individual must address.

Reacting to Dissonance

In each of these constructs, the dissonance created by conflict between one's thoughts, self-conceptions, or adherence to standards inspires adjustment in thoughts, behaviors, or ideas to minimize conflict and attain behavioral consistency. People adjust in a variety of ways to attain consistency. First, people may selectively process information in a manner that aligns with their existing beliefs (Molenberghs et al., 2017). For example, Molenberghs et al. (2017) conducted functional MRI examinations on 40 participants and measured neural activity stimulated by specific statements about Australian political parties. The researchers found that, when presented with identical statements, participants judged their affiliated political party as inspirational and the alternative political party as non-inspirational. Furthermore, participants demonstrated more activation in five specific brain regions when receiving messages from their party's leader, suggesting greater brain activation occurs when an individual receives an inspirational message from an in-group leader (Molenberghs et al., 2017). By selectively assessing the value of statements in a manner that conformed to their pre-existing political beliefs, participants maintained consistency with their political preferences and discounted identical data delivered by the opposing party. Engaging in selective information processing typically occurs when a preferred alternative exists, and selectively processing information enables an individual to choose the alternative that aligns most with existing preferences.

In addition to selective information processing, people attain consistency by adjusting responses to choice. When forced to make a difficult choice between similar alternatives, people increase the favorability of their chosen alternative and decrease the

favorability of unselected alternatives (Hinojosa et al., 2017). Doing so provides additional justification for their choice and reinforces the decision to avoid rejected alternatives (Jermais, 2001). In some cases, increasing favorability occurs in concert with commitment escalation, a state when decision makers redouble their commitment to a decision, even when that chosen decision may no longer be appropriate. This escalation occurs out of a desire to justify the decision, and results in increasing adherence to the course of action in question (Brockner, 1992). For example, after making substantial monetary, time, and effort expenditures on ideas, entrepreneurs may become overcommitted and lose objectivity while at the same time questioning if their efforts were worth it (Telci et al., 2011). According to Telci et al. (2011), this inconsistency leads some entrepreneurs to search for information that validates their decisions and avoid any negative data, placing their efforts at risk.

Another means of achieving behavioral consistency requires individuals to ignore information that may increase dissonance. Ignoring or discounting feedback about past performance or actively avoiding situations and information that will increase dissonance enables individuals to align their decisions and actions with accessed information and discount alternatives (Burnes & James, 1995). Consciously ignoring information that may challenge existing beliefs, actions, or decisions decreases opportunities to observe conflicting data and reinforces the status quo.

Dissonance and Leadership

With CDT suggesting that individuals are constantly adjusting their decisions, perspectives, and actions in order to achieve consistency, dissonance has a significant influence on leader behavior. First, leaders may encounter dissonance when the

organization's structure, products, and goals do not fit with its environment or when the organization's goals and vision do not align with the leader's own goals and vision. When organizational values and perspectives are misaligned with environmental and market realities, a leader is forced to minimize differences or change organizational values in order to sustain a viable organization. Similarly, when a leader's values and goals are misaligned with the organizations, the leader is forced to minimize differences or change values in order to attain consistency. Burnes and James (1995) argued that transformational leadership is the most appropriate management style in situations when an organization's established goals and structures are misaligned with the environment. According to Burnes and James (1995) transformational leaders may be opposed to the status quo and are able to unite followers behind a new vision of the organization's future. In circumstances where an organization's structure or products are not aligned with market realities, a transformational leader can identify a new vision and adjust organizational behavior in support of that vision.

Dissonance and Leading Change

While a transformational leader may inspire employees to adjust an organization, identifying a new vision and leading organizational change also risks creating cognitive dissonance among leaders and employees. According to Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) individuals are biased toward retaining status quo choices and will interpret subsequent information in favor of the status quo choice. This occurs because choosing an alternative raises its value and decreases the value of prior organizational actions and structures. Furthermore, employees' willingness to participate in change initiatives varies greatly and, when changes threaten existing organizational processes or hierarchies,

leaders may experience status quo bias or commitment escalation. For example, in an experiment involving 82 first-year accounting students, Jermais (2001) examined status quo and commitment biases by providing information about two types of costing systems and then assigning each participant to select a preferred system. Next, each participant evaluated the usefulness of both systems and then used their chosen system in a pricing problem that, if managed correctly, could earn them a \$5 bonus. After receiving feedback on their problem solving efforts, participants provided additional feedback on their chosen system and their willingness to adopt the alternative system.

After analyzing participant feedback and adherence to chosen systems, Jermais (2001) observed that participants who were committed to a particular system remained with that system regardless of the feedback they received. Furthermore, participants provided higher ratings to statements that confirmed the usefulness of chosen systems and discounted statements that discounted chosen systems. Additionally, participants who were committed gave higher ratings to chosen systems than control group members. In demonstrating these behaviors, participants exhibited the ability to ignore feedback and remain committed to a selected course of action irrespective of the negative consequences. By ignoring data and feedback that countered their desired conclusions, participants' actions suggested that commitment to an idea, method, or strategy increases cognitive dissonance and decreases the ability to assess feedback in an impartial manner.

To combat the increased dissonance that occurs when an employee is committed to an existing course of action, Jermais (2001) and Burnes and James (1995) suggest involving employees in the change process and providing employees some choice about the scope and manner of changes. According to Jermais (2001), if people are involved in

a change process from an early stage, they will be much more committed to implementing the new initiative. Jermais (2001) suggested that the choice to participate in the initiative from an early stage will increase participants' commitment and result in the discounting of alternatives. Similarly, Burnes and James (1995) suggested that employees' attitudes must align with a change project in order for the project to succeed. According to Burnes and James (1995), "If an organization embarks on a change project which is markedly out of step with the attitudes of those concerned, it will meet resistance unless those concerned change their attitudes; and this is only likely to occur if they believe that they have some choice in the matter" (p. 17).

In an organizational change scenario, a deep commitment to the status quo, a tendency to ignore negative feedback about the status quo, and commitment escalation when the status quo is challenged make it more difficult for leaders to implement and sustain changes. Individuals are biased toward retaining status quo choices and will interpret subsequent information in favor of the status quo choice. Furthermore, as commitment to the status quo increases, willingness to change decreases. These biases make it difficult for leaders to implement change initiatives, and requires leaders to change employee attitudes, include employees in the change process, and work to align change initiatives and employee attitudes.

Dissonance and Decision Making

In addition to significantly impacting change initiatives, cognitive dissonance also influences how and why leaders make decisions. With CDT suggesting leaders exaggerate the usefulness of their chosen systems and processes, discount the usefulness of other systems, and invest additional energy into justifying their existing strategies,

leaders' decisions are strongly influenced by the desire to attain behavioral consistency. Interestingly, the attitude changes required to attain this behavioral consistency are often instantaneous and occur during, not after, the decision-making process. According to Jarcho, Berkman, and Lieberman (2011), the psychological distress associated with cognitive dissonance can be resolved rapidly, with attitudinal changes occurring as a byproduct of the decision-making process itself. Jarcho et al. (2011) conducted fMRI tests on 21 subjects to investigate brain activity during the decision-making process. Subjects first rated their liking for 140 names and 140 paintings, and then, while undergoing an fMRI, researchers presented subjects with pairs of names and paintings. Subjects chose the item in each pair that they preferred, and researchers observed brain activity during the decision-making process.

After examining neuroimaging results, Jarcho et al. (2011) observed a positive correlation between inferior frontal gyrus (IFG) activity and attitude change and a negative correlation between anterior insula activity and attitude change. With the IFG responsible for relieving conflict or distress produced early in the decision-making process, the authors suggested that the increased IFG activity indicated a moderating of stress produced while weighing options and the decrease in anterior insula activity indicated a lessening of affective distress or discomfort. In other words, Jarcho et al. (2011) observed physiological processes occurring during the decision-making process that quickly minimized dissonance and occurred without the individual's explicit intention (Jarcho et al., 2011).

While decision-makers appear to unwittingly employ some physiological processes to manage dissonance, they also consciously adjust their behavior as a result of

negative consequences. For example, in a 1976 study, Staw (1976) observed as 240 undergraduate students participated in a role-playing game in which they played a corporate executive required to make decisions about the allocation of corporate funds to particular divisions. After initially allocating research and development money, the students were randomly provided information showing that their choices had either positively or negatively benefited the chosen division and then instructed to make additional allocations. During subsequent allocations, individuals invested a significantly larger sum of money when they were personally responsible for negative consequences. Staw (1976) concluded that individuals who are personally responsible for negative consequences will increase the investment of resources in a previously chosen course of action.

When combined with a leader's propensity to engage in effort justification, Staw's (1976) conclusions indicate that individuals in leadership roles are likely not neutral decision-makers who analyze facts and select optimal alternatives. Instead, leaders appear to be biased toward retaining their choices even when conditions change and, if their choices inspire negative consequences, leaders who are personally responsible for those consequences will increase the allocation of resources to their choices instead of selecting an alternative course of action.

Within the unique and specific leadership environment of a police department, leader style preferences appear to differ from leader actions, and it is likely that chiefs are impacted by dissonance as they develop organizational visions, make decisions, and lead organizational change initiatives. This dissonance is almost certainly impacted by the unique structural and cultural factors that influence departments, and chiefs must navigate

contradictions between preference and actions by working within the specific leadership context of their departments. The research on cognitive dissonance suggests that conflict between one's thoughts, self-conceptions, or adherence to standards inspires attitudinal or physiological adjustments in order to minimize conflict and attain behavioral consistency. While the environment of a police department is unique, dissonance likely inspires typical attitudinal or physiological adjustments among chiefs, including selective information processing, increasing the favorability of chosen options and decreasing favorability of non-selected options, escalating commitment to chosen options, and ignoring information that increases dissonance. Furthermore, these adjustments include unwitting physiological responses that help chiefs manage conflict during the decision making process. While these adjustments occur within a unique environment, they nevertheless likely align with the behaviors exhibited by leaders in more traditional business-related disciplines.

Summary

This literature review briefly focused on elements that impact how leadership is executed and experienced in the law enforcement context. First, the review focused on one potential reason for law enforcement leaders' apparent preference for management over leadership, namely departments' status as public sector entities. The review briefly described the major characteristics of public sector entities, which include a stability-seeking nature, a rigid hierarchical construct, and a reliance on top-down communication, and analyzed how these characteristics influence recruitment, employee management, and leadership expectations. Generally, the research suggests that public sector entities appear to prefer management over leadership, but the body of work does include multiple

examples of successful transformational and charismatic leadership approaches. Overall, it does appear that the nature of public sector entities creates a leadership environment that is heavily impacted by structural and fiscal constraints, and these influences shape the sector's attitude toward specific leadership practices.

Next, the review explored recent research on leadership in law enforcement.

While the disaggregated nature of law enforcement in the United States makes it difficult to draw any large-scale conclusions from the case study-based examinations that make up the bulk of the available works, the body of research does suggest that several structural and cultural characteristics impact how law enforcement leaders behave and act. Within these constraints, it appears that leaders' preferences have slowly shifted over time, with earlier research frequently documenting transactional and management-by-exception approaches and more recent research including more examples of transformational and shared leadership approaches. Overall, the literature presents a mixed picture of department leaders' leadership competence, and indicates many leaders approach their formal positions from a management, not leadership, perspective.

While law enforcement departments are clearly public sector entities that are impacted by the sector's unique structural, mission, and fiscal challenges, law enforcement officers are expected to engage in difficult and dangerous situations that the average public sector employee will never participate in. The next section of the review focused on leadership in these "crisis" situations and examined how leadership is perceived and executed in life-threatening or high-risk circumstances. These circumstances appear to distort involved individuals' ability to process information and make decisions and, as such, the literature suggested a preference for directive,

centralized leadership actions during crisis events. Simultaneously, however, various works also stressed flexibility and adaptability under pressure, and described the optimal crisis leader as trustworthy, approachable, inspirational, and clear. In totality, the data appeared to indicate crisis leaders must rely on trust established prior to the crisis event and balance a complex mixture of directive, participative, and collaborative behaviors as the event progresses.

Finally, the review examined the concept of cognitive dissonance and connected cognitive dissonance to leadership. The research on cognitive dissonance suggests that conflict between one's thoughts, self-conceptions, or adherence to standards inspires attitudinal or physiological adjustments in order to minimize conflict and attain behavioral consistency. While the environment of a police department is unique, dissonance likely inspires typical attitudinal or physiological adjustments among chiefs, including selective information processing, increasing the favorability of chosen options and decreasing favorability of non-selected options, escalating commitment to chosen options, and ignoring information that increases dissonance. In total, the data suggested a leader reacts to dissonance in a somewhat predictable fashion, and chiefs may experience the dissonance between preferred and used leadership style in ways that decrease opportunities for change, minimize process improvement, and retain established procedures.

When analyzed as a whole, these areas describe a very complex, multi-layered leadership environment in law enforcement departments. Structural, fiscal, and cultural influences, especially those pressures exerted by the public nature of departments, create conditions that favor hierarchy, top-down communication, and politically directed

organizational objectives. Unique attributes, especially an exclusive monopoly over state-sanctioned violence and crisis responsibilities, also heavily influence how officers interact with each other, and multiple studies suggest the existence of some experience bias among law enforcement officers. In the challenging conditions within which these officers operate, this experience bias translates into the view that in-group status and “street time” are viewed as prerequisites to effective leadership. Furthermore, leaders and the officers they lead appear to prefer one specific type of crisis leadership and employ a variety of non-crisis leadership styles that are based on various transactional, management-by-exception, transformational, or shared leadership approaches. Finally, leaders are likely impacted by cognitive dissonance as they attempt to align leadership preferences with realities. Overall, these factors combine to create a tremendously complex leadership environment that significantly impacts how police chiefs are able to execute intricate policing strategies, effectively employ advanced technologies, and lead functional departments.

In Chapter 3, I will articulate the methodology this study used to examine the phenomenon. First, I will outline the study’s phenomenological design, and then provide detailed information on study participants. Next, I will describe the semi-structured interview process I employed to obtain information from participants and recount the procedures I used to collect and analyze data in an ethical and comprehensive manner.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead. The apparent disconnect between law enforcement leader style preferences and actions suggests that law enforcement leadership in practice may differ from the theoretical constructs valued by leaders in the field (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). This may indicate that either cultural, structural, or political barriers prevent leaders from employing particular leadership techniques or that leaders' perceptions of their actions differ from how their subordinates observe and assess their leadership behaviors. Understanding how police chiefs in Massachusetts navigated this cognitive dissonance added to the understanding of how leadership is practiced in a policing context and provided the foundation for leadership training recommendations for Massachusetts police officers.

The Research Question

With the literature suggesting police leaders value transformational and servant leadership but often practice in a transactional manner, this study examined how police chiefs in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts experience using their preferred leadership styles within the leadership culture of their departments (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). In order to explore this area, this phenomenological study focused on the following research question:

Research Question: How do Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations?

Research Design

This study employed qualitative research methodology to examine the lived leadership experiences of police chiefs in Massachusetts. Creswell (2013) described qualitative research as research using interpretative or theoretical frameworks that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups assign to a social or human problem. Similarly, Sutton and Austin (2015) explained that qualitative research can help researchers to access the thoughts and feelings of research participants, which can enable development of an understanding of the meaning that people ascribe to their experiences. When using qualitative methods to study a human problem, researchers collect data in a natural setting sensitive to the people under study, analyze that data, and establish patterns or themes (Creswell, 2013).

To examine police chiefs' leadership experiences and understand the meaning they assigned to those experiences, this study employed a phenomenological design. Creswell (2013) explained a phenomenological study describes the common meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or phenomenon. According to Van Manen (2017), "lived" experience equates with living through a:

Prereflective, prepredicative, nonreflective, or atheoretic experience while realizing that we cannot simply access the living meaning of lived experiences through introspective reflection. As soon as we turn to reflect on an experience that we have in this very moment, we inevitably immediately have stepped away from or out of the living sphere or sensibility of the livedness of lived experience. (p. 812)

As such, a phenomenological study works to retrospectively bring to awareness some lived through experience to be able to reflect phenomenologically on the living meaning of this lived experience (Van Manen, 2017). Furthermore, phenomenological studies attempt to develop a composite description of a phenomenon and, in doing so, provide some shared meaning to the phenomenon. By reducing individual experiences with the phenomenon or concept to a shared, universal ‘essence,’ phenomenological studies develop a composite description of a phenomenon that each individual experienced in a unique, subjective manner. In this study, the phenomenon under review was the cognitive dissonance between how Massachusetts police chiefs wanted to lead and how they did lead.

A phenomenological design was the most appropriate research method for this study. Merriam stated that a phenomenological inquiry is an “attempt to deal with inner experiences unprobed in everyday life” (2002, p. 7). This unique focus on examining real, lived experiences provides researchers with the ability to deeply examine the subjective experiences of participants and use those subjective experiences to develop a common meaning. According to Van Manen, what makes phenomenology so fascinating is that “any ordinary lived through experience tends to become quite extraordinary when we lift it up from our daily existence and hold it with our phenomenological gaze” (2017, p. 812). By providing the opportunity to deeply examine every day lived experiences, phenomenological approaches help researchers examine complex and ambiguous topics through the understandable, real experiences of participants.

‘Leadership’ is an inherently complex and ambiguous topic, and study participants experienced leadership in unique and subjective ways. By analyzing these

subjective differences and describing participants' common meaning of the cognitive dissonance between how Massachusetts police chiefs wanted to lead and how they did lead, a phenomenological approach provided the most appropriate opportunity to understand participants' unique experiences and use these experiences to develop a broad understanding of this phenomenon as experienced by city police chiefs in Massachusetts. This understanding, in turn, informed the development of recommendations for leadership training content for police leaders.

Participants/Data Sources

According to Boyd (2001), researchers using a qualitative methodology can typically achieve saturation with two to ten participants. For a phenomenological study, Creswell (2013) suggested a heterogeneous group that varies from three to four individuals to 10 to 15. The 2008 Census of State and Local Law Enforcement Agencies conducted by the US Department of Justice, documented that the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has 357 law enforcement agencies employing 18,342 sworn police officers. Of these agencies, 53 represent police departments serving areas defined by Massachusetts as cities, and the rest represent departments serving areas defined as towns or universities. This study initially focused on city police departments due to the varied sizes of town departments. Town departments can include teams as small as one or two officers and may provide unique mixes of full-time and reserve officers that differ from more stable city departments. I originally intended to limit the sample to cities to ensure participating police chiefs had subordinate employees to lead.

To identify and recruit a sample that represented city police chiefs, the study first employed two criteria when selecting participants from these 53 departments. These

criteria resulted in the inclusion of participants who (a) were chief of a department that served a metropolitan area defined by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts as a city with a population of over 25,000 residents; and (b) led a department with between 16.4 and 24.64 sworn officers per 10 thousand residents.

According to a Governing review of 2016 Federal Bureau of Investigations Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) data, the average US city police department serving a population of over 25,000 residents fields 16.8 sworn officers for every ten thousand residents (“Police employment,” 2018). In Massachusetts, specific data is available for 44 of the 53 governing entities defined as cities. On average, these cities have a population of 65,310 citizens and their corresponding departments average 174 sworn police officers and a ratio of 20.54 police officers per 10,000 civilians (“Massachusetts State Data Center,” 2018; “Police employment,” 2018).

To obtain a broadly representative sample from the available departments, this study originally focused on those cities that had officer per 10,000 civilian ratios of between 80% - 120% of the Commonwealth average, or between 16.4 and 24.64 sworn officers per 10,000 residents. The number of officers per 10,000 civilians is a useful measure of a department’s budget, manpower, and size, and chiefs who lead departments with similar ratios may share fiscal and structural constraints and opportunities. Of the 53 Commonwealth governing entities defined as cities, 27 were characterized by populations of over 25,000 and an officer-population ratio of between 16.4 and 24.64. These cities are identified in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Initial Sample by Department

City	Population	Officers per 10,000 Residents	Total Sworn Officers
Weymouth Town city	55,972	16.4	92
Beverly city	41,365	16.5	68
Malden city	60,840	16.5	101
Melrose city	27,928	16.7	47
Newton city	89,045	16.7	149
Peabody city	52,491	17.5	92
Attleboro city	44,434	17.9	79
Medford city	57,213	18	103
Revere city	53,157	18.3	98
Methuen Town city	49,917	18.6	93
Woburn city	39,452	18.9	75
Watertown Town city	35,025	19.3	67
Fitchburg city	40,414	19.3	78
Westfield city	41,552	19.4	81
Lynn city	92,697	19.6	181
Brockton city	95,630	19.6	187
Taunton city	56,843	20.1	114
Braintree Town city	37,297	20.4	77
Lowell city	110,558	21.5	239
Everett city	46,340	21.6	101
Northampton city	28,483	22.1	63
Pittsfield city	42,846	22.3	96
Waltham city	63,002	22.5	143
Quincy city	93,688	22.5	210
Chicopee city	55,991	23.2	132
Salem city	43,132	23.3	100
Worcester city	184,508	23.6	435

To access this population, I requested that the Massachusetts Police Training Committee (MPTC) email a participant invitation to all 27 chiefs (see Appendix A). MPTC is responsible for the development, delivery, and enforcement of training standards for municipal, Environmental, and University of Massachusetts police, and maintains databases of departments and department leaders. The participant invitation

invited all 27 eligible chiefs to participate in a telephonic or in-person interview with me. MPTC emailed the participant invitation to these chiefs, and three agreed to be interviewed. Subsequent re-contact attempts to the remaining 24 eligible chiefs in accordance with my approved Institutional Review Board application did not generate additional volunteers.

After exhausting all approved re-contact attempts, I determined it was necessary to broaden the study's sample size in order to obtain a meaningful sample. While Creswell (2013) suggested a sample of between three and 15 may be sufficient to reach saturation, the variability in leadership experiences between police departments suggested additional interviews were required to obtain saturation. As such, I broadened the sample size to include all police chiefs in Massachusetts and used MPTC to send participant invitations to all municipal and university chiefs in the Commonwealth. In response to this email, I received six additional interview volunteers, including five town police chiefs and one university police chief. Basic demographic characteristics of each participating chief are listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Participant	Employment Type	Sex	Age	Years as a Police Officer	Years as a Police Chief	Highest Level of Education
2389	City	F	44	23	4	Master's
2390	City	M	49	25	12	Master's
2391	City	M	61	32	1	Master's
2392	Town	M	54	33	10	Master's
2393	University	M	56	32	9	Master's
2395	Town	M	51	30	16	Master's
2396	Town	M	57	33	17	Master's
2397	Town	M	50	26	6	Master's
2398	Town	M	53	32	4	Associate's

These nine participants represented approximately 2.5% of all police chiefs in Massachusetts and possessed an average age of 52.7 years, an average of 29.5 years of police experience, and an average of 8.7 years as a police chief. While all nine participants possessed a significant amount of policing experience, years as a chief varied widely. The most experienced chiefs possessed 16 and 17 years as a chief, respectively, while one participant possessed one year as a chief and several others possessed six or fewer years in the position. Multiple chiefs also served as officers in at least two agencies, with one chief working for five agencies in his career and several others working for three different police departments. On average, participants reported working for two departments during their policing careers.

In their current positions, study participants led departments that provided policing services to populations that varied from over 100,000 to approximately 5,000. These differences in served population resulted in large variations between department sizes; while some participants led departments that employed over 200 officers, other study participants led much smaller organizations. Finally, participants provided policing services to a wide range of constituents and experienced significant differences in crime rate and crime type. Overall, study participants represented a diverse mix of university, town, and city departments.

While participants possessed a significant amount of policing experience and deep familiarity with the role of the police chief, this sample was not sufficient to reach saturation. The majority of police chiefs in Massachusetts declined to participate in this study, and the researcher exhausted all approved participant acquisition strategies in order to obtain nine participants. Snowball techniques were unsuccessful; all participants were

asked to provide the names of additional potential study participants, but most did not provide any substantive information. While Creswell (2013) suggested a sample of between three and 15 may be sufficient to reach saturation, the variability between leadership experiences at the university, town, and city levels suggest a larger sample is required. While I identified 13 coded clusters and three emerging themes, the distinct differences between a chief's role in the city, town, and university contexts indicates additional interviews may lead to the adjustment or replacement of the clusters and themes that emerged during interviews of study participants.

Data Collection Tools

To focus participants on providing data that fully describes their experiences with a phenomenon, Moustakas (1994) suggested phenomenological studies should pose two broad questions, including “What have you experienced in terms of the phenomenon?” and “What contexts or situations have typically influenced or affected your experience of the phenomenon?” These questions, which help researchers obtain an understanding of participants' common experiences, were modified for inclusion in this study's interview protocol. To collect data, I employed a semi-structured interview protocol. The protocol contained a demographic information section and then one main interview question designed to facilitate responses from participating police chiefs. To obtain deep and meaningful data, the protocol included seven open-ended follow up questions as well.

The protocol included the following questions, which are also available in Appendix B:

Main Interview Question: Think about a time, or times, as a police chief where you felt challenged by how you wanted to lead, or should lead, and how you did lead because of the structure of the organization, or the department. In other

words, identify on a time where you felt pulled between how you should lead and how you did lead.

Follow up Questions:

1. Can you tell me about that? Who was involved? When? What did that feel like?
2. When you think about that experience, what does that mean to you?
3. As a police chief, what impacted your ability to lead (act) in the way you preferred?
4. How did you adjust to those forces that impacted your ability to lead in the way you preferred?
5. How did it feel navigating that experience?
6. Are you able to act or behave as a leader in the way you would like in your department?
7. Do you have any advice for others who encounter this phenomenon?

The semi-structured interview was the most appropriate method to collect data in this phenomenological study. According to Van den Berg (2005), interviewing is an effective technique for collecting data about participants' lived experiences. For phenomenological studies, which focus on understanding how participants experienced a specific phenomenon, Van Manen (1990) suggested taping interviews and Creswell (2013) concurred with the use of in-depth interviews as a data collection strategy. Semi-structured interviews, which provide consistency while simultaneously enabling participants to share unique and subjective insights, help the phenomenological

researcher gain insight into participants' real lived experiences without limiting participants' ability to answer questions in a personal and unique way.

Data Collection Procedures

To collect data, I conducted semi-structured telephonic interviews of all nine participating police chiefs. To arrange each interview, MPTC emailed participant invitations to an initial sample of 27 city police chiefs, and later to all city, town, and university police chiefs in Massachusetts. When I received a telephone or electronic message from a potential participant, I corresponded via electronic mail with that individual. During this correspondence, I requested a 30-minute appointment to conduct a short interview and provided instructions on how to access the Free Conference Call line I used to record all interviews. After a chief identified a suitable time, I confirmed that time with an electronic message.

Ten minutes prior to each interview's scheduled time, I accessed the Free Conference Call telephone line, provided administrator information, and began recording the line. Before the interview began, I recited a spoken preamble that identified the date, time, and assigned code number for the interview. When a chief called in at the specified time, I identified myself, provided the code number, and reminded the chief that all information provided would be confidential and the code number would protect his or her identity. Next, I began the interview protocol and continued until all protocol questions were completed. This process resulted in interviews that ranged from 23 minutes to 37 minutes.

As I conducted the interviews, I took field notes and, when necessary, identified areas that required bracketing to control for my own biases. According to Fisher (2009),

bracketing is intended to help researchers identify their perspectives and to examine them. During this examination process, the researcher reflects on his or her background and how it engages with obtained data. In doing so, the researcher is more able to determine if he or she is imposing meaning on the data. Creswell (2013) stated that a phenomenological researcher can bracket himself or herself out of a study by freely discussing personal experiences with the phenomenon in question.

Rather than removing the author, providing this information allows readers to better determine if the researcher solely focused on participant experiences. In this study, I employed bracketing by freely discussing my background and experiences as they relate to law enforcement leadership in the Limitations, Delimitations, and Personal Biases section. Doing so provided readers with necessary context and minimized opportunities for unwitting bias. Furthermore, in my field notes, I documented any ideas or feelings that arose during interviews. When coding and theming data, I reviewed these notes and ensured that these ideas and feelings did not influence analysis of the data. I did so by acknowledging these ideas and feelings existed, identifying them, and separating them from data provided by participants. Finally, my committee chair and I discussed information obtained during interviews and examined strategies aimed at identifying and bracketing my perspectives.

After completing each interview, I used Temi, a web-based audio translation engine, to transcribe the interview's audio file. I reviewed each transcription and manually corrected errors made by Temi's translation algorithm. During this review, I used the Temi dashboard to identify sections translated with minimal accuracy, then listened to the corresponding audio segments. I then adjusted the transcript to accurately

reflect each interaction. Upon finalization of all transcripts, I emailed transcript copies to each participant to ensure all participants were able to check their interview transcript for accuracy. Seven participants responded to this message, with one participant providing two corrections. I then loaded all transcripts into Dedoose for coding and analysis.

My background, perspectives, and experiences were pertinent and played a role in this study. I worked as a full-time or part-time law enforcement officer for approximately fourteen years and served as the equivalent of a police chief on two occasions. Furthermore, I worked with MPTC to develop a new basic police training academy for city, university, and transit police in Massachusetts. During this project, I interacted with approximately 200 police subject matter experts from throughout Massachusetts. This group of subject matter experts included police officers, state troopers, and sheriff's deputies of all ranks including chiefs.

Ethical Considerations

This study addressed ethical issues related to participant consent, confidentiality, data storage, and results dissemination. As a study involving the recording of human voice, this project required approval through the IRB Expedited Review Procedure. As part of this procedure, the study included formal written participant invitations emailed to each potential participant (Appendix B) and formal participant information letters provided to each interviewee prior to their participation in the study (Appendix C). The project was assigned IRB Number 1414430-1 and was granted exempt status on March 27, 2019 (Appendix D). Along with these procedural requirements, the study addressed ethical issues related to participant confidentiality. To ensure participant confidentiality, each participant was assigned a numeric identifier and I maintained a master list with

participant names and identifiers in a controlled environment. Furthermore, each participant information letter contained a confidentiality paragraph, which is accessible in Appendix C.

In addition to participant confidentiality, this study ensured data security by encrypting all data and storing all research materials at a third party SSAE 16/SOC 2 audited data center. To access the data, I used a unique username and password combination. Finally, I notified participants that the results of the study could be published in a professional journal, and all data published would be presented in a non-attributable manner.

Data Analysis Process and Procedures

After providing interview participants the opportunity to review transcripts, I organized the data for analysis using Dedoose, a web-based application for analyzing qualitative and mixed methods research. I employed Georgi's phenomenological data analysis approach as described by Phillips-Pula, Strunk, and Pickler (2011). This approach has four distinct steps, and I conducted the steps in the following manner:

(1) I closely reviewed each interview transcript to ensure my background and perspectives did not influence participant descriptions.

(2) I used Dedoose to identify significant shared terms, ideas, and themes. I categorized these as relevant statements and grouped statements containing similar thematic content. This resulted in the emergence of 13 coded clusters.

(3) Further analysis of the 13 clusters led to the emergence of basic themes representing a deeper understanding of the data's meaning. I developed these basic themes by analyzing and comparing the thematic content of each coded cluster and by

assessing code co-occurrence. This process included a reexamination of narratives provided by each participant and then a comparison of all relevant statements. Next, code co-occurrence was assessed to determine relationships between clusters. High degrees of co-occurrence indicated thematic similarities and informed understanding of connections between clusters. Meaning evolved through a focus on the essence of each relevant statement and an understanding of how coded clusters related to each other. This process resulted in the emergence of four general themes.

(4) I then conducted another round of coding, using a different strategic perspective to reanalyze the essence of each relevant statement within each general theme. This enabled the identification of shared meaning within general themes and led to the emergence of three central global themes that provide a consistent description of how police chiefs in Massachusetts experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the leadership culture of their organizations.

Summary

In this Chapter, I described this study's methodology and provided information on design, participants, data collection, and data analysis procedures. In Chapter 4, I will describe the study's findings and provide specific examples of the data analysis process and outcomes. First, I will provide descriptions of study participants and present narrative excerpts from each participant interview. Next, I will describe the data coding process and articulate how I analyzed participant information to develop coded clusters and themes. Finally, I will describe the three themes that emerged from the analysis process and provide a composite description of the phenomenon based on these themes.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore how Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. The apparent disconnect between law enforcement leader style preferences and actions suggests that law enforcement leadership in practice may differ from the theoretical constructs valued by leaders in the field (Gottschalk & Glomseth, 2012; Stamper, 1992). This may indicate that either cultural, structural, or political barriers prevent leaders from employing particular leadership techniques or that leaders' perceptions of their actions differ from how their subordinates observe and assess their leadership behaviors.

To explore this phenomenon, I developed the following research question: How do Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations? Guided by qualitative research methodology, I conducted semi-structured interviews of nine police chiefs from Massachusetts. These interviews provided great insight into how leadership was practiced in a policing context and led to the development of three themes that provided a consistent description of how police chiefs in Massachusetts experience the phenomenon.

Presentation of the Findings

In this chapter, I will describe this study's findings and results. First, I will provide descriptions of study participants and present narrative excerpts from each participant interview. My semi-structured interview protocol was based on one main question which asked participants to recall a specific incident where they felt pulled

between how they felt they should have led and how they did lead, and this chapter will briefly describe these incidents. Next, I will describe the data coding process and articulate how I analyzed participant information to develop coded clusters and themes. Finally, I will describe the three themes that emerged from the interviews and provide a composite description of the phenomenon based on these themes.

Participant Narratives

I developed three shared themes and a composite narrative based on semi-structured interviews of nine Massachusetts police chiefs. While serving as a chief, each study participant's leadership experiences were shaped by a complex mixture of politics, culture, and organizational structure. Due to large variations in department size, constituency size, and crimes encountered, the experiences of each police chief in the sample varied widely. From union-related issues to subordinate misconduct to mass-shooting responses, each participant focused on a unique leadership experience during the semi-structured interview. These narratives offered a unique window into the lived experiences of a Massachusetts police chief, and the following narratives provide the essence of a specific incident where each chief experienced the phenomenon under examination.

Chief 2389 is a female city police chief with 23 years as an officer. She has been a police chief for four years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where she felt pulled between how she wanted to lead and how she did lead, Chief 2389 described her department's efforts to institute a community outreach program. Called "High-Five Fridays," the program aimed to build relationships between police officers and local elementary school students. To do so, officers went to local elementary

schools each Friday and gave students “high fives” as the students arrived. Although the program was approved by the local school superintendent and school principals, some community members did not want their children interacting with police officers and refused to send their children to school. According to Chief 2389, the program:

Turned into this giant community debate, which actually turned into a giant national debate. [Shawn] Hannity had it on his show, kind of mocking our community and our department. For, you know, what kind of community wouldn't accept high-fives from the police in the community? So it really created a huge rift and you know, I spent time and kind of listening sessions, listening to different communities who represented different groups of people, listening to their thoughts and you know, of course I had our police department here feeling pretty frustrated. Like they weren't supported by the community.

During various community listening sessions called to address the High Five program, Chief 2389 used her preferred leadership approach, which values openness and communication, with community members but felt constrained by her position regarding what she could say to community members. She stated:

Of course, you know, there's always things that in these positions you want to say and you can't. So that's the flip side of that, as much as I rely on open and honest communication in political roles, which a police chief is, you can't say always what you want to say. You know, certainly that was true in this case as well.

In Chief 2389's experience, the political nature of the police chief position constrained her ability to communicate with community members and resulted in some

differences between how she preferred to address the “high-five” controversy and how she ultimately engaged with community members regarding the issue.

In a similar fashion, political pressures also impacted Chief 2390’s ability to lead in his preferred manner. Chief 2390 is a male city police chief with 25 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 12 years and possesses a master’s degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2390 described a situation where he disciplined and demoted a subordinate who failed to demonstrate appropriate leadership behaviors. The subordinate appealed to the civil service board, and ultimately litigated the matter. The incident concluded with the demotion upheld but the discipline removed based on a civil service board ruling.

While managing this incident, Chief 2390 felt pulled between his conception of police leadership and civil service rules, which were tenure-based. According to Chief 2389, “the civil service system as it existed...didn't take leadership qualities, leadership ability, and leadership experience into consideration.” To manage the appeal, Chief 2389 suborned his preferred leadership approach, which he described as situational leadership where he varied his “style based on the individual and the circumstances” to a management approach where civil service rules dictated his actions and he possessed very little flexibility to act in response to situational factors. These constraints limited Chief 2390’s ability to address the issue in his preferred manner and shifted the decision-making process to an impersonal set of rules that could not adjust for individual circumstances.

Like Chief 2390, Chief 2391 experienced the examined phenomenon during a politically fraught disciplinary event. Chief 2391 is a male city police chief with 32 years

as an officer. He has been a police chief for one year and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2391 described an incident where he disciplined a group of officers for engaging in narcotics-related misconduct. The disciplinary proceedings were politically fraught, and Chief 2391 received significant pressure from previous department leaders and community members on the scale and scope of the disciplinary actions he should dispense. With department members lobbying for minimal punishments and community members appearing to expect draconian punishments, Chief 2391 felt pulled between the needs of each constituency. Ultimately, he decided to keep all specific details of punishments private, and simply reported to community media that the involved officers were punished in accordance with department policies. This approach differed from his preferred style of keeping the community informed of important matters, but enabled him to balance his credibility within the department with the community's need for information:

I could've come out here and I could've swung away and in the whole, the public would look like, wow, what a strong guy this is, this guy's really keeping this place in shape. I was able to do that, but also maintain some respect in the organization, which was important.

In this circumstance, Chief 2391 felt pulled between the needs of an external constituent, the community, and his organization, the police department, and chose to adjust his communication style to address the concerns of both parties while maintaining some standing with both constituencies.

While Chiefs 2389, 2390, and 2391 experienced the phenomenon during events with very political contexts, Chief 2392 perceived differences between his preferred leadership approach and his actions during a crisis event. Chief 2392 is a male town police chief with 33 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 10 years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2392 detailed a response he led to a mass-shooting incident in his town. Chief 2392 described the shooting, which occurred at a local business and ended with eight people dead, as the most significant event of his law enforcement career and a situation where he shifted his leadership approach from collaborative to very directive:

I'm big believer in getting other people's buy in to any decision that affects the group. That might seem unusual for a police chief, but my experience has been that departments run better when the low-level employees have input into some of the decisions that affect their lives. However, when you're faced with a stressful situation like we were on that day, I found myself reverting back to my very autocratic style, simply giving orders and expecting them to be carried out. There was no time for conversation. There was no time for consensus. This is what you're going to do, get it done now. That is not my inherent style. It was forced upon me by the scenario.

According to Chief 2392, he felt uncomfortable while acting in an autocratic manner, but believed that a collaborative approach was not appropriate for the situation. He stated, "The way it seemed to me in retrospect was, your personality is built a certain

way and the situation was forcing your personality to a different direction and it just feels inherently uncomfortable.”

While a crisis event created the conditions for Chief 2392 to experience the examined phenomenon, Chief 2393 was impacted by political pressure from university superiors in a way that attempted to compromise his leadership approach. Chief 2393 is a male university police chief with 32 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 9 years and possesses a master’s degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2393 described an incident where two of his officers were falsely accused of acting in a racist manner while apprehending two criminal suspects. Multiple individuals from university system, including athletic department representatives and administrative personnel, pressured Chief 2393 to fire the officers, even after the allegations were determined to be false. In this situation, Chief 2393 felt incredible pressure to lead in what he deemed a ‘political’ manner as opposed to relying on his personal integrity and morality to guide his decision-making process. Ultimately, Chief 2393 resisted the pressure to fire the officers:

And so I guess the question is, did I change? Did I acquiesced to the pressure of my superiors and discipline these officers? And the answer is no, I didn't. I realized when I took this job that, and I think this is true for every chief, you have to have a line somewhere. I know that there's a tendency, we had to do certain things to keep our jobs, but at the end of the day, you have to look yourself in the mirror.

In this circumstance, Chief 2393 maintained his leadership approach in the face of significant pressure from others, and he stated he relied on his integrity and morality to

ensure he maintained his leadership perspective when faced with politically fraught or complex policing issues.

In an event similar to Chief 2392, Chief 2395 experienced the examined phenomenon during a unique crisis event. Chief 2395 is a male town police chief with 30 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 16 years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2395 detailed an Amber Alert incident where his department led the response to a missing woman and her children. During the incident, Chief 2395 was responsible for giving his officers direction, communicating with the media, and communicating with town leaders, and he chose to limit communications with town leaders to focus on providing tactical guidance to his officers. According to Chief 2395, his normal leadership orientation was to communicate freely and frequently with town leaders, but he chose to focus on the policing aspects of the crisis and report to town leaders at a later time. This decision ultimately resulted in political strife between the Chief and town leaders, and Chief 2395 stated the incident taught him to maintain his communicative style even during crisis events:

So I learned a very valuable lesson at that point about keeping the parties informed about things at least as soon as possible. Even if it's something that, hey, we got something going on and I'll get back in touch with you later on or something. But just to let people know about that because it was definitely a challenging time.

While most participants described a singular event, Chief 2396 experienced the examined phenomena consistently as he attempted to communicate with subordinate

officers. Chief 2396 is a male town police chief with 33 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 17 years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2396 described how members of his department did not respond well to his preferred leadership style, which he described in this manner:

I'm one who, who likes to gather information and data and from a lot of people because I feel that, I go back to my roots when I first started, like any other young officer, you think you know everything. And the fact as you probably know 1% of what you need to know, but that 1% you look at as being valuable. So I like to get some input before I make decisions that I can wait on.

Instead of providing Chief 2396 input to aid in his decision-making processes, his subordinates would refuse to engage and instead file formal union grievances to communicate policy preferences. According to Chief 2396, department members appeared very suspicious of his motives due to conflicts with the department's previous chief. These conflicts created significant mistrust between department members and anyone in a position of formal leadership and made it difficult for Chief 2396 to communicate with his subordinates without formal union involvement. Ultimately, Chief 2396 decided to abandon his consensus-based leadership style and employ a much more autocratic, directive approach:

So everything became a legal battle. To the point finally I had to finally say, you know what? That style is not going to work if I'm going to get a legal battle for everything I do. I'm just gonna do what I want to do and let's work it out through a legal battle and legal process. Which to me is not my preferred method.

Chief 2396 described the adversarial relationship between department members and department leadership as grounded in the cultural orientation of experienced officers at the department, but opined that an influx of highly educated new officers will eventually lead to a better chief-officer relationship:

The reason I have the style I have is because I've always felt that to be effective, especially when you have people who are coming into law enforcement who have so many unique ideas and unique opportunities to look at things from a different lens. Now we're hiring highly educated officers. Now they're coming in with bachelor's degrees and some are going toward master's degrees. So I like to hear from them what their thoughts are, and I think some of the younger officers, and I say younger officers are willing to give that, but some who were in leadership, especially around the unions, are older officers who've been here for a while and, and are used to that [adversarial] atmosphere.

In contrast to other study participants, Chief 2397 claimed he had not experienced significant tension between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead. Chief 2397 is a male town police chief with 26 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 6 years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2397 explained he generally did not experience this phenomenon. Instead, he stated he removed all political influence from his decision-making processes and led in his preferred manner without issue:

To be honest with you, I don't really feel pulled. I kind of, I take the politics out of it. I live in town, but I don't vote. I don't sign papers. I don't pull a card at Town Meetings because I don't think that the political atmosphere that's out there now

should be influxed into police departments. I've always, from my days in the Marine Corps, in the civilian world, in management, policing, I believe strongly in leading as I see fit. And I always use the mirror example that, I need to be able to look myself in the mirror and know that I'm doing the right thing for both my department as well as the town.

So I've never really been torn like some might. But I'm also probably a more straight forward individual than some, obviously you have to walk those political nuances, because you know, whether I like it or not, and you know, I'm in that world, we have to be cognizant of that. But, I'm always trying to improve and, and do better and, and be as transparent as possible.

To maintain this sense of transparency and lead as he sees fit, Chief 2397 adhered to core values and set clear expectations for his subordinates. He stated, "And obviously times change and trainings change, but if you have that core value of respect and professionalism and expect that of others as well as yourself, that goes a long way with, with guiding the department in a positive manner."

Finally, Chief 2398 ascribed his experience with the phenomenon to generational differences with younger officers. Chief 2398 is a male city police chief with 32 years as an officer. He has been a police chief for 4 years and possesses a master's degree. When asked to describe an incident where he felt pulled between how he wanted to lead and how he did lead, Chief 2398 cited union issues and generational differences with young officers as factors that impact how he leads:

You know, unfortunately you have union issues, you have personnel issues. I'm old school. For lack of a better term, the new term is 'snowflakes.' Unfortunately,

if I was able to really lead the way I wanted, I'd be more of a kick him in the butt, move him along type thing. But unfortunately now you have union issues and you have people who are sensitive to you. Gotta be careful, you know, don't upset them. And of course, some of them run right to the union and complain.

And when a union comes to me, I'm just one of these guys, there are some at my department and I'm going to continue to do that and I'll try to be a little softer when I speak to them. But broadly I would say I would definitely be pushing a little bit more for certain things as far as, you know, a little tighter ship with things. But unfortunately with the way things are in today's world, everybody's needing kinder and gentler and we have to be a little bit more careful of what we say and how we act.

Overall, participant narratives provided a unique window into the lived experiences of Massachusetts police chiefs. From crisis events to generational differences to political influences, the majority of participants described specific circumstances where they experienced the phenomenon under examination. In these descriptions and in information provided in response to subsequent follow-up questions, participants offered valuable insights that aided in the development of coded clusters and themes. In the next section, I will describe the coding process, identify these codes and clusters, and articulate themes that emerged during data analysis.

Data Coding

After closely reviewing each interview transcript, I used Dedoose to identify 96 statements as relevant to the study. Analysis of the statements resulted in the emergence of 13 coded clusters, which are identified in Table 3 below:

Table 3

Coded Cluster Descriptions

Cluster	Description
City Politics	References to the impact of city politics on phenomenon.
Civil Service	References to Civil Service actions.
Community Interactions	Related to interactions with the community.
Developing New Leaders	References to developing new leaders as a core responsibility of a police chief.
Flexibility	References to flexibility as an important aspect to possess when leading police departments.
Generational Differences	References to age-related distinctions in the workplace.
Police Culture	References or allusions to general "police culture" as an explanation for circumstances or leadership actions.
Political Differences	Differences in political viewpoint between department and community.
Preferred Leadership Style	Descriptions of a chief's preferred leadership style.
Rank structure	References to rank structure.
Tactics / Crisis Leadership	References to leadership in a tactical or crisis situation.
Task Volume	References to volume of tasks required of police officers.
Union	References to Union actions.

Response frequency from these initial 13 coded clusters is presented in Table 4:

Table 4

Response Frequency

Cluster	Participant									Total
	2398	2397	2396	2395	2393	2392	2391	2390	2389	
City Politics	6	0	0	5	3	0	3	2	5	27
Civil Service	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	5
Community Interactions	3	0	0	3	2	1	4	0	8	21
Developing New Leaders	1	1	0	0	1	2	5	1	1	12
Flexibility	1	1	1	1	0	3	1	0	3	11

Generational Differences	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	4
Police Culture	5	0	2	4	0	5	6	4	3	29
Political Differences	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	0	7	11
Preferred Leadership Style	2	5	4	5	4	5	8	2	6	41
Rank structure	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	4
Tactics / Crisis Leadership	0	0	1	1	0	4	0	0	0	6
Task Volume	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Union	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	2	0	6

Further analysis of the 13 clusters led to the emergence of basic themes representing a deeper understanding of the data's meaning. I developed these basic themes by analyzing and comparing the thematic content of each coded cluster and by assessing code co-occurrence. This process included a reexamination of narratives provided by each participant and then a comparison of all relevant statements. The context in which statements were presented guided the thematic analysis of cluster content. Next, code co-occurrence was assessed to determine relationships between clusters. High degrees of co-occurrence indicated thematic similarities and informed understanding of connections between clusters. Meaning evolved through a focus on the essence of each relevant statement and an understanding of how coded clusters related to each other. Code co-occurrence is presented in Table 5:

Table 5

Code Co-Occurrence

Cluster	Cluster											
	<u>City Politics</u>	<u>Civil Service</u>	<u>Community Interactions</u>	<u>Developing New Leaders</u>	<u>Flexibility</u>	<u>Generational Differences</u>	<u>Police Culture</u>	<u>Political Differences</u>	<u>Preferred Leadership Style</u>	<u>Rank Structure</u>	<u>Tactics/Crisis Leadership</u>	<u>Task Volume</u>
<u>City Politics</u>	0	2	15	0	2	0	8	6	5	1	0	0
<u>Civil Service</u>	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
<u>Community Interactions</u>	15	0	0	0	1	0	5	9	2	0	0	0
<u>Developing New Leaders</u>	0	0	0	0	5	1	3	0	9	0	0	0
<u>Flexibility</u>	2	0	1	5	0	1	2	0	8	1	1	0
<u>Generational Differences</u>	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0
<u>Police Culture</u>	8	1	5	3	2	2	0	4	8	3	3	0
<u>Political Differences</u>	6	0	9	0	0	0	4	0	2	0	0	0
<u>Preferred Leadership Style</u>	5	0	2	9	8	1	8	2	0	2	2	0
<u>Rank structure</u>	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	0	2	0	1	0
<u>Tactics / Crisis Leadership</u>	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	0	2	1	0	0
<u>Task Volume</u>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<u>Union</u>	2	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0

After evaluating co-occurrence, thematic similarities between clusters emerged and led to the grouping of clusters that demonstrated co-occurrence and displayed thematic similarities. This process resulted in the emergence of four general themes, including fostering technical and cultural leaders, navigating complex political environments, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balancing police culture with external influences.

I then conducted another round of coding, using a different strategic perspective to reanalyze the essence of each relevant statement within each general theme. This enabled the identification of shared meaning within general themes and led to the combination of two general themes, fostering technical and cultural leaders and adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, into one central theme. With the combination of these themes, three central themes emerged, each related to how Massachusetts police chiefs experience the phenomenon of cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead. These three themes include navigating complex political environments, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balancing police culture with external influences.

The first theme, navigating complex political environments, describes the strain leading in a multi-dimensional political environment places upon Massachusetts chiefs. The essence of this theme relates to how Massachusetts chiefs experience balancing competing interests from internal and external political players. Union activities, community member influences, relationships between senior and junior subordinates, and power dynamics between politicians and chiefs in Massachusetts all exert significant influence on a chief's ability to employ his or her leadership approach. Participants

expressed the need to identify, understand, and manage competing political interests to develop and maintain a functioning department. Power dynamics between a chief and politicians and between a chief and union representatives in Massachusetts limit leadership flexibility.

The second theme, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, encompasses how study participants react to having to lead in both routine and crisis situations. The essence of this theme relates to the use of collaborative engagement, communication, and reflective practice as strategies for successful leadership in changing circumstances. Flexibility was identified as a key attribute by participants, and the ability to move from a collaborative approach in routine circumstances to an authoritarian approach in crisis situations was highlighted. Participants suggested that a strong moral compass and the existence of core values, especially respect and professionalism, enable chiefs to lead in dynamic and varied circumstances.

The third theme, balancing police culture with external influences, describes how unique cultural attributes in police organizations influence and dictate interactions with external constituencies. The essence of this theme relates to the existence of inter-group attributional biases and how these biases impact a chief's engagement strategies with internal and external constituencies. Rigid internal culture and clear differences between department and community perspectives on officer roles and responsibilities result in the development of distinct leadership and communication approaches for each constituency. Participants expressed the necessity of accounting for external constituencies when making internal discipline-related decisions and suggested mistrust of external actors strengthens a department's unique identity and contributes to institutional inertia. The

following discussion highlights the lived experiences of participants and, through their own words, identify how they experience and understand the examined phenomenon.

Theme One: Navigating Complex Political Environments

All nine study participants identified internal and external political interests as key influences on police departments in Massachusetts. With the exception of Chief 2397, who consciously identified external political entities and then actively limited interaction with these influences, study participants expressed the need to identify, understand, and manage competing political interests. These interests were identified as comprising four specific categories, including union activities, relationships between subordinates, community member influences, and power dynamics between politicians and chiefs in Massachusetts.

First, a majority of study participants described the power union representatives and the civil service system possessed and how these political entities influenced officer behavior. According to many participants, unions and the civil service system heavily impacted officer actions and had a significant effect on department culture. This was most notable when participants discussed hiring, discipline, and promotion-related issues, which participants explained all influenced daily interactions between officers. For example, Chief 2390 was forced to rescind a disciplinary action after the involved officer litigated the decision under civil service rules:

Early on in my tenure as the chief, I actually disciplined and demoted somebody for not displaying leadership. Ultimately the demotion was upheld, but it was litigated and I was forced to remove the discipline because civil service didn't differentiate between the behavior of a supervisor and the behavior of a

subordinate officer and, in their world, both officers had equal responsibility and culpability for the actions that led to the investigation. And in my mind, the supervisor was clearly more responsible. So there was a definite disconnect between that overarching system that we exist with within and are constrained by and our internal accounts to demonstrate good leadership.

According to Chief 2390, this and other civil service decisions demonstrated that the system did not account for leadership qualities, abilities, and experience and as a result damaged a chief's ability to discipline poor performers and reward quality performers. Participants identified these limitations as adversely impacting communication and camaraderie within their organizations. According to Chief 2396, union representatives' use of the grievance process severely curtailed his ability to gain meaningful input from department members and forced him to adjust his leadership approach:

When I came here people were very cautious and very suspicious of leadership prior to my arrival. So when I got here, it was very difficult to get input. When I did take the input and, and try to implement, I got a lot of pushback...and even though I sat down with union leadership and said, this is the way I want to operate, I want to give this to you and tell me, let's talk through what the issues may be. Instead, they would file grievances. So everything became a legal battle.

Ultimately, this atmosphere of contention between Chief 2396 and union representatives resulted in the entire department aside from Chief 2396 boycotting the town's 4th of July parade, a cultural event that the department had participated in during previous iterations. In this and similar examples, participants identified union activities as

exerting a significant influence on department culture and adversely impacting a chief's ability to lead using his or her preferred approach. Chief 2398 described how union activities impacted a chief's leadership approach in the following manner:

Unfortunately, if I was able to really lead the way I wanted, I'd be more of a kick him in the butt, move him along type thing. But unfortunately now you have union issues and you have people who are sensitive to you. Gotta be careful, you know, don't see how you can upset them. And of course some of them run right to the union and complain. And when a union comes to me, I'm just one of these guys, there are some at my department, and I'm going to continue to do that and I'll try to be a little softer when I speak to him.

In general, participants indicated that union representatives and the civil service system significantly influenced officer behavior and limited a chief's ability to pursue his or her desired leadership approach. Furthermore, union representatives and the civil service system also shaped and influenced other internal political dynamic in each department. Namely, the relationships between assigned officers, especially officers holding different ranks, were influenced by union and civil service activities and contributed to the politically complex atmosphere of participants' departments.

According to Chief 2395, his appointment to the chief position resulted in tension with several officers who were "not happy" at his promotion. This internal tension was exacerbated by the presence of some political figures who pressured Chief 2395 to conduct some activities he viewed as improper. Chief 2395 declined to do so, but the combination of internal political pressure from disgruntled subordinates and external

pressure from politicians made it difficult for him to fully implement his vision for the department early in his tenure.

Chief 2396 highlighted the role of tenure in influencing how junior and senior officers interact. According to the chief, rank structure and union influence made it difficult for young officers to ask questions and take initiative. He described a situation where a young officer stopped building community relationships due to complaints from older officers:

Some officers complained that one of my officers was getting out of there and going up to the high school hockey game. And, and I would ask what, what's the problem with that? That's what we want. That's who wanted to make contact with, with not only the high school kids, but also with the parents and everyone else will be, I think that's a good thing. But others look at it as, oh, she's just trying to get on the calls. Then what happens? I looked down and all of a sudden she's not doing it anymore. No. And I go to her and say, well, why don't you visit? And she says, well, every time I do, I hear complaints being made about me. So what happens is that that good thing stops.

While relationships between officers increased the complexity of leading within department, the actions of external community members also aided in the development of the multi-dimensional political environment that each participant was forced to lead within. Participants explained that community members influenced department budgets and enforcement priorities and also impacted how local politicians related to department members. Furthermore, differences between community and department perspectives on criminal justice issues reinforced attributional biases and contributed to distrust between

police and civilians. For example, Chief 2389 described the tension between community and police perspectives on justice issues:

I work in a very liberal community. We have a lot of social activism, we have a lot of community involvement, and that's good on many levels. But it certainly provides challenges to us as a police department. I think traditionally police officers are, you know, we're in general, more conservative and have different ideas about the criminal justice system. You know, what should happen to people who break the law, all that sort of thing. And so a lot of times that same conflict with what our community believes and what our community wants.

According to Chief 2389, this tension represented her most significant leadership challenge. She explained, "We all work in our own communities, but for me in my community, that is my biggest challenge is trying to lead both groups of people who both want very different things and have different beliefs." Along with the tension between community and department values, participants experienced how community members directly influenced department budget issues. Chief 2398 described how community politics resulted in the disapproval of budgetary requests, stating, "It came down to the politics of the town... We had an issue where we were trying to get some extra funding, but we also knew it wasn't going to come."

In addition to influencing enforcement priorities and budget issues, participants experienced how the support of community members insulated them from the actions of politicians. This was clearly articulated by Chief 2395, who explained:

Without the community's support, it's very easy for the politicians or whoever else is in charge of the appointing authorities. If they want to do something to

you, they can go do it. And I think the people too, they see through a lot of the things, cause you know, if they see something that like is like maybe politically motivated or whatever it is, they see, okay, here's the police chief trying to do the right thing and these people are picking on them basically. That helps to get that extra support to you. And the politicians want to get reelected. That's their goal, it's to get reelected.

Overall, interactions between community members and department personnel impacted how participants were able to lead. From providing support in the face of political pressure to influencing budget decisions to conflicting with department enforcement priorities, community members significantly impacted the environment within which participants led their departments. Along with community members, participants experienced one additional external factor that impacted their ability to lead in the way they desired. This factor, power dynamics between politicians and chiefs, also significantly shaped the environment within which participants led their departments.

According to participants, the police chief position in Massachusetts is inherently political and interactions with politicians greatly influenced their leadership preferences. Chief 2392 explained that, unlike many states, police chiefs in Massachusetts require permission from politicians to make a significant amount of operational decisions. He explained:

Here in Massachusetts, police chief authority is much less [than in Connecticut]. I have the right to write policy and procedure, but it has to be approved by a board of selectmen. I am not the traffic authority. They are, I'm not even the parking

authority. They are. Almost everything I do, I have to answer to a politician which is just unique.

Within this unique environment, power dynamics between politicians and chiefs influenced participants' leadership environments by limiting their authority to make decisions and introducing an additional variable into their decision-making process. Participants such as Chief 2398 described engaging in politics as a necessary but often unappealing component of department leadership. When discussing the role of politicians in his decision-making process, Chief 2398 explained, "Well, unfortunately for me, I've been playing the politics for the 30 years I've been here. So the politics game I'm kind of used to who you have to talk to and maybe it's a little give and take when it comes to try to get stuff."

Participants articulated the necessity of interacting differently with politicians and subordinate officers, stating that they focused on developing consensus from department members and selling solutions to politicians. According to Chief 2392, this distinction was necessary due to politicians' lack of knowledge about policing:

So my leadership style inside the building is one thing. My leadership style outside the building and other, how does that change from inside to outside? Well, you know, what I try to do outside the building, like particularly with the politicians, is simply provide them with my conclusion and gain support from my conclusion. Whereas inside the building, I have subject matter experts. Outside the building, I don't. So in other words, I can't count on any of my elected officials to have any law enforcement knowledge whatsoever, but they do inside the building.

This lack of law enforcement knowledge did not prevent politicians from attempting to influence participants' actions, especially concerning budget, acquisitions, and communications with the community. For example, Chief 2398 described a clause in his contract that forbids him to speak against any proposed budgets at town meetings. While he doubted the legality of the clause, he explained that the clause demonstrated the degree to which the relationship between politicians and a police chief impacts many areas that the chief is responsible for.

Overall, Chief 2390 summarized participants' thoughts on the nature of the chief position in Massachusetts, stating "The police chief is a much more political position that I think a lot of us anticipated when we agreed to take the job." This reality, along with internal pressures from union representatives, complex relationships between subordinates, and external influences from community members, created an environment where participants adapted their preferred leadership approach to fit political constraints. These political influences forced participants to balance competing interests from internal and external political players and exerted significant influence on each chief's ability to employ his or her leadership approach. Overall, participants expressed the need to identify, understand, and manage competing political interests to develop and maintain a functioning department

Theme Two: Adjusting Leadership Behaviors to Fit Dynamic Environments

As participants described an event that was characterized by the phenomenon under examination, they identified strategies for successful leadership in dynamic circumstances. Citing flexibility as a key attribute of productive police leaders,

participants described collaborative engagement, communication and reflective practice as strategies that enabled them to adjust to changing circumstances.

First, all participants described their leadership during routine operations as collaborative in nature, with fostering participation and gathering input from department members identified as preferred approaches. For example, Chief 2389 described her preferred leadership approach in this manner:

I'm pretty open. I believe in communication. I believe in collective intelligence. I believe in before making massive decisions that impact the department, talking to department members, the other leadership in the building and saying, what do you think? What's your input?

Similarly, Chief 2392 stressed the necessity of gathering input when making non-crisis decisions, stating "My day to day administrative style is very democratic. I'm a firm believer in getting other people's input before making decisions. I'm big believer in getting other people's buy in to any decision that affects the group." While this collaborative process did not extend to his management of crisis situations, Chief 2392 articulated that departments function better when "the low level employees have input into some of the decisions that affect their lives."

This sentiment was common among participants, with Chief 2396, Chief 2393, and Chief 2390 using almost identical verbiage to describe their preference to act as 'participatory' leaders. For example, Chief 2390 described his overarching leadership philosophy in this manner:

There are certainly circumstances where time constraints or task volume, to use that term, prevent me from being the fully believable leader that I would like to be

in every circumstance. But generally, when we're not in the middle of a critical incident, I get to be pretty situational and participatory.

As a group, participants clearly articulated a preference for collaboratively engaging subordinate officers during routine operations. This preference was cited as needed to build trust within departments, identified as a means of benefitting from the education and experience of department members, and described as a gesture of respect between professionals. While chiefs stated they became less participative and more autocratic in crisis events, their preference for participative interactions with department members influenced how they defined relationships with subordinates and how they employed communication strategies as part of their leadership approaches.

When discussing how they implemented participative leadership strategies, chiefs stressed the importance of communicating with both internal and external constituencies. First, participants identified the need for accurate and straightforward communications. This was best described as being "straight up" with politicians about department issues and "honest" with subordinate officers. Next, participants emphasized the importance of continuous communication, even when their efforts are not reciprocated by subordinates. According to Chief 2396, communication is vital even when ignored because it creates the conditions for a collaborative relationship to exist:

That's got to be best for the organization is communication, communication, communication. Sometimes it's not heard. Sometimes it's ignored. Sometimes it's not agreed to. But at least if you communicate with that intent...and at the end of the day I say I asked their input and this the best I got, I'm making the best decision on the best thing I got.

In addition to stressing the importance of communication, participants also highlighted the impact poor communication had on relationships with vital external constituencies. For example, after neglecting to keep his town's selectmen informed during a crisis event, Chief 2395 stated he "learned a very valuable lesson at that point about keeping the parties informed about things at least as soon as possible." Overall, a majority of participants identified communication as a necessary component of developing the collaborative approach necessary to lead in changing circumstances.

Along with collaboration and communication, participants described reflective practice as necessary when adjusting their leadership behavior in varied circumstances. Evaluating past leadership actions and learning from prior decisions were deemed vital, as was reflecting on one's preferred leadership approach. Chief 2389 described reflective practice as, "being able to evaluate a situation when we get out the other end of it" and connected leadership with learning, stating, "Leadership is constant learning. It's a fluid process and certainly one that believes that you, the road ahead of me is unpredictable and I don't know what challenges I'll face in the years ahead as I couldn't have predicted the ones that were in the past."

While participants cited reviewing past leadership decisions as a means of improving future performance, they also highlighted the importance of self-awareness during the reflective process. Specifically, participants discussed the usefulness of identifying one's preferred approach and ensuring team members were aware of that preference. Chief 2390 best described this theme, stating,

Recognize that it's important when you do have the opportunity to lead in the way you prefer that you do that and that you, you actually point it out to your, your

team and your direct report to say, listen, you know, I'm, I'm really happy right now that I'm getting to work with you this way and this is the way I prefer to work.

Overall, Theme Two emerged as participants identified and described strategies for successful leadership in dynamic circumstances. Citing flexibility as a key attribute of productive police leaders, participants described collaborative engagement, communication and reflective practice as strategies that enabled them to adjust to changing circumstances. Within the complex political environments that they led, participants employed collaboration to develop trust with subordinate officers, communication to connect with internal and external constituents, and reflective practice to learn from past events. By employing these strategies, participants adjusted their leadership approaches to fit a wide variety of leadership challenges.

Theme Three: Balancing Police Culture with External Influences

Theme Three emerged as participants discussed the unique nature of police leadership and how police culture impacted relationships with external constituencies in Massachusetts. As participants described an event that was characterized by the phenomenon under examination, they consistently identified rigid aspects of internal department culture and highlighted a mistrust of external actors. Furthermore, participants expressed the necessity of adjusting interactional styles when dealing with external constituencies while simultaneously accounting for community perspectives when making some internal discipline- and operations-related decisions.

Participants identified several unique aspects of police departments and highlighted how these aspects impacted culture and leadership. Departments' hierarchical

organizational structures and resistance to change were cited as two aspects that constrained their leadership flexibility. First, participants identified that successful leadership within a department required a deep knowledge of its unique internal system and an understanding of how that system interacted with outside forces. Chief 2390 articulated this thought, stating:

I had to get all lot more knowledgeable about the system and I had to get a lot more adept at describing and documenting processes so that the system would accept them. And I had to get a lot more communicative both internally with the rest of my supervisory and command team and externally with the other players in the system.

According to participants, this unique system was characterized by a reluctance to change and an emphasis on continuity. Chief 2396 described this reluctance to change as containing both structural and experience-related components. He explained,

I think that is the environment they're used to, some people may be afraid of the change that this is different. So, you know, suspicious may be another way of putting it....Just a general statement I have about the younger members of the organization is that they aren't used to standing up for themselves and being their own being, they're used to following.

Chief 2390 also highlighted how a reluctance to change impacted a leader's ability to adjust organizational priorities, stating:

As far as the institutional inertia you dig in for the long, you've got to look at some of this stuff and understand that it's the long game. It's not being certain victory. You know, changing the direction of an organization does take time.

Changing a culture of an organization takes time and you just have to accept that and then celebrate the small wins.

Next, participants described how their organizations' mistrust of external actors contributed to the strengthening of department culture and the development of attributional biases. Chief 2389 summarized this sentiment well, explaining:

I don't think people have an understanding of what we do at times. It would be nice if we didn't have to do this stuff, but this is what our community asks us to do. But they don't want to know about it. It's like, yes, do your job, but don't have to ever use guns and don't use protective equipment. Uh, it's incredibly frustrating.

Stressing that the majority of community members were supportive of departments was cited as the most viable means of addressing this mistrust of external actors. For example, Chief 2389 attempted to remind department members of the community support they did possess, explaining, "I try to remind the staff here overall, we have the support of our community, our community trusts us and believes that we do a good job, but there's always going to be a small group of people who dislike policing, think we should not exist, call us terrorist or Nazis." This sentiment was common among interviewees, who described the necessity of decreasing mistrust between department and community members by building relationships with community representatives.

In addition to discussing the existence of community support, chiefs also reported attempting to mitigate mistrust by employing distinct leadership styles when interacting with different internal and external constituencies. When leading internal constituencies, collaborative engagement was identified as important, while collaboration was deemed much less essential when interacting with politicians or community members. Instead of

collaborating with politicians, Chief 2392 explained that he focuses on selling internal department decisions made through collaboration. He stated, “I know I'm not trying to sell it inside the building. I'm trying to seek, you know, a democratic process, whereas outside the building it's going to be a sales pitch.” This sentiment was common among participants, who explained that balancing police culture with external forces required an understanding of what makes police culture unique and a willingness to recognize shared values between police departments and many community members.

Theme Three, Balancing Police Culture with External Influences, emerged as participants discussed the unique nature of police leadership and how police culture impacted relationships with external constituencies. Throughout their semi-structured interviews, participants consistently identified rigid aspects of internal department culture and highlighted a mistrust of external actors. Furthermore, participants expressed the necessity of adjusting interactional styles when dealing with external constituencies while simultaneously accounting for community perspectives when making some internal discipline- and operations-related decisions. In total, participants clearly identified the hierarchical, change-resistant nature of police departments as significant influences on their ability to lead in their preferred style. Furthermore, they clearly articulated the need to mitigate cultural differences between departments and their communities by adjusting leadership approaches and working to develop trust within their departments.

In this study, three themes emerged when analyzing how participants experienced the phenomenon under examination. In general, each theme addressed the challenge of balancing internal department and external political and community factors when exercising leadership. The first theme, navigating complex political environments,

described the strain leading in a multi-dimensional political environment placed upon Massachusetts chiefs. The essence of this theme related to how chiefs experience balancing competing interests from internal and external political players. The second theme, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, encompassed how chiefs reacted to having to lead in both routine and crisis situations. The essence of this theme related to the use of collaborative engagement, communication, and reflective practice as strategies for successful leadership in changing circumstances. The third theme, balancing police culture with external influences, described how unique cultural attributes in police organizations influenced and dictated interactions with external constituencies. The essence of this theme related to the existence of inter-group attributional biases and how these biases impact a chief's engagement strategies with internal and external constituencies. In the next sections, I will connect these themes to the study's research question and articulate a composite description of how police chiefs in Massachusetts navigate the phenomenon under examination.

Connection to the Research Question

This study examined how police chiefs in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts experience and understand the cognitive dissonance caused by differences in their preferred and employed leadership strategies. To explore this area, the study focused on the following research question: How do Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations?

During semi-structured interviews, three central global themes that directly connected to the research question emerged. Taken together, these themes described how

chiefs adapted to complex circumstances, differing constituencies, and unique organizational features. Participants' insights and ensuing analysis of obtained data led to a deeper understanding of the challenges police leaders experienced as they balanced internal cultural norms with external pressures.

The data provided during semi-structured interviews offered great insight into the lived experiences of Massachusetts police chiefs and enabled the development of a composite description that connects study findings to the research question. While participating chiefs provided widely varied examples when asked to identify a time where they felt pulled between how they should lead and how they did lead, they largely identified the existence of the phenomenon and offered unique and compelling examples of it. Through these examples and subsequent follow-up questions, I obtained enough responsive information to determine that Massachusetts police chiefs do experience the phenomenon of wanting to lead in one manner but having to lead in a different manner. Chiefs ascribed the existence of this phenomenon to a complex mix of factors, including unique policing roles and responsibilities, a rigid organizational structure, the influence of union representatives and civil service requirements on organizational behavior, differing values between departments and their communities, influence from politicians who possess limited knowledge of policing, and internal organizational dynamics involving experienced and new officers.

When combined, these factors created a complex leadership environment that forced Massachusetts chiefs to adjust their leadership approach when dealing with different constituents and when reacting to different policing situations. In general, the study's findings indicate Massachusetts police chiefs managed the tension between their

preferred leadership approach and the approach they ultimately used by navigating complex political environments, adjusting their leadership strategies to fit changing circumstances, and balancing police culture with external influences.

Specifically, Massachusetts chiefs approached internal, non-crisis leadership as collaborative in nature. They worked to understand internal department systems and culture and used this knowledge when crafting a collaborative strategy that included experienced officers, young officers, and union representatives. They attempted to gain support from union representatives by including them in the decision-making process and worked to build trust within their departments by facilitating input from subordinate officers on a range of issues that impacted their departments.

In addition to addressing internal issues in a collaborative manner, chiefs adjusted their approach with external constituencies. They lobbied for resources from politicians and employed a transactional approach when interacting with political leaders. They also attempted to align department and community priorities and relied on consistent communication with both politicians and community members to influence these actors and develop trust with them. Furthermore, chiefs employed reflective practice to learn from past leadership decisions and involved department members in post-event debriefs to build trust and benefit from broader officer perspectives. While these actions did not always result in preferred outcomes, they nevertheless represented chiefs' reaction to the complex political and organizational circumstances that created the conditions for the phenomenon to exist.

Analysis and Synthesis of the Findings

Cunningham, Jones, and Behrens stated that the modern chief of police must “embody the qualities of a military general, a corporate CEO, and a political diplomat, sometimes at the same time (2011, p. 77).” In this study, these varied roles were evident throughout participant narratives. From managing complex political relationships to responding to crisis situations to leading change in collaborative organizations, participants shifted and adjusted their leadership approaches when interacting with different constituencies and in response to changing situations. These shifts demonstrated behavioral flexibility and also enabled me to compare participant actions with existing research related to cognitive dissonance, police culture and leadership, public sector leadership, and crisis behavior.

Generally, chiefs’ experience of the phenomenon aligned with existing research on cognitive dissonance. Festinger’s (1957) cognitive dissonance theory (CDT) suggests that people strive for behavioral consistency whenever possible. To achieve this behavioral consistency, people practice selective information processing, escalate commitment to chosen options, and ignore information that increases dissonance, and multiple chiefs experienced all of these reactions while trying to lead their departments (Burnes & James, 1995). According to Samuelson and Zeckhauser (1988) individuals are biased toward retaining status quo choices and will interpret subsequent information in favor of the status quo choice. This was evident throughout participant narratives, especially concerning the role of union representatives and experienced officers on department culture. When attempting to initiate change within their departments, participants encountered significant status quo bias and commitment escalation from

employees. In response, participants attempted to collaborate with employees and provide opportunities for officers to influence the decision-making process. This strategy aligned with the findings of Jermais (2001) and Burnes and James (1995), which suggested that involving employees in the change process and providing employees some choice about the scope and manner of changes increases commitment to new courses of action.

Specific to the examined phenomenon, chiefs appeared to escalate commitment to chosen courses of action when dealing with community members, even when those courses of action did not achieve the intended results. From continuing to host listening sessions with community members that resulted in escalating mistrust among officers to truncating communications with community members even though the approach countered previous initiatives, participants appeared to experience the police-community relationship as the most dissonant among the various relationships they managed as leaders. Although they described the police-community relationship as essential, participants expressed concern with the quality of this relationship and with the steps taken to develop it. However, they generally committed to a communication-based approach and did not adjust the approach in response to negative feedback. As participants believed they were responsible for leading their departments' interactions with their communities, this behavior aligned with Staw's 1976 conclusions that individuals who are personally responsible for negative consequences will increase the investment of resources in a previously chosen course of action.

In addition to experiencing cognitive dissonance when attempting to initiate change and while managing some relationships, participants encountered selective information processing and escalating commitment to chosen options while leading their

departments (Aronson, 1968; Brockner, 1992; Festinger, 1957; Jermais, 2001; Hinojosa et al., 2017; Molehnbergs et al., 2017). Union and seniority culture in participants' organizations influenced young officers to adjust behavior and conform instead of seeking innovative solutions to policing issues. This created the conditions for the phenomenon under examination to exist, as this escalating commitment to existing culture required participants to adjust their preferred leadership approach in response to deep-rooted cultural norms. Multiple participants identified institutional inertia as influencing their leadership actions, and this inertia resulted from union representatives' and experienced officers' escalating commitment to status quo operations within departments.

Along with providing insight into cognitive dissonance, participant narratives also aligned with previous research related to public sector leadership, police culture and leadership, and crisis leadership. First, although there is significant variation between individual police departments, the research suggests departments share some structural and cultural attributes that exert extremely powerful influences on officers (Woody, 2005). These similarities are characterized by the development of attitudinal similarities among officers, including a distrust of civilians, negative impressions of primary supervisors and managers, an overreliance on process by supervisory personnel, and a role orientation toward enforcement and order maintenance (Brown, 1988; Crank, 1998; Paoline, 2003; Paoline, 2004; Skolnick, 1994).

In participant narratives, several attitudinal similarities exerted a significant influence on department leadership environments. In particular, a distrust of civilians and an overreliance on process by supervisory personnel were cited as factors that chiefs

encountered while attempting to lead their departments. For example, Chief 2389 stated it was “incredibly frustrating” that civilians do not “have an understanding of what we do at times,” while Chief 2392 opined that he “can't count on any of my elected officials to have any law enforcement knowledge whatsoever.” This distrust of civilians was countered by chiefs’ desire to align department and community values, and many chiefs stressed the importance of communicating with external constituencies in order to develop trust and limit attributional biases. Chiefs appeared to recognize the existence of a cultural bias against civilians and attempted to mitigate this through communication and the development of shared values.

Next, the study’s results produced findings that supported existing research related to police and crisis leadership. For example, after conducting semi-structured interviews with twenty-eight officers over a series of days, Murphy (2008) concluded that police leaders preferred transformational leadership approaches but were constrained by the formal power of upper management. This formal power prevented leaders from employing creative strategies to solve typical policing problems. Similarly, Schafer (2010) found that policing possessed a strong tradition of resistance to change as well as limited leadership development systems and opined that this tradition stifled the emergence of leadership among subordinates and limited the ability of younger officers to model successful leaders.

These themes were apparent when participants discussed the impact of experienced officers on department actions. Experienced officers generally reacted poorly to organizational change initiatives, and participants frequently described the difficulties associated with changing department culture and priorities. Furthermore, experienced

officers with commensurate positions within the department bureaucracy frequently constrained the actions of younger officers, forcing conformity and minimizing new tactics or policing strategies. These efforts to resist change and slow or minimize initiative decreased organizational tolerance for new ideas, thereby limiting participants' ability to enact change initiatives or support new and creative policing strategies.

Departments' status as public sector organizations made the observed resistance to change and limited tolerance of initiative unsurprising. According to Wright and Pandey (2009), public sector organizations desire stability and predictability and rely on a hierarchical organizational construct, well-codified rules and regulations, and a reliance on downward communication to limit individual discretion and promote uniformity in how employees interpret and respond to work situations or tasks. Participants described organizational behaviors that clearly aligned with these findings, especially concerning relationships between experienced and new officers and between union representatives and chiefs. Narratives included multiple examples of experienced officers requiring compliance from younger officers and several circumstances where union involvement resulted in the use of formal processes and limited chiefs' flexibility. These examples clearly described an organizational culture that prized uniformity and rule-following, which likely contributed to the existence of the phenomenon under examination.

Finally, when discussing crisis leadership, participants identified themes and tactics that have support in the literature. In extreme events, Hannah et al. (2010) found that directive, decisive, and goal-oriented leaders who established clear guidance and direction to followers were assessed as more effective. Similarly, Kuykendall (1977) found officers in stressful situations emphasized mistakes, fixed blame, and handed out

penalties, effectively becoming more directive and less people oriented. These conclusions are evident throughout participant narratives; participants described their preferred leadership approach as collaborative during routine operations and directive during crisis events, and provided narratives underscored these preferences.

Next, Burgess, Riddle, Hall, and Salas (1992), suggested that effective crisis leaders are more approachable, less intimidating, and receptive to obtaining input from others. Narratives indicate participants desired to create opportunities for subordinate officers to share input and impact department policy. While these efforts were aimed at creating a collaborative environment during non-crisis operations, participants nevertheless appeared to believe that the trust created during collaborative routine operations would positively impact interactions during crisis events. Overall, the use of collaborative leadership techniques during routine operations and directive approaches during crisis events is well-supported by the literature, and chiefs' adoption of these general strategies indicate some understanding of the differences between crisis and non-crisis leadership.

In this study, participants described managing complex political relationships, responding to crisis situations, and attempting to use collaborative leadership techniques during routine operations. Generally, participants shifted and adjusted their leadership approaches when interacting with different constituencies and in response to changing situations. These shifts demonstrated behavioral flexibility and aligned with existing research on cognitive dissonance as well as leadership in public sector organizations, police departments, and in crisis situations.

Summary

In this chapter, I described the study's findings and results. First, I described study participants and presented narrative excerpts from each participant interview. Next, I detailed the data coding process and articulated how I analyzed participant information to develop coded clusters and themes. Then, I described the three themes that emerged from the analysis process, including navigating complex political environments, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balancing police culture with external influences. Finally, I provided a composite description of the phenomenon based on these themes and connected learned information to existing literature. In Chapter 5, I will propose to address the phenomenon under examination through the development of leadership training based on topic areas identified in this study. I will describe this proposed solution, address implications for implementation, discuss the practical, research and leadership consequences of this solution, and provide final conclusions.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, I explored the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. This study was intended to contribute to the existing literature by addressing several heretofore unexamined areas. These areas, which include (1) a lack of in-depth examinations of the gap between perceived ideal police leadership styles and the actual actions of police leaders; and (2) a paucity in the literature concerning cognitive dissonance as it impacts law enforcement leadership, represent significant gaps in our understanding about how this phenomenon relates to police chiefs' experiences. Through this examination, I determined that Massachusetts chiefs do experience the phenomenon of wanting to lead in one manner but leading in a different manner. Chiefs ascribed the existence of this phenomenon to a complex mix of factors, and exploring these factors during this study bolsters existing literature and informs police leaders on the factors that shape their leadership approaches. In this Chapter, I will propose to address this dissonance through the creation of leadership training based on topic areas identified in this study. I will identify this proposed solution, address implications for implementation, and discuss the practical, research and leadership implications of the solution.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this phenomenological study was to explore the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations.

Aim of the Study

The aim of this study was to inform training opportunities to help organizational leaders navigate effective leadership practices within the confines of rigid organizations. The study also aimed to contribute to the development of recommendations for an evidence-based leadership training curriculum for city, town, and university police chiefs serving in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

Proposed Solution

To address the phenomenon of cognitive dissonance between how Massachusetts police chiefs want to lead and how they do lead, I propose MPTC consider developing leadership training that prepares police officers for departmental leadership positions. According to Getha-Taylor and Morse, “the reality of public leadership today rests on a foundation of “collective” leadership,” and public sector leaders require a variety of collaborative skills and behaviors including strategic thinking, facilitation, stakeholder identification, issue framing, and facilitating mutual learning processes” (2013, p. 74). To deliver these skills, Getha-Taylor and Morse (2013) opined that the traditional model of leadership development, which focuses on leading “within bounded hierarchy and via command-and-control, must be moderated with an additional focus on collaborative problem-solving, working in flattened structures, and incentivizing behavior in new ways” (p. 75).

To focus on collaborative problem-solving, flattening structures by shrinking the chain of command and increasing the number of personnel supervised by each manager, and new incentives while also aligning with information about how chiefs experience cognitive dissonance, MPTC could integrate topic areas identified during this study into

new or existing leadership training programs (Ghiselli & Siegel, 1972). These areas, which range from general communication skills to specific training on department-related systems, were identified during the coding and theming process as factors that influenced a chief's ability to lead in his or her preferred manner. Table 6 lists each general topic area and identifies what study theme supports the inclusion of each topic area in the leadership program.

Table 6

General Topic Areas for Inclusion in Leadership Training Program

General Topic Area	Description	Study Reference
Communication	Delivering and receiving information in an informed, empathetic, and professional manner.	Theme Two
Collaborative Leadership	A leadership approach characterized by connecting internal and external stakeholders, including diverse perspectives, and pursuing shared solutions to problems.	Theme Two
Police Culture	Attributes that characterize typical department culture. These attributes include a hierarchical organizational structure, unique shared training and experiences among members, strong in-group bias, an affinity for process, and an orientation toward enforcing laws.	Theme Three
Facilitation	Employing communication processes to generate stakeholder input when identifying and addressing department goals, strategies, and operating priorities.	Theme Two
Community Interactions	The development and maintenance of positive relationships with community members in formal and informal positions of political and cultural power.	Theme One
Reflective Practice	A method of studying one's own decisions to identify areas of high performance and improvement opportunities.	Theme Two
Internal Influences on	The impact of organizational structure, change orientation, internal power	Theme One

Department Operations	dynamics, and attributional biases on department operations.	
External Influences on Department Operations	The impact of politicians, community members, and external stakeholders on department operations.	Theme One
Power Dynamics	The impact of formal hierarchy, rank, union, and civil service on department culture.	Theme One
Issue Framing	The use of unique and distinct messaging strategies for identified internal and external stakeholders.	Theme Three

To properly develop training based on the topic areas identified during this study, MPTC should consider conducting a needs analysis to determine specific course content. The literature supports using the needs analysis process to identify specific training topics as responsive to organizational requirements (Tannenbaum, 2002; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Specifically, the literature suggests that programs developed from a needs analysis result in greater transfer and learning (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Consequently, MPTC should consider conducting a modified needs analysis to specifically define each general topic area and identify specific tasks and actions required to perform each general topic area. The needs analysis would help with the identification of desired learning outcomes for each topic and could be completed using the following steps identified in Table 7.

Table 7

Proposed Modified Needs Analysis Process

Step	Description
1	Review available information, including study results, current MPTC leadership training content, and selected distributed leadership programs in rigid organizational contexts. Gather information from community members. Clearly define all General Topic Areas.
2	Conduct semi-structured interviews of Massachusetts police officers. Ensure sample includes representatives from each of the five position-based program phases. Identify all tasks and actions required to perform each Topic Area in each Program Phase.
3	Develop learning objectives based on task and action list.
4	Group learning objectives into training lesson plans.
5	Develop lesson content using study results, current MPTC leadership training content, other sources of leadership training information, and newly-produced content.

In this study, a phenomenological analysis of participant narratives led to the identification of three themes which, when combined, offered a composite description of how Massachusetts police chiefs react to the cognitive dissonance they experience when attempting to lead in their rigid organizations. Further exploration of emergent themes resulted in the selection of ten general topic areas that could be addressed by developing new leadership training or augmenting existing training content. While the lack of a needs assessment prevents a clear understanding of exactly what such a program should contain, study results and existing literature provide important structural and topical characteristics that should guide training content development and execution. In the next section, I will explain why leadership training is the most appropriate means of preparing Massachusetts police chiefs to successfully navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations.

Support for the Solution

The use of training to improve leader performance and positively influence organizational culture is well supported by the literature. Examinations of leadership training effectiveness from various organizations including police departments, trauma centers, banks, hospitals, and city governments suggest that leadership training interventions improve skill and job performance for participants and increase subordinate and organizational results (Lacerenza et al., 2017). For police chiefs in Massachusetts, a group that must navigate complex political environments, adjust leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balance police culture with external influences, a leadership training curriculum is an appropriate means of addressing the cognitive dissonance identified in this study.

Outcomes in the public sector.

First, the literature indicates leadership training produces positive outcomes in the public sector context within which Massachusetts police chiefs operate. For example, Getha-Taylor and Morse (2013) examined the Kansas Supervisory Leadership Training Program, a collaborative leadership training course for mid-level public officials in Kansas. Through 49 participant interviews, survey reviews, and comparisons with a control group, Getha-Taylor and Morse (2013) observed statistically significant post-training increases in participant self-awareness and reported participants felt the training provided them with the ability to be better listeners, understand different points of view, and “deal with people better” (p. 93). Furthermore, participants stated they became less directive, more relationship-based, and more collaborative as leaders as a result of the training.

These increases occurred in subject matter areas similar to four topic areas identified in this study. The topic areas, which include Communication, Collaborative Leadership, Community Interactions, and Reflective Practice, are supported by the study's Theme Two and describe delivering and receiving information, connecting stakeholders, maintaining positive relationships, and studying one's own decisions in a reflective manner. With the proposed solution suggesting the integration of these elements into leadership training for Massachusetts police chiefs, the Kansas Supervisory Leadership Training Program's outcomes indicate that leadership training can deliver the collaborative strategic thinking, facilitation, stakeholder identification, issue framing, and facilitation skills this study identified as critical for Massachusetts chiefs to address the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead.

Outcomes in rigid organizations.

In addition to success in a general public sector context, the literature indicates leadership training is also effective when employed in rigid organizations. In a study aimed at understanding the effectiveness of a targeted transformational leadership training course, Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) examined bank managers from a large Canadian bank. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire – Form 5 (MLQ-Form 5) and Mowday, Porter, and Steers' 1982 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, Barling et al. (1996) obtained subordinates' ratings of their managers' leadership before and after a leadership training course that included a one-day group session and four individual sessions. Barling et al. (1996) also calculated the financial performance of each participating manager's branch by determining the number of

personal loan sales and the number of credit card sales before and after the leadership training course.

Comparing pre- and post-training course measurements, Barling et al. (1996) found that subordinates perceived managers who attended training as higher on several key transformational leadership attributes including intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration. Subordinates of these managers reported higher levels of organizational commitment, and managers who attended training reported better financial outcomes than those who did not. Intellectual stimulation, charisma, and individual consideration are crucial components of an effective transformational leadership style, and the presence of these attributes can create the conditions where leaders and organization members both participate in the leadership process and elevate each other to a higher level of motivation (Burns, 1978).

This study identified two topic areas that align with attributes of transformational leadership. Theme Two's Collaborative Leadership topic area and Theme Three's Issue Framing topic area highlight a leadership approach based on ensuring member participation and the use of unique messaging strategies to resonate with internal and external stakeholders. For Massachusetts chiefs, who lead in a highly regulated industry similar to the one described by Barling et al. (1996), the development of skills that foster participative, resonant leadership may result in a similar increase in organizational commitment and positive outcomes.

Outcomes in crisis situations.

Along with public sector and rigid organization successes, leadership training programs have demonstrated effectiveness when preparing participants for crisis

situations. For example, Roberts, Williams, Schwind, Sutyak, McDowell, Griffen, Wall, Sanfey, Chestnut, Meier, Wohltmann, Clark, and Wetter (2014) used the simulated crisis of a trauma response to train medical hospital staff members on team behavior and team communication. The 57 staff members completed a simulated trauma encounter in teams and were provided focused training. Then, member teams completed another simulated trauma encounter immediately after training and submitted a follow-up questionnaire three weeks later. Roberts et al. (2014) used blinded raters to assess videotapes of the simulated trauma encounters and reviewed follow-up questionnaires to determine the training's efficacy and sustainability. They found that, after receiving training, participants improved teamwork and communication, were more satisfied with team roles, and sustained changes after the three week interval.

Similarly, this study identified two topic areas that, if included in a leadership training course, could help chiefs prepare to lead in crisis. These topic areas, Communication and Power Dynamics, are both derived from Theme One and highlight the importance of communicating and adjusting to the impact of formal and informal hierarchy within police departments during crisis events. With Hannah et al. (2010) stressing the need for clear communication in crisis events, Weick (1993) concluding that organizations with strong roles, team identities, and trust between members will perform better in crisis situations, and Kapucu and Van Wart (2008) finding that flexibility and adaptability are key in crisis, the topic areas of Communication and Power Dynamics address critical elements to manage in a crisis situation. As crisis leadership requires leaders to employ an incredibly complex mix of decisiveness, flexibility, trust, and positivity, Roberts et al.'s (2014) findings indicate that a targeted training program that

includes content on communication and power dynamics may provide Massachusetts police chiefs some critical crisis leadership skills.

Outcomes in the policing context.

Leadership training programs have also demonstrated effectiveness in the specific policing context. Mead (2002) created an “action inquiry group” of 16 British police leaders to discuss the challenges of police leadership and police leadership development. Through a series of facilitated discussions, the group engaged in collaborative inquiry and peer-based learning. Following the discussions, an independent evaluation determined that participating members were assessed by colleagues as “having become calmer, better able to work under pressure and more strategic in their outlook.” (Mead, 2002, p. 203).

By focusing on facilitation, reflective practice, and collaborative leadership and examining aspects of police culture that impact leadership development, Mead’s (2002) findings aligned with several topic areas that emerged during this study. Theme Two’s facilitation, reflective practice, and collaborative leadership topic areas identify the necessity of employing communication processes to generate stakeholder input, studying one’s own decisions in a reflective manner, and pursuing shared solutions to problems. Mead (2002) employed these processes during the action inquiry group, and the resulting independent evaluation assessed participating leaders as more productive.

Furthermore, Theme Three’s Police Culture topic area highlights the importance of examining attributes that characterize typical department culture in a leadership training course. When discussing how the typical police department perceived collaborative leadership practices, Mead stated, “Paradoxically, it seems that some of the

very qualities and activities that are required to achieve high standards of organizational performance—originality, creativity, co-operation, and relationship-building—are not highly valued in a “command and control” culture” (Mead, 202, p. 198). By including Theme Three’s Police Culture topic area in a leadership training course, Massachusetts can provide critical information on cultural attributes that impact police leaders and their officers. In doing so, the training course can highlight information learned during this study that will help police leaders understand their unique cultural environment and integrate collaborative leadership approaches into this environment.

Impact on organizational culture.

A variety of other studies also examined how leadership training could impact cultural change, and several works emphasized how training could lead to changes in organizational culture. For example Jones, Skinner, High, and Reiter-Palmon (2013) assessed the impact of a year-long team training program on safety culture in 24 hospitals and determined that the training led to organization-wide changes in respondents’ perceptions of flexible and learning cultures. According to Jones et al. (2013), “Team training can result in transformational change in safety culture when the work environment supports transfer of learning to behavior” (p. 403). Similarly, Munroe, Kaza, and Howard (2011) used a pre-test and post-test to assess leadership practices and signs of culture change in a sample of almost 400 nursing facility staff. After analyzing survey data, Munroe et al. (2011) identified statistically significant increases in two culture change subscale components and determined that formal culture-change training can improve the perceptions of staff about culture change.

In this study, participating Massachusetts chiefs consistently identified rigid aspects of internal department culture, highlighted a mistrust of external actors, and opined that the hierarchical, change-resistant nature of police departments significantly influenced their ability to lead in their preferred style. Four proposed topic areas address these items and could facilitate cultural change if delivered as part of a leadership training course. First, Theme Three's Police Culture topic area examines cultural attributes that impact police leaders and their officers, and including this subject matter in a leadership course will provide leaders with a better understanding of the cultural factors that influence their decisions and reactions to their decisions.

Next, Theme One's Community Interactions, Internal Influences on Department Operations, and External Influences on Department Operations highlight the importance of understanding and engaging with internal, external, and community stakeholders. With a rigid, change-resistant culture adversely impacting Massachusetts chiefs' leadership choices, a successful training program must influence participants to adopt a more collaborative, open, and flexible culture. Results from both Jones et al. (2013) and Munroe et al. (2011) indicate this is conceivable. By emphasizing the necessity of including various stakeholders in the decision making process, a leadership training course that contains these topic areas could inspire a new, broader perspective from Massachusetts police leaders and ultimately result in a cultural affinity for collaboration and openness.

Summary.

The literature documents that leadership training is effective in various contexts and provides evidence that a targeted leadership program for Massachusetts police could

prepare participants to lead within the structures of their organizations (Barling et al., 1996; Getha-Taylor and Morse, 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Mead, 2002; Roberts et al., 2014). Chiefs must balance competing interests from internal and external political players, and must work to identify, understand, and manage competing political interests. Furthermore, chiefs must navigate complex power dynamics involving internal and external constituencies with significant formal and informal authority. Lessons from Getha-Taylor and Morse (2013), Barling et al. (1996), and Mead (2002) suggest that leadership training courses improve outcomes, inspire collaboration, and positively impact communication in these conditions. Improving in these areas will help participants in Massachusetts balance competing interests and more skillfully manage power dynamics involving internal and external constituencies.

Massachusetts chiefs must also adjust their leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments. This study indicated that chiefs use collaborative engagement, communication, and reflective practice as strategies for successful leadership in changing circumstances. Furthermore, chiefs identified flexibility as a key crisis leadership attribute and highlighted the ability to move from a collaborative approach in routine circumstances to an authoritarian approach in crisis situations. In Roberts et al.'s (2014) examination of training in a crisis trauma context, training enabled participants to improve teamwork and communication and sustain changes. A training program that improves teamwork and communication will likely help Massachusetts officers facilitate trust, communicate effectively in stressful circumstances, and approach crisis leadership with a flexible and collaborative approach.

Finally, Massachusetts chiefs must balance a unique police culture with external influences. This study indicated that chiefs are adversely impacted by a rigid internal culture and must employ distinct leadership and communication approaches for various internal and external constituencies. To mitigate the negative impacts of this rigid internal culture, a successful training program must influence participants to adopt a more collaborative, open, and flexible culture. Jones et al. (2013) and Munroe et al. (2011) indicate this is possible, which suggests that a properly designed leadership program can inspire Massachusetts officers to adopt new cultural norms.

Overall, leadership training is an appropriate means of preparing Massachusetts police chiefs to successfully navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structure of their organizations. The uncomfortable, frustrated feeling that dissonance creates and the behavior changes inspired by attempts to resolve dissonance may significantly impact the information chiefs use to make leadership decisions, employ policing tactics, and engage in organizational change initiatives. By implementing leadership training based on the general topic areas identified in this study, MPTC could improve general leadership practices among Commonwealth chiefs, which may lead to some reduction in the dissonance chiefs experience while leading a department. More significantly, employing training based on the topic areas could ameliorate cognitive dissonance by identifying the existence of circumstances that inspire dissonance and more closely aligning Massachusetts chiefs' intentions with their behaviors. A more comprehensive understanding of the various factors that impact Massachusetts chiefs as they lead could increase chiefs' capabilities to react to dissonance or, preferably, help chiefs minimize the opportunity for dissonance to

occur through a deeper awareness of the factors that influence their leadership choices and a clearer understanding of techniques aimed at minimizing dissonance.

The use of training to improve leader performance and positively influence organizational culture is well supported by the literature, with examinations of training effectiveness from a wide variety of public, rigid, private, and police organization suggesting that leadership training interventions improve skill and job performance for participants and increase subordinate and organizational results (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Furthermore, the literature suggests that targeted training can change organizational attitudes while inspiring collaboration and positively impacting communication (Jones et al., 2013; Munroe et al., 2011). For police chiefs in Massachusetts, a group that must navigate complex political environments, adjust leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balance police culture with external influences, the evidence indicates that leadership training could improve their own job performance, increase organizational results, and positively impact department culture. By focusing training on topic areas identified during an examination of how Massachusetts chiefs navigate the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, Massachusetts could ensure training attendees receive valuable information to help them effectively manage this phenomenon.

Factors and Stakeholders Related to the Solution

Within the Massachusetts municipal law enforcement community, multiple stakeholders and resources exist that inform, aid, and impede the proposed solution. There are six main stakeholders that the solution will impact. These entities include the Massachusetts Executive Office of Public Safety and Security (EOPSS), MPTC, police

officers, union representatives, city politicians, and community members. First, EOPSS is responsible for crime prevention, homeland security and safety policy development as well as budgetary oversight in Massachusetts. EOPSS is charged with conducting oversight of MPTC and several other criminal justice-related entities and will influence the delivery of training through its involvement in Commonwealth-wide policy and budgetary issues that impact law enforcement entities.

Next, MPTC is responsible for the development, delivery, and enforcement of training standards for municipal, University of Massachusetts, and Environmental police officers in Massachusetts. Consequently, MPTC will be responsible for developing, maintaining, delivering, and tracking leadership training delivered to police officers. In addition to EOPSS and MPTC, the police officers who participate in leadership training are significant stakeholders, as are union representatives. First, any leadership training must provide officers with tangible, useful material in an efficient way, and must do so in a method that addresses their understanding of police culture. Next, union representatives are full-time police officers who also represent the various police unions that are active in Massachusetts. These officers act as union points of contact within their departments and also organize union activities, advocate on behalf of union causes, and may even represent their respective unions during administrative or disciplinary proceedings. These individuals are stakeholders in their roles as police officers as well as in their roles as union representatives, and leadership training materials must deliver information that resonates with each of these sometimes conflicting perspectives.

Finally, the proposed solution includes two external stakeholders whose participation in the development and use of training material is critical. These

stakeholders, which include city politicians and community members, may not participate in developed leadership training courses as students but will be significantly impacted if the training inspires changes in communication, interactions, and collaboration between officers and their communities. Based on the results of this study, new or modified leadership training could include topic areas such as improving communication with constituents, building relationships with external stakeholders such as city politicians, and balancing the needs of internal and external constituents. Gathering information from community members and city politicians during the need assessment process will help training designers structure lessons that effectively address these issues. Furthermore, ensuring these stakeholders have the ability to provide feedback after the training is implemented will help content developers and instructors adjust training components in response to changing external priorities and perspectives.

The existence of these stakeholders and the current structure of police training in Massachusetts increases the likelihood that the solution is practical and could take place. First, various stakeholders including EOPSS, MPTC, Basic Academy Directors, and police officers are culturally attuned to the importance of training. Training is a required component of the law enforcement profession, and Massachusetts has implemented stringent training requirements for both police recruits and credentialed officers. Massachusetts General Law Chapter 41 §96B specifies that recruits first must complete a “course of study” prescribed by MPTC to be credentialed as officers and then must complete MPTC-identified training each year in order to maintain that status. The Recruit Officer Course (ROC) is the chosen course of study for recruits, and MPTC designs and delivers specific training topics each year to fulfill the in-service requirement. Officers

fulfill this requirement by completing multiple courses from a menu of dozens of potential course options that are taught by MPTC instructors throughout each year.

This mix of stringent training requirements and course options is designed and delivered by MPTC and attended by police officers. Furthermore, it exists within a profession that both values training enough to mandate officers attend courses as a condition of continued employment and uses training to build technical skills, differentiate candidates for promotion purposes, and prepare officers for specialized duties. The high value the profession places on training and the institutional support for requiring yearly training suggests Massachusetts police would view the proposed solution as aligned with culturally accepted views about the importance of training in a policing context.

In addition to aligning with officer conceptions of training as a continuing requirement, the topic areas identified in the proposed solution appear to align with training content presented during the ROC. Since the introduction of an updated ROC in 2019, all police receive training on communication, conflict engagement, problem solving, and engaging with community stakeholders. Through lectures, case studies, and practical application scenarios, police recruits examine these subject matter areas during their basic academy experience. This potential continuity between current ROC material and leadership training that integrates topic areas identified during this study could increase learning transfer and make it easier for officers to understand program material. Furthermore, the existence of similar subject matter in the updated ROC, which was developed in conjunction with over 200 subject matter experts from around Massachusetts and piloted at multiple academies, indicates existing support for

communication- and community-related content and suggests that MPTC may support efforts to integrate additional related content into leadership training courses.

Overall, the unique mix of internal and external stakeholders and the important role training plays within Massachusetts policing culture indicate that the proposed solution is reasonable and practical. Within the existing structure of policing in Massachusetts, training is mandated by law and viewed as an important mechanism of increasing skills, decreasing liability, and improving professional practices. MPTC and its staff design and deliver training to officers throughout their careers, and implemented an ROC that includes communication, problem solving, and community engagement content. The administrative structure required to design and deliver the proposed solution exists in the form of MPTC, and the cultural familiarity with yearly training requirements suggests leadership training would be viewed as a reasonable method of addressing issues associated with police leadership.

Policies Influencing the Proposed Solution

Existing Massachusetts law provides MPTC great latitude to develop and deliver leadership training with minimal policy changes. Massachusetts General Law Chapter 41 §96B empowers MPTC to design and deliver a “prescribed course of study” in the basic, in-service, and promotion contexts and gives MPTC latitude to determine what each “course of study” should contain. Chapter 41 §96B describes MPTC’s basic academy role in this fashion:

Every person who receives an appointment to a position on a full-time basis in which he will exercise police powers in the police department of any city or town,

shall, prior to exercising police powers, be assigned to and satisfactorily complete a prescribed course of study approved by the municipal police training committee.

Similarly, Chapter 41 §96B describes MPTC's in-service and leadership training role using almost identical language:

Every police officer on a full-time basis in any such municipal police department, shall be assigned to and shall attend a prescribed course of study approved by the municipal police training committee for in-service officers training at such intervals and for such periods as said department may determine. Any such police officer who receives an appointment to a position of higher rank shall, in addition, complete such other courses of supervisory training as said committee may determine.

With its authority to design and deliver training in basic, in-service, and promotion contexts codified in law, MPTC possesses the ability to design and deliver leadership training content within the existing Massachusetts police training system. MPTC currently mandates each recruit officer complete the ROC and each in-service officer complete 40 hours of in-service training. These 40 hours includes 18 hours of MPTC-specified training and 22 hours of self-selected police-related training. With Massachusetts law giving MPTC the authority to determine specific courses of study, MPTC could simply add additional leadership content to the ROC, place leadership training material on the list of yearly mandated in-service training requirements, or make leadership training available for selection to complete the 40-hour in-service training standard. Adding leadership training material to the list of yearly mandated in-service

training requirements would constitute an MPTC policy change and would be dependent on a positive vote from the committee.

When determining whether to provide leadership training to Massachusetts departments, MPTC should consider that the literature indicates voluntary leadership programs do not appear to produce as well as mandatory programs (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Specifically, Lacerenza et al. (2017) found that voluntary attendance increased transfer but decreased organizational results. According to the authors, it is conceivable that voluntary attendance increases transfer due to heightened trainee motivation. Conversely, voluntary programs appear to result in lower attendance, which produces a smaller number of individuals whose leadership improvements can produce organizational results (Lacerenza et al., 2017). Based on these results, MPTC should consider mandating the completion of some leadership training in order to positively impact organizational performance.

Potential Barriers and Obstacles to the Solution

While the literature supports the effectiveness of leadership training and Massachusetts law codifies MPTC's ability to implement the proposed solution, it is possible the proposed solution will experience resistance from experienced officers (Barling et al., 1996; Getha-Taylor and Morse, 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Mead, 2002; Roberts et al., 2014). Data gathered during this study suggested that experienced officers generally reacted poorly to organizational change initiatives, and study participants frequently described the difficulties associated with changing department culture and priorities. Furthermore, study participants described how experienced officers frequently

constrained the actions of younger officers, forcing conformity and minimizing new tactics or policing strategies.

These efforts to resist change and slow or minimize initiative decreased organizational tolerance for new ideas and limited participants' ability to implement change initiatives or support new and creative policing strategies. Within this culture of inertia, it is possible that prospective participants in leadership training courses would resist the implementation of "new" and "different" training material simply because it represents a change to established procedures. According to Getha-Taylor and Morse (2013), working with external stakeholders, convening them, designing arrangements that are appropriate, and keeping them together to implement determined actions is clearly a "different set of activities and requisite competencies than goal-oriented organizational leadership" (p. 78).

In addition to the negative impact caused by organizational attitudes toward change, differences in perceptions of appropriate leadership behaviors may lead to additional resistance. While a monolithic police culture does not exist, officers do appear to develop some attitudinal similarities that include an overreliance on process and a role orientation toward enforcement and order maintenance (Brown, 1988; Crank, 1998; Paoline, 2003, 2004; Skolnik, 1994). These attributes have contributed to the development of a results-oriented cadre of experienced officers that views adherence to process and enforcement success as indications of leadership. Hutchison (2013) encountered this phenomenon while studying leadership training materials from the United States Air Force. After analyzing training materials from multiple Air Force

leadership training courses, Hutchison (2013) highlighted the danger of equating task success with leadership. He stated,

If senior officials equate task success (from administrative to operational) with leadership, lower-level success justifies promotion to “leadership positions.” Such an outcome can result in a classic organizational quandary: a successful executive officer or an office clerk is efficient, loyal, and detail oriented, thus, gains promotion. Yet each may lack the strategic vision and ability to motivate— versus control—people necessary for the more-senior position. (p. 33)

According to Hutchison (2013), this finding is generalizable to non-military, results-oriented cultures including law enforcement, and this study obtained data indicating that experienced officers emphasize process and deemphasize creativity when leading subordinates. As a result, it is conceivable that experienced officers’ conceptions of acceptable leadership behaviors are less collaborative and creative and more process- and management-by-exception-oriented (Densten, 1999). This conflict between how experienced officers may understand and apply “leadership” and how proposed course content defines and employs “leadership” may also generate resistance during and after solution implementation.

Financial / Budget Issues Related to Proposed Solution

To foster implementation of the proposed solution, MPTC may require additional funds for development, delivery, tracking, and assessment of leadership training. While the absence of a needs analysis makes it difficult to determine the exact scope of the training and the resulting additional development, instructor, and facility costs, it is probable that implementing the solution will require an increase or reallocation of funds.

These funds must come from MPTC's operating budget, which is comprised of direct appropriations and retained revenues. Direct appropriations, which are funds identified by line item in the fiscal year budget passed by the General Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, are allocated "for the operation of veteran, reserve, and in-service training programs conducted by the municipal police training committee" ("FY 2020 Budget," 2019). These funds are provided to MPTC from the Commonwealth each year and totaled \$5,041,942 for the period of 1 July 2019 through 30 June 2020 (FY 202 Budget," 2019). Retained revenues are funds that MPTC obtains by charging each basic academy recruit a fee of \$3,000 to attend an approved basic recruit academy. The Massachusetts legislature authorized MPTC to collect and expend not more than \$1,800,000 to provide training to new recruits between 1 July 2019 and 30 June 2020 (FY 202 Budget," 2019).

MPTC uses direct appropriations and retained revenues to compensate staff and contract instructors, operate basic and in-service training programs, and pursue additional training-related projects. It is likely MPTC would be required to request some additional funds during the drafting of future fiscal year budgets in order to fully support the program. To address this possible need for additional funds, MPTC should consider completing a needs analysis, developing content, and conducting pilot leadership training courses. Doing so will enable MPTC to estimate yearly attendance, identify instructors and facilities needed to support projected students, and determine content development hours. With this information, MPTC leadership can either reallocate funds from existing MPTC projects, request additional funding from the Commonwealth, or revise the training's scope to fit budget realities.

Other Issues or Stakeholders Related to Proposed Solution

To implement the proposed solution, MPTC should be keenly aware of one additional issue, that of attributional biases between individual departments and MPTC. While MPTC is charged with providing training to municipal, University of Massachusetts, and environmental officers, most departments maintain their own training programs that teach department-specific content. With hundreds of agencies ranging from large, urban police forces to small, rural forces, department policies differ widely, and departments often require training that is very specific to their particular size, location, and equipment. Although MPTC does provide the option for geographic areas to develop “local” courses in partial fulfillment of in-service training requirements, most MPTC courses are designed to deliver content that is applicable to the largest possible audience irrespective of individual department policies.

The differences between MPTC’s broadly applicable course offerings and specific department policies may inspire some officers to be wary of new leadership training. The literature is clear that officers view experience within their own departments as critical and do not trust chiefs viewed as out-group members; with this attitude prevalent, it is likely that some officers will similarly view training developed by an entity other than their own department with some skepticism (Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Murphy, 2008; Rowe, 2006; and Schafer, 2009). This skepticism may result in decreased support for the solution and a hesitance from some departments to participate in the program.

MPTC could decrease the impact of this attributional bias by involving as many departments as possible during needs analysis and content development activities. Step Two of the proposed needs analysis lists the importance of including a wide range of

participants from departments around the Commonwealth. This is articulated in Table 7, *Proposed Modified Needs Analysis Process*, which encourages MPTC to “Conduct semi-structured interviews of Massachusetts police officers. Ensure sample includes representatives from each of the five position-based program phases.” Including participants from as many departments as possible could expose a wide audience to the potential benefits of the program and offer opportunities for many officers to impact program design.

Furthermore, involving multiple officers during the needs analysis process could combat dissonance and increase support for the training after it is implemented. Implementing change is difficult in part because individuals are biased toward retaining status quo choices and will interpret subsequent information in favor of the status quo choice (Burnes & James, 1995; Jarmais, 2001; Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988). Furthermore, as commitment to the status quo increases, individuals’ willingness to change decreases (Jarmais, 2001; Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988). These biases make it difficult for leaders to realize change initiatives, and Jarmais (2001) and Burnes and James (1995) suggested combating this dissonance by involving employees in the change process and providing employees some choice about the scope and manner of changes. As such, surveying officers from a broad selection of departments during the needs analysis and even consulting these officers when creating training content could increase commitment to the new training and discount alternative solutions.

Building Support for the Proposed Solution

To build support for the proposed solution, MPTC leaders could consider conducting three specific activities. First, they could advocate for a new, more

collaborative conception of law enforcement leadership. Study results and the literature suggest that experienced officers' conception of acceptable leadership behaviors is less collaborative and creative and more process- and management-by-exception-oriented (Densten, 1999). Conversely, the proposed solution focuses on topic areas that include collaborative leadership, participative strategies, and stakeholder interactions. This conflict between how experienced officers may understand and apply "leadership" and how proposed course content defines and employs "leadership" may generate resistance during and after solution implementation.

Consequently, leaders could articulate the benefits of collaborative leadership and build support for this leadership approach. To do so, leaders throughout MPTC could provide information on topic areas to client departments and participating instructors, stress the benefits of collaborative leadership in formal and informal discussions with chiefs, instructors, and recruits, and provide data supporting collaborative approaches to all departments. Furthermore, MPTC leaders could identify and publicize case studies of successful collaborative approaches in Massachusetts and employ collaborative strategies when interacting with stakeholders. This combination of providing data and leading by example would demonstrate the benefits of collaborative leadership and could sensitize stakeholders to this approach.

In addition to stressing the benefits of collaborative leadership, MPTC leaders could generate support for the proposed solution by working with participating departments to create, test, and implement the solution. Study results suggest that officers are generally resistant to change and skeptical about out-group members. Furthermore, research on cognitive dissonance indicates change implementation is difficult because

individuals are biased toward retaining status quo choices and increase commitment to the status quo when faced with potential changes (Jarmais, 2001; Samuelson & Zeckhauser, 1988). To combat these attributional biases and the dissonance generated by change, MPTC leaders could involve participating departments in the change process. This could be accomplished by surveying officers from a broad selection of departments during the needs analysis, consulting these officers when creating training, consistently communicating with department leadership, and ensuring that all department members have the ability to participate in the development, testing, and evaluation of the proposed solution.

Finally, MPTC leaders could build external support for the proposed solution by advocating in the community and creating the conditions for community participation in the development of the program. Due to the solution's focus on collaboration and stakeholder engagement, the participation of community members would likely be necessary to design and deliver the training content. MPTC leaders could facilitate relationships with community members and inspire participation, and they could do this by directing training developers to interact with community members during the needs analysis, developing relationships with formal and informal community leaders, and inviting community participation in various training events. Furthermore, MPTC leaders could consider providing information to communities about the training, how it aims to inspire additional police-community collaboration, and how their participation can help achieve this objective. By providing information, inviting participation, and communicating interest in community perspectives, MPTC leaders could generate public support for the proposed solution.

Overall, the support of stakeholders, including departments, community members, and instructors is critical to the successful implementation of the proposed solution. Instructors, participating departments, and community members must know that collaborative leadership can be effective, and providing research and case studies could offer context to program subject matter selection choices. Furthermore, inspiring participation from departments and community members during the creation of training content could combat attributional biases, decrease dissonance, and result in greater levels of support for the proposed solution. It is critical that MPTC leaders consider providing opportunities for all stakeholders to contribute during the development process in order to achieve this support, and offering opportunities to contribute in the needs assessment, content development, or piloting phases could ensure stakeholders feel valued and committed to, and supportive of the proposed leadership program.

Global / External Implications for the Organization

Implementing this proposed solution could positively impact Massachusetts police in several ways. First, the delivery of topics that include collaborative leadership may result in the development and maintenance of deeper relationships with community stakeholders. From collaborating during training development to working together to deliver training courses, the proposed solution may inspire cooperation between officers and community members. This may decrease existing in-group biases and lead to the development of better, more trusting relationships between officers and the communities where they operate.

Similarly, greater collaboration with stakeholders could result in more trusting relationships between officers and local political representatives. The proposed focus on

the topic areas identified during this study could generate opportunities for officers to interact with political leaders. Furthermore, collaborative training may also provide political leaders with the opportunity to collaborate with and learn from officers. This peer-based learning will likely facilitate a deeper understanding of both groups' priorities and perspectives and could increase trust between officers and local political leaders.

The development of deeper, more trusting relationships with community and political stakeholders has significant implications for criminal investigations and overall department operations. First, deeper trust between community members and officers may generate additional participation during criminal investigations and lead to better enforcement outcomes. The research clearly indicates that community members must trust officers and officers must trust community members for a department to be effective (Hohl, Bradford & Stanko, 2010; Lyons, 2002; Mourtgos, Mayer, Wise & O'Rourke, 2019). Developing opportunities for consistent collaboration creates relationships and may increase trust from both officers and community members. This, in turn, could result in more effective policing strategies, more willingness from community members to assist investigations, and greater collaboration on projects that improve trust and decrease barriers between officers and community members. Furthermore, consistent collaboration could provide communities with more perceived control over their police departments, which Ostrom and Whitaker (1973) correlated to improved citizen perceptions of police and increased department performance.

Similarly, developing deeper trust with local political figures may result in the acquisition of additional financial and logistical support. City or town governments are responsible for funding municipal departments in Massachusetts and developing trusting

relationships with political officials who propose and approve these budgets could enable departments to better advocate for funding, manpower, and facility requirements.

Finally, building additional trust with community members and political representatives could result in positive exposure for officers and their departments. If officers collaborate with community members and political leaders through the proposed training, their efforts may inspire positive press and greater awareness of MPTC's efforts to inspire collaborative relationships. This may generate additional opportunities for collaboration or inspire goodwill among some community members who appreciate collaborative engagement.

Overall, implementing the proposed approach has multiple positive implications for police in Massachusetts. By focusing on the identified 10 topic areas, MPTC could facilitate the creation of better enforcement conditions and remove barriers that impede the acquisition of additional funds or equipment. Increasing mutual police-community trust will lead to more arrests, which will positively impact safety and further enhance the police-community relationships. When combined with the positive exposure a collaborative leadership program would likely generate, these results suggest that program implementation could increase the effectiveness of participating Massachusetts departments.

Evaluation and Assessment

While the lack of a needs analysis precludes the development of specific evaluation criteria, four general evaluation components may be useful in evaluating the effectiveness of leadership training based on the identified topic areas. Table 8 identifies

four potential evaluation components MPTC could use to assess the effectiveness of leadership training developed based on the 10 topic areas.

Table 8

Potential Evaluation Components

Component	Description
Reactions	Survey on participant attitudes toward program courses. Gathers perceptions on usefulness of program materials.
Learning	Written, scenario-based pre- and post-test designed to capture changes in participant attitudes toward collaborative leadership methodologies and changes in the use of participative strategies in defined scenarios.
Transfer	360 degree feedback from participants, superiors, subordinates, and peers to determine if participants used program skills in real-world situations.
Results	Review of selected metrics. Metrics based on position, training phase, and department.

“Reactions” describes participant attitudes toward program courses. According to Lacerenza et al. (2017), individuals must be motivated to learn for actual learning to occur, and reactions serve as a useful indicator of motivation. MPTC could measure reactions by surveying participants on the extent to which they perceived program material as valuable and pertinent. Participant reactions could be evaluated immediately upon completion of a leadership training course as well as at a defined interval following course completion.

Next, MPTC could measure Learning, or the change in knowledge produced by the training. Specifically, MPTC could measure participants’ change in attitude toward training concepts and change in cognitive abilities when presented with opportunities to apply training material. To gather this information, MPTC could employ a pre- and post-test format, with a written, scenario-based test provided to participants prior to the

beginning of each program course and again following the conclusion of each program course. This test could be designed to capture changes in participant attitudes toward collaborative leadership methodologies and changes in the use of participative strategies in defined scenarios.

The third evaluation component is “Transfer,” or the extent to which participants use skills learned during the program (Kirkpatrick, 1959). To develop an understanding of transfer, MPTC could employ a 360 degree feedback model. According to Wexley and Latham (2002), 360-degree feedback involves the collection of information about an individual from multiple source, including supervisors, subordinates, and customers. The 360 degree feedback process enables individuals to gather information from various stakeholders and compare the perspectives of various constituencies.

Finally, MPTC should consider measuring “Results,” or the extent to which the training enabled the achievement of organizational objectives (Kirkpatrick, 1959). The roles of training participants may vary widely and, MPTC must determine appropriate metrics to measure results for participants in differing departmental positions. This determination will require collaboration with participating departments, who may possess differing perspectives on the use of metrics such as increases or decreases in arrest numbers as a measure of organizational effectiveness.

When combined, information gained during examinations of reactions, learning, transfer, and results could provide MPTC with an in-depth understanding of training effectiveness. Assessing participant attitudes could assist in a general determination if the material is relevant, and testing learning could help determine if participants adjusted attitudes toward collaborative techniques and were able to recall these techniques in a

controlled scenario. Evaluating transfer could help MPTC understand if participants can apply lessons learned in training, and reviewing results could provide concrete data about the training material's impact on productivity and department operations. Together, these components could offer a layered, rich understanding of training effectiveness and may assist MPTC in the updating or revision of program components as necessary.

Implications

In this section, I will describe this study's implications. First, I will discuss the study's practical implications for both policing and police leadership in Massachusetts. Study results provided insight into factors that influence chiefs and how chiefs adjust their leadership behaviors as a result of these influences. This knowledge has great practical value in both training and policy contexts, and I will describe these practical contexts and discuss how study results can positively influence Massachusetts policing. Next, I will highlight implications for future research. The study has three implications for future research, and I will define and describe each implication. Finally, I will describe how this study informs leadership theory and practice, especially concerning leading rigid organizations in changing environments.

Practical Implications

This study has significant practical implications for policing and police leadership in Massachusetts and can aid in the solution of real problems in Massachusetts policing. The study identified themes that described how Massachusetts police chiefs adapted to complex circumstances, differing constituencies, and unique organizational features to lead in a manner as close to their preferred style as possible. By identifying that Massachusetts police chiefs do experience the phenomenon of wanting to lead in one

manner but leading in a different manner, the study confirmed that Massachusetts chiefs' leadership choices are influenced by a complex mix of factors, including unique policing roles and responsibilities, a rigid organizational structure, the influence of union representatives and civil service requirements on organizational behavior, differing values between departments and their communities, influence from politicians who possess limited knowledge of policing, and internal organizational dynamics involving experienced and new officers.

When combined, these factors created a complex leadership environment that forced Massachusetts chiefs to adjust their leadership approach when dealing with different constituents and when reacting to different policing situations. In general, the study's findings indicate Massachusetts police chiefs managed the tension between their preferred leadership approach and the approach they ultimately used by navigating complex political environments, adjusting their leadership strategies to fit changing circumstances, and balancing police culture with external influences.

Developing an understanding of how chiefs responded to the phenomenon enabled the identification of critical internal and external constituencies and a deeper understanding of how Massachusetts police leaders adjust their leadership approaches in response to changing audiences, circumstances, and objectives. Practically, this knowledge resulted in the development of 10 topic areas that could be included in a leadership training program aimed at providing the collaborative skills Massachusetts police leaders need to successfully manage their duties. While a needs analysis is required to determine specific curriculum components, the study provided enough insight into chiefs' leadership behaviors to identify the broad topic areas Massachusetts chiefs

should examine in order to most competently lead within their complex environments. The new knowledge of these ten topic areas could enable MPTC to design and deliver more targeted and useful leadership training to officers throughout Massachusetts and could also enable individual police leaders to pursue additional external training to improve specific components of their leadership approach.

Furthermore, the study's results provide Massachusetts police with a greater understanding of how specific internal and external constituencies influence department leader actions. A deeper knowledge of how police chiefs perceive internal and external constituencies and how leaders adjust their behavior in response to each constituency offers great insight into power relationships that impact Massachusetts policing and enables the development of new policies, processes, and training aimed at clarifying roles, communicating and collaborating with various stakeholders, and leading within complex environments.

Overall, study results provide MPTC and Massachusetts chiefs with heretofore unknown insight into the specific factors that influence chiefs and how chiefs adjust their leadership behaviors as a result of these influences. This knowledge has great practical value and can be used to craft department policy and training that provides information on stakeholders and strategies for managing stakeholders in a collaborative manner. Consistent collaboration with stakeholders can create trusting relationships, which could ultimately improve trust and decrease barriers between departments and their communities (Hohl, Bradford & Stanko, 2010; Lyons, 2002; Mourtgos, Mayer, Wise & O'Rourke, 2019). Ultimately, this increased trust, and the positive impact on department

performance it will inspire, is the study's greatest practical implication and the study's greatest opportunity to positively influence Massachusetts policing.

Implications for Future Research

This study has four implications for future research, with additional inquiry required to fully understand the existence of dissonance in police chief experiences, additional data required to clarify findings in Massachusetts, further studies in different states required to identify the presence of a similar phenomenon in other policing environments, and additional research required to determine if the phenomenon is present in the private sector. First, this study examined how Massachusetts chiefs navigated the phenomenon by presupposing that the phenomenon existed. The study's main interview question was phrased in a manner that assumed participants experienced cognitive dissonance and, while multiple participants described the uncomfortable feeling they experienced when wanting to lead in one fashion but leading in another fashion, the study was not focused on exploring the phenomenon itself. Instead, the study was designed to obtain information on how chiefs navigated the phenomenon. Future research is required to better understand how police chiefs experience the phenomenon of cognitive dissonance. Additional study focused on chiefs' feelings and broadened questions with less emphasis on organizational structure may generate additional insight and understanding of the phenomenon as it is experienced in a police leadership capacity.

Next, additional study is required to obtain saturation among Massachusetts chiefs. Nine Massachusetts police chiefs from various city, town, and university departments participated in this study; this number represented approximately 2.5% of all police chiefs in Massachusetts and was not sufficient to reach saturation. While Creswell

(2013) suggested a sample of between three and fifteen may be sufficient to reach saturation, the variability between leadership experiences at the university, town, and city levels suggest a larger sample was required. Additional research may lead to the adjustment or replacement of the clusters and themes identified in this study or result in the clarification of various themes identified during data analysis. Future studies should attempt to inspire more robust participation from Massachusetts police chiefs in order to validate the themes presented here.

Additionally, further studies in different states are required to validate the presence of the phenomenon and determine chiefs' reactions to it. Massachusetts chiefs possess unique authorities and constraints on their authorities, and their distinct role may have impacted their experience with the phenomenon. According to Chief 2392, Massachusetts police chiefs possess much less authority than in surrounding states, and this difference may have significantly impacted Massachusetts chiefs' conceptions of external stakeholders as well as their strategies when interacting with these stakeholders. To better determine if the study was influenced by the unique role of chiefs in Massachusetts, future research should examine the phenomenon in different states. Preferably, future research should focus on states where police chiefs possess the ability to write and publish policy without approval. Examining chiefs with additional authorities may provide a different conception of external stakeholder influences and offer alternative strategies for managing the phenomenon under examination.

Finally, additional research is required to determine if the phenomenon is present in the private sector. This study focused on dissonance in the public sector, the government-controlled part of the economy characterized by a desire for stability,

predictability, and equity and a reliance on structural mechanisms to limit individual discretion and promote uniformity (Wright & Pandey, 2009). With the literature indicating public and private institutions are fundamentally different, each organization type experiences leadership in unique ways and organizational differences may impact the existence of the phenomenon or leader responses to the phenomenon (Anderson, 2010). Examinations of private sector leaders will provide an understanding if these leaders experience wanting to lead in one manner but having to lead in a different manner and, if so, how they react to this dissonance. This area of study will provide greater insight into the phenomenon, increase understanding of the differences and similarities in public and private sector entities, and lead to an increased understanding of leadership behaviors.

Implications for Leadership Theory and Practice

This study informs leadership theory and practice, especially concerning leading rigid organizations in changing environments. Police departments' status as public sector entities suggest that they are rigidly hierarchical, rules-based, and reliant on top-down communication, and participant data confirmed these attributes (Wright & Pandey, 2009). With multiple authors indicating that public sector entities seek stability, centralize control, and punish unsuccessful change attempts, study results confirmed that departments are impacted by these factors and chiefs clearly recognize a bias against change within their departments (Borins, 2002; Kellis & Ran, 2013; and Srivastava, 2014).

In addition to these structural factors that influenced each chief's ability to lead, their departments were impacted by a distrust of civilians, an overreliance on process by

supervisory personnel, and a strong tradition of resistance to change. Within this environment, chiefs shifted and adjusted their leadership approaches when interacting with different constituencies and in response to changing situations. These shifts demonstrated behavioral flexibility and aligned with existing research on cognitive dissonance as well as leadership in public sector organizations, police departments, and in crisis situations. In total, chiefs' reactions to leading rigid organizations in complex environments contributed to a deeper understanding of how organizational resistance to change can diminish the impact of transformational leadership approaches, result in the use of management-by-exception and other transactional leadership techniques, and generate flexible situational leaders.

When examined from a global perspective, the study's results inform general leadership theory and practice in two ways. First, study participants' abilities to adjust leadership approaches based on constituent or context indicates that flexibility and the ability to shift between leadership practices is an essential component of quality leadership in a rigid organization. While various leadership theories offer conceptual frameworks that explain how leaders interact with others, study results suggest that leaders in rigid organizations must possess the ability to move between frameworks depending on the audience, situation, and context. This was particularly noticeable in participant responses to crisis situations and in how participants changed their leadership approaches in response to various internal and external stakeholders. In these situations, participants described how they shifted between collaborative and directive leadership styles based on the constituent or circumstance, and this flexibility underscores the importance of adaptability as a general requirement for quality leadership.

Furthermore, study results underscore the influence organizational structure and culture have on a leader's ability to lead in his or her preferred manner. Study participants frequently described how their department's hierarchical structure and the presence of subordinates who relied on process and resisted change adversely impacted their ability to lead in the way they desired. Leadership theory often focuses on the traits, circumstances, or strategies employed by a particular individual as a means of inspiring, mandating, or generating compliance, but does not always fully examine how organizational structure and culture can influence or even negate these factors. Study results highlighted how significantly a strong organizational culture and defined organizational structure can influence leader behavior, and this knowledge informs general leadership theory and provides opportunities for future research.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead, within the structure of their organizations. To develop an understanding of this phenomenon, I employed a phenomenological approach and conducted semi-structured interviews of nine active Massachusetts police chiefs. The interviews consisted of one main question and seven follow-up questions and were administered telephonically, recorded, and transcribed. I took field notes during each interview and used Dedoose to identify thirteen areas of thematic similarity that I grouped into coded clusters. I then conducted multiple rounds of coding, which resulted in the emergence of three core themes.

These themes include navigating complex political environments, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, and balancing police culture with

external influences. The first theme, navigating complex political environments, describes the strain leading in a multi-dimensional political environment places upon Massachusetts chiefs. The essence of this theme relates to how chiefs experience balancing competing interests from internal and external political players. The second theme, adjusting leadership behaviors to fit dynamic environments, encompasses how chiefs react to having to lead in both routine and crisis situations. The essence of this theme relates to the use of collaborative engagement, communication, and reflective practice as strategies for successful leadership in changing circumstances. The third theme, balancing police culture with external influences, describes how unique cultural attributes in police organizations influence and dictate interactions with external constituencies. The essence of this theme relates to the existence of inter-group attributional biases and how these biases impact a chief's engagement strategies with internal and external constituencies.

In analyzing the three themes that emerged during data analysis, I determined that Massachusetts police chiefs do experience the phenomenon of wanting to lead in one manner but leading in a different manner. Chiefs ascribed the existence of this phenomenon to a complex mix of factors, including unique policing roles and responsibilities, a rigid organizational structure, the influence of union representatives and civil service requirements on organizational behavior, differing values between departments and their communities, influence from politicians who possess limited knowledge of policing, and internal organizational dynamics involving experienced and new officers.

When combined, these factors created a complex leadership environment that forced Massachusetts chiefs to adjust their leadership approach when dealing with different constituents and when reacting to different policing situations. In general, the study's findings indicate Massachusetts police chiefs managed the tension between their preferred leadership approach and the approach they ultimately used by navigating complex political environments, adjusting their leadership strategies to fit changing circumstances, and balancing police culture with external influences.

To address the phenomenon of cognitive dissonance between how Massachusetts police chiefs want to lead and how they do lead, I proposed that MPTC integrate 10 topic areas identified during this study into new or existing leadership training programs. Doing so could help Massachusetts police leaders focus on collaborative problem-solving, flatten organizational structures and incentives, and provide strategies designed to help chiefs the phenomenon under examination. To develop suitable training content that addresses these topic areas, I recommended MPTC consider conducting a needs analysis to specifically define each general topic area and identify specific tasks and actions required to perform each general topic area. This needs analysis could help with the identification of desired learning outcomes for each topic and could be useful in determining training evaluation mechanisms. Finally, I recommended MPTC consider assessing reactions, learning, transfer, and results to determine training effectiveness.

Implementing this approach has multiple positive implications for police in Massachusetts. The literature indicates leadership training is effective in public sector, rigid organizations, and policing contexts, which suggests that training could positively impact the leadership capabilities of participating officers (Barling et al., 1996; Getha-

Taylor and Morse, 2013; Jones et al., 2013; Mead, 2002; Roberts et al., 2014). Training based on the identified topic areas would focus on collaborative strategies, community interactions, and stakeholders. Emphasizing these areas could result in the development of collaborative relationships with various constituents and assist in the removal of barriers that impede the acquisition of additional funds or equipment. Furthermore, the development of collaborative relationships with external stakeholders could result in increased trust, which may lead to more arrests, safer communities, and enhanced police-community relationships.

Overall, this study provided a unique examination of how Massachusetts police chiefs experienced the cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead. Examining this phenomenon generated previously unknown insight into the specific internal and external factors that influenced chiefs and offered a deeper awareness of the strategies chiefs used to adjust their leadership behaviors as a result of these influences. This knowledge has great practical value and could be used to develop leadership training that provides strategies for engaging stakeholders in a collaborative manner.

If the training inspires consistent collaboration with stakeholders, it will facilitate the creation of trusting relationships that will positively impact departments and the Massachusetts communities they serve. With communities facing increasingly complex threats and police employing increasingly sophisticated technologies, quality leadership is essential to the operation of effective and trustworthy departments. This study contributed to a clearer understanding of how Massachusetts police chiefs experience navigating a phenomenon that significantly impacts their leadership strategies. This

knowledge adds to the literature and provides the foundation for training that, if implemented, will inspire increased police-community trust and result in more productive police departments in Massachusetts.

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Appendix A

Participant Invitation

Study Title: A Phenomenological Study of the Leadership Experiences of the City Police Chief in Massachusetts

Chief XXX,

My name is Timothy Bonadies. I am a credentialed law enforcement agent, military officer, and doctoral candidate in the Doctorate of Education in Leadership program at Creighton University.

I am conducting a research study in an attempt to understand how Massachusetts city police chiefs adjust their preferred leadership styles to lead within the department environment and I request your participation in the study. If you decide to participate, I will speak with you in-person or on the telephone for approximately thirty minutes to discuss how you adapt your leadership preferences to work within the structural and cultural constraints of a city police department. Specifically, I will ask the following question:

Think about a time, or times, as a police chief where you felt challenged by how you wanted to lead, or should lead, and how you did lead because of the structure of the organization, or the department. In other words....identify on a time where you felt pulled between how you should lead and how you did lead.

The interview will be recorded so that I can accurately represent what we discussed, and the recordings will be destroyed at the conclusion of the research project. After our discussion, I will send you a transcript to ensure your comments are accurate and complete.

If you choose to participate, you do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to. You do not have to participate and, if you choose to participate, you can stop at any time. Your participation will not impact your status at the department in any way.

You will not directly benefit from participating in this study, but the law enforcement community will benefit from a deeper understanding of how police chiefs adjust their preferred leadership approaches due to structural and cultural constraints. Such data will be especially useful when designing police-specific leadership training and selecting future law enforcement leaders.

If you choose to participate, your participation is confidential, and all study materials will be kept in a secure location. The study's results may be published in professional journals, but your identity will not be revealed.

I am available to answer your questions about the study; please contact me at 574-340-0851 or at tbo65211@creighton.edu. If you have any questions about being a research

participant, please contact the Creighton University Office of Research and Compliance Services at 402-280-2511.

Thank you for your consideration. I will contact you within the next ten days to determine if you are willing to participate.

Timothy Bonadies
TimothyBonadies@creighton.edu
574-340-0851

Appendix B

Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

Demographic Information:

1. Age:
2. Gender:
3. Years of Service:
4. Years as a Chief:
5. Years as a Chief at Current Agency:
6. Number of Agencies:
7. Highest Level of Education:

Main interview Question: Think about a time, or times, as a police chief where you felt challenged by how you wanted to lead, or should lead, and how you did lead because of the structure of the organization, or the department. In other words, identify on a time where you felt pulled between how you should lead and how you did lead.

Follow up Questions:

1. Can you tell me about that? Who was involved? When? What did that feel like?
2. When you think about that experience, what does that mean to you?
3. As a police chief, what impacted your ability to lead (act) in the way you preferred?
4. How did you adjust to those forces that impacted your ability to lead in the way you preferred?

5. How did it feel navigating that experience?
6. Are you able to act or behave as a leader in the way you would like in your department?
7. Do you have any advice for others who encounter this phenomenon?

Appendix C

Participant Information Letter

Creighton University

Doctor of Education in Interdisciplinary Leadership

Researcher: Timothy Bonadies

Study Title: A Phenomenological Study of the Leadership Experiences of the City Police Chief in Massachusetts

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research study being conducted by Timothy Bonadies in fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education in Interdisciplinary Leadership program. This study is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Leah Georges of Creighton University. This information letter is designed to fully inform participants of their research involvement. Please review the document carefully and feel free to ask for additional clarification.

Research Purpose: The purpose of this research study is to explore the phenomenon of Massachusetts police chiefs' cognitive dissonance between how they want to lead and how they do lead within the structures of their organizations. Study results will be used to develop a deeper understanding of leadership in a policing context and aid in the construction of specific leadership training programs for Massachusetts police officers.

Research Time Commitment: If you participate in the research study, you will be asked to conduct a 30-minute interview regarding how you experience and understand leadership. You will be provided with a transcription of your interview and asked to check for accuracy within ten days of receiving the transcription.

Research Risks: This study presents minimal risk to participants. All data will be collected and stored in a confidential fashion, with researchers replacing personal identification information with numeric codes.

Study Benefits: Participants in this study will help us better understand how police chiefs experience leadership. This has significant implications for recruitment, selection, and training, and data obtained during this study will be used to develop leadership-specific training for police officers in Massachusetts.

Confidentiality: All of the information collected from you is confidential. Your name will not appear on any documents where information is recorded. Forms will be coded with a numeric identifier. The researcher will keep a separate master list with the names of participants and the corresponding identifier. Once the data are collected and analyzed, the master list will be destroyed. All other forms will be retained for three years in a locked file prior to being destroyed.

Study Participation: You can choose to stop participating in this study at any time for any reason. You will not experience any consequences if you choose to terminate your participation.

If you have any questions prior to or during the study, please contact Timothy Bonadies at 574-340-0851 or TimothyBonadies@creighton.edu.

Appendix D

IRB Approval Letter

**Institutional Review Board**

2500 California Plaza • Omaha, Nebraska 68178
phone: 402.280.2126 • fax: 402.280.4766 • email:
irb@creighton.edu

DATE: March 27, 2019

TO: Timothy Bonadies
FROM: Creighton University IRB-02 Social Behavioral

PROJECT TITLE: [1414430-1] A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCES OF THE CITY POLICE CHIEFS IN MASSACHUSETTS

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: March 27, 2019

REVIEW CATEGORY: Exemption category # 2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The following items were reviewed in this submission:

- Application Form - Application for Determination of Exempt Status Observation, Survey, Interview.pdf (UPDATED: 03/26/2019)
- Creighton - IRB Application Form - Creighton - IRB Application Form (UPDATED: 03/25/2019)
- Letter - Participant Invitation Email.pdf (UPDATED: 03/20/2019)
- Letter - Participant Information Letter.pdf (UPDATED: 03/25/2019)
- Protocol - Interview Protocol.pdf (UPDATED: 03/20/2019)

This project has been determined to be exempt from Federal Policy for Protection of Human Subjects as per 45CFR46.101 (b) 2.

All protocol amendments and changes are to be submitted to the IRB and may not be implemented until approved by the IRB. Please use the modification form when submitting changes.

If you have any questions, please contact Kathleen Stibbs at (402) 280-2126 or kathleenstibbs@creighton.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within Creighton University IRB-02 Social Behavioral's records.