Walden University

Walden University
ScholarWorks

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies

Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies
Collection

2016

Law Enforcement Leadership Training Strategies

Will O'Neill
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations

Part of the Business Administration, Management, and Operations Commons, Criminology Commons, Criminology and Criminal Justice Commons, and the Management Sciences and Quantitative Methods Commons

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

William J. O'Neill

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Gene Fusch, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Douglas Campbell, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. James Savard, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2015

Abstract

Law Enforcement Leadership Training Strategies

by

William J. O'Neill

MS, United States Army War College, 2007

MS, Central Michigan University, 1996

BA, University of Kansas, 1986

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

January 2016

Abstract

Senior law enforcement leaders are looking for leadership training strategies to develop future law enforcement leaders. The purpose of this single case study was to explore U.S. law enforcement leaders' training strategies to develop future leaders. The sample was comprised of 18 senior Northern Virginia executive law enforcement leaders who have leadership development strategies currently in use. The conceptual framework for this study was human capital theory. The data collection process included semistructured interviews, a review of training documentation, and direct observation related to leadership development. Based on methodological triangulation of the data sources and analysis of the data, 3 emergent themes were identified. Recruitment, retention, and mentoring surfaced from recruiting officers for managerial leadership positions. Training and technology grew out of the need to optimize training resources and incorporate new training solutions. Strategic partnerships stemmed from the opportunities for partnering and joint training exercises with other law enforcement organizations. Although this was a single case study, the findings of this study have utility for other, similar contexts. Specifically, these findings suggest that including leadership training strategies in training programs may contribute to social change by providing other law enforcement leaders with the training strategies that result in safer communities.

Law Enforcement Leadership Training Strategies

by

William J. O'Neill

MS, United States Army War College, 2007

MS, Central Michigan University, 1996

BA, University of Kansas, 1986

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

January 2016

Dedication

To my wife, who has always been supportive of my commitment to education throughout four graduate programs and this doctoral journey. I thank her for her patience, understanding, and unwavering faith in me as I sacrificed precious time with her to work on my dissertation. To my children, who dealt with their father's ongoing scholarly distractions with love and patience. Hopefully, the "Reverend Doctor General Ranger Will" provided you with the motivation, inspiration, and strength to persevere through the future challenges on your journeys. I hope that my passion for knowledge inspires each of you to be curious investigators throughout your lives.

Table of Contents

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

There is not a universal definition of leadership (Prewitt, Weil, & McClure, 2011). Prewitt et al. (2011) described leadership as the ability to influence others, further arguing that it is motivation of the workforce in the pursuit of corporate goals to benefit the organization. Siddique, Hassan, Khan, and Fatima (2011) stated that organizations are only as effective as their leaders. Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, and Zhen (2010) stated that the interrelationships of traits, capabilities, behaviors, and aspects of the environment determine how a leader influences an organization to meet the organizational objectives. Prewitt et al. (2011) argued that leaders provide organizational vision and strategy for achieving that vision, while motivating people to attain corporate goals leading to success for the organization. In this study, I explored leadership training strategies in law enforcement and the associated traits, behaviors, influence, and manners of senior executives to understand what leadership training strategies are required to make a leader effective within law enforcement organizations. This qualitative single case study explored the personal experiences of law enforcement executives to identify sustainable leadership training strategies to support organizational objectives.

Background of the Problem

Organizational leaders around the world currently face challenges in selecting future leaders to receive leader training and development related to business practices organizations require to succeed (Allio, 2013). Emmerling and Boyatzis (2012) argued that one of the roles of leadership within an organization is to understand the strategies and business practices organizations require to be successful. Furthermore, leaders have

the ability to influence productivity and organizational effectiveness over time (Yukl, 2008). However, much of the current research on the impact of leadership behavior centers on the challenges leaders face rather than on equipping leaders with tools, skills, competencies, and a repertoire of behaviors to apply across and within geographic regions or departments (Allio, 2013). Whether and how leadership develops (either front-line personnel and/or among existing supervisors and leaders) remains an open question (Schafer, 2010). This study was designed to address this gap by identifying leadership strategies and behaviors of executives in law enforcement that increase the effectiveness of crisis management organizations in the 21st century.

Some U.S. law enforcement organizations have little or no formalized protocols to develop current or future leaders (Schafer, 2010). This lack of protocol is significant because leaders determine values, culture, change tolerance, and employee motivation while shaping institutional strategies, including their execution and effectiveness (Ismail et al., 2010). Law enforcement organizational leaders seek to protect and serve, and the leadership has a direct cause and effect relationship upon the organization and the overall organizational success (Santos, 2013). However, current leadership training strategies fail to focus on leadership development at the local government level (Wang, 2014). Leadership development at the local level is where the exercise of public leadership (or the lack thereof) is perhaps most important to citizen safety (Getha-Taylor & Morse, 2013).

Problem Statement

U.S. Law enforcement leaders are challenged to generate and maintain professional leaders in a complex and changing environment (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). Senior leaders across law enforcement devote less than 10% of time (Winn, 2014) to developing employee capabilities through training resulting in inadequate training programs centered on developing training strategies to prepare the multiple levels of organizational leaders to assume senior leadership roles in law enforcement agencies (Dean & Gottschalk, 2013). The general business problem is that some U.S. law enforcement senior leaders do not have leadership development plans to prepare potential candidates to advance into the senior leader positions. The specific business problem is that some law enforcement leaders lack training strategies for leadership development.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore the training strategies law enforcement leaders use for leadership development. Eighteen senior officers in a Northern Virginia law enforcement organization participated in semistructured interviews to share their experiences related to leadership development. The results may contribute to law enforcement business practices and provide recommendations to leaders regarding how to develop improved leader development strategies. The identified leadership training strategies will inform development of law enforcement leadership training programs to improve law enforcement organizations, thereby creating social change that leads to safer communities.

Nature of the Study

Lakshman (2012), and Jung and Takeuchi (2010), discussed the need for qualitative designs in the exploration of leadership processes, an area of research previously dominated by quantitative methods of inquiry. Qualitative research consists of diverse strategies of inquiry and data analysis based primarily on text, interviews, and observation (Lugosi, Janta, & Watson, 2012). In contrast, quantitative research is a mode of inquiry used often for deductive research when the goal is to test theories or hypotheses, gather descriptive information, or examine relationships among variables (Lopez-Fernandez & Molina-Azorin, 2011). Mixed method research is a design for collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative research data in a single study (Arora, 2012). Mixed method research combines qualitative data and quantitative data collected and analyzed respectively in separate phases (Ahmad & Yunos, 2012). The mixed method approach improves the rigor and explanation of the research results by utilizing qualitative and quantitative techniques within the same study thus incorporating the strength of both methodologies (Ahmad & Yunos, 2012). A quantitative design would be the best method if the inquiry were testing a theory or hypothesis. A mixed method design would be fitting if the inquiry were combining both quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, a qualitative study is the most appropriate method to employ based on qualitative techniques to explore the aspects of strategies for leadership development.

According to Marshall and Rossman (2011), some of the key qualitative research designs include (a) phenomenological, (b) descriptive, (c) narrative, (d) ethnography, (d)

focus group, and (e) case study. Enger and Lajimodiere (2011) stated phenomenological design explores a common phenomenon in depth and meaning, for multiple individuals. A descriptive design seeks to provide a detailed profile of an event, condition, or situation (McCarthy, Petrosoniak, & Varpio, 2013). A narrative design seeks to understand the human experience through interpretation of narrative forms of qualitative data (Hawkins & Saleem, 2012). An ethnography design examines patterns of a culture-sharing group related to process and experiences (Hays & Wood, 2011). A focus group study design entails an interactive group providing data related to their opinions, perceptions, and attitudes towards a service, product, or other concept (Wang, Chuang, & Bateman, 2012). Case study design features might benefit from complex evaluations including facilitating a longitudinal approach, triangulation, and selecting purposive instances (Walshe, 2011). This study was a qualitative single case study to explore what leadership training plans may assist in developing a broad pool of qualified candidates for potential promotion and placement into senior leadership positions. A case study was the appropriate method of inquiry wherein the findings might assist in understanding the aspects of and related strategies in leader development within law enforcement.

Research Question

The review and analysis from the study might provide insight into training strategy selection. The following research question was the focal point of this study: What training strategies do law enforcement leaders use for leadership development?

Interview Questions

The following open-ended questions supported gathering information from the

participants about their leadership experiences:

1. What is your organization doing related to leadership development in terms of time, effort, and training?

2. What type of leadership development program does your organization employ?

3. How does your organization determine who is offered leadership training?

4. At what point in the career of a law enforcement officer does leadership training begin?

5. What leadership training have you received?

6. What leadership traits are required in your organization?

7. What leadership training in your organization is the most effective?

8. What has been the leadership impact from the leadership training program?

9. How does your organization determine funding for training opportunities?

10. What additional information about your leadership training would you like to add?

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study was based on the human capital theory. Schultz (1961) first postulated human capital theory in the 1960s, suggesting that education or training imparts useful knowledge and skills, subsequently raising workers' future income by increasing their lifetime earnings. Human capital theory proposes that increased performance by individuals from investments in education improves organizational performance and efficiency (Schultz, 1961). Human capital comprises skills, experience, and knowledge in combination with ability, effort, behavior, and

personal time investment, which are a direct result of deliberate investments in the people who make up an organization (Khan & Hudson, 2014).

As business environments change, business leadership should evolve to meet the competitive demands of the 21st century. This need to evolve reflects in a shift in leadership studies. Avery and Bergsteiner (2011) found that past leadership studies focused primarily on the individual, but now, encompass a more holistic view of leadership capabilities and the influences on the internal and external business environment. An increasingly important aspect of this research is the concept of human capital, which is an important driver of long term organizational performance (Schultz, 1961). Human capital theory refers to processes relating to education, training, and other professional initiatives for increasing the levels of knowledge, skills, abilities, values, and social assets of employees; human capital is an organization's most important resource (Khan & Hudson, 2014). Improvement in these processes may lead to satisfaction and increased performance of the employees, and increasing organizational performance (Gamerschlag, 2013).

Effective organizational leaders share visions and empower, influence, and engage followers to be creative and active in their organizations (Al-sharafi & Rajiani, 2013). As leaders within law enforcement organizations face continuous change, a full range of leadership training is necessary to confront the challenges in the communities in which these organizations operate (McMullen & Adobor, 2011).

Definition of Terms

Law enforcement personnel: Employees of a local law enforcement agency sworn

to carry out law enforcement duties with responsibilities to enforce law(s), prevent crime,
preserve the peace, provide services, and protect civil liberties (e.g., sheriffs, deputy
sheriffs, chiefs of police, and city police officers; Grieve, MacVean & Harfield, 2007).

Leadership: The ability to influence behaviors of individuals or groups in an
attempt to achieve organizational goals (Pless & Maak, 2011).

Strategy: A flow of events, values, and actions related to time, the organizational
culture, and the environment for action with its levels of change and stability. Strategy
involves the activities, structure, and technology of the organization, and the
organization's system of leadership and internal politics to influence possible solutions
for the environmental and interorganizational dilemmas (da Silva, da Padua, & de Souza,
2012).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

In the following sections, I describe the assumptions, limitations, and
delimitations for this qualitative study. Assumptions are the parts of a study that are
somewhat out of a researcher's control but become irrelevant if they disappear (Marshall
& Rossman, 2011). According to Marshall and Rossman (2011), limitations consist of
potential weaknesses in studies that are out of a researcher's control. Delimitations
within a study are boundaries in a researcher's control that address how the study will be
narrowed (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

Assumptions

Assumptions are statements about factors not observable or testable (Neuman,

2011). Several assumptions are necessary to research executives of law enforcement organizations. The assumptions are out of the control of the researcher and compel the researcher to rely heavily on the participants for truthfulness, time management, veracity, and data collection. The assumptions in this study were that (a) participants are interested in improving the performance of their organization, (b) the participants would exhibit a majority of senior-level leader competencies resulting from learned experiences within the law enforcement community, (c) each senior-level participant would have a background in working with law enforcement organizations, and (d) participants would answer with candor and not attempt to influence the application across the law enforcement executive community.

Limitations

Limitations are potential weaknesses of the study and were out of the control of the researcher (Neuman, 2011). I took several steps to address the limitations of the proper participant selection and time management and ensure that the limitations do not affect the outcome of the study. The limitations in this study were: (a) participants were limited to law enforcement executives who held positions of chief, captain, and lieutenant at the time of the study; (b) recruitment of participants was conducted by word of mouth using the convenience sampling technique; (c) the participants had preconceived biases and perceptions that may have affected the overall responses; and (d) the study had time limitations that impacted participant availability and may have influenced the size of the participant pool.

Delimitations

Delimitations limit the scope and define the boundaries of a study (Neuman, 2011). The study participants were entirely drawn from law enforcement leaders holding the positions of chief, captain, and lieutenant. The participant pool was further delimited by all participants having been drawn from a single law enforcement organization in the Northern Virginia area.

<div align="center">

Significance of the Study

</div>

Law enforcement organizations' varied objectives require many types of leadership development strategies for success (Bratton, Dodd, & Brown, 2011). This research study should inform the field of leadership and contribute to the discussion of required training strategies in the field of leadership. Researching the experiences of current law enforcement executives will provide insights into leadership strategies allowing for improvement of the leadership training aspects within these organizations. Organizational leaders may also gain further insight into strategy development that may contribute to increased organizational performance.

The need to understand leadership has increased over time in relation to leaders' abilities to effect productivity and effectiveness (Babbie, 2010). One of the recurring themes in extant literature on leadership a distinction between the skills of management and the skills and qualities of leadership coupled with leadership strategies. Babbie (2010) asserted that organizational leaders are investigating the changes in the global landscape, and that the quality of their leadership is critical to progress toward achieving understanding of future leadership strategies required for success. This exploration might

increase the understanding related to strategies, traits, and effects on a leader's ability to lead others.

Leadership strategies can directly effect social change in multiple ways (Schafer, 2010). Leaders within organizations are responsible for setting the vision and strategy and ultimately the success of the business (Prewitt et al., 2011). Because accountability for success and/or failure of the organization rests with leadership, in law enforcement organizations leadership strategies must be understood by the executives and hiring staff so that they are empowered to place future leaders in proper positions based on skill sets. From a practitioner perspective, the inclusion of leadership training strategies could lead to the development of training programs that may have positive implications for law enforcement organizations, and effect social change within communities.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

Leadership is a complex and multifaceted social processes (Sjoberg, Wallenius, & Larsson, 2011). Despite the proliferation of studies and analyses of multiple facets of human behavior, the volume of research on leadership still surpasses that of any other human behavioral topic (Sant'Anna, et al., 2011). In analyzing the field of leadership, researchers must seek to understand what exactly leadership is and how to explain leadership processes related to leader traits, skills, and strategies (Avery & Bergsteiner, 2011). Dai, Tang, and DeMeuse (2011) stated there is no more fundamental task in leadership development than identifying the skills comprising leadership. Leadership plays a key role in putting the right skills in the right place at the right time (Waller et al., 2012). The results of this study may be helpful in the identification of elements of

leadership and explore what exactly leadership is in relation to leader attributes, traits, and skills. The qualitative approach is suited to uncovering the personal experiences and leadership strategies due to the flexibility of the approach in data gathering (Marshall & Rossman, 2011).

The review of the literature for the study included a wide range of seminal books, journals, and research studies. In researching and conducting the literature review, the primary sources were peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, books, professional websites, and federal government publications. I used peer-reviewed journal articles obtained from Google Scholar and the following Walden University research databases: ABI/Inform, Business Source Complete, Science Direct, and the International Security and Counterterrorism Resource Center. An in-depth review of database searches used key words and phrases, including *perspective*, *trait*, *competencies*, *power*, *leadership styles*, *leadership*, *transformational leadership*, *leadership theories*, *transactional leadership*, *laissez-faire leadership*, *law enforcement executives*, *executives*, *police chiefs*, and *law enforcement*. I used variations on terms (e.g., *leadership, leader, leadership style, leadership styles*) to assist in locating additional articles. The search strategies yielded over 180 articles as a basis for the study.

Related Studies

Four studies related to leader development and executive succession planning supported this study in terms of human capital theory components in investments in individuals. In the first related study, Bernon and Mena (2013) explored the evolution of customized executive education in supply chain management   A mixed method approach

combining a single longitudinal case study using archival data and a series of 15 interviews with academics and practitioners evaluated customized executive education programs delivered since 2000 at a single executive education institution (Bernon & Mena, 2013). The combination of methods and data provided rich empirical results and an understanding of the research phenomenon and surrounding context. Participants selected held a senior supply chain role or a senior role within human resources with direct involvement in supply chain management executive education.

Bernon and Mena (2013) found that companies engaging in executive education sought immediate and effective behavioral change towards new strategies with demonstrable results. Additionally, companies selected managers able to affect change and became advocates of training strategies upon return from training. Brenon and Mena also revealed that companies worked with the institution to design programs covering globalization, change management, competition, strategic support, technology, and related business strategies. These findings illustrated the educational institution required a high level of understanding of the company's strategy direction and its culture to design appropriate course materials.

Berg and Karlsen (2012) conducted a qualitative case study evaluating management training and coaching. The purpose of the study was to address the implications of leadership tools and coaching on management development. Berg and Karlsen used interviews, surveys, and observations from 14 participants, 12 superiors of the participants, and 98 subordinates of the participants. Data collection entailed a pre evaluation interview of the participants' superiors to determine the participant strengths.

Berg and Karlsen (2012) began with participant interviews to determine self-perceptions and expectations of the training development program and a program review at the halfway point to evaluate the training development. After the training program, a post evaluation interview with participants and the participants' superiors and subordinates evaluated the effect of the training program at the workplace. In addition, there were interviews with the participants immediately after each of the five seminars.

Berg and Karlsen's (2012) findings illustrated that through team coaching, participants could employ a variety of managerial tools leading to a successful organizations. The manager's toolbox included solutions related to emotional intelligence, empowerment, self-management, signature-strengths, and positive emotions. The program encouraged participants to engage the relevant tools at their workplace between the seminars. At the subsequent seminar, participants debriefed how the tools were used, the results that were achieved, what they had learned as well as what could be improved. The findings in section 3 further illustrated this point that both mentoring and the use of technology positively impacts the capabilities of the individual.

Zepeda, Bengtson, and Parylo (2012) explored principal succession planning and management in Georgia school systems. Using the organizational leadership succession theory, a multiple case approach with semistructured interviews focusing on 32 superintendents, assistant superintendents, other central office leaders, and principals, Zepeda et al. examined the practices of school systems as they experienced changes in school leadership. Zepeda et al. found there are differences in the sense of urgency for the planning and management of the succession of principals, and

the development of aspiring leaders is a critical component of planning and management

succession. Moreover, Zepeda et al. asserted that mentoring and collaborative

partnerships with outside organizations is valued as part of the succession process.

Understanding the quality of school leadership and the need for successful

transitions of future principals reinforced the importance of Zepeda et al.'s 2012 study.

Quality leadership in schools continues to be an issue for school system leaders, teachers,

students, and parents. Furthermore, leadership influence on student achievement, teacher

quality, and overall school performance continues to suggest that succession planning is

vital to the success of the school.

Kramar and Steane (2012) explored trends in the role and new competencies

related to the roles of line managers managing people. This qualitative study engaged

human resource professionals in Australia across multiple industries. Kramar and Steane

used semistructured interviews with 53 professionals serving in executive roles, line

managers, and leadership development roles. The authors found that line managers

should understand the needs of employees as a means of managing their performance

(Kramer & Steane, 2012). This understanding provides information for talent

management, succession, and leadership development. Kramar and Steane determined

the role of human resources and line managers varied across organizations.

A number of multinational organizations use sophisticated approaches to human

resource management, and these findings indicated that the existing trend of devolution

to the line managers for managing people responsibilities increased (Kramer & Steane,

2012). Kramer and Steane this trend would continue in other organizations as would the

involvement of human resources in strategic decision-making. Kramer and Steane (2012) determined human resources management will continue to evolve and that human resource professionals must continue to work in partnership with senior managers, external providers, and especially line managers. Moreover, Kramer and Staene stated the data revealed that to understand the future role of human resource management, researchers should take into account the context of the organization.

Human Capital Theory

Bernon and Mena (2013), Berg and Karlsen (2012), Zepeda, Bengtson, and Parylo (2012), and Kramar and Steane (2012) emphasized the importance of leadership skills, perspective, context, traits, succession planning, strategy, adaptation, and leadership development in supporting the development future organizational leaders. The following sections include a discussion of the supporting theories of human capital theory, screening theory, credentialism, and neo-Marxist theories as they relate to organizational investment, education, jobs, skills, and leadership development. The development leadership skills and associated training programs related to the supporting theories will enhance organizational success.

The human capital theory emphasizes organizational investment in training and development using economic methods and assumptions (Bae & Patterson, 2014). Human capital theory states a basic view that better-educated or trained workers are more able to meet the needs of an advanced industrial society because of the types of useful job and productivity enhancing skills employees learn from schooling or formal training (De Grip & Smits, 2012). Two leading economists, Schultz (1961) and Becker (1993), established

the view that education and training is an important investment in human capital and one that benefits the individual, the organization, and society as a whole.

Schultz (1961) discussed human capital as individual's acquisition of skills and knowledge and that these skills and knowledge are a form of capital. Schultz (1961) further argued that this capital is a product of deliberate investment. Becker (1993) studied investments in human capital in terms of the activities that influence future monetary income by increasing resources in people. Becker's research on human capital sought to understand the different types of investments in human resources (e.g., training and development) to explain changes in organizations, societies, or nations. Becker focused on the perspective of human productivity in terms of economic exchange. Becker determined the skills possessed by individuals are valuable human capital that employers may use with an expectation that some asset in terms of compensation, rewards, or feelings of accomplishment will benefit the individual as well as the organization. The specific occupational skills attained through education or training and possessed by the individual enable business to attain organizational goals. Additionally, Schultz (1961) argued that investment in human capital is of value to organizations based on the return on investment over the long term and the innovation and technological progress that accompanies the investment. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between education and formal training and economic growth. Based on this positive relationship, the human capital theory is an appropriate theory for this study exploring leader training strategies.

Screening Theory

While human capital theory describes the relationship between education, jobs, and economic growth it does not explain why employers value degrees or certifications (Baker, 2011). Arrow (1973) argued the screening theory proposes higher education as a screening device that communicates individual attributes such as punctuality, oral communication, and writing abilities that employers value in addition to competencies, skills, and productivity alone. Rivera (2011) further developed Arrow's (1973) theory on screening criteria that supported employers value the utility of degrees that reflect a candidate's general abilities. Wells (2013) discussed screening criteria can provide employers the ability to maximize their chances of attaining preferred candidates by using hiring criteria. Furthermore, the use of screening theory is similar to human capital theory in that both can describe the effects of education on wages (Wells, 2013). Autor (2014) argued human capital theory provides a relationship between years of education and increased wages and screening theory signals a relationship between years of education and higher ability. Conversely, Archer (1973) noted that the screening theory does not support the human capital theory concept in which education increases the cognitive or affective skills of individuals, which in turn increases productivity and earnings.

In addition to using education as a screening tool, some organizational human resource departments employ multiple tools in the applicant employment screening process. These tools can include (a) drug screening, (b) criminal history screening, (c) background checks, (d) resume screening, (e) driver's license, (f) language skills, and (g)

social media among other tools to determine suitability (Vatamanescu & Manuc, 2013). The information organizations gather can provide a substantial picture of the applicant concerning the individual's character, morals, values, habits, activities, and interests (Wells, 2013). In a competitive environment based on complexity and sheer number of applicants, organizations historical use of resumes and interviews as the only screening tools is less reliable (Vatamanescu & Manuc, 2013). Therefore, the use of additional screening tools in addition to education can influence an organization's decision to hire a potential applicant and provide the best candidate to fill the vacancy.

Credentialism

Credentialism is the relationship between formal education and the associated skills gained from work content that qualify a person for a job (Baker, 2011). The economic and sociological research on credentials revealed a variety of opinions based on individual ideology as distinctions between professional fields. There are occupational credentials for skills, education, and competency (Baker, 2011). From the perspective of credentialing organizations, the primary purpose of credentialing is to provide consistent and clear minimum standards for the skills desired (Hansen, 2011). Therefore, credentialing assists in protecting the public from harm through establishing minimum standards of training across occupational fields (Hansen, 2011). This is an important component of the role of risk and safety in the debate about credentialing standards for law enforcement. As Becker (1964) explained, education develops both general and specific skills that increase the employability of those who earn a credential. Conversely, Rivera (2011) discussed the topic of credential inflation wherein employers educational

or certification requirements are beyond the actual skill level needed to perform the job satisfactorily. While credentials provide standards to inform employers of an employee or applicant's capabilities, an overabundance of credentials can also lead to a devalued market (Rivera, 2011). Therefore, credential inflation can result in a devaluation of the education or training certification causing a glut of over trained individuals (Rivera, 2011).

The human capital model links education to work via the ability of individuals to invest in their own productivity through formal education or job training (Schultz, 1961). The linkage between credentialism and the human capital theory focuses on the personal purpose of a credential and the role of education and training in producing better professionals (Baker, 2011). Human capital theory helps explain why so many credentials share the common characteristic of requiring training and assessment. Another requirement that supports a human capital interpretation of credentialing theory is the category of maintenance requirements or continued education to ensure life-long training and learning (De Grip & Smits, 2012). The outcomes of this inquiry sought to determine if there might be a linkage between leader training and certifications offered that could enhance the ability of law enforcement to develop its leaders over time.

Neo-Marxism Theories

Neo-Marxists emphasize the significant role that education played in the evolution of capitalism by arguing that education functions as a refined instrument of social or labor control that teaches people to accept the legitimacy of the capitalist class system and social relations of production (Bowles & Gintis, 1975). Edwards (1975)

discussed neo-Marxist theory and its related noncognitive affective model, and argued

that the primary function of education is to instill individuals with certain noncognitive,

affective personality, and behavior traits that are the personality requisites for role

performance in hierarchical and bureaucratic work environments. Bowles and Gintis

(1975) argued that investment in education increases the labor power of the individual

through providing skills or credentials. In this way, schools help to develop compliant

and docile workers over whom capitalists can exercise the control of the work processes

and the surpluses from the labor. Moreover, as Rivera (2011) discussed this perspective

of credential inflation will continue not in response to the demand for higher levels of

technical expertise as technical functionalities maintain, but in response to the need to

legitimize the division of labor inherent in the capitalists system, which in reality requires

less skills. In this deskilling argument, Edwards (1975) argued the imposition of the

reduction of skills is deliberate and focused on the lower level employees inducing

patterns of organization and technical innovation that reduce the skills of workers. The

imposition of the reduction of skills allows for the creation of a small elite set of

managers and other professionals who are able to appropriate the knowledge of workers

and maintain control of the labor processes (Bowles & Gintis, 1975).

Contextual Theories

Context is acknowledged in the leadership literature as essential to understanding

effective leadership (Yaghoubi, Mahallati, Moghadam, & Rahimi, 2014). Subsequently,

the need to pay attention to situational variables has been recognized (Yaghoubi et al.,

2014). Context encourages researchers to reconsider temporality, causal relations, units

of analysis, and dependent variables consistent with the social construction of human agency within the given context to develop more robust models and leadership understanding (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013). Although acknowledged as salient to leadership, only recently has empirical research given context widespread attention (Gentry & Sparks, 2012).

Organizational and leader contexts are key determinants of the behaviors that take place within organizations (Leavy, 2013a). Leaders are thought to create context by putting their stamp on culture through corporate philosophy statements and organizational visions, although simply possessing a vision is insufficient (Suriyankietkaew, 2013). Tonidandel et al. (2012) asserted that leadership style and competence are a stable individual characteristic, and leaders must assume situations fitting their leadership style. Ultimately, organizational context influences leaders and followers based on individual characteristics, competencies, and cultural backgrounds (Gutierrez, Spencer, & Zhu, 2012).

In reviewing the challenges of developing contextual theories of leadership, there are several challenges related to the leader/follower focus affecting the relationships between leaders and followers. In order to meet the challenges of contextual leadership, the effect of follower characteristics on leader behaviors requires a complete understanding of leader behavior that is only possible when taking both leader and follower characteristics and behaviors into consideration (Muchiri & Cooksey, 2011). In reviewing the single levels of leadership theories (a) intra individual process, (b) dyadic process, (c) group process, and (d) organizational process, what level of emphasis

depends on the question posited. The criterion variables used to evaluate leadership

effectiveness differ in the hierarchical levels of leadership theories; therefore, the type of

mediating process used to explain the leadership influences differs (Larsson &

Hyllengren, 2013). Additionally, the multilevel theories include more than one level of

explanation related to the variables but are difficult to develop these models (Larsson &

Hyllengren, 2013). Multilevel theories provide a wide range of distinctions to compare

varying theories including; (a) leader/follower focus, (b) descriptive/prescriptive focus,

(c) universal/contingency focus, and (d) multilevels of being that relate to values,

spiritual, and conscious awareness. There are also the contexts of (a) stability, (b) crisis,

(c) dynamic equilibrium, and (d) edge of chaos (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013) that

articulate key aspects leaders should address across an organizational environment.

Finally, the leader-member exchange theory describes how the leaders develop exchange

relationships over time with various subordinates (Jordan & Troth, 2011).

Reviewing the various theories, differentiation of the leader and follower focus

requires refinement to understand the leadership processes and influences related to each

theorem. The variables differ with each specific theory, and therefore, may not be useful

across the board. Multiple theories may satisfy the investigation required related to

varying leadership questions within organizations. The theory selected allows the

researcher to see some features at the cost of missing others (Larsson & Hyllengren,

2013). Different models influence organizational systems according to circumstance, and

leadership is a series of attempts to alter human actions (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013).

Given the dynamic and multifaceted socio environmental context in which

leadership occurs, there will continue to be a need for theories to explain and increase understanding of the contexts in which leadership occurs. Culture represents the attitudes and values of the individual's influence upon their motivation to contribute to organizational effectiveness (Densten & Sarro, 2012). Additionally, as globalization increases, the overall cultural effects on leadership will only exacerbate the debate related to what affects leaders, and whether national cultural or individual belief systems play a determining factor in overall effectiveness. The lack of definition of leaderships' salient dimensions continues to result in a gap between a socially constructed concept and an analytical model (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013).

Larsson and Hyllengren (2013) stated leaders should understand the varying context of the environment within which they operate and determine the sets of skills, traits, and attributes leaders possess that bear on the context to further the organizational end state. Moreover, leaders require an understanding of the leader/follower relationship and engage the necessary behaviors that complement their subordinates' capabilities while providing fair recognition for subordinate inputs (Hui-Ling & Yu-Hsuan, 2011). As leaders effectively merge context, the changes in perspective are necessary because the context in which leaders operate will continue to be different and diverse as organizations achieve greater diversity. Since developmental leader training experiences occur in the present with the expectation that the leader will apply what he or she has learned, training is also prospective or looking ahead (Olivares, 2011). Therefore, understanding context is essential to ensure the training will facilitate the accomplishment of institutional goals (Olivares, 2011).

Relational Theories

In building relationships, effective leaders employ many strategies and, at times combinations of strategies. Relationships affect every organization and influence its overall success or failure (Ghosh et al., 2013). This section further reviews strategies related to best practices in communication, interpersonal behavior, cultural nuances, and the ability of leaders to acknowledge alternative views with a strong potential to enhance the actions of law enforcement executives. Ghosh et al. (2013) stated that developmental relationships play an important role in leadership effectiveness, and growth over time can influence the quality and availability of high quality developmental training for purposes of continuous learning and development. These developmental relationships were supported by the findings of this study related to mentoring and training of law enforcement leaders.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory describes leaders developing an exchange relationship over time with each subordinate as the two parties influence each other and negotiate the subordinates' roles in the organization (Naidoo, Scherbaum, Goldstein, & Graen, 2011). LMX theory emphasizes that some leaders develop a high exchange relationship with a small number of trusted subordinates; however, a recent revision of the theory prescribes that the leader should try to establish a distinct exchange relationship with all subordinates if possible, not just the favorites (Chullen, 2014). Personnel who have positive relationships with their supervisor are able to obtain more benefits in terms of better assignments, promotions, career enhancements, and empowerment (Sahin, 2012). Impacts on the organization range from subordinates who

experience higher job satisfaction, increased performance, and stronger organizational commitment when they have a favorable downward exchange relationship (Monahan, 2014). Interestingly, as differentiation of dyadic relationships increases, at some point the organization may see feelings of resentment among the low-exchange members who have not gained the leader's favor (Chullen, 2014). The quality of relationships between supervisors and subordinates can depict high quality, trusting, respectful, and loyal relationships; or low quality, mistrustful, low respect, and lack of loyalty relationships (Agarwal, Datta, Blake-Beard, & Bhargava, 2012). Moreover, the LMX theory states that while it is not necessary to treat all subordinates the same, they should perceive that they are an influential and respected member of the team or the overall organization will suffer due to the perception of second-class citizen status amongst some employees (Agarwal et al., 2012). Hence, successful leadership, regardless of the professional occupation is about extracting and maximizing the potential within the team (Shetach, 2012).

Attribution theory describes the cognitive processes leaders use to determine the reasons for effective or ineffective performance and the appropriate reaction (Wu, Zhang, Chiu, Kwan, & He, 2014). This theory has two stages: in the first stage, the leader seeks to determine the cause of the poor performance; in the second stage, the leader selects an appropriate response to correct the problem (Wu et al., 2014). Poor performance due to internal or external influences is something that the leader should determine. Prior experience of the leader, as well as the subordinate's past record, will influence the response by the leader (Wu et al., 2014). These interpersonal relationships define

organizations and adapt as changes occur in the people involved in the collective

activities (Novac & Bratanov, 2014).

Relational leadership forces leaders to examine the social processes and patterned

relationships to explain how collective activity can accomplish shared objectives

(Oghojafor, Olayemi, Oluwatula, & Okonji, 2012). Leaders should also understand the

cultural attitudes, behaviors, and goals of different people in a diverse organization in

order to employ the various strategies that could lead to a successful end state (Chong,

2014). The motivation for establishing exchange relationships is that high quality,

effective relationships positively influence organizational outcomes, and low quality

relationships negatively influence outcomes (Hannah, Uhl-Bien, Avolio, & Cavarretta,

2009). Furthermore, a leader's understanding of employee abilities ensures proper

assignment of tasks to those best suited to accomplish the task, which in turn leads to

success for the individual and the organization.

Adaptive Leadership Theory

The adaptive leadership theory describes how leaders develop and maintain

organizations that can be sustainable over the long term precisely because they are more

adaptive (Hannah et al., 2009). Successful efforts to transform an organization depend in

part on when, where, and how various aspects of change take place, and who participates

in the process and in what ways (Borzillo & Kaminska-labbé, 2011). An effective leader

is no longer one who maximizes his/her own intelligence alone and dominates the scene,

but one who optimizes the collective intelligence of the systems and allows that latter to

evolve, compete, and succeed (Leavy, 2011). In the new environment, both leaders and

followers possess both direct and indirect functions (Desai, 2010). Furthermore, in this new environment, leaders and followers possess both direct and indirect functions (Leavy, 2011). This is the collective leadership approach, and it is a vital aspect of the adaptive strategy (Chapman & Randall, 2012). Additionally, it is easier to embed a culture in new organizations than to change the culture of mature organizations (Desai, 2010). Moreover, some of the underlying beliefs and assumptions shared by people in an organization arise over years and drive the selection of leaders, which in turn makes them difficult to influence. Therefore, leaders should encourage consultation, collaboration, joint decision-making, and delegation among their employees in all business units to influence change (Kahane, 2012).

In the new leadership dynamic of intelligent organizations, the followers have to be as much a part of the leadership process as possible (Stevenson, 2012). The initial reaction to change within an organization can be acceptance or resistance, but in either case, commitment by followers is a likely outcome of a change initiative when people trust their leaders and believe that the change is necessary and likely to be effective (Baek-Kyoo & Ready, 2012). This linkage between leaders and followers reinforces the new trend towards collective leadership. Moreover, complex adaptive systems are a collection of individual agents with freedom to act in unpredictable ways whose actions are interconnected (Skoko, 2013). As complex adaptive systems learn, adapt, and evolve with the changing environment (Leavy, 2011), followers contribute to the effectiveness of the group by maintaining cooperative relationships, providing constructive dissent, sharing leadership functions, and supporting leadership development (Randall, 2012).

Leader Training

Phipps, Prieto, and Ndinguri (2014) stated leadership development is popular, and some organizations have decided to invest in this valuable but costly enterprise. Leadership training facilitates the effectiveness of the leader in the social or interpersonal aspects of leadership to include (a) perspective, (b) context, (c) effectiveness, (d) traits, and (e) change (Phipps et. al., 2014). Leadership is now a valuable commodity, and organizations should look at global trends including the rapid pace of change, the increased use of technology globalization, increasing workforce diversity, and the rise of multinational corporations that produces cross-cultural diversity (Ghosh, Haynes, & Kram, 2013).

Phipps et al. (2014) defined leader development as the expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes that facilitate setting direction, creating alignment, and maintaining commitment in groups of people who share common work. Leader development embraces the individual, while leadership development focuses on the organization. Additionally, leader development encompasses the cultivation of competencies that incorporate self-awareness and self-management, relationship management, and task fulfillment (Phipps et al., 2014).

In human capital theory, organizations should make investments in developing the human capital of their workforce in order to increase organizational performance (Banerjee, 2013). Rahman and Nas (2013) stated that appropriate training and development practices are decisive for an organization's success. Campbell and Kodz (2011) conducted a review of multiple studies to demonstrate the lack of information

with regard to leadership, leadership competencies, assessments, and the development of leadership when dealing with the law enforcement industry. Jantti and Greenhalgh (2012) stated that leader competencies describe the measurable characteristics of a person related to success at work. Jantti and Greenhalgh continued to solidify the concern that there is a gap in the literature pertaining to leadership and the knowledge of leadership competencies in the field of law enforcement. Based on this gap, the need for further research on leadership, leadership competencies, and training strategies has increased. Campbell and Kodz suggested that the potential leaders within law enforcement require further training in the area of leadership to reach their full potential within the communities they serve.

Leaders are more effective in leadership roles due to their capacity to respond to complex leadership demands. By definition, employee development is a collaborative and consistent effort of the employee/employer who works with the motive to enrich employees' attitudes, competencies, knowledge, experiences, skills, and abilities and to improve their overall effectiveness (Rahman & Nas, 2013). Subsequently, developing leaders and succession management are issues that are paramount for some executives (Jantti & Greenhalgh, 2012).

Perspective

Perspective is acknowledged in the leadership literature as essential to understanding effective leadership, and the need to pay attention to situational variables has been recognized (Novac & Bratanov, 2014). Perspectives encourage researchers to consider temporality, causal relations, units of analysis, and dependent variables

consistent with the social construction of human agency within the given context, to develop robust models and leadership understanding (Prewitt et al., 2011). Although perspective may be pertinent within leadership literature for decades, only recently has empirical research given perspective widespread attention (Larsson & Eid, 2012). Understanding leader perspectives while developing training courses enhances overall training development (Harley, Metcalf, & Irwin, 2014).

Organizational perspectives are key determinants of the behaviors that take place within organizations. Organizations include multiple individuals, leaders, directorates, services, and technologies that allow for the product or service delivery (Kaine & Gowan, 2011). The theory associated with researching similarities related to personal experiences in leadership across law enforcement organizations and subsequent perceived differences in leadership actions and traits within these organizations is the general systems theory (GST). Suriyankietkaew (2013) stated simply articulating a vision is insufficient to create perspective; instead, leaders should create perspective by putting their stamp on culture through corporate philosophy statements and organizational visions. Gregory, Moates, and Gregory (2011) advocated that leadership style is a stable individual characteristic, and leaders should assume situations fitting their leadership style. Ultimately, organizational perspective influences individual characteristics of leaders and followers (Rowold, 2011). However, perspective influences change in outcomes and whether specific leadership patterns are effective (Warrick, 2011). The relationship between leader and follower influences the relationships both parties have with other individuals within the organization, and with the contextual variables at the group and

organizational levels as well as the situational variables related to task and authority to reward performance the leader has upon the follower (Yaghoubi et al., 2014).

Contextual behavior is a function of person and environment. For example, organizational behaviors can be misread when examined in isolation of the perspective in which they occurred (Gentry & Sparks, 2012). Moreover, person and situation reciprocally influence one another (Bose, Garretson Folse, & Burton, 2013). Additionally, situational variables throughout the environment affect the relationship a leader maintains with a single follower and influences other subsequent followers.

Global Contextual Challenges in Leadership

Context matters in that the effectiveness at the top of an organization requires leaders to familiar with the ebb and flow of opportunity and challenge in the organization's wider environment and the lack of contextual sensitivity (Leavy, 2013b). These effects on organizations could increase as the world continues to shrink due to global technology trends (e.g., the Internet). Organizational cultures, values, beliefs, and norms should account for national cultures, individual beliefs, customs, and etiquettes, which could influence context and contribute to leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, the global economy, Internet, and dramatic growth in international travel may serve to increase the degree of similarity in patterns of relationships across countries (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). Santos, Hayward, and Ramos (2012) stated the four dimensions of organizational culture: innovation, respect for people, aggressiveness, and team orientation require attention as part of the leader-member exchange relationships. Hence, future organization(s) have to

evolve to become adaptive cultures that require flexibility with respect to values and norms that assist organizations in building momentum, growing, and changing as the environment changes in order to maintain a competitive edge. In addressing the four dimensions, as they relate to national cultures and individual beliefs, leaders will be required to integrate variables into the organization's values, beliefs, and norms such that overall objectives of the organization can be achieved (Santos et al., 2012). This global challenge may continue in the future as organizations continue to grow and leaders come from different cultural backgrounds.

Leadership Traits

The term trait refers to a variety of individual attributes, including aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives, and values (Fioravante, 2013). If leadership is influencing others to accomplish organizational goals, then identifying specific leadership traits necessary to be effective should be essential to success (Green & Roberts, 2012). Traits associated with effective leaders are (a) a high energy level and stress tolerance, (b) self-confidence, (c) internal locus of control orientation, (d) emotional maturity, (e) personal integrity, (f) socialized power motivation, (g) moderately high achievement orientation, and (h) a low need for affiliation (Green & Roberts, 2012). Effective leaders understand their strengths and weaknesses and compensate for traits they lack by relying on those traits they possess (Schafer, 2010). Moreover, nature and nurturing influences contribute to influence personality traits in life (Littrell, 2013). Some aspects of leadership are set at a young age while other aspects of leadership are able to develop well into adult life (i.e., the Global Leadership Competencies; Green & Roberts, 2012).

The abilities of leaders change relative to basic aptitudes and repetitive training can compensate or improve a leader's capabilities, thereby increasing effectiveness over time. Additionally, external influences support individual traits and affect management style relative to the cognitive and physical abilities surrounding the overall nature/nurture discussion. Moreover, leadership traits serve as precursors to leader effectiveness, and certain personal attributes promote how leaders learn and grow from experience (Frimpon, 2012). To that end, leaders can learn skills required to enhance the organizational effectiveness. Personality traits are relevant to leadership because the challenges of leadership positions can cause individuals to rely more heavily upon actions and competencies that they are most comfortable.

Leadership centers upon inborn personality traits, abilities, or gifts (Kalargyrou, Pescosolido, & Kalargiros, 2012). However, a positive trait can also become a weakness. For instance, people tend to emphasize skills early in their careers, and later when the skill is no longer relevant, the skill becomes a weakness (Tonidandel, Braddy, & Fleenor, 2012). For example, different levels of management require expert skills by line managers related to implementing and maintaining workflows. Mid level managers require skills implementing structures, policies, and goals while executive level managers require skills related to complex relationships, global perspectives, and vision (Tonidandel et al., 2012). Therefore, the line manager's skill set would not be effective in an executive managerial billet and vice versa. The transferability of skill sets is not an easy task and effective managers must develop relevant skill sets for their position and identify their own weaknesses. Once the manager has identified his or her weaknesses

the effective manager will find ways to compensate for the weakness through hiring subordinates who possess the skills required, or emphasizing another of his or her skills and/or traits to achieve the desired end state.

The Role of Power

Leadership, management, and power are common terms often used interchangeably in business communications. Understanding the key differences between management, leadership, and the role of power is critical (Iyer, 2012). Many equate the terms *leader* and *manager* yet a lot of leadership occurs outside of managerial roles. For instance, leaders prepare organizations for change by giving direction, providing inspiration, building teams, and setting examples (Iyer, 2012). People who are not managers can be leaders, and conversely many managers are not leaders (Hannah et al., 2009).

A leadership challenge is to build a strong power base and develop effective influence strategies to produce power dynamics (Schweitzer, 2014). Power involves the capacity of one party (the agent) to influence another party (the target; Wu et al., 2014). Additionally, the role of leadership is to promote adaptive or useful changes (Waite, 2014). Therefore, leaders set the direction and purpose for employees and assist them in progressing in that direction with competence and full commitment (Li & Li, 2011).

Power (2013) asserted there are multiple types of positional and personal power leaders might employ. The five types of positional power are (a) reward power in which the target person complies to obtain rewards, (b) coercive power in which the target person complies to avoid punishment, (c) legitimate power in which the target person

complies due to the agent's position to make the request, (d) information power in which the target believes the agent possesses information not available to the target, and (e) ecological power in which the agent controls the various environments resulting in indirect influence over targets (Wu et al., 2014). The two types of personal power are (a) referent power in which the target complies based on admiration or identification with the agent and (b) expert power in which the target complies based on a belief the agent has particular knowledge of the topic (Power, 2013).

Power (2013) stated that effective leaders rely on personal power to exert influence on targets. Effective leaders who have the skills engage the requisite power effectively, and they will require less power to achieve an organization's essential goals (Power, 2013). If an individual views leadership as an influence relationship, the core to this influence is. Managers use position power to generate authority and compliance. Leaders develop personal power and influence others to follow willingly, more out of persuasion and personal power kinds of issues (Hannah et al., 2009). Furthermore, if leadership is using influence to create change and managerial leadership is leadership that occurs in formal managerial positions (Hannah et al., 2009), then certainly both roles are necessary and can be beneficial.

Thus, the role of leadership is to promote adaptive or useful changes and is therefore not a freestanding activity but is instead one function among many activities that can occur in several but not all roles (Waite, 2014). Therefore, effective leaders use relationships through the influence over their targeted subordinates. Leaders use relationships to achieve the objectives of the organization while remaining open through

empowerment of the targets/employees to reciprocal influences that contribute to the overall long term success of the organization (Linjuan & Stacks, 2013).

Change

Leadership is a vital attribute that connects organizational objectives, strategies, functions, and the other activities together (Vithessonthi & Thoumrungroje, 2011). As change within an organization is inevitable, the success of an organization depends in large part on how effectively leadership handles these changes. In the new leadership dynamic of an intelligent organization, the followers have to be as much a part of the leadership process as possible (Leavy, 2011). The initial reaction to changing within an organization can be acceptance or resistance; however, commitment by followers is a more likely the outcome of a change initiative when people trust their leaders and believe that the change is necessary and likely to be effective (Ismail, Richard, & Taylor, 2012). This linkage between leaders and followers reinforces support towards adaptive change (Leavy, 2011).

As complex adaptive systems learn, adapt, and evolve with the changing environment, followers can contribute to the effectiveness of the group by maintaining cooperative relationships, providing constructive dissent, sharing leadership functions, and supporting leadership development (Leavy, 2011). If leadership is a vital attribute that connects organizational objectives, strategies, functions, and the other activities together, then as change within an organization's environment occurs, the success of the firm depends in large part on how effectively leadership handles these changes (Stanleigh, 2013).

Leadership Strengths in Building Successful Organizations

Organizational culture values, beliefs, and norms endeavor to account for individual beliefs, national cultures, customs, and etiquettes, which influence context and contribute to leadership effectiveness. While no single leadership style necessarily works better than any other, situational variables often call for different leadership styles, and the research on team-building and leadership styles has led to the conclusion that flexibility frequently distinguishes success or lack of success in a leadership situation (Darling & Heller, 2012). Leadership must include (a) decision-making, (b) creating and communicating a vision of the future, (c) developing key competencies and capabilities, (d) developing organizational structures, processes, and controls, (e) managing multiple constituencies, (f) selecting and developing the next generation of leaders, (g) sustaining an effective organizational culture, and (h) infusing ethical value systems into the organization (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000). Leadership strategies typically encompass (a) integrity, (b) values, (c) quality, (d) commitment, (e) customer satisfaction, (f) diversity, (g) teamwork, and (h) good corporate citizenship (Dalgleish, Mauricio, & Williams, 2013). Similar strategies articulate the tenants of transformational leadership, which appeals to the moral values of followers such that leaders can mobilize their followers' energy and resources in pursuit of organizational objectives (Gandolfi, 2012). Leading and managing depends on the situation, and a leader must not only focus on managing the internally complex environment but understanding the larger dynamic and complex external environment (Rathindran, 2014). Leaders should demonstrate an understanding that is shaped and molded into a clear and compelling vision of what the organization is,

what the organization could become, and how the organization will get there (Sirisetti, 2011). Additionally, leaders must demonstrate technical skills, conceptual skills, and interpersonal skills to varying degrees associated with transformational leadership traits that encourage followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization (Asumeng, 2014).

Leadership Weaknesses

Cheung (2013) contended that context is crucial for understanding effective leadership, and the need to pay more attention to situational variables is necessary. The fact that national culture is a determinant of organizational culture poses some captivating problems for organizations (Seen, Singh, & Jayasingam, 2012). Traits vary between cultures based on personality differences, ability differences, and national cultural norm/values. Leaders seeking to manage disparate operations must seek diversity amongst its management cadre as well as ensure training, education, and mentoring programs exist to maximize the workforce and benefit the organizational goals.

To this end, leaders must seek to improve on the interfollower social contagion processes (Schafer, 2010) with the realization that distance matters. Ineffective law enforcement leaders displayed traits of ineffective communication, neglecting the needs of employees, poor work ethics, and questionable integrity (Schafer, 2010). Timing, organization culture, and the state of the organization will influence the effectiveness of both charismatic leaders and transformational leaders based on the transactions related to honesty, reliability, and trustworthiness (Narayanan, 2012). Moreover, strong trust in a leader is a defining element of relationships (Narayanan, 2012). Therefore, based on the

size of an organization, leaders must ensure the methods of leadership display charismatic attributes related to vision, strategy, and change, but also demonstrate transformational attributes that develop trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect to ensure success of the organization (Ding, Lu, Song, & Lu, 2012).

Effectiveness of Leaders

A key element for effective leadership is to understand that leadership embeds in context. Kempster, Jackson, and Conroy (2011) defined leadership as the incremental influence of position holders exercised via direct and indirect means to maintain or alter the existing dynamics in and of a system. Therefore, effective leaders need to understand their personality traits, political skills, and competencies, and implement these abilities based on the environment to achieve the end state of the organization (Gentry et al., 2013). Yet what makes leaders effective in their roles is highly contested with a considerable debate focusing around the use and understanding of different terms such as skills, abilities, traits, aptitudes, and capabilities (Williams, 2013).

Leadership styles have changed since the mid 20th Century such that leader's behavior in the 21st Century is now a critical factor of how an organization's culture is communicated (Dike, 2012). Most effective leaders are skilled at reading the contexts in which they operate and knowing how to engage effectively with this context. Even if leadership actors cannot always control events within the environment, leaders do have the ability to control the context under which events take place (Suriyankietkaew, 2013). An example is President Obama's campaign for the United States Presidency in which Obama chose not to frame himself as a black candidate, but as a candidate who happened

to be black, thus carefully navigating United States racial identity politics

(Suriyankietkaew, 2013). Obama understood the dynamics of race as it related to the

campaign, and skillfully adjusted the party message to achieve the end state and control

the context.

Conversely, President Eisenhower was a military commander who failed to

realize the changing dynamics within the military and political environments.

Eisenhower fully understood the environment in the military but suffered from a

deficiency of contextual understanding, which lacked the appreciation of what was taking

place within the political organization, and what it would take to move it toward renewed,

improved, or sustained success (Almqvist, Bino, Catasús, & Skoog, 2011). The resulting

lack of appreciation in changing dynamics is often due to the lack of operational

familiarity and initial ignorance of the indigenous and ingrained thought process behind

problem solving in the new organization (Almqvist et al., 2011). To appreciate the

critical nature of context, a successful leader in one organization should consider context,

or the leader may fail in another organization.

Law Enforcement Leadership Actions

The speed of decision making within law enforcement organizations requires

leaders to engage, empower, and harness the enablers, both people and technology, across

the organization (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013). To that end, law enforcement leaders

should maintain their commitment to the participative and transformational leadership

styles, which nutures the inspiration, development, and empowerment of followers, thus

preserving the success of the organization (Larsson & Hyllengren, 2013). Additionally,

leaders should embrace the essence of strategic leadership related to the creation and maintenance of absorptive capacity and adaptive capacity coupled with managerial wisdom (Hairuddin, 2012). The absorptive capacity refers to the ability to learn and endeavor to cultivate an environment that encourages plausible judgment, active listening, periodic information exchange, and working consensus (Daspit & D'Souza, 2013). Law enforcement leaders should incorporate adaptive capacity, which refers to the ability to change (Randall, 2012). Randall (2012) stated only through remaining flexible, continuously learning, and focusing on innovation could leaders maintain their ability to react to changes in the industry. Finally, leaders should employ managerial wisdom, which refers to the ability to perceive variation in the organizational environment (Hurst, 2013).

In the literature review, I discussed the definition of leadership in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, competencies, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position. Leaders should understand that there is no clear definition for leadership, nor is there one solution as to which leadership competency, style, trait, behavior, or influence will work in every situation. Leadership depends on many variables, competencies, traits, and context and timing matter significantly. The topic of followership corresponds to successful leadership. Only through a combination of competencies, traits and behaviors as well as embracing adaptive leadership can an organization's leader truly be successful in leading an organization by influencing others to a collective end state.

The challenges facing organizations over the last few decades have become more

global in scope and technologically intense (Asare, Gopolang, & Mogotlhwane, 2012).

Therefore, if the role of leadership in building successful organizations encompasses

leaders adopting a new competitive mindset–one in which mental agility, firm flexibility,

speed, innovation, and globalized strategic thinking are valued. Then leaders should

adopt a mindset that subsequently enables leaders to identify and competitively exploit

opportunities that emerge in the new competitive landscape supporting the notion that

leader competencies matter. It takes leadership that exhibits a combination of

participatory model, transformational and charismatic processes, and vision to be

successful in today's complex environment (Searle & Hanrahan, 2012).

Across the global landscape, different models fit different circumstances

validating the argument that context matters. Therefore, there is no one solution for any

organization nor is there one definition of leadership. In fact, leadership will remain an

emerging social construction embedded in each unique organization for the immediate

future.

Transition and Summary

In Section 1, I established the proposed qualitative single case study to explore the

strategies law enforcement leaders need to develop leadership training plans. In Section

2, I will establish the research method and design, as well as, the data collection

parameters and reliability and validity factors. In Section 3, I will present findings,

recommendations, and implications for social change.

Section 2: The Project

Section 2 contains the following subsections: (a) a restatement of the purpose of this study, (b) a discussion of the researcher's role, (c) a description of participant strategies for conducting the study, (d) additional information on the research methodology and design, (e) additional information on the study population, and (f) discussion on the ethical research process. Additionally, this section contains details on data collection, data instruments, data collection techniques, and data analysis. Furthermore, the section includes discussion on the reliability and validity factors of the study.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore the strategies law enforcement leaders use for leadership development. 18 senior officers in a Northern Virginia law enforcement organization participated in semistructured interviews to share their experiences related to leadership development. The results are intended to contribute to law enforcement business practices and provide recommendations to leaders regarding how to develop improved training plans. The inclusion of leadership training strategies is expected to inform the development of training programs, creating positive implications for law enforcement organizations and ultimately leading to safer communities they serve.

Role of the Researcher

I served as the primary research instrument in this qualitative case study and recorded, categorized, and interpreted per Murphy and Yielder (2010). Moustakas (1994)

stated that qualitative research takes place in a natural setting employing multiple methods of data collection based on the participant's meanings while relying on the researcher as the primary instrument for data collection. However, there is no comprehensive analysis of the various functions related to the role of the researcher (Kyvik, 2013). Data collection began only after obtaining Institutional Review Board authorization and notification of approval to conduct the research project. Xu and Storr (2012) discussed that the typical interview method must include observation to enhance the research and that observation complements the discussion with participants. Therefore, my role as the researcher began by developing the questions, conducting the interviews, data collection and analysis, and finally disseminating the results of this case study, as suggested by Yin (2012).

I used an interview protocol to assist in ensuring that the same data collection technique for was used each interview, as suggested by Stewart, Polak, Young, and Schultz (2012). This interview protocol consisted of a document starting with a heading for date, time, place, and interviewee number. The interview protocol contained the instructions concerning the reading of the consent form to the participants, the note taking process, and a list of open-ended interview questions. The protocol also contained a concluding and appropriate thank you statement for use during the interview. The interview questions were designed to support and guide the semistructured interviews as well as support additional inquiry as necessary. I set out to develop open-ended interview questions that enabled a thorough understanding of the participants' experiences related to leadership training plans.

I was not associated in any way with the field of law enforcement at the time of this study nor did I have any personal working relationship with the participants. My access to the population of possible study participants' names was through soliciting local law enforcement organizations in Northern Virginia. Marshall and Rossman (2011) noted that researchers should strive to mitigate any personal biases, values, and background that have the potential to shape the interpretations of research collected during the study; my lack of previous involvement reduced this potential. I also used a narrative approach to translate and transcribe the professional experiences of the participants and mitigate bias from collecting and analyzing data through my personal lens. My completion of the Belmont course prior to beginning the research was also intended to assist me in adhering to the Belmont Report protocols, making sure that proper ethical considerations, and protections were in place throughout the research project, as suggested by Strause (2013).

Participants

In qualitative research, knowledge results from the context-specific outlook on the case study-explored phenomena, subjectivity to participants' frames of reference, interpretations, and depiction of social experiences (Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012). Law enforcement executives in leadership roles provide consulting, counseling, guidance, and ultimately decision-making. The executives in this study, based on their hierarchical position within the organizations, were those who make the final decisions that affected the employees, society, or the organization as a whole.

The participants for this single case study were senior law enforcement leaders in Northern Virginia with experience in leadership training. In order to assist in participant identification for this study, I first identified a senior leader population to study within a specific local department, in accordance with Yap and Webber's (2015) statement that a key component of qualitative research is to identify the appropriate participants for the study. In this case, the participant criteria included leadership experience and training development.

I obtained contact information of law enforcement executives in the target area through personal communications with a law enforcement agency in Northern Virginia. I targeted 18 executive participants within the law enforcement community to explore and understand the research questions for this study, in alignment with Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, and Fontenot's (2013) recommendations for participant pool sizes necessary to explore and understand the research questions within a study. I scheduled follow up interviews to ensure data saturation and an in-depth understanding of the participant data, per Coenen, Stamm, Stucki, and Cieza's (2012) guidelines.

This qualitative study involved the case study design to explore the personal experiences of executives at the highest levels of law enforcement organizational leadership. Potential participants received information on the purpose of the study and a request to participate through an informed consent letter (Appendix A). Each interview session began with an exchange of pleasantries and a brief introduction because casual discussions about the research can assist in establishing rapport and help motivate the participants (Yin, 2012). Furthermore, effective communication supported proper

researcher and participant relationships, enabling quality responses from each participant.

Rubin and Rubin (2012) maintained that semistructured interviews are a good technique

researchers may employ to assist the researcher in focusing on the details that address the

research question. Therefore, I used responsive interviewing to develop a working

relationship with participants so additional questions may follow based on initial

questions rather than focusing exclusively on a predetermined set of questions. Pelzang,

Wood, and Black (2010) and Muna (2011) argued that the meaning of the participants'

conversations become clear through analyzing the participants' words to determine their

contextual perspective as it relates to lived experiences this study explored.

Subsequently, participant meaning supported qualitative data in determining how often

study participants use various career advancement specific strategies.

Research Method and Design

I used a qualitative, single case study design using a single organization to study a

law enforcement organization's leadership training strategies. In qualitative research, the

design emerges as the study unfolds. Case study design enabled me to develop a theory

based on multiple levels of abstraction.

Method

Wisdom et al. (2012) identified qualitative research as a way to explore and

understand the nature of a problem. Qualitative research methodology integrates the

observer and the observation (Al-Hamden & Anthony, 2010) and allows for research in a

real world setting (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Moreover, qualitative research is rich,

occurs in a naturalistic setting, and focuses on the meaning of the observation (Wisdom et

al., 2012).

Prior to selecting the research method, I conducted a review of three research methods for conducting research. The review included quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies (Rowley, 2012; Kapoulas & Mitic, 2012; Wisdom, Cavaleri, Onwuegbuzie, & Green, 2012). Babbie (2010) encouraged researchers to compare the differences between research methodologies to gain a better understanding and help determine the study method that best meets the purpose of a study. These differences may include philosophical assumptions, type of study, purpose, use of question(s) or hypotheses, population researched, data, and data analysis (Babbie, 2010).

Qualitative research is one end of the research continuum with the distinction being that qualitative research provides a framework in terms of the implementation of different philosophical assumptions, strategies of inquiry, and methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Moustakas, 1994). Qualitative data provided insight into participants' reflections and the organizational context (McMullen & Adobor, 2011). Additionally, Moustakas (1994) acknowledged that qualitative research takes place in a natural setting employing multiple methods of data collection based on the participant's meanings while relying on the researcher as the primary instrument for data collection.

In quantitative research, the researcher is an outside observer who seeks scientific data about relationships (Al-Hamden & Anthony, 2010). In other words, the researcher and the phenomena are separate. Hence, it is essential that all aspects of the design are complete before data collection. This method is a way to test hypotheses through examining relationships. Quantitative researchers test hypotheses by measuring and

analyzing relationships between variables and presenting the relationships as numbers and statistics (Al-Hamden & Anthony, 2010; Babbie, 2010). Researchers also use a deductive process to collect, analyze, and interpret the data. Subsequently, researchers interpret and discuss implications of results and the particularities of the interpretations determine further study and action (Al-Hamden & Anthony, 2010). Therefore, quantitative design is not the optimal choice since it does not match the exploratory nature of the research question.

Mixed method research uses qualitative and quantitative data to inform each other and produce insight and understanding that either approach alone cannot duplicate. A mixed methods design allows researchers to correlate quantitative data and qualitative data to determine patterns (Dai et al., 2011). Based on the insight into participants' reflections and the organizational context sought, qualitative research is the optimal choice to enhance the overall strength of the study. In comparing methodologies for this study, I selected a qualitative research design. A qualitative design was best suited because quantitative and mixed methodology designs did not match the exploratory nature of the study (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011; Ostulund, Kidd, Wengstrom, & Rowa-Dewar, 2011).

Research Design

I considered three qualitative research designs: ethnography, phenomenological, and case study. Marshall and Rossman (2011) described ethnography as an attempt to study a human group by understanding how the group forms and maintains a culture. Ethnography studies require researchers to use a variety of data collection methods and

immerse themselves into the culture for an extended period (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Additionally, Marshall and Rossman (2011) discussed ethnographic study designs are more suitable for examining the beliefs and behaviors of culture-sharing groups. Researchers evolve interpretations and develop descriptions specific to the participants studied based on professional experiences (Al-Hamden & Anthony, 2010). Ethnography was not an optimal choice for this project due to the extended immersion required with the participant pool in a field setting. A mini ethnography was also not an optimal choice due to the required investigation of everyday behaviors of participants necessary to identify the cultural norms, beliefs, patterns, and social structures.

I considered and rejected a phenomenological design. Phenomenological studies are designed to explore individual lived experiences through multiple in-depth interviews with people of interest (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Marshall and Rossman (2011) stated that phenomenological design permits data collection from the conduct of interviews but does not allow for the gathering of information from publicly available documents. Instead, phenomenological studies focus on the wholeness of experience and the search for essences of experiences (Moustakas, 1994). Because the study of leadership development is not a new area of study or a phenomenon that the participants have recently experienced, my study topic did not lend itself to a phenomenological design.

I ultimately selected a case study design as the most appropriate for this topic. Case study research design provides the ability to collect evidence to explore a focused research subject (Yin, 2012). Yin (2012) described three types of case studies:

exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory, which give the researcher options based on the study objective. The description of a case study design can be one of three types of case studies: intrinsic, with intent at understanding; instrumental, with insight or refined theory; and collective, by means of multiple cases (Yin, 2012).

The research design for this study was a single case exploratory design seeking to reveal the experiences of participants and gain insight into developing leadership training strategies of law enforcement executives. The review of qualitative designs revealed case study design is desired over narrative research due to reasons of abstraction (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Using a case study provided a method to collect specific details regarding the research subject enhancing the validity and reliability of the design. Therefore, case study design was best suited for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data using an inductive process for this study.

Data saturation is an elusive concept and standard in qualitative research since few concrete guidelines exist (Marshall et al., 2013). Marshal et al. (2013) stated data saturation is the point when information within the data becomes repetitive. Coenen et al. (2012) recognized data saturation as a concept that lacks standards for sample size. Sample size depends on what data are sought, the purpose of the inquiry, utility of the data, and data credibility. Factors that can influence sample size needed to reach saturation include quality of interviews, number of interviews per participant, sampling procedures, and researcher experience (Gupta & Hodges, 2012). In order to ensure data saturation, multiple semistructured interviews occurred with additional probing questions along with follow-up interviews.

Population and Sampling

The population consisted of active executives of law enforcement organizations. Shalini and Arora (2012) argued that the focus of data collection should be on the subjectively relevant segments of the population. Since only the executive segment of the law enforcement population was of interest from the point of view of fulfilling the objectives in this study, the participant population came from local precincts in Northern Virginia. Marshall et al. (2013) maintained that data collection and the size of the participant pool enable the exploration and understanding of the research questions within a study. The use of purposeful sampling techniques to identify key executives with full knowledge of leadership training activities in the department and history of past training development assisted in obtaining key participants for the study (Wilson, Barrenger, Bohrman & Draine, 2013).

A purposeful, criterion-oriented sample focused on a small number of interviewees at the rank of Police Chief, Captain, or Lieutenant, relying on depth and detail to obtain relevant personal experiences of the participants. Farrokhi and Mahmoudi-Hamidabad (2012) stated that convenience sampling is a kind of non-probability or nonrandom sampling in which members of the target population are selected for the purpose of the study if they meet certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer. Additionally, the population was required to have experience in leader training within law enforcement. Leaders in the population sample without leader training experience did not take part in the study.

There are approximately 500 personnel in the targeted law enforcement organization, of which 75 are senior personnel. I targeted at least 18 senior executive participants within the 75 senior personnel that make up the seniors in one law enforcement organization in Northern Virginia to explore and understand the research questions for this study. Follow up interviews and the addition of participants were conducted to ensure data saturation, and planning for additional participants or interviews occurred as required.

Convenience sampling provided participants who were readily available and who met the study criteria related to being law enforcement executives (Suri, 2011). Convenience sampling enabled discovery of information from key informants in the field (Suri, 2011). In addition, convenience sampling allowed for selection within the organization due to the limited number of executives within the targeted organization (Shedlin, Decena, Mangadu, & Martinez, 2011). According to Spiegel, Schiller, and Srinivasan (2012), in order to draw reliable conclusions concerning the population, the sample must represent the population sufficiently well. Therefore, the eligibility criteria to select participants included executives within law enforcement in Northern Virginia.

In qualitative research, the researcher analyzes data throughout the study to determine the point at which no more data are required to support data saturation (O'Reilly & Parker, 2012). Data saturation is the point when information within the data becomes repetitive (Marshal et al., 2013). Gupta and Hodges (2012) asserted that the sample size should depend on the quality of interviews, number of interviews per participant, and success of convenience sampling procedures. Therefore, I used

semistructured interviews and conducted follow-up interviews with member checking to

ensure correct interpretations of the data in order to gain a more in depth understanding

of the information and reach data saturation. Semistructured interviews enabled data

collection and supported the purpose of the inquiry, utility of the data, and data

credibility. The initial sample size is 18 senior executives, which I increased as needed to

reach data saturation. Final determination of the number of participants and related

interviews depended on reaching data saturation.

In an effort to achieve data saturation, I ensured data collection continued until

there were no new insights emerging from the participant interviews. Marshal et al.

(2013) recognized data saturation as an elusive concept with few definitive guidelines.

For example, O'Reilly and Parker (2012) stated that there is no agreed upon number or

formula for achieving data saturation. Additionally, O'Reilly and Parker believed that

data saturation enhances the transparency, credibility, and trustworthiness of research.

Therefore, I used interviews, documentation, and direct observation to obtain data

saturation. Follow up interviews were necessary to ensure no new information was

forthcoming signifying data saturation as stated above. Sylvain and Lamothe (2012)

noted that interviews could be the main source of data. However, integration of interview

data with documents and direct observations enhanced credibility of the study.

Data collection for this study took place following Institutional Review Board

approval. Information related to the study and informed consent forms was available to

the participants at the interview. This allowed for a full explanation of the study and

provided the opportunity to obtain signatures on the consent form (Appendix A).

Ethical Consideration and the Consent Process

I took into account the proper measures related to ethical protection of participants as they related to the 11 categories of ethical principles identified by Bell and Bryman (2007). The consenting process included 11 specific sections of the consent. The specific sections included (a) identification of the researcher and the sponsoring agency, (b) identification of how the participants were selected, (c) the purpose of the research, (d) the population and procedures, (e) time involvement, (f) data organization and analysis, (g) risks and benefits of participating, (h) voluntary nature of the study, (i) privacy, (j) contacts for any questions, and (k) statement of consent. Prior to beginning research, I received approval to conduct the study from the Institutional Review Board (Approval number 07-01-15-0165262) ensuring the study complied with ethical standards regarding human participants in the study and associated privacy rights. Additionally, I completed the National Institutes of Health's (NIH) Office of Extramural Research training and obtained a certificate verifying my compliance in ethical consideration for study participants.

Participants received an electronic copy of the consent form (see Appendix A) prior to participating in the study. Participants read the consent form and understood participation was voluntary, and there were no incentives prior to participating in the study. I walked each participant through the consent form prior to the interview, answer any questions, and shared that the participant may withdraw at anytime. In order to participate in the study, participants agreed to the terms stated in the consent form pertaining to the study. Confidentiality of the participants was vital to ensuring the

research did not identify specific executives within various organizations (Bogdanovic, Dowd, Wattam, & Adam, 2012). I used participant numbers for each participant to ensure confidentiality. A separate file with the participant's name and the associated number remains on an encrypted protected file to ensure the identities are confidential. Data collection was through semistructured interviews, document review, and direct observation. There was no recording of interviews in this study. Data collected during the study remains in a secure cabinet for a period of 5 years at my home. Destruction of all data pertaining to this study will occur at the end of the storage period. Study participants had the right to remove themselves from the study at any time without penalty. If a participant withdrew, I provided the participant any notes from the interview so they could destroy the notes. If a participant withdrew after an interview, I destroyed all hard copy and electronic reference to the individual.

Data Collection

Yin (2012) stated the goal of the data collection process is to gather sufficient information to generate findings that contributed to development of a response to the research question. Collection of data was through semistructured interviews and analysis of organizational documents. Reliance on the interviews was the main source of data along with triangulation of the documents.

Instruments

I was the primary collection instrument for this study. Qualitative research relies on the researcher as the primary instrument in gathering and analyzing the data (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Peredaryenko & Krauss, 2013). As the primary collection instrument,

it is necessary to parse individual beliefs and assumptions that might influence the data collection and the data analysis of a study (Chakraverty & Tai, 2013).

The data collection technique I used in this study was semistructured interviews. Somerville and Purcell (2011) stated semistructured interviews allow for the inclusion of open-ended questions, two-way communication, and provide the opportunity for identifying new ways of understanding the topic at hand. Somerville and Purcell prefer to use semistructured interviews because questions can be prepared ahead of time allowing for inclusion of additional probing questions that might arise during the interview. A semistructured personal interview conducted, with consent, ensured the accuracy of content from each participant. Therefore, open-ended questions began with *how* or *what* questions in order to engage responses from the participants that might generate a greater depth of understanding of the leadership experience and influence on the participants. Utilizing a semistructured interview process was essential to ensure accurate evaluation of participants (Rowley, 2012).

Data gathering supported the capture of the population sample's general perceptions and specific direct observations related to strategies and training plans. Interview notes of the interviews along with notes resulting from direct observation assisted in the collection and organization of the data. Marshall and Rossman (2011) stated observation describes events, behaviors, and artifacts enabling researchers to learn about the activities of people under study. I used direct observation to enhance the data gathered of those participating in the study.

I conducted a review of law enforcement leadership training materials prior to the

interview process to ensure a baseline understanding of current training strategies.

Document analysis is a systematic procedure that requires data examination and

interpretation to gain understanding and develop knowledge (Denzin, 1978).

Organizational documents served as the secondary source of information to enhance the

understanding of the participant experiences as well as provided insight into the current

leadership training program in the organization. Denzin (1978) stated that document

analysis in combination with other research methods could serve as a means of

triangulation. The semistructured interview data along with triangulating the data from

organizational documents and direct observations during the data analysis phase of the

study enhanced the reliability and validity in this study.

A qualitative research design's validity consists of a pertinent topic, sincerity,

credibility, significant contribution, ethics, and meaningful conclusions (Alban-Metcalfe

& Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). De Waal, Béatrice, Selvarajah, and Meyer (2012) asserted

that data must account for managerial behaviors, environmental influences, personal

qualities, and organizational demands may influence the perceptions of the participants.

Additionally, Moustakas (1994) suggested research allows for understanding of personal

experiences of a limited number of participants while allowing for patterns and

relationships to be determined. I explored data related to personal experiences of leaders

within law enforcement using semistructured interviews and document reviews to

identify the critical strategies necessary for success in law enforcement organizations.

Through direct observation during the semistructured interviews, I accounted for the

behaviors, influences, and qualities that might influence the participants. Analysis of the

resulting data might illuminate patterns and interconnections within the data.

Data Collection Technique

The data collection phase presents challenges in maintaining a neutral position when collecting data (Arendt et al., 2012). The use of a variety of data sources supported a qualitative study. The interview protocol (Appendix B) consisted of a document starting with a heading for date, time, place, and participant number. The instructions for each one hour interview, open-ended questions, and adequate space for follow-on questions followed the header. The protocol contained a concluding and appropriate thank you statement for use during the interview. The interview protocol ensured the same data collection technique for each interview (Stewart et al., 2012). The data collected using the interview protocol employed unique identifers to allow the researcher to identify each participant for subsequent correlation.

Semistructured personal interviews was the primary data collection mechanism to collect the interview data. Each participant received a consent form explaining the study, the procedures that took place and contact information for the researcher. I provided detailed instruction to each participant through the consent form prior to the interview, answered any questions, and shared that the participant may withdraw at anytime. Granot, Brashear, and Motta (2012) stated semistructured interviews allow probing questions to explore further, the answers from participants. Arendt et al. (2012) stated direct observation can assist in integrates into the culture or community into the study. I utilized direct observation by attending a leadership training activity to observe study participants during training. Tantivess et al. (2012) discussed the text in the relevant

documents can be read, scrutinized and interpreted to assist in developing specific themes until common understandings and agreements are achieved. I used organizational documentation to provide additional source material related to leadership training strategies.

Parboteeah and Jackson (2011) stated member checking consists of short follow-up interviews to summarize the interpretations of data gathered to ensure accuracy. I used member checking to restate and summarize my interpretation of the information to determine the accuracy of the information. During member checking, I discussed my interpretation with participants and asked the participants to verify my interpretation of the information provided during interviews. Marshall and Rossman (2011) stated member checking enhances the reliability and validity of information while providing the opportunity to clarify the interpretation of participant data input. Review of secondary source material consisting of organizational training documents allowed for triangulation of data related to the semistructured interviews and my field notes from direct observations.

Data Organization Techniques

After the personal interviews were completed, the interview notes remained in a secure folder until the data analysis phase. Microsoft Excel was the primary tool for data analysis. The transcribed information obtained from each participant remained in a Microsoft Excel file until the data analysis phase. All data processing was completed within seven days of the data collection in order to reduce human error. A unique participant identifier allowed me to identify each participant for subsequent correlation. I

established individual folders with the unique identifier codes prior to the data collection

to ensure efficiency during data gathering.

Upon conclusion of the interviews, I placed interview notes in a computer folder

corresponding to the unique identifier assigned to each study participant and destroyed

the hard copies. Marshall and Rossman (2011) discussed the need for an easy retrieval

system to collect data for analysis and the need to adapt pre-defined categories during the

analysis phase if required. Ritholz et al. (2011) discussed the need to properly format,

label, and categorize interview notes. Therefore, a journal file containing interview notes

developed during the interviews, arranged in categories and descriptions from interview

responses remains secure in a password protected file for 5 years after the completion of

the study and then destroyed. I saved all relevant documents in labeled file format and

categorized the files using identifiers to differentiating identifiers. Data remains on an

external hard drive and a backup copy for 5 years. Upon completion of the transcription

and approval of the study, I will continue to maintain the electronic data for 5 years and

then delete the data in order to protect the confidentiality of the participants.

Use of multiple sources of data aims to improve the reliability of the information

included in the study (James, 2012). Organizational training program documentation,

direct observation notes, and participant rosters related to the project will remain with the

external hard drives in the secure file cabinet for 5 years.

Data Analysis Technique

The process of data analysis in qualitative research involves working with data,

organizing data, breaking data down, synthesizing data, searching for patterns,

discovering what is critical and what is to be learned, and deciding what is relevant (Lawrence & Tar, 2013). Folders labeled with the unique identifier code ensured efficiency during data gathering. After transcribing interview notes into Microsoft Excel and confirming the interpretations via member checking, analysis of the information collected from the participants provided emergent themes related to leadership training strategies. Data collection for this study occurred following IRB approval.

Denzin (1978) stated a single method of data analysis is not adequate to describe a phenomenon. Baskarada (2014) noted triangulation uses more than one approach to investigate the research question and enhance confidence in the findings. Data triangulation involves gathering data through several sampling strategies to enable data gathering from multiple people at different times and in different social settings (Denzin, 1978). Using a triangulation of sources allows for examining the consistency of different data sources from within the same method (Patton, 2001).

Methodological triangulation allows a qualitative researcher to check out the consistency of findings generated by different data collection methods (Denzin, 1978). Investigator triangulation allows a researcher to use multiple analysts to review findings to understand there are multiple ways of seeing the data (Patton, 2001). Theoretical perspective triangulation uses multiple theoretical perspectives to examine and interpret the data (Denzin, 1978).

I used methodological triangulation, in particular, within method triangulation to triangulate the qualitative data collected through semistructured interviews, review of organizational training documentation, and direct observation field notes to substantiate

the findings. The quality of the data collection, analytic methods, and interpretation of strategies assisted in developing consistent findings. Yin (2012) stated data analysis must be (a) organized and prepared, (b) reviewed to determine the overall meaning of the data, (c) organized by word patterns, (d) used to generate themes and descriptions, (e) integrated into a narrative, and (f) interpreted.

Ritholz et al. (2011) discussed the process of analyzing interview transcripts, assigning codes, and developing emerging themes to describe segments of the data. Therefore, I analyzed the interview transcripts, and assigned codes and subsequently developed emerging themes in order to describe segments of the data. Cataloguing and organization of the data enabled coding, data interpretation, and correlation to determine trends within the data. Qu and Dumay (2011) stated focusing on incorporating a series of broad themes during the semistructured interview might assist in directing the conversation toward the topics and issues that will help in answering the research questions in the study. Additionally, secondary source material can enhance the data provided in the semistructured interviews. Therefore, secondary source material came from organizational documentation related to training. Tertiary data collection came from direct observation notes. I observed a leadership training session and developed direct observation notes. Coding of both primary and secondary material took place data to develop a thorough understanding of all data for analysis. I used within method triangulation to assist in analyzing the data sources. The manual sorting of interview notes was then be compared with the transcribed notes in Microsoft Excel to identify recurring themes within the data.

Reliability and Validity

The quality of empirical social research focuses on the ability of the design to withstand logical tests of reliability and validity (Yin, 2011). Reliability in qualitative research is consistent and repeatable across researchers and studies (Oleinik, 2011). Validity in the context of qualitative research, and case study design in particular, refers to how the researcher ensures accuracy of findings through employment of specific procedures (Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). Throughout a research project, researchers must actively anticipate and address variations in the planned protocol, which can affect reliability and validity (Henderson, 2011). Reliability and validity ensure consistency and accuracy such that the results may expand the body of knowledge.

Reliability

Quality and reliability of data was a focus throughout the research study. Reliability is assurance that the researcher's approach is consistent and replicable at different points in time (Babbie, 2010). By ensuring the procedures and interview protocols are consistent in execution, the research inquiry attained reliable and dependable results that are repeatable by other researchers subsequently revealing similar results (Lakshman, 2012). I ensured dependability by ensuring a consistency of the processes throughout the study as described in the interview protocol (Appendix B). Through member checking I ensured my interpretation of the participant interview statements were accurate.

Validity

Validity is assurance the researcher's approach is accurate and measures what it

should measure. An exploratory case study is suitable for revealing cause and effects processes by using systematic comparison and exploration (Byrne, 2013). Specific validity criteria substantiated the case study and research quality. Data collected from semistructured interviews formed the primary basis for data collection. Additional data collection was through direct observation and document review. Member checking ensured the accuracy of my interpretation of the participant interview statements. Murphy and Yielder (2010) discussed the use of a clear audit trail related to raw data, interview notes, and summaries will ensure dependability. Additionally, the clear audit trail of documents, data, and notes will provide confirmability and neutrality of the unbiased opinions of the researcher (Murphy & Yielder, 2010). I used generative mechanisms in order to make inferences from participants' data responses. Using the qualitative approach, I sought out the participant's personal experiences in real world settings as they occurred. The participant personal experiences formed the basis for strategic leadership development in the workplace.

Method triangulation ensures a consistency of findings across the different data collection methods (Denzin, 1978). I used method triangulation to analyze the interview and organizational document data. I used multiple semistructured interviews, member checking interviews and follow-up interviews to ensure data saturation. The findings of this qualitative project are specific to the law enforcement community. Transferability of the results of qualitative research to other situations can be difficult and may require a broader context (Keane, Lincoln, & Smith, 2012). Transferability of the findings may be applicable to other situations and populations; however, as Keane et al. (2012), Marshall

and Rossman (2011), and Murphy and Yelder (2010) suggested, I left transferability of the findings to the reader and future researchers to determine.

Transition and Summary

In Section 2, I established the research method and design as well as the data collection parameters and reliability and validity factors. In Section 3, I will present findings and implications for social change. Additionally, in Section 3, I will provide recommendations for future actions resulting from this inquiry, and reflections of the researcher.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Section 3 contains the following subsections: (a) introduction, (b) presentation of the findings, (c) application to professional practice, (d) implication for social change, (e) recommendations for actions, and (f) recommendations for further study. Additionally, this section contains discussion of the themes found during the study. Finally, this section concludes with reflections, a summary, and conclusions related to the study and study process.

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore the training strategies that U.S. law enforcement leaders use for internal leadership development. The study findings identified how senior leaders in one law enforcement agency used law enforcement training strategies. During the study, three main themes emerged that supported leader development: a) leadership recruitment, retention, and mentoring; b) strategic partnerships; and c) training and technology. The themes and findings related to leadership training strategies discussed below are intended for use in developing training programs to improve organizational leadership capabilities in law enforcement organizations.

Presentation of the Findings

This section contains a discussion of the three themes that emerged during the study. During the study, I used semistructured interviews to obtain information related to how the participants developed training strategies in leader development. Additionally, I reviewed organizational documents from the human resources and training departments

to establish a baseline of leader development within the organization, and to triangulate and confirm participant inputs. Finally, I observed a joint command and control exercise between law enforcement leaders preparing for an upcoming cross-jurisdictional event. This exploration was designed to answer the primary research question that guided this study: What training strategies do law enforcement leaders use for leadership development? Following the data collection, joint exercise direct observation, and document review, three main themes emerged. The themes were; a) leadership, recruitment, and mentoring, b) strategic partnerships, and c) training and technology. These themes illustrate law enforcement development activities related to training strategies.

Theme 1: Leadership Recruitment, Retention, and Mentoring

The first theme to emerge from the data collection was that leadership training strategies should begin with recruiting and retaining future leaders with a diverse set of background, skills, and perspectives to meet current and future law enforcement staffing needs, while also ensuring that training opportunities and mentoring allow for development and growth. This recruitment, retention, and mentoring theme aligned with Schultz's (1961) human capital theory, which states that increased performance of individuals through investments in education improves organizational performance and efficiency. It also aligned with Kahn and Hudson's (2014) statement that skills, experience, and knowledge in combination with ability, effort, behavior, and personal time investment, are a direct result of deliberate investments in the people who make up an organization. Relating this theme to the human capital theory, Gamerschlag (2013)

argued that improved recruitment and retention processes leads to satisfaction and increased performance of the future leaders, and eventually increases in organizational performance.

Participant inputs confirmed Gamerschlag's (2013) argument that to effectively lead the organization and safeguard the community, law enforcement leaders should identify, build, and maintain a high quality group of leaders across the workforce that capitalizes on the strengths of the community. Six respondents articulated the positive impact diverse recruiting strategies encompassing wide demographics across the community has on the organization. LE2 noted that "leaders should cultivate and develop diverse pools of talent based on the changing demographics of the region." Additional participant responses illustrated leadership recruiting strategies seeking to embrace the diverse human capital across the community in the organization are more successful in creating a sense of security and confidence that encourages growth and retention. The findings of this study were consistent with Boyd's (2013) phenomenological study exploring lived experiences, concepts, perceptions, and beliefs related to corporate cultural changes related to women in upper management positions. Boyd (2013) found that organizations need to develop leader training strategies that embrace cultural change from within to ensure growth, loyalty, and innovative solutions from future leaders.

My review of organizational documents supported the leadership recruitment, retention, and mentoring theme from the interview data. The organizational document, *Leadership 2020 Development,* noted that future leaders should reflect the rich diversity

of the community in order to ensure cultural perspectives, innovative ideas, and fresh insights are brought to the team. Additionally, the organizational document, *Executive Leadership Training,* articulated that the organization should employ appropriate recruitment and mentoring actions to encourage talented employees toward leadership positions without biasing the hiring and promotion processes. Just as the organizational document review articulated cultural diversity, mentoring, and retention aspects of leadership development, seven respondents supported these concepts noting leadership development within a diverse workforce encourages excellence through collaboration, flexibility, and fairness, and that organizations should ensure future leaders have opportunities for professional development and access to career enrichment resources to build their core competency skills. Additionally, several participants articulated that training opportunities can provide upward mobility in the future confirming the impact of training on retention.

Eight respondents articulated leadership recruitment strategies must go beyond the traditional categories such as race, gender, ethnicity, and age, and consider diversity in its broadest context, including diversity in cultural understanding, foreign languages and dialects, highly specialized skills, and technological expertise to better identify with a changing community. Ensuring an agile, knowledgeable leadership team is the outcome of a thoughtful sourcing strategy based on deep understanding of the law enforcement mission and core functions, competencies required, and the sources for locating that talent. These findings aligned with those of Gandhi and Kumar (2014), who noted that managing the succession of talent is a vital strategic process that minimizes gaps in

leadership and enables people to develop the skills necessary for possible future roles. Additionally, Gandhi and Kumar noted that effective leader training strategies help identify and groom high potential leaders for advancement into senior positions and effective leader development programs creates a pool of potential leaders with specialized areas of expertise providing them with opportunities for professional growth.

My analysis of organizational documents and participants' responses showed mentoring plays a supportive role in developing future leaders within an organization. Khan and Hudson (2014) argued that human capital theory comprises deliberate investments in the people who make up an organization. Investments in mentoring can result in the necessary skills, experience, and knowledge to enhance the organization (Khan & Hudson, 2014). Organizations in full support of a mentoring program consider these investments to produce a return or benefit to the individual and the organization. This was illustrated by LE17 statement that "mentoring programs within the department encourage networking while providing opportunities to develop skills and see perspectives not otherwise available via normal training classes." These findings were consistent with Jackson (2010), who found that a diverse learning culture that promotes competency development and mentoring ensures the proper skills developed meet the strategic needs of the organization.

McCloughen, O'Brien, and Jackson (2014) confirmed that leaders at varying levels, who receive work and career guidance, increase their professional network and gain insights based on the mentor's experiences. Mentoring improves the skills of the mentee, who is then more efficient in the performance of their job and related activities

for promotion, tenure or some other form of advancement (Crumpton, 2014).

Additionally, Crumpton (2014) supported the respondents by stating the success of the

mentee results in a more confident individual engaged in their job responsibilities, which

may motivate them for retention and reduces turnover; while enhancing succession

planning activities. Finally, I found the recruiting, retention, and mentoring theme related

to the strategic partnership theme, discussed below, in that the collaborative activities

amongst leaders provided mentoring and networking opportunities across the various

agencies enhancing the overall leadership training experience.

Conversely, some participants articulated leadership development may be

hindered when some of the more accomplished leaders are not afforded opportunities in

leadership roles. LE15 iterated that while "the aforementioned training programs are

excellent and prepare managers to become leaders, many times the best people are not

placed in leadership positions." Gandhi and Kumar (2014) supported this finding stating

leader assignments should challenge them while providing the opportunity to polish new

skills through effective placement within the organization subsequently leading to

positive growth through their achievements and experiences.

Thomas (2014) conducted a qualitative exploratory case study exploring retention

strategies of information technology leaders. Thomas (2014) noted that opportunities for

training and development, supervisor support, and career opportunities, are strategies that

organizations can consider to retain staff. The findings related to the recruiting, retention,

and mentoring theme support a comprehensive leadership development program is the

foundation for the future success of an organization. My analysis of organizational

documents and participant interviews shows that the organization should establish a comprehensive recruitment, retention, and mentoring program to attract the leadership skills and behaviors, with appropriate courses targeted to the developmental needs at the entry, supervisor, command, and managerial levels.

Theme 2: Training and Technology

The second theme to emerge was that of training and technology's importance. Current fiscal constraints are challenging leaders to develop training programs that will cultivate future leaders. These fiscal constraints affect the organization's ability to provide training as well as procure technology solutions. Nuria (2011) and Kovach (2014) found that organizations should consider training and technology solutions as they emerge to benefit the organization.

Based on organizational document review and participant responses I identified several distinct types of training available to law enforcement leaders. The training types included: a) initial training, b) recurring training, c) classroom training, d) field training, and e) joint training. Initial and recurring training centered on human capital management, ethics, harassment, diversity, equal employment opportunity, employee assistance programs, computer, and facility security training based on organizational document review and participant input. The organization provided recurring training via on-line computer based training. Professional and leadership training did not appear to be uniform or provided on a standard basis. Participants stated the organization provided professional and leadership training in formal classroom, field, or joint training environments. I found through interview data that each officer, supervisor, and manager

submits a yearly Career Development Plan as part of their yearly performance appraisal. The rater reviews any training requested with the employee and forwards the request to the Training Branch personnel who utilize the request to adjust training programs for the following year.

Interestingly, all types of training were not provided to each individual. With salaries, benefits and pensions taking approximately 97% of the budget according to organizational budget document review, 3% remains for all other costs, to include overtime, vehicles/fuel, equipment/uniforms, infrastructure and training. Due to several mandated areas of training (e.g., firearms, legal and liability training), effective leadership training lacks priority (LE17). I found that oversight and mentoring by higher-level officials is the main type of leadership training provided due to fiscal constraints.

Ionescu (2014) argued that leaders transmit the general direction of the organization through its strategic objectives and training should be a higher priority. Ionescu posited that through the process of the continuous professional development program, an organization fosters a high level of competence and creativity in the human resources of the organization. The focus of investment in the individual would further enhance and develop the resources of the organization ultimately contributing to the evolution of the organization as it relates to the human capital theory.

I also found that budgetary constraints force the organization to seek out cost effective or free training from partner agencies to bolster current training opportunities. First level supervisors receive leadership training in the form of ethics, critical thinking, problem solving and human resources through computer-based training (LE9). Multiple

participants stated training from the command rank and above, the department sends prospective leaders to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) National Academy. Finally, from the executive rank, the organization sends prospective leaders to the FBI Law Enforcement Executive Development program and the FBI Command Leadership Institute (LE14). While the collaboration with the FBI training appears to be a preferred choice due to proximity in relation to the organization I studied, the basis for sharing resources multiplies the return on investment within the human capital theory context thus extending the budget. Additionally, Wiede (2014) conducted a phenomenological study on the effects of training programs on workplace productivity, which reinforced my findings related to the impacts of budgets on training and how to influence factors inside and outside the organization: strategy, organizational structure, employee motivation, technology, budgets, and external environment.

Although the interview data supported a linkage between training and technology, there was no evidence in the organizational document review of a plan to ensure incorporation of technology in training other than several scant statements related to *leveraging technology*. Additionally, there was no evidence during the organizational document review related to the impact of budget on training plans. While the issue of budget impact on training and use of, or procurement of, technology appears evident, there was no correlation of data between organizational documents and participant interviews related to the need to synchronize budgets, training, and technology.

Nuria (2011) argued successful leading edge organizations realize the importance of having everyone within the organization involved in the process of actively learning

and adapting in order to create the organizational competitive advantage. Such learning

organizations involve a proactive, creative approach to solicit involvement from and

empower employees at all levels of the organization. When asked what changes in

training related to funding law enforcement leaders should consider, multiple participants

stated advances in instructional technology and innovative teaching techniques might

expand learning opportunities in law enforcement. Professional development through the

educational leadership preparation programs can provide law enforcement leaders with

growth in understanding related to technology tools and trends (LE11).

As new technologies emerge, organizations need to change to take advantage of

the technologies (Nuria, 2011). Kovach (2014) stated expert training and technology

based distributed learning are important methods of training delivery. These methods do

not require specialized facilities or a geographical concentration of personnel.

Distributed training technologies, especially simulation and modeling, augment

traditional training delivery systems and methodologies (Kovach, 2013). Consolidation

of law enforcement training amongst multiple agencies could permit organizations to

emphasize training excellence and cost effectiveness. Professional instruction and

practical application provide future leaders with the skills and knowledge to meet the

demanding challenges throughout a law enforcement career.

The training and technology theme reinforced the strategic partnership theme,

discussed below, as it related to joint training. My findings indicated future leaders learn

not only the responsibilities of a law enforcement leader, but through interaction with

other officers from multiple agencies, leaders become acquainted with the missions and

duties of sister agencies. This interaction provides the foundation for a cooperative law enforcement effort especially during cross-jurisdictional events or investigations. Learning programs and program delivery are evolving. To influence training while addressing the impact of constrained budgets, law enforcement leaders should continue to develop key relationships with sister agencies, academia, and industry to leverage learning techniques and the latest applications in learning programs to provide the necessary training to future law enforcement leaders.

Theme 3: Strategic Partnerships

The third theme to emerge from the data collection was that law enforcement leaders face extraordinary challenges in both numbers and severity of emergency events resulting in the need to increasingly plan, prepare, train, and respond as members of partnerships and networks. Drabczyk (2005) found that law enforcement leaders view planning, exercises, and training as vital tools in community safety. Events since September 11, 2001 appear to be the driving value for formative partnerships between emergency responder agencies. Drabczyk and Stephens' (2013) studies reinforced the importance of pre-planning, training, and conducting exercises for a time when an emergency response team must actually use the skills. Additionally, Walker (2006) conducted a qualitative single case study related to the effectiveness of collaborating leadership wherein investigation of the effectiveness of collaborating leadership found that collaborative leadership teams and joint training may lead to better stewardship of scarce resources for societal development. Walker's research utilizing the collaborative

planning theory and organizational learning theory supported the strategic partnership theme as it related to joint training and maximization of scarce resources.

Walker (2006) and Stephens' (2013) studies related to the collaborative planning theory linked to the findings in this study wherein participants identified joint training and networking opportunities among emergency responders as an essential component of the core team necessary to be part of an emergency response effort (LE7, LE9, LE14). Participants articulated that maximizing training opportunities through joint exercises improved teamwork, communications, and coordination of efforts while enhancing the value of training resources (LE5, LE15).

Stephens (2013) conducted a qualitative single case study that stressed planning and training of emergency response teams, but further defined a benefit of establishing trust between and among the emergency responders. Another identified benefit of Stephens' study was training allowed individuals to become knowledgeable in their area of expertise, become familiar with capabilities of other elements, and work together as a team. The review of the interview data suggested that law enforcement leaders understand the value of joint exercises as it relates to teamwork, understanding other elements capabilities, technology solutions, and lessons learned. Several participants stated the opportunity to share best practices during joint training events ensured the latest technology solutions and response tactics promulgated across the first responder community (LE2, LE11). In addition, LE8 noted that leaders should focus on building strong supportive work environments across the community. Results from the interview data suggested each participant learned something new every time they attended a joint

training event and influenced emergency responders to seek new and creative solutions prior to future events. This appeared to be a key finding law enforcement leaders should consider when determining if they should support future joint training exercises in a declining budget environment.

As part of this study, I observed a joint command and control exercise conducted among first responders across multiple jurisdictions in which the study organization participated. I found the joint command and control exercise supported the organizational learning and collaborative planning theories based on direct observation findings. The exercise took place over a 72-hour period with multiple breaks to conduct lessons learned reviews, training vignettes, and networking opportunities among the participants. I observed that the teams who had participated in training events together prior to an emergency fared better as it related to understanding how to conduct joint operations and what capabilities other agencies offered. I noted that there are interoperability issues related to information technologies in both computer applications and communications equipment. I also noted that inter-organizational information sharing and equipment interoperability is an area of concern. Allen, Karanasios, and Norman (2011) confirmed that information and interoperability issues are critical to emergency responders and require consideration as an organizational leadership issue. Exercise participants discussed legacy equipment issues, information security issues, and joint command structures at length during best practice discussion. I determined the interaction between agencies enhanced collaboration and understanding of sister agency capabilities, both aspects that are expected to be beneficial in emergency situations. My

direct observations revealed that there was a direct benefit to each organization related to growth of future leaders and that the resources expended to conduct the exercise, which seemed to be amplified based on pooling of resources and the outcome of training knowledge sharing. The findings from the direct observation of the joint command and control exercise suggested an awareness on the part of the leadership that emergent threats from terrorism or increases in natural disasters will require an expanded capacity for response beyond current capabilities and the best way to obtain these capabilities is to conduct future joint command and control exercises. The ability to pool resources across agencies as part of a strategic partnership endeavor could ensure continued joint training opportunities, which would support development of future leaders in the community.

The strategic partnership theme related to the training and technology theme as well, in that the joint training offered during the breaks of the exercise were delivered to multiple agencies. The ability to conduct multiple agency training illustrated a key premise of pooling resources to train across agencies thus maximizing resources in a declining budget environment and supported the collaborative planning theory. During the joint command and control exercise, I observed the operations center and exercise facilitators provided for a flexible delivery system with the ability to deliver training onsite with knowledgeable instructors. The training curriculum appeared customized and executed with the full support of executive leadership.

The result of this customization and support seemed to enable a culture of innovation and support a learning environment. The participants explained that developing strong partnerships helped the law enforcement community and sister

elements understand the needs of the community to better create long-term training plans and deliver training that suited the participant organizations. Reimer (2014) found that the ability of joint training programs to develop external partnerships and offer cross training curriculums could be a force multiplier as it relates to capabilities and training budgets. Through direct observation, I determined that trusted relationships are established and collaboration begins when each party understands what the other brings to the relationship including their strengths and gaps. Additionally, trusted partnerships and networks appear to enable faster, coordinated, and informed responses to incidents. In supporting this finding, LE 5 stated Leaders should offer joint duty assignments with sister agencies to develop joint mission expertise and build relationships to further cooperation during critical incidents.

Applications to Professional Practice

One of the roles of leadership within an organization is to understand the strategies and business practices organizations require to be successful (Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012). The study findings support Schafer's (2010) findings that some law enforcement organizations have little or no formalized protocols to develop current or future leaders. The main objective of the study was to explore participants' experiences surrounding leadership training strategies for law enforcement leaders. This research is meaningful to law enforcement in multiple ways. The development of leaders has been an increasing concern for global leaders as they challenge human resource professionals to develop learning environments and learning cultures in global workplaces (Cseh, Davis, & Khilji, 2013). Shannon's (2013) findings relative to the human capital theory,

indicated that organizational leaders require effective training strategies to develop

leaders. As law enforcement leaders review findings of this study, the results may assist

leaders in developing effective training strategies for current and future leaders within

law enforcement.

Leadership takes place at all levels of the organization. Leadership development

should be a multi-tiered program that provides the opportunities across all levels of the

organization. LE17 noted that leadership training strategies should foster an environment

where future leaders are equipped to take advantage of training opportunities to advance

their competencies, skills, and experiences though educational training courses,

mentoring, and challenging assignments. By implementing strategic human resource

practices, organizational leaders may achieve an environment that ensures success as it

relates recruiting, retaining, and mentoring tomorrow's leaders. As noted by LE9,

successful organizations require diversity related to hiring future leaders from more

diverse backgrounds across the community and ensuring that all leaders receive the same

opportunities to succeed within the organization.

Applying a leadership training strategy related to recruiting, retention, and

mentoring may assist the organization in developing a diverse group of human capital

across the organization. Therefore, organizational leaders should develop and implement

essential recruiting, retention, and mentoring plans that support leadership development

training strategies. These training strategies relate to the human capital theory as

discussed by Schultz (1961), Khan and Hudson (2014), Gandhi and Kumar (2014), and

Thomas (2014). Through the implementation of these strategies, leaders could cultivate

and develop diverse pools of talent based on the changing demographics of the region as noted by LE2. Additional participant responses supported leadership strategies related to recruiting, retention, and mentoring seek to embrace the diverse human capital across the community in the organization resulting in a more successful organization by creating a sense of security and confidence that encourages growth and retention of future leaders.

Developing a leadership training strategy related to training and technology might amplify the use of technology as it relates to training and alleviate budget pressures. While there is a linkage between budget and training available, the participants solidified the empirical data commenting that leadership training should happen at all levels throughout an officer's career. Fiscal constraints did confirm impacts of budgets on training providing that fiscal constraints influence factors inside and outside the organization related to the numbers and types of training opportunities offered. Developing a leadership training strategy that leverages technology could enhance professional development through a collaborative network of law enforcement training programs providing law enforcement leaders with growth in understanding related to technology, tools, and number of opportunities thereby increasing limited resource impact. The research of Savolainen (2014) and Weide (2014), also confirmed instructional technology and innovative teaching technology transforms leadership training opportunities and integrating these technologies into the overall leadership training strategy should be considered for use in law enforcement.

Including strategic partnerships as part of a leadership training strategy would benefit law enforcement in multiple ways. Leveraging training resources across the first

responder community will likely maximize the training dollars while expanding the number of participants in the joint training. Additional benefits related to knowledge sharing related to technology solutions, best practices, and sister agency capabilities is fundamental to a learning environment. Finally, participants identified joint training and networking opportunities among emergency responders as an essential component and these joint training opportunities could be a retention enabler. Leadership training strategies for law enforcement should incorporate best practices and current experience rather than rehashing tired, traditional approaches to leadership training (Baden & Parkes, 2013). Through continuous professional development, the human capital of the organization develops and perfects itself thus contributing to the evolution of the organization.

After reviewing the literature review in section two in conjunction with the results of the study in section three, I found significant supporting data amongst multiple studies that confirms the results of this study. Previous research by Shultz (1961) shows increased performance of individuals through investments in education can improve organizational performance and efficiency. Additionally, research by Stephens (2013), Walker (2006), and Khan (2014) revealed similar findings related to the positive effects leadership development and the associated impacts of collaborative and organizational learning on leadership training strategies within organizations.

First, I recommend local law enforcement leaders develop a strategy that addresses leadership training at all levels of the organization which could enhance overall organizational effectiveness. It is important that the leadership training strategy address

leaders at each level of the organization to ensure an overall program that provides the training required from recruitment to senior executive. Second, the leadership training strategy should consider retention factors and mentoring benefits to the organization. Training investments as posited in the human capital theory can have a return on investment as officers progress through the ranks to senior leader positions. Leaders developing a leadership training strategy focused on developing leaders for a career beyond training for a position within an organizational construct would enhance the number of qualified senior leaders overall. Third, leaders should consider technology and joint partnerships across the law enforcement community. Through enhanced leader training in conjunction with joint opportunities, the effect on the organization may show positive results related to increased training opportunities while maximizing budget utilization. Through joint, on-line, computer based training, and mentoring, additional training opportunities enabled through a learning environment could enhance the organization leading to a safer community.

Implications for Social Change

Law enforcement training strategies should promote a trusting working relationship between the public and the law enforcement organization. The results of the study could provide positive social impact related to law enforcement executives and management practitioners making decisions regarding a wide range of organizational change, training management, and leadership development practices while developing future leadership training strategies. Law enforcement organizations hold a unique position in the community and should adhere to the principles of integrity and

professionalism as cornerstones of community trust-building. Comprehensive leadership training strategies that promote a learning environment including training in ethics, leadership, integrity, and operational skills will create the opportunities for officers to develop into leaders within the organization and overall community. Additionally, leadership training strategies that provide the required skill sets for leaders can create positive impact on the community. Knowledge gained from this study provides mechanisms for social change by giving law enforcement leaders additional ideas in developing leadership training strategies in their own organizations. The knowledge gained from the research could also serve to create training programs and focus training resources for future law enforcement officer development.

According to the findings of the study, a comprehensive leadership training strategy encompassing recruiting, retention, and mentoring in concert with training, technology, and strategic partnerships might represent a total investment in the individual law enforcement leaders of the future as it relates to the human capital theory. The findings and analysis presented in this qualitative single case study research provide key enablers for law enforcement to consider as it develops plans for future leader development and may provide a positive social impact manifested in a safer community.

Recommendations for Action

Current and future law enforcement leaders should consider the recommendations from this study. Three recommended steps for action identified from the study are: 1) develop and implement recruiting, retention, and mentoring programs focused on developing future law enforcement leaders, 2) develop career training plans while

considering funding implications and leveraging technology, and 3) utilize strategic partnerships to ensure community best practices, technologies, lessons learned from other organizations, and collaboration are incorporated into leadership training strategies.

The first recommendation from this study is to develop a leadership training strategy for all levels of the organization. Developing a leadership training strategy that encompasses recruiting, retention, and mentoring will ensure leadership training at all levels of the organization. By providing the requisite training opportunities to potential leaders from initial entry on duty throughout their whole career, the organization will ensure the skills, tools, and competencies are instilled in the leaders as well as influencing the behaviors necessary to be successful as an organization.

The second recommendation is law enforcement leaders should ensure training is funded to the maximum extent possible while utilizing collaborative arrangements with sister agencies to ensure leadership training strategies encompass all facets of possibilities. Engaging a learning organization approach involving a proactive, creative methodology related to training opportunities across the community while accounting for funding constraints will enhance the ability of the organization to create a learning environment. As stated by Nuria (2011), having everyone within the organization involved in the process of actively learning and adapting creates an organizational competitive advantage and develop leaders across all levels of the organization throughout their careers.

The third recommendation is to leverage technology solutions wherever possible to enhance training capabilities and further advance the skills of the organization from an

individual perspective. As stated by Kovach (2013), distributed training technologies augment traditional training delivery systems and methodologies. Utilizing computer-based training solutions, distance learning technologies, common operational picture technologies, dashboard camera technologies, and joint training solutions can improve leadership training opportunities will ensure cost effective solutions thus addressing funding constraints.

The fourth recommendation is continue to engage in joint command and control exercises. The joint training opportunities afford law enforcement leaders the ability to maximize training resources while fostering a learning environment. The ability to foster a joint training environment through strategic partnerships ensures lessons learned, best practices, and technology solutions promulgated throughout the law enforcement community could result in a more cohesive responder team and a safer community. A program that encompasses human capital development across a career could ensure tomorrow's law enforcement leaders are afforded the best training development available.

Through publications, I will provide law enforcement leaders with a copy of this study to inform them of the findings and possible solutions that may benefit the organization and assist in the development of future law enforcement leaders. Law enforcement leaders play an important role in developing leadership training strategies that ensure cultural diversity in recruiting, providing learning opportunities as it relates to retention and mentoring, and training opportunities at each level of the organization, subsequently supporting a learning environment. As the findings revealed, leaders

should ensure that a leadership training strategy encompasses the career from recruitment, retention, mentoring, joint training, and upward mobility via challenging positions supported by requisite training.

In general, this study could be beneficial to key stakeholders, including law enforcement leaders, current officers, and the community. I will provide the results of the study to law enforcement organizations and research participants as well as the research site. My intent is to publish this study for the broader community via the resources of the institution. The results of this study indicate that there is a need for leadership training strategies within law enforcement.

Recommendations for Further Research

An abundance of leadership research exists, with the majority showing the positive associations between training investments in the individual and organizational outcomes leading to success (Russell, Cole, & Jones (2014). The sample in this study represented senior law enforcement executives from one organization. Exploration across additional law enforcement organizations and perhaps across the first responder community could address this limitation. Future research beyond law enforcement could include the fire, rescue, and National Guard communities to create knowledge related to leadership training strategies across the first responder enterprise. Expanding the pool of leaders to additional related communities could address any preconceived biases and perceptions of the executives participating in this study as well as any affect the limited pool of participants may have had on the overall responses. Additional qualitative studies could provide cross community strategies leveraging multiple components of the first

responder community that may result in tangible increases in capabilities for communities.

An additional area of research could inquire as to interoperable technology solutions across law enforcement and the larger first responder community. As noted in my direct observation of the joint command and control exercise, organizations have different equipment that may not be interoperable. Allen, Karanasios, and Norman's (2014) study on information technologies and equipment confirmed interoperability might be in the common interest of all public safety organizations related to both cost and capability.

Reflections

The motivation for this study was the desire to understand law enforcement training strategies and how leaders are developed over a career with respect to law enforcement organizations. In reflecting on the DBA doctoral study process, I found the journey of my doctoral study had many challenges. I changed my topic, doctoral study committee, and population along the way. These challenges presented me with unique opportunities and lessons learned as I completed the doctoral process. During the research, I found that there were strategies for senior and middle manager leader training programs, but not as many leader training opportunities available for the front-line leaders in law enforcement. Additionally, there appears to be few joint training programs that cross first responder organizations, which is important today based on the changing global environment related to threat response and constrained training resources.

In my role as the researcher, I was able to observe training in action without judging. By direct observation in a command post exercise, I was able to garner information and see various aspects of law enforcement training and the interaction with other first responders in multiple agencies. In the beginning of the research, I had some concern as to whether the study participants would be forthright with a person outside the law enforcement community. After the opening of discussions and the relationship building portion of the interviews I found the participants spoke open and freely. Participants expressed gratitude after the interview for asking questions about training quality and joint training strategies. Although some thought there was a link between the disparity of training opportunities quality and budget constraints, participants were motivated to improve the training received and provided organizational information and insights that could improve future effectiveness.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The purpose of this qualitative single case study was to explore law enforcement training strategies of a single law enforcement organization. Eighteen senior law enforcement executives participated in the study. Data sources included; a) semistructured interviews, b) organizational document review, and c) direct observation of leaders during a joint command and control planning exercise. The analysis revealed three emergent themes; a) recruiting, retention, and mentoring, b) training and technology, and c) strategic partnerships. This section presented the results of the findings and emergent themes based on the analysis as well as offered implications for social change, recommendations for action, and recommendations for future research.

The specific business problem is that some law enforcement leaders lack training strategies for leadership development. Although organizational constraints, such as fiscal budgets impact training, participants and direct observation of the joint exercise revealed developing a leadership training strategy that addresses recruiting, retention, mentoring, training, technology, and strategic partnerships can positively affect future leader development. The results of the study would support Gandhi and Kumar's (2014) premise that the main goal of leadership development is to recognize talent and enhance their ability and motivation to increase the effectiveness of the leadership development and overall organization. Additionally, leaders can implement strategic human resource practices to achieve a desirable outcome related to recruiting, retention, mentoring, and training (Loshali & Krishnan, 2013). As posited by Thomas (2014), implementing leadership training strategies is in the best interests

of the organization and essential to developing tomorrow's leaders today.

Law enforcement will always have a need for dynamic leaders who have a broad understanding of the law enforcement arena and who can lead and inspire police officers. Leadership training strategies should shape a diverse and inclusive leadership team with the skills and capabilities needed now and in the future. I found throughout all three data gathering portions of the study that leadership training strategies should ensure they provide continuous learning and development programs based on a mutual commitment between law enforcement senior executives and junior leaders to promote competency, relevance, and agility in tomorrow's workforce. Additionally, leadership training strategies should nurture a culture of innovation and agility that advocates the sharing of

ideas and resources adaptable to the changing environment, and promotes best practices across law enforcement. Leadership training strategies center on the combination of training, developmental relationships, and experience that allow the individual leader to gain the competencies necessary to provide the organizational leadership of the future.

References

Agarwal, U. A., Datta, S., Blake-Beard, S., & Bhargava, S. (2012). Linking LMX, innovative work behavior and turnover intentions. *Career Development International, 17*, 208-230. doi:10.1108/13620431211241063

Ahmad, R., & Yunos, Z. (2012). The application of mixed method in developing a cyber terrorism framework. *Journal of Information Security, 3*, 209-214. doi:10.4236/jis.2012.33026

Al-Hamden, Z., & Anthony, D. (2010). Deciding on a mixed-methods design in a doctoral study. *Nurse Researcher, 18*, 45-56. doi:10.7748/nr2010.10.18.1.45.c8047

Alban-Metcalfe, J., & Alimo-Metcalfe, B. (2013). Reliability and validity of the leadership competencies and engaging leadership scale. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management, 26*, 56-73. doi:10.1108/09513551311294281

Allen, D. K., Karanasios, S., & Norman, A. (2014). Information sharing and interoperability: The case of major incident management. *European Journal of Information Systems, 23*, 418-432. doi:10.1057/ejis.2013.8

Allio, R. J. (2013). Leaders and leadership - many theories, but what advice is reliable? *Strategy & Leadership, 41*, 4-14. doi:10.1108/10878571311290016

Almqvist, R., Bino Catasús, & Skoog, M. (2011). Towards the next generation of public management. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management, 24*, 122-145. doi:10.1108/09513551111109035

Al-sharafi, H., & Rajiani, I. (2013). Promoting organizational citizenship behavior among

    employees - the role of leadership practices. *International Journal of Business*

    and Management, 8, 47-54. doi:10.55539/ijbm.v8n647

Arrow, K. (1973). Higher education as filter. *Journal of Public Economics, 2*, 193-216.

    doi:10.1016/0047-2727(73)90013-3

Arendt, S. W., Roberts, K. R., Strohbehn, C., Ellis, J., Paez, P., & Meyer, J. (2012). Use

    of qualitative research in foodservice organizations. *International Journal of*

    Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24, 820-837.

    doi:10.1108/09596111211247182

Arora, R. (2012). A mixed method approach to understanding the role of emotions and

    sensual delight in dining experience. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 29*,

    333-343. doi:10.1108/07363761211247451

Asare, S. D., Gopolang, B., & Mogotlhwane, O. (2012). Challenges facing SMEs in the

    adoption of ICT in B2B and B2C E-commerce. *International Journal of*

    Commerce & Management, 22, 272-285. doi:10.1108/10569211211284485

Asumeng, M. (2014). Managerial competency models: A critical review and proposed

    holistic-domain model. *Journal of Management Research, 6*, 1-20.

    doi:10.5296/jmr.v6i4.5596

Autor, D. H. (2014). Skills, education, and the rise of earnings inequality among the

    "other 99 percent." *Science, 344*, 843-851. doi:10.1126/science.1251868

Avery, G. C., & Bergsteiner, H. (2011). Sustainable leadership practices for enhancing

    business resilience and performance. *Strategy & Leadership, 39*, 5-15.

doi:10.1108/10878571111128766

Baden, D., & Parkes, C. (2013). Experiential learning: Inspiring the business leaders of

tomorrow. *The Journal of Management Development, 32*, 295-308.

doi:10.1108/02621711311318283

Bae, S., & Patterson, L. (2014). Comparison and implications of human capital theory at

the individual, organization, and country levels. *Journal of Organizational*

Culture, Communication and Conflict, 18, 11-28. Retrieved from

http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals

Baker, D. P. (2011). Forward and backward, horizontal and vertical: Transformation of

occupational credentialing in the schooled society. *Research in Social*

Stratification and Mobility, 29, 5-29. doi:10.1016/j.rssm.2011.01.001

Banerjee, P. M. (2013). Sustainable human capital: Product innovation and employee

partnerships in technology firms. *Cross Cultural Management, 20*, 216-234.

doi:10.1108/13527601311313481

Baskarada, S. (2014). Qualitative case studies guidelines. *The Qualitative Report*, *19*, 1-

25. Retrieved from http://nsuworks.nova.edu

Becker, G. S. (1993). *Human capital*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Bell, E., & Bryman, A. (2007). The ethics of management research: An exploratory

content analysis. *British Journal of Management*, *18*, 63-77. doi:10.1111/j.1467-

8551.2006.00487.x

Berg, M. E., & Karlsen, J. T. (2012). An evaluation of management training and

coaching. *Journal of Workplace Learning, 24*, 177-199.

doi:10.1108/13665621211209267

Bernon, M., & Mena, C. (2013). The evolution of customized executive education in supply chain management. *Supply Chain Management, 18*, 440-453. doi:10.1108/SCM-07-2012-0262

Boal, K., & Hooijberg, R. (2000). Strategic leadership research: Moving on. *Leadership Quarterly, 11*, 515-549. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(00)00057-6

Bogdanovic, D., Dowd, M., Wattam, E., & Adam, A. (2012). Contesting methodologies. *Journal of Information, Communication & Ethics in Society, 10*, 208-221. doi:10.1108/14779961211285854

Borzillo, S., & Kaminska-labbé, R. (2011). Unravelling the dynamics of knowledge creation in communities of practice though complexity theory lenses. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 9*, 353-366. doi:10.1057/kmrp.2011.13

Bose, M., Garretson Folse, J. A., & Burton, S. (2013). The role of contextual factors in eliciting creativity: Primes, cognitive load and expectation of performance feedback. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 30*, 400-414. doi:10.1108/JCM-02-2013-0475

Bowles, S., & Gintis, H. (1975). The problem with human capital theory – a Marxian critique. *The American Economic Review, 65*, 74-82. Retrieved from https://www.aeaweb.org/aer/index.php

Boyd, B. W. (2013). *The influence of increased presence of upper management women on corporate culture.* (Doctoral dissertation) 3587918. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3587918)

Bratton, V. K., Dodd, N. G., & Brown, F. W. (2011). The impact of emotional

intelligence on accuracy of self-awareness and leadership performance.

Leadership & Organization Development Journal, *32*, 127-149.

doi:10.1108/01437731111112971

Byrne, D. (2013). Evaluating complex social intervention in a complex world.

Evaluation, 19, 217-228. doi:10.1177/1356389013495617

Campbell, I., & Kodz, J. (2011). What makes great police leadership? What research can

tell us about the effectiveness of different leadership styles, competencies and

behaviors. A Rapid Evidence Review. *National Policing Improvement Agency*,

11, 1-27. Retrieved from http://www.npia.police.uk/

Chapman, S. A., & Randall, L. (2012). A new process model for curriculum development

in business education. *The Business Review, Cambridge, 20*, 9-16. Retrieved from

www.jaabc.com/brc.html

Chakraverty, D., & Tai, R. H. (2013). Parental occupation inspiring interest: Perspectives

from physical scientists. *Bulletin of Science Technology & Society, 33*, 44-52.

doi:10.1177/0270467613509367

Cheung, M. F. Y. (2013). The mediating role of perceived organizational support in the

effects of interpersonal and informational justice on organizational citizenship

behaviors. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 34*, 551-572.

doi:10.1108/LODJ-11-2011-0114

Chong, M. P. M. (2014). Influence behaviors and organizational commitment: A

comparative study. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 35*, 54-78.

doi:10.1108/LODJ-03-2012-0035

Chullen, C. L. (2014). How does supervisor burnout affect leader-member exchange? A dyadic perspective. *The International Business & Economics Research Journal, 13*, 1113-1126. Retrieved from http://www.cluteinstitute.com/journals/international-business-economics-research-journal-iber/

Coenen, M., Stamm, T. A., Stucki, G., & Cieza, A. (2012). Individual interviews and focus groups in patients with rheumatoid arthritis: A comparison of two qualitative methods. *Quality of Life Research, 21*, 359-370. doi:10.1007/s11136-011-9943-2

Crumpton, M., A. (2014). Can a mentoring program save you money? *The Bottom Line, 27*, 60-63. doi:10.1108/BL-05-2014-0016

Cseh, M., Davis, E. B., & Khilji, S. E. (2013). Developing a global mindset: Learning of global leaders. *European Journal of Training and Development, 37*, 489-499. doi:10.1108/03090591311327303

da Silva, A. R. L., da Padua, C. A., & de Souza, E. M. (2012). A constructionist approach for the study of strategy as social practice. *Brazilian Administration Review, 9*, 1-18. doi:10.1590/S1807-76922012000500002

Dai, G., Tang, K. Y., & DeMeuse, K. P. (2011). Leadership competencies across organizational levels: A test of the pipeline model. *The Journal of Management Development, 30*, 366-380. doi:10.1108/02621711111126837

Dalgleish, D., Mauricio, R., & Williams, T. (2013). Journey to excellence. *TQM*

Journal, 25, 431-440. doi:10.1108/17542731311314908

Darling, J., & Heller, V. (2012). Effective organizational consulting across cultural

boundaries: A case focusing on leadership styles and team-building. *Organization*

Development Journal, 30, 54-72. Retrieved from

http://www.theisod.org/index.php/journal

Daspit, J. J., & D'Souza, D. E. (2013). Understanding the multi-dimensional nature of

absorptive capacity. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 25*, 299-316. Retrieved from

http://jomi.web.id

de Grip, A., & Smits, W. (2012). What affects lifelong learning of scientists and

engineers? *International Journal of Manpower, 33*, 583-597.

doi:10.1108/01437721211253209

Dean, G., & Gottschalk, P. (2013). Police leadership roles: empirical study of

management. *International Journal of Law and Management*, *55*, 304-317.

doi:10.1108/IJLMA-06-2012-0016

Densten, I. L., & Sarro, J. C. (2012). The impact of organizational culture and social

desirability on Australian CEO leadership. *Leadership & Organization*

Development Journal, 33, 342-368. doi:10.1108/01437731211229296

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Desai, D. A. (2010). Co-creating learning: Insights from complexity theory. *The Learning*

Organization, 17, 388-403. doi:10.1108/09696471011059796

de Waal, A., Béatrice, I. J. M. van, d. H., Selvarajah, C., & Meyer, D. (2012).

Characteristics of high performing managers in the Netherlands. *Leadership &*

Organization Development Journal, 33, 131-148.

doi:10.1108/01437731211203456

Dike, D. W. (2012). Changes in the role of supervisors in managerial leadership theories:

An historical perspective. *International Journal of Management, 29*, 189-194.

Retrieved from http://www.theijm.com/

Ding, D., Lu, H., Song, Y., & Lu, Q. (2012). Relationship of servant leadership and

employee loyalty: The mediating role of employee satisfaction. *I - Business, 4*,

208-215. doi:10.4236/ib.2012.43026

Drabczyk, A. L. (2005). *Citizen and emergency responder shared values: Enabling*

mutual disaster management performance. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations

and Theses database. (UMI No. 3169036)

Edwards, R. C. (1976). Individual traits and organizational incentives: What makes a

"good" worker? *The Journal of Human Resources, 11*, 51-68. Retrieved from

http://uwpress.wisc.edu/journals/journals/jhr.html

Enger, K., & Lajimodiere, D. (2011). A multi-cultural transformative approach to

learning. *Multicultural Education & Technology Journal, 5*, 176-193.

doi:10.1108/17504971111166910

Farrokhi, F., & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, A. (2012). Rethinking convenience sampling:

Defining quality criteria. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*, 784-792.

doi:10.4304/tpls.2.4

Fioravante, P. L. (2013). An effective leadership revelation – blending dark side and

   positivist traits. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics, 15*, 107-125.

   Retrieved from http://www.na-businesspress.com/jabeopen.html

Frimpon, M. F. (2012). Using pre-identified attributes as the critical success factors of

   college leadership to measure candidates. *International Journal of Business and*

   Management, 7, 158-171. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v7n18p158

Gandhi, D., & Kumar, P. (2014). Succession planning: Developing leaders for tomorrow

   to ensure organizational success. *The International Journal of Business &*

   Management, 2, 1-5. Retrieved from http://www.theijbm.com

Gandolfi, F. (2012). A conceptual discussion of transformational leadership and

   intercultural competence. *Revista De Management Comparat International, 13*,

   522-534. Retrieved from http://www.rmci.ase.ro/

Gamerschlag, R. (2013). Value relevance of human capital information. *Journal of*

   Intellectual Capital, 14, 325-345. doi:10.1108/14691931311323913

Gentry, W. A., Leslie, J. B., Gilmore, D. C., Ellen, B. P., Ferris, G. R., & Treadway, D.

   C. (2013). Personality and political skill as distal and proximal predictors of

   leadership evaluations. *Career Development International, 18*, 569-588.

   doi:10.1108/CDI-08-2013-0097

Gentry, W. A., & Sparks, T. E. (2012). A convergence/divergence perspective of

   leadership competencies managers believe are most important for success in

   organizations: A cross-cultural multilevel analysis of 40 countries. *Journal of*

   Business and Psychology, 27, 15-30. doi:10.1007/s10869-011-9212-y

Getha-Taylor, H., & Morse, R. S., (2013). Collaborative leadership development for local officials: exploring competencies and program impact. *Public Administration Quarterly, 37*, 77-103. Retrieved from http://www.spaef.com/paq.php

Ghosh, R., Haynes, R. K., & Kram, K. E. (2013). Developmental networks at work: Holding environments for leader development. *Career Development International, 18*, 232-256. doi:10.1108/CDI-09-2012-0084

Granot, E., Brashear, T. G., & Motta, P. C. (2012). A structural guide to in-depth interviewing in business and industrial marketing research. *The Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 27*, 547-553. doi:10.1108/08858621211257310

Green, D. D., & Roberts, G. E. (2012). Transformational leadership in a postmodern world: The presidential election of Barack Obama. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 11*, 9-25. Retrieved from http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals/journaldetails.aspx?jid=13

Gregory, B. T., Moates, K. N., & Gregory, S. T. (2011). An exploration of perspective taking as an antecedent of transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*, 807-816. doi:10.1108/01437731111183748

Grieve, J., MacVean, A., & Harfield, C. (2007). *Policing*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Gupta, M., & Hodges, N. (2012). Corporate social responsibility in the apparel industry: An exploration of Indian consumers' perceptions and expectations. *Journal of

Fashion Marketing and Management, 16, 216-233.

doi:10.1108/13612021211222833

Gutierrez, B., Spencer, S. M., & Zhu, G. (2012). Thinking globally, leading locally:

Chinese, Indian, and western leadership. *Cross Cultural Management, 19*, 67-89.

doi:10.1108/13527601211195637

Hairuddin, M. A. (2012). The quest for strategic Malaysian quality national primary

school leaders. *The International Journal of Educational Management, 26*, 83-98.

doi:10.1108/09513541211194392

Hannah, S. T., Uhl-Bien, M., Avolio, B. J., & Cavarretta, F. L. (2009). A framework for

examining leadership in extreme contexts. *The Leadership Quarterly, 20*, 897.

Retrieved from http://www.journals.elsevier.com/the-leadership-quarterly/

Hansen, H. (2011). Rethinking certification theory and the educational development of

the United States and Germany. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility,*

29, 31-55. doi:10.1016.j.rssm.2011.01.003

Harley, C., Metcalf, L., & Irwin, J. (2014). An exploratory study in community

perspectives of sustainability leadership in the Murray Darling basin. *Journal of*

Business Ethics, 124, 413-433. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1877-x

Harrison, R. L., & Reilly, T. M. (2011). Mixed methods designs in marketing research.

Qualitative Market Research, 14, 7-26. doi:10.1108/13522751111099300

Hauschildt, K., & Konradt, U. (2012). Self-leadership and team members' work role

performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*, 497-517.

doi:10.1108/02683941211235409

Hawkins, M. A., & Saleem, F. Z. (2012). The omnipresent personal narrative: Story

formulation and the interplay among narratives. *Journal of Organizational*

Change Management, 25, 204-219. doi:10.1108/09534811211213892

Hays, D. G., & Wood, C. (2011). Infusing qualitative traditions in counseling research

designs. *Journal of Counseling & Development, JCD, 89*, 288-295.

doi:10.1002/j.1556-6678.2011.tb00091.x

Henderson, K. A. (2011). Post-positivism and the pragmatics of leisure

research. *Leisure Sciences, 33*, 341-346. doi:10.1080/01490400.2011.583166

Hobbs, W., & Curtis, N. J. (2011). Theory and application of perceptual positions to data

collection and analysis in military environments. *The Journal of the Operational*

Research Society, 62, 1753-1764. doi:10.1057/jors.2010.124

Hui-Ling, T., & Yu-Hsuan, C. (2011). Effects of empowering leadership on performance

in management team. *Journal of Chinese Human Resources Management, 2*, 43-

60. doi:10.1108/20408001111148720

Hurst, D. K. (2013). Practical wisdom: Reinventing organizations by rediscovering

ourselves. *Management Research Review, 36*, 759-766. doi:10.1108/MRR-11-

2012-0256

Ihantola, E., & Kihn, L. (2011). Threats to validity and reliability in mixed methods

accounting research. *Qualitative Research in Accounting &* Management, 8, 39-

58. doi:10.1108/1176609111114694

Ionescu, A. M. (2014). The role of the budgetary system in achieving enterprise

performance. *Manager, 19*, 98-108. Retrieved from

http://www.manager.unibuc.ro/

Ismail, A., Mohamad, M., Mohamed, H., Rafiuddin, N., & Zhen, K. (2010).

Transformational and transactional leadership styles as a predictor of individual

outcomes. *Theoretical & Applied Economics*, *17*, 89-104. Retrieved from

http://www.ectap.ro/

Ismail, K. M., Richard, O. C., & Taylor, E. C. (2012). Relationship conflict in supervisor-

subordinate dyads: A subordinate perspective. *International Journal of Conflict

Management, 23*, 192-218. doi:10.1108/10444061211218302

Iyer, R. D. (2012). Servant or leader? Who will stand up please? *International Journal of

Business and Social Science, 3,* Retrieved from www.ijbssnet.com/

Jackson, A. D. (2010). *Comparing satisfaction, retention, and success of principals who

did and did not participate in a mentoring program.* (Doctoral dissertation).

Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 342899)

Jamaludin, Z., Rahman, N. M., Makhbul, Z. K , & Idris, F. (2011). Do transactional,

transformational, and spiritual leadership styles distinct? A conceptual insight.

Journal of Global Business & Economics, *2*, 73-85. Retrieved from

http://www.globalresearch.com.my/

James, M. E. (2012). The international competitiveness of Jamaican manufacturing firms:

A qualitative inquiry. *Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge, 18*,

91-99. Retrieved from http://www.jaabc.com/journal.htm

Jantti, M., & Greenhalgh, N. (2012). Leadership competencies: A reference point for

development and evaluation. *Library Management, 33*, 421-428.

doi:10.1108/01435121211266249

Jogula, U. D., & Pansiri, J. (2011). Mixed methods: A research design for management doctoral dissertations. *Management Research Review, 34*, 687-701. doi:10.1108/0140917111113621

Joo, B. & Ready, K. J. (2012). Career satisfaction. *Career Development International, 17*, 276-295. doi:10.1108/13620431211241090

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leader member exchange. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*, 260-280. doi:10.1108/01437731111123915

Jung, Y., & Takeuchi, N. (2010). Performance implications for the relationships among top management leadership, organizational culture, and appraisal practice: testing two theory-based models of organizational learning theory in Japan, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*, 1931-1950. doi:10.1080/09585192.2010.505093

Kahane, A. (2012). Transformative scenario planning: Changing the future by exploring alternatives. *Strategy & Leadership,40*, 19-23. doi:10.1108/10878571211257140

Kaine, G., & Cowan, L. (2011). Using general system theory to understand how farmers manage variability. *Systems Research & Behavioral Science, 28*, 231-244. doi:10.1002/sres.1073

Kalargyrou, V., Pescosolido, A. T., & Kalargiros, E. A. (2012). Leadership skills in management education. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 16*, 39-63. Retrieved from

http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals/journaldetails.aspx?jid=5

Kapoulas, A., & Mitic, M. (2012). Understanding challenges of qualitative research:
Rhetorical issues and reality traps. *Qualitative Market Research, 15*, 354-368.
doi:10.1108/13522751211257051

Keane, S., Lincoln, M., & Smith, T. (2012). Retention of allied health professionals in
rural New South Wales: A thematic analysis of focus group discussions. *BMC
Health Services Research, 12*, 175-186. doi:10.1186/1472-6963-12-175

Kempster, S., Jackson, B., & Conroy, M. (2011). Leadership as purpose: Exploring the
role of purpose in leadership practice. *Leadership, 7*, 317-334.
doi:10.1177/1742715011407384

Khan, F. A., & Hudson, J. (2014). Initial human capital or the rule of law: What matters
for the income convergence of poor countries? *Applied Economics*, *46*, 179-189.
doi:10.1080/00036846.2013.831172

Kovach, J. V. (2014). Leadership in the "classroom." *The Journal for Quality and
Participation, 37*, 39-40. Retrieved from http://www.asq.org/pub/jqp

Kramar, R., & Steane, P. (2012). Emerging HRM skills in Australia. *Asia - Pacific
Journal of Business Administration, 4*, 139-157.
doi:10.1108/17574321211269289

Kyvik, S. (2013). The academic researcher role: Enhancing expectations and improved
performance. *Higher Education, 65*, 525-538. doi:10.1007/s10734-01209561-0

Lakshman, C. (2012). Structured content analysis in leadership research: A new method
for international contexts. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 33*,

477-493. doi:10.1108/01437731211241265

Larsson, G., & Eid, J. (2012). An idea paper on leadership theory

integration. *Management Research Review, 35*, 177-191.

doi:10.1108/01409171211210109

Larsson, G., & Hyllengren, P. (2013). Contextual influences on leadership in emergency

type organisations. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 21*, 19-37.

doi:10.1108/19348831311322515

Lawrence, J., & Tar, U. (2013). The use of grounded theory technique as a practical tool

for qualitative data collection and analysis. *Electronic Journal of Business*

Research Methods, 11, 29-40. Retrieved from http://www.ejbrm.com

Leavy, B. (2011). Leading adaptive change by harnessing the power of positive deviance.

Strategy & Leadership, 39, 18-27. doi:10.1108/10878571111114437

Leavy, B. (2013a). Effectiveness at the top - what makes the difference and

why? *Strategy & Leadership, 41*, 11-18. doi:10.1108/10878571311323172

Leavy, B. (2013b). Updating a classic formula for strategic success: Focus, alignment,

repeatability and leadership. *Strategy & Leadership, 41*, 18-28.

doi:10.1108/10878571311290043

Li, Q., Zhou, P., & Li, X. (2011). On core competitiveness evaluation model of power

generating enterprises based on knowledge management. *International Business*

Research, 4, 224-228. Retrieved from

http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ibr/index

Linjuan, R. M., & Stacks, D. W. (2013). The impact of leadership style and employee

empowerment on perceived organizational reputation. *Journal of Communication Management, 17*, 171-192. doi:10.1108/13632541311318765

Littrell, R. F. (2013). Explicit leader behavior. *The Journal of Management Development, 32*, 567-605. doi:10.1108/JMD-04-2013-0053

Lopez-Fernandez, O., & Molina-Azorin, J. (2011). The use of mixed methods research in the field of behavioral sciences. *Quality and Quantity, 45*, 1459-1472. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9543-9

Loshali, S., & Krishnan, V. R. (2013). Strategic human resource management and firm performance: Mediating role of transformational leadership. *Journal of Strategic Human Resource Management, 2,* 9-19. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1842-8

Lugosi, P., Janta, H., & Watson, P. (2012). Investigative management and consumer research on the internet. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24*, 838-854. doi:10.1108/09596111211247191

Marshall, B., Cardon, P., Poddar, A., & Fontenot, R. (2013). Does sample size matter in qualitative research? A review of qualitative interviews in IS research. *The Journal of Computer Information Systems, 54*, 11-22. Retrieved from http://www.iacis.org/jcis/jcis.php

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (2011). *Designing qualitative research (*5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

McCarthy, A. E., Petrosoniak, A., & Varpio, L. (2013). The complex relationships involved in global health: A qualitative description. *BMC Medical Education, 13*, 136. doi:10.1186/1472-6920-13-136

McCloughen, A., O'Brien, L., & Jackson, D. (2014). Journey to become a nurse leader mentor: past, present and future influences. *Nursing Inquiry*, *21*, 301-310. doi:10.1111/nin.12053

McMullen, R., & Adobor, H. (2011). Bridge leadership: a case study of leadership in a bridging organization. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *32*, 715-735. doi:10.1108/01437731111170012

Moe, T. (2012). Aiming for resilience and adaptation in managing environment: An emerging environmental and emergency leadership in the twenty-first century, *International Journal of Disaster Resilience in the Built Environment*, *3*(1), 42-51. doi:10.1108/17595901211201123

Monahan, K. (2013). What do values have to do with it? An exploration into the moderating impact of work values on the relationship between leader-member-exchange and work satisfaction. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal, 12*, 95-111. Retrieved from http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals/journaldetails.aspx?jid=13

Moustakas, C. (1994). *Research methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Muchiri, M., & Cooksey, R. (2011). Examining the effects of substitutes for leadership on performance outcomes, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *32*, 817-836. doi:10.1108/01437731111183757

Muna, F. A. (2011). Contextual leadership. *The Journal of Management Development, 30*, 865-881. doi:10.1108/02621711111164349

Murphy, F. J., & Yielder, J., (2010). Establishing rigor in qualitative radiography.

Radiography, *16*, 62-67. doi:10.1016/j.radi.2009.07.003

Naidoo, L. J., Scherbaum, C. A., Goldstein, H. W., & Graen, G. B. (2011). A longitudinal examination of the effects of LMX, ability, and differentiation on team performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 26*, 347-357. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9193-2

Narayanan, S. S. (2012). Quid pro quo nature of leadership trust formation - A monadic study from the subordinate's perspective. *International Journal of Business and Management, 7*, 113-123. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v7n21p113

Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Novac, C., & Bratanov, C. I. (2014). The impact of the leadership style on the organizational climate in a public entity. *Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy, 2*, 155-179. Retrieved from http://www.managementdynamics.ro/index.php/journal

Nuria, L. R. (2011). Libraries' response to the crisis: Measures to mitigate its impact. *The Bottom Line, 24*, 236-240. doi:10.1108/08880451111193352

Oghojafor, B. E. A., Olayemi, O. O., Oluwatula, O. O., & Okonji, P. S. (2012). Attribution theory and strategic decisions on organizational success factors. *Journal of Management and Strategy, 3*, 32. doi:10.5430/jms.v3n1p32

Oleinik, A. (2011). Mixing quantitative and qualitative content analysis: Triangulation at work. *Quality and Quantity, 45*, 859-873. doi:10.1007/s11135-010-9399-4

Olivares, O. J. (2011). The formative capacity of momentous events and leadership development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*, 837-853. doi:10.1108/01437731111183766

O'Reilly, M., & Parker, N. (2012). Unsatisfactory saturation: A critical exploration of the notion of saturated sample sizes in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research Journal, 13*, 190-197. doi:10.1177/1468794112446106

Ostulund, U., Kidd, L., Wengstrom, Y., & Rowa-Dewar, N. (2011). Combining qualitative and quantitative research within mixed method research designs: A methodological review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 48*, 369-383. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.10.005

Parboteeah, P., & Jackson, T. W. (2011). Expert evaluation study of an autopoietic model of knowledge. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 15*, 688-699. doi:10.1108/13673271111152027

Patton, MQ. (2001). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Paulus, T. M., Lester, J. N., & Britt, V. (2013). Constructing hopes and fears around technology: A discourse analysis of introductory qualitative research texts. *Qualitative Inquiry, 19*, 639-651. doi:10.1177/1077800413500929

Pelzang, R., Wood, B., & Black, S. (2010). Nurses' understanding of patient-centered care in Bhutan. *British Journal of Nursing, 19*, 186-193. Retrieved from http://www.internurse.com/cgi-bin/go.pl/library

Peredaryenko, M. S., & Krauss, S. E., (2013). Calibrating the human instrument:

Understanding the interviewing experience of novice qualitative researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, *18*(43), 1-17. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR

Phipps, S. T. A., Prieto, L. C., & Ndinguri, E. N. (2014). Emotional intelligence: Is it necessary for leader development? *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics, 11*, 73-89. Retrieved from http://www.researchgate.net/journal/1913-8059_Journal_of_Leadership_Accountability_and_Ethics

Pless, N. M., & Maak, T. (2011). Responsible leadership: Pathways to the future. *Journal of Business Ethics, 98*, 3-13. doi:10.1007/s10551-011-1114-4

Power, R. L. (2013). Leader-member exchange theory in higher and distance education. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning, 14, 1-3.* Retrieved from http://www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl

Prewitt, J., Weil, R., & McClure, A. (2011). Developing leadership in global and multi-cultural organizations. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 2*, 13-20. Retrieved from www.ijbssnet.com

Qu, S. Q., & Dumay, J. (2011). The qualitative research interview. *Qualitative Research in Accounting and Management, 8*, 238-264. doi:10.1108/11766091111162070

Rahman, W., & Nas, Z. (2013). Employee development and turnover intention: Theory validation. *European Journal of Training and Development, 37*, 564-579. doi:10.1108/EJTD-May-2012-0015

Randall, L. M. (2012). Transforming a university: a study of process leadership. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal, 16*, 1-20. Retrieved from http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals/journaldetails.aspx?jid=5

Rathindran, R. (2014). New research identifies markers of innovation potential. *Research Technology Management, 57*, 4-5.

http://www.iriweb.org/Main/Library/RTM_Journal/Public_Site/Navigation/Public ations/Research-Technology_Management/index.aspx

Reimer, M. C. (2014). *Corporate college: A business model for contract training.* Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3625965)

Ritholz, M. D., Beverly, E. A., Abrahamson, M. J., Brooks, K. M., Hultgren, B. A., & Weinger, K. (2011). Physicians' perceptions of type 2 diabetes treatment team: A qualitative study. *The Diabetes Educator, 37*, 794-800. doi:10.1177/0145721711423320

Rivera, L. A. (2011). Ivies, extracurriculars, and exclusion: Elite employers' use of educational credentials. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility, 29*, 71-90. doi:10.1016/j.rssm.2010.12.001

Rowley, J. (2012). Conducting research interviews. *Management Research Review, 35*, 260-271. doi:10.1108/01409171211210154

Rowold, J. (2011). Relationship between leadership behaviors and performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *32*, 628-647. doi:10.1108/01437731111161094

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data.* 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage.

Russell, L. M., Cole, B. M., & Jones, R. J. (2014). High-risk occupations: How leadership, stress, and ability to cope influence burnout in law

enforcement. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics, 11*, 49-69.

Retrieved from http://www.na-businesspress.com/JLAE

Sahin, F. (2012). The mediating effect of leader-member exchange on the relationship

between theory X and Y management styles and affective commitment: A

multilevel analysis. *Journal of Management and Organization, 18*, 159-174.

doi:10.1017/S1833367200000936

Sant'Anna, A., de Souza, L. S., Nelson, R. E., Campos. M. S., & Leonel, J. N. (2001). A

constructivist perspective on leadership thought among Brazilian and North-

American scholars. *Brazilian Administrative Review, 8*, 205-224.

doi:101590/S1807-76922011000200006

Santos, R. B. (2013). Implementation of a police organizational model for crime

reduction. *Policing, 36*, 295-311. doi:10.1108/13639511311329714

Santos, A., Hayward, T., & Ramos, H. M. (2012). Organizational culture, work and

personal goals as predictors of employee well-being. *Journal of Organizational

Culture, Communication and Conflict, 16*, 25-48. Retrieved from

http://www.alliedacademies.org/public/journals/JournalDetails.aspx?jid=11

Savolainen, T. (2014). Trust-building in e-leadership: A case study of leaders' challenges

and skills in technology-mediated interaction. *Journal of Global Business

Issues, 8*, 45-56. Retrieved from http://www.jgbi.org/

Schafer, J. A. (2010). Effective leaders and leadership in policing: traits, assessment,

development, and expansion, *Policing: An International Journal of Police

Strategies & Management, 33*, 644-663. doi:10.1108/13639511011085060

Schafer, J. A. (2010). The ineffective police leader: Acts of commission and omission. *Journal of Criminal Justice, 38*, 737-746. doi:10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2010.04.048

Schultz, T. W. (1961). Investment in human capital. *American Economic Review, 51*, 1-17. Retrieved from www.aeaweb.org/aer/index.php

Schweitzer, J., (2014). Leadership and innovation capability development in strategic alliances, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 35*, 442-469. doi:10.1108/LODJ-01-12-0001

Searle, G. D., & Hanrahan, S. J. (2011). Leading to inspire others: Charismatic influence or hard work? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 32*, 736-754. doi:10.1108/01437731111170021

Seen, N. Y., Singh, S. K. G., & Jayasingam, S. (2012). Organizational culture and innovation among Malaysian employees. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, 8*, 147-157. Retrieved from http://www.hraljournal.com/

Shalini, K. S., & Arora, A. P. (2012). Individual investor biases: A segmentation analysis. *Qualitative Research in Financial Markets, 4*, 6-25. doi:10.1108/17554171211213522

Shannon, N. C. (2013). Exploring the impact of Marine Corps recruiters on entry-level attrition (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3601303)

Shedlin, M. G., Decena, C. U., Mangadu, T., & Martinez, A. (2011). Research participant recruitment in Hispanic communities: Lessons learned. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 13*, 352-60. doi:10.1007/s10903-009-9292-1

Shetach, A. (2012). Conflict leadership: Navigating toward effective and efficient team

    outcomes. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 35*, 25-30. Retrieved from

    http://asq.org/pub/jqp

Siddique, A., Hassan, D. A., Khan, M., & Fatima, U. (2011). Impact of academic

    leadership on faculty's motivation, and organizational effectiveness in higher

    education system. *International Journal of Business and Social Science, 2*, 184-

    191. Retrieved from www.ijbssnet.com

Sikdar, A., & Mitra, S. (2012). Gender-role stereotypes: Perception and practice of

    leadership in the Middle East. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary*

    Middle Eastern Issues, 5, 146-162. doi:10.1108/17537981211265534

Sirisetti, S. (2011). Quality leadership in the public sector: Strategies and challenges. *The*

    Journal of Commerce, 3, 45. Retrieved from http://www.joc.com/

Sjoberg, M., Wallenius, C., & Larsson, G. (2011). Leadership in complex, stressful

    rescue operations. *Disaster Prevention and Management, 20*, 199-212.

    doi:10.1108/09653561111126120

Skoko, H. (2013). Systems theory application to risk management in environmental and

    human health areas. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics, 14*, 93-111.

    Retrieved from http://www.na-businesspress.com/jabeopen.html

Somerville, I., & Purcell, A. (2011). A history of republican public relations in Northern

    Ireland from "Bloody Sunday" to the "Good Friday Agreement." *Journal of*

    Communication Management, 15, 192-209. doi:10.1108/13632541111150970

Spiegel, M. R., Schiller, J. J., & Srinivasan, R. A. (2012). *Probability and statistics*. New

York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Stanleigh, M. (2013). Leading change. *The Journal for Quality and Participation, 36*, 39-40. Retrieved from http://asq.org/pub/jqp

Stead, T. M. (2003). *Comparing leadership competencies of corporate executive leaders with United States Air Force general officers: A case study* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3100238)

Stevenson, B. W. (2012). Application of systemic and complexity thinking in organizational development. *Emergence: Complexity and Organization, 14*, 86-99. Retrieved from http://emergentpublications.com/ECO/about_eco.aspx

Stewart, A. M., Polak, E., Young, R., & Schultz, I. Z. (2012). Injured workers' construction of expectations of return to work with sub-acute back pain: The role of perceived uncertainty. *Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation, 22*, 1-14. doi:10.1007/s10926-011-9312-6

Strause, L. (2013). Patient-first approach to improve oncology clinical trials. *Applied Clinical Trials, 22*, 26-31. Retrieved from www.appliedclinicaltrialsonline.com/

Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful sampling in qualitative research synthesis. *Qualitative Research Journal, 11*, 63-75. doi:10.3316/QRJ1102063

Suriyankietkaew, S. (2013). Emergent leadership paradigms for corporate sustainability: A proposed model. *Journal of Applied Business Research, 29*, 173. Retrieved from http://journals.cluteonline.com/index.php/JABR

Sylvain, C., & Lamothe, L. (2012). Sensemaking: A driving force behind the integration

of professional practices. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 26,* 737-757. doi:10.1108/14777261211276998

Tantivess, S., Román, P. V., Yothasamut, J., Mohara, A., Limprayoonyong, H., & Teerawattananon, Y. (2012). Efficiency or equity: Value judgments in coverage decisions in Thailand. *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 26*, 331-342. doi:10.1108/14777261211238972

Thomas, S. J. (2015). *Exploring strategies for retaining information technology professionals: A case study.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3681815)

Tonidandel, S., Braddy, P. W., & Fleenor, J. W. (2012). Relative importance of managerial skills for predicting effectiveness. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*, 636-655. doi:10.1108/02683941211252464

Vatamanescu, E., & Manuc, D. (2013). Facebook self-(re)presentation and the employers' practice of using it as a recruitment tool. *Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy, 1*, 241-257. Retrieved from http://www.managementdynamics.ro/index.php/journal

Vithessonthi, C., & Thoumrungroje, A. (2011). Strategic change and firm performance: The moderating effect of organisational learning. *Journal of Asia Business Studies, 5*, 194-210. doi:10.1108/15587891111152348

Waite, A. M. (2014). Leadership's influence on innovation and sustainability. *European Journal of Training and Development,38*, 15-39. doi:10.1108/EJTD-09-2013-0094

Waller, S., Fonseca, J., Anderson, J., Fike, J., & Murphy, S. (2012). What every airman needs to know about medical stability operations. *Air & Space Power Journal, 26*, 10-31. Retrieved from http://www.airpower.maxwell.af.mil/

Walker, J. R. (2006). *Evaluating collaborating leadership teams in public-private partnerships* (Doctoral dissertation).). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3206896

Walshe, C. (2011). The evaluation of complex interventions in palliative care: An exploration of the potential of case study research strategies. *Palliative Medicine, 25*, 774-81. doi:10.1177/0269216311419883

Wang, Y. (2014). Empowering the police: How the Chinese communist party manages its coercive leaders. *The China Quarterly, 219*, 625-648. doi:10.1017/S0305741014000769

Wang, Y., Chuang, L., & Bateman, W. B. (2012). Focus group study assessing self-management skills of Chinese Americans with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 14*, 869-74. doi:10.1007/s10903-011-9514-1

Warrick, D. D. (2011). The urgent need for skilled transformational leaders: Integrating transformational leadership and organization development. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics, 8*, 11-26. Retrieved from http://www.na-businesspress.com/JLAE/jlaescholar.html

Weide, J. L. (2014). *The role of regulatory focus in determining career-development training program effectiveness*. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 361491)

Wells, L. (2013). Gatekeepers: The Milwaukee Field experiment in the employment application process. *Sage Open, 3*, 1-9. doi:10.1177/2158244013503830

Williams, P. (2013). We are all boundary spanners now? *The International Journal of Public Sector Management, 26*, 17-32. doi:10.1108/09513551311293417

Wilson, A. B., Barrenger, S., Bohrman, C., & Draine, J. (2013). Balancing accessibility and selectivity in 21st century public mental health services: Implications for hard to engage clients. *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research, 40*, 191-206. doi:10.1007/s11414-012-9307-x

Winn, G. L. (2014). Safety leadership: Insights from military research. *Professional Safety, 59*, 32-38. Retrieved from http://www.asse.org/professional-safety

Wisdom, J. P., Cavaleri, M. A., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Green, C. A. (2012). Methodological reporting in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods health services research articles. *Health Services Research*, *47*, 721-745. doi:10.1111/j.1475-6773.2011.01344.x

Wu, L., Zhang, H., Chiu, R. K., Kwan, H. K., & He, X. (2014). Hostile attribution bias and negative reciprocity beliefs exacerbate incivility's effects on interpersonal deviance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 120*, 189-199. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1658-6

Yaghoubi, H., Mahallati, T., Moghadam, A. S., & Rahimi, E. (2014). Transformational leadership: Enabling factor of knowledge management practices. *Journal of Management and Sustainability, 4*, 165-174. doi:10.5539/jms.v4n3p165

Yap, Q. S., & Webber, J. K. (2015). Developing corporate culture in a training

department: A qualitative case study of internal and outsourced staff. *Review of*
Business & Finance Studies, 6, 43-56. Retrieved
from http://www.theibfr.com/rbfcs.htm

Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of case study research*, (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA:
Sage.

Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership*
Quarterly, 19, 708–722. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.09.008

Xu, M. A., & Storr, G., B. (2012). Learning the concept of researcher as instrument in
qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, *17*, 1-18. Retrieved from
http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR

Zepeda, S. J., Bengtson, E., & Parylo, O. (2012). Examining the planning and
management of principal succession. *Journal of Educational Administration, 50*,
136-158. doi:10.1108/09578231211210512

Appendix A: Consent Form

LAW ENFORCEMENT LEADERSHIP TRAINING STRATEGIES

You are invited to participate in a research study designed to investigate leadership training strategies of law enforcement executives. All participants are members of a law enforcement organization. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to participate.

Background Information:

This inquiry seeks to explore the concept of leadership, identification of leadership characteristics, and training experiences as defined by participants-acknowledged leaders within their organizations based on the positions they hold. The criteria for participation is 1) law enforcement executives in the rank of chief, captain or lieutenant 2) must include leadership experience and training development, and 3) certain practical criteria, such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility, or the willingness to volunteer. Participant interviews will be held in the conference center of the Sterling Rescue Center.

Procedures

Participation entails involvement in a discussion (via interview format) regarding leadership, based on your personal reflections. The interview should last approximately one hour. A short follow up interview may be necessary to conduct member checking to ensure accuracy of the data. The interview process will entail note taking for use in data analysis and accuracy, if consent is provided. A copy of the transcript will be emailed to you to for review and approval, after the transcription is complete. You will be asked to

return any feedback or further information about the transcript to this researcher. You will be provided with a participant number to replace your personal name. Mail, email, or telephone, according to your preference, would make the findings available to you. The results of this study will produce a doctoral study and may be published elsewhere. Your feedback may be included in such publications, but your personal identity will remain confidential. A copy of this consent form will be provided to you for your records.

Confidentiality

The records of this study are private information. In any sort of report that might be published, no information would be included that would make it possible to identify a participant. Solely the researcher would keep research records in a secure password protected file for 5 years, and no one else would have access to the records. The records will be maintained in accordance with the APA Manual, and destroyed in 5 years.

Voluntary Nature of this study

Your decision whether or not to participate would not affect your current or future relationship with the researcher or the associated University. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time without prejudice. In the event you experience stress or anxiety during your participation in the study, you may terminate your participation at any time. You may refuse to answer any questions you consider invasive or stressful. An example of the type of questions is "what type of leadership development program does your organization employ?"

Compensation

Participation in this study is **voluntary**. You will not receive monetary compensation/reward for your participation. The personal benefits of your participation are mentioned in the following section.

Benefits of Participating in This Study

There are a number of possible benefits to participating in this study. You would have the opportunity to contribute to the understanding of leadership and the development of leadership training strategies. The cumulative findings of your feedback will be shared with you upon completion of the study, providing you with the opportunity to review the results first hand. These findings may assist you in better understanding the leader training strategies that have contributed to your own success while providing others with the opportunity to develop their own. You may experience an enhanced sense of altruism or self-esteem or a greater personal awareness of the significance of your individual leadership efforts based on your participation in this study.

Risks of Participating in This Study

There is minimal risk to participating in this study. Minimal risk herein means that the risks of harm anticipated in the proposed research are not greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. You should not experience any discomfort during or after your participation.

Contacts and Questions

You may ask any questions you have by contacting the researcher by telephone or e-mail (703.655.4792, William.ONeill@waldenu.edu). If you prefer you may contact the university's Research Participant Advocate. Her name is Dr. Leilani Endicott (1-800-

925-3368 ext. 3121210 in the USA or via email address irb@waldenu.edu).

Statement of Consent:

I have read the information herein, I have asked questions and received answers, and I have received a copy of this form. I consent to participate in this study.

Signature of Participant/Subject: _____

Date: _____

Researcher Statement:

All information contained herein is accurate. I have provided the participant with a copy of this form for their records.

Signature of Student/Researcher: _____

Date: _____

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

LAW ENFORCEMENT LEADERSHIP TRAINING STRATEGIES		
Date, time, location		
Interviewee number		
Step 1	Introduction	Thank individual for taking time to participate in this study.
Step 2	Purpose	Introduce the purpose of this study is to research leadership training strategies of law enforcement executives.
Step 3	Describe why they are participating	The information acquired will support my doctoral study in partial fulfillment and requirement of the degree of Doctor of Business Administration from Walden University.
Step 4	Describe the benefit of participating	This information might add to the body of knowledge on leadership strategies and is geared towards organizational, corporate, and executive leaders, leadership training consultants, educators and those interested in continued professional development.
Step 5	Discuss ethics	To maintain ethical standards and protect individual privacy, I am requesting your permission to keep notes on this entire session starting now – to include the opening discussion and interview.
Step 6	Discuss confidentiality	All information you provide will be confidential. Research records will be kept in a password protected database; only the researcher will have access to the records. All files will be destroyed after five years from the completion of the study. Any material resulting from this session will be confidential and only used for the purpose of the study to be presented in the doctoral study. Additionally, the notes will be destroyed immediately upon transcription.
Step 7	Ask if the participant has any questions	Do you have any questions or concerns as to the process just discussed?

Step 8	Transition to the interview questions	This is the semistructured interview.
Step 9	Conduct the interview Ask probing questions as required	1. What is your organization doing related to leadership development in terms of time, effort, and training? 2. What type of leadership development program does your organization employ? 3. How does your organization determine who is offered leadership training? 4. At what point in the career of a law enforcement officer does leadership training begin? 5. What leadership training have you received? 6. What leadership traits are required in your organization? 7. What leadership training in your organization is the most effective? 8. What has been the leadership impact from the leadership training program? 9. How does your organization determine funding for training opportunities? 10. What additional information about your leadership training would you like to add?
Step 10	Wrap up	Thank you for your time. To ensure I have interpreted your data correctly would a follow up interview be acceptable? Would it be acceptable to contact you for any follow-up/clarification if needed? Is there a preferred method of communication?