

Strategic Leader Influence Actions and the Effectiveness of Police Leaders

By

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This certifies that the dissertation entitled
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Abstract

This study used a quantitative, nonexperimental research design to examine actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones, based on the strategic leadership model developed by John Pisapia and others. The study questioned whether strategic leader influence actions affect followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness. The moderating effects of organizational and individual characteristics on the use of strategic leader influence actions were also investigated. The sample included 244 subordinate officers from Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD).

Descriptive statistics revealed that officers perceived their leaders as exhibiting all five strategic leader influence actions. Inferential statistics indicated that the more leaders applied strategic leader influence actions, the more they were perceived as effective by their subordinates. There was also a significant relationship between a leader's rank and their use of strategic leader influence actions. Additionally, there was a significant overall predictive relationship among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit, and leader effectiveness. No significant associations were found between leaders' type of unit and the use of strategic leader influence actions.

Based on the findings, this study suggests that police leaders can improve their effectiveness by applying strategic leader influence actions. Therefore, the strategic leadership model can be used as a principal management strategy. Police organizations that incorporate strategic leadership principles in their leadership development programs can improve the effectiveness of police leadership, minimize conflicts between leaders and followers, and enhance the quality of police service in communities. Consequently, strategic leadership positively affects the performance of police organizations.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In his seminal book *Leadership*, published in 1978, James MacGregor Burns stated, “Leadership is the most observed and least understood phenomenon on earth” (p. 2). Scholars have tried a multitude of ways to define leadership for several decades. However, there is not yet a universal definition of leadership. By examining several leadership definitions, Northouse (2012) summarized that leadership is a process in which a person influences a team of people to reach mutual goals. Bennis and Nanus (1985) stated that effective leadership is a key factor in creating dynamic and sustainable organizations, and that successful organizations develop strong leadership in order to create attainable visions and goals.

Contemporary scholars define leaders in terms of their functions in an organization. For example, Pisapia (2009) concentrated on leaders’ thinking processes and actions. He claimed that leaders are individuals who can articulate a strategy and direct people and organizations from Point A to Point Z. Point A is used for the current practices of the organization and its members, while Point Z is used to determine where the organization and its members want to be. Unfortunately, in the 21st century, the space from Point A to Point Z is constantly changing. Although this space seemed more fixed in the 20th century, this is not the case today. Consequently, leaders have been losing their certainty about how leadership works (Pisapia, 2009). They can no longer trust the outdated maps in their minds anymore. When leaders plot their course, they may not be able to predict the long-term effects. In order to have a safe journey between two points,

new maps are essential for leaders who want to guide their organizations effectively in such ambiguous contexts (Pisapia, 2009, p. 5).

This ambiguity exists in law enforcement organizations, as well. In their study, Kuykendall and Unsinger (1982) noted that the “salesman” management style is the one that is most often used in law enforcement organizations. This management style usually does not delegate power. The participants in their study said that they tried to avoid delegating vague or risky tasks to subordinates. This avoidance might be a result of our century’s ever-changing and uncertain organizational environments.

White (2007) stated that the police organization is one of the most important public service departments, that it conducts essential duties in society. The police organization’s mission is to prevent crime and to contribute to the community’s quality of life. Therefore, police organizations need to achieve a high level of performance while providing safety. One way to achieve this is for police leaders to increase their leadership effectiveness, which can enhance organizational performance as well.

Pisapia (2009) introduced a new leadership theory to describe effective leadership in a highly changing organizational environment. He named this theory “strategic leadership” and defined strategic leadership as “the ability (as well as the wisdom) to make consequential decisions about ends, actions and tactics in ambiguous environments” (p. 7). According to Pisapia’s theory, strategic leadership blends leadership with management, politics and ethics, as well as with strategic intent, including actions and tactics. This is a powerful model that marries old and new leadership theories. Consequently, it is a promising strategy for leaders to practice in

order to meet 21st-century challenges. This theory also claims that if leaders act in a strategic way, they tend to be perceived as more effective (Pisapia, 2009).

Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor and Mumford (1992) proposed that effective leaders develop behavioral flexibility, which enables them to easily adapt to changes in their organizational environment. Similarly, Pisapia (2009) theorized that leadership effectiveness depends on how successfully the organization reacts and reorients itself to its constantly changing context, as well as how proficiently the leader can renovate learning systems throughout the organization in times of change (p. 7). He claimed that leadership effectiveness requires different kinds of actions. Pisapia's strategic leadership theory has two components: strategic thinking and strategic execution. Strategic execution is accomplished by using the following five influential sets of actions: transforming, managing, bonding, bridging and bartering. The current study focused on these five influential sets of actions, which this study refers to as strategic leader influence actions.

Using the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)), which was developed by Pisapia and Reyes-Guerra (2008), the researcher investigated the relationship between the five aforementioned sets of influential actions—transforming, managing, bonding, bridging, bartering—and leader effectiveness. The researcher aimed to determine the validity of the strategic leadership model for police organizations. Police organizations in the United States have been going through some alterations due to changes in their organizational environments (Breen, 1999; Ursino, 2001; Engelson, 1999). In order to overcome the leadership challenges of our century and provide high-quality police service, police leaders in the United States need effective leadership strategies. This study

proposes that the strategic leadership model would make an ideal model for police leaders in the changing climate of the U.S.

Background of the Study

The concept of organizational leadership started to appear in the literature in the late 19th century, while academics were studying British Parliament's control and its political impact (Bass, 1990). In the ensuing decades, leadership has become a popular focus of discourse not only in organizational research but in nonacademic environments, perhaps because these decades have been ones of rapid societal change and technological development. Leadership is critical to the survival of organizations in times of change. To survive and thrive, organizations must be able to effectively respond to change. The work of Bennis and Nanus (1985) supports this view. They stated that effective leadership is essential for organizations to become successful and to create an effective vision. Bolman and Deal (1997) also support this view. They posit that effective leadership is offered as a cure for every organizational problem.

In the late 20th century, leadership scholars modified their research interest. According to Boal and Hooijberg (2001), leadership studies shifted from supervisory leadership to strategic leadership in the mid-1980s. While supervisory leadership theories emphasize job- and people-oriented manager actions to guide and mentor followers, strategic leadership tries to create a meaningful and purposeful organizational environment for all. Hambrick and Mason (1984) introduced the upper echelon theory, which attributes strategic leadership to the top managers. Bass (1985) proposed a transformational leadership model, and Kouzes and Posner (2012) studied visionary leadership.

Unlike the upper echelon theory, strategic leadership theory focuses not only on top managers' leadership skills, but on all levels of managers' leadership skills; namely, it proposes an all-echelons approach (Pisapia, 2009). According to Pisapia's strategic leadership theory, leaders who learn to think and act strategically can create more supportive working environments and can attain goals that are worthwhile to the organization. He claimed that strategic leaders need to extend this consideration through each organizational level. Similarly, Senge (1996) noted that leadership cannot be considered solely the practice of a top leader. It needs to permeate all echelons of the organization. Therefore, regardless of their management levels, the present study investigated all leaders in the studied organization.

Pisapia (2009) theorized that leaders need to utilize multidimensional strategic action sets that reflect managing, transforming, bonding, bridging and bartering actions. He stated that a meaningful arrangement of these actions could help leaders become successful in environments in which there is ambiguity, complexity and even chaos. Since police leaders work in such environments, they need to apply these multidimensional sets of strategic actions.

The importance of strategic leadership in a police context has not yet been established. However, scholars have been researching ideal leadership behaviors in police organizations. For example, academics studying police leadership in the U.S. often cite bureaucratic structure as a major factor influencing leadership phenomena in law enforcement organizations. According to Stamper (1992), leadership has been phased out of police management. The subordinates of the police chiefs in Stamper's study reported that the chiefs were more likely to deal with procedural facets of management rather than

leadership facets. That is, police leaders devoted most of their attention to command and control issues, which failed to contribute to their leadership development.

Pisapia said that the quality of the strategic leader's leadership "is found not in their actions, but in those of their followers" (2010). He added, "SLers know that in every organization there is a WE-THEY LINE—the line where people above it say WE DID IT and people below it say THEY DID IT. SLers create a shared reality and then a shared direction to get more people above the WE-THEY LINE where vision and aspirations are shared" (2010).

Strategic leadership theory emphasizes that leader actions should be used to influence followers. To this point, Hall and Barrett (2007) said, "To be an effective leader, it is necessary to influence others to support and implement decisions that the leader and group members perceive are necessary. Without influence, leadership does not occur. In other words, leadership is the act of influencing outcomes."

The current study argues that in order to be effective, police leaders need to demonstrate strategic leadership actions that influence their followers to adaptive behaviors and shared vision. This study calls these actions "strategic leader influence actions."

Statement of the Problem

According to Vito and Andreescu (2010), police leaders need to understand that leadership skills must be applied at all echelons of the organization because they frequently deal with difficult and ambiguous situations, such as dealing with racial tensions or conducting high profile investigations. Similarly, Haberfeld (2006) stated that effective police leadership requires the ability to decide in an instant how to control a life-

threatening situation on the street. Since police leaders need to be effective in these situations, they need to learn how to guide their followers strategically.

Strategic leadership can help leaders be persistent and make their organizations adaptable in ever-changing environments. The conditions in which contemporary leaders work are highly changeable, and they are in need of adaptive leader actions to deal with these shifting challenges. Similarly, police leaders have been dealing with constantly changing organizational environments. Therefore, they need to utilize new management skills and strategies to lead their organizations effectively.

The strategic leadership model (Pisapia, 2009) is based on extensive experience in education, research, life and leadership practices (Yasin, 2006). Although the strategic leadership questionnaire (SLQ (v4)) has been tested in higher education (Yasin, 2006), health care (Ugurluoglu, Çelik, & Pisapia, 2010) and school leadership (Urdeggar, 2008; Reyes-Guerra 2009; Pisapia & Pang, 2013; Aydin, Guclu, & Pisapia, 2014), it has not been tested in police organizations. Furthermore, in the leadership literature there is no study that investigated the strategic leader influence actions of police leaders in the U.S. Therefore, the present research aims to fill this gap.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the strategic leader influence actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones. Specifically, the researcher attempts to identify whether strategic leader actions influence followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness. This study also considers the moderating influences of organizational and individual characteristics of police leaders. Ultimately, it aims to find

a predictive model among strategic leader influence actions, organizational/individual characteristics of police leaders and followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness.

This study aims to be the first strategic leadership study in a police context. It examines police executives' leadership competencies to implement imperative policy initiatives. It also aims to explore whether police leaders who use strategic leader influence actions are more effective than those who do not. It looks for a predictive relationship between strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness, so that police organizations can develop strategic leadership training programs that are informed by this relationship.

The study further aims to produce new knowledge regarding effective police management practices in the studied organization. Lastly, it aims to contribute to the literature of strategic leadership, so that the study results might help in the identification of potential exceptional leaders and research areas in the future.

Importance of the Study

By ensuring the validity of the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)) and strategic leadership theory, the present study extended the literature on police leadership. Moreover, it provided an enhanced understanding of strategic leader actions and those actions' impact on leader effectiveness. If subordinate officers perceive their leaders as taking action to share vision and help make the organization more effective, the leaders can build trust and enhanced cooperation with subordinates, and the subordinates will view police leaders as more effective leaders. This mutual trust, cooperation and respect will eventually improve organizational performance, as well.

The present study indicated that strategic leader influence actions have positive effects on the perceptions of subordinate officers regarding leader effectiveness. This finding will contribute to the leadership development of police leaders by encouraging them to adopt strategic leadership skills.

Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) noted that police organizations are required to provide effective services in today's complex organizational environments. Improving leadership skills of police leaders can be an important development in order to enable organizations to function more effectively in dynamic environments. Therefore, the necessity of effective police leadership is escalating. This study showed that police leaders can develop effective leader practices by applying strategic leader influence actions.

Finally, adopting the strategic leadership model can be helpful for developing and implementing policies and programs in police organizations. It can improve organizational processes. Since the present study validated the Strategic Leadership Theory in the police context, this validation may inspire future researchers to consider retesting in other law enforcement organizations at the national or state level.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided this study:

1. Does the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader actions influence followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness?
2. Does the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) influence the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader actions?

3. Do personal characteristics influence the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader actions?
4. Does a predictive relationship exist among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perception of leader effectiveness?

The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions and followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

H₀₂: There is no relationship between the type of unit characteristic (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

H₀₃: There is no relationship between personal characteristics and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

H₀₄: There are no predictive relationships among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Conceptual Framework

Mintzberg (1994) claimed that highly quantitative strategic planning is lifeless in the 21st century's unpredictable atmosphere. He further claimed that organizations were no longer likely to attain absolute calculable solutions for future problems through analysis. Continuing to depend on analysis for an absolute solution could reduce organizations' capacity to adapt to changes and to predict the future of organizations.

Therefore, researchers needed to create new models of strategic leadership that are more responsive to changing conditions, that depend on synthesis rather than analysis. .

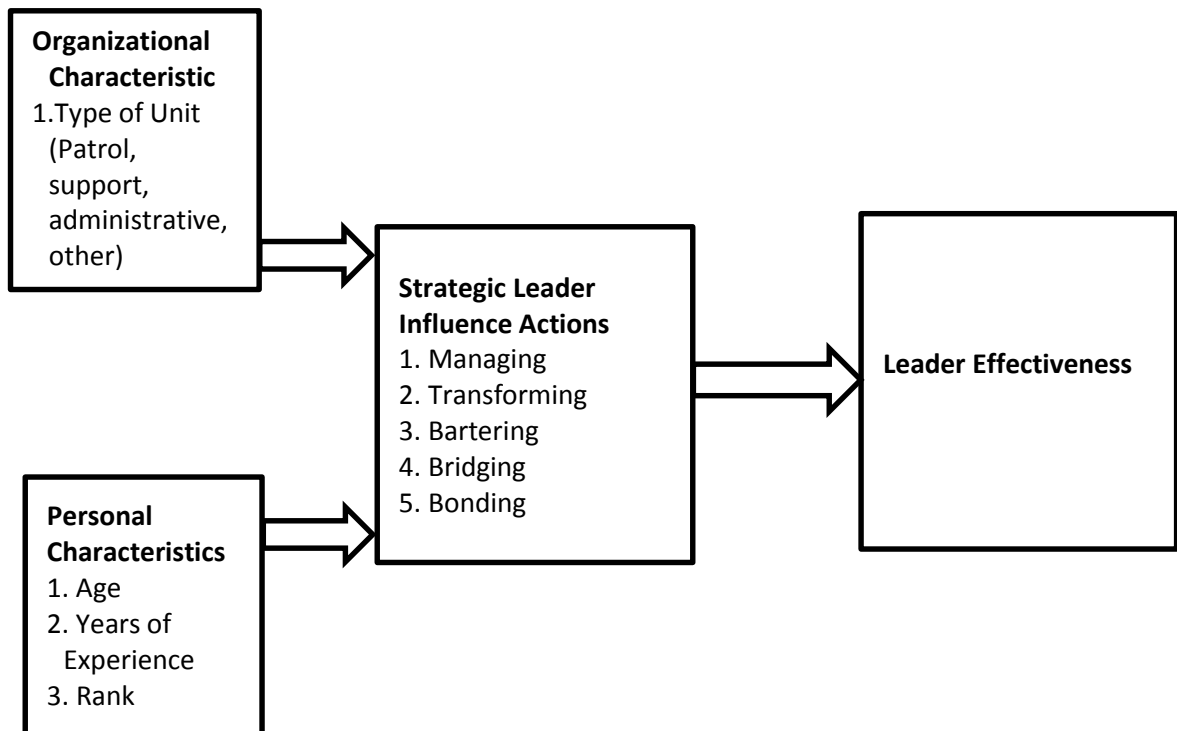
In the literature, there are a few models that present such synthesis. One example is Pisapia's (2009) strategic leadership model, which combines new and old leadership models. From his viewpoint, strategic leaders are able to lead and manage their followers simultaneously. He also stated that strategic leaders guide changes with a thoughtful appreciation of stability in ambiguous times. He further mentioned that effective leaders use a broader array of strategic leader action sets than less effective leaders, specifically in difficult and complex contexts (Pisapia, 2009).

Pisapia (2009) argued that if leaders want to be able to think and act strategically, they need to learn how to act artistically. In this study, the researcher chose strategic execution as a directorial framework. In the execution portion of his model, Pisapia advocated that if a leader/manager acts like an artist in leading followers, he or she can facilitate strategic execution in the organization. Like an artist uses different colors in a palette, strategic leaders use the palette of the five core leader influence actions in order to improve and implement their plans. Pisapia theorized that leaders/managers who can use all five strategic leader influence actions may become more successful in challenging contexts than leaders who only implement fewer leader actions.

In the present study, the investigator attempted to measure leader effectiveness through followers' perceptions. The organizational characteristic of type of unit was collected. Leadership studies have included demographics for a long time. Therefore, individual characteristics referred to in this study are the personal variables of age, rank and years of service.

Three variables framed the study: the use of strategic leader influence actions, organizational–individual characteristics and leader effectiveness. The relationships among these variables are illustrated in Figure 1. This conceptual framework postulates that organizational and individual characteristics of police leaders can affect the use of strategic leader influence actions, and those actions combined with individual and organizational characteristics can influence followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Figure 1. Research Conceptual Framework, adapted from Ugurluoglu, et al. (2010)



Delimitations of the Study

First, the present research investigated the strategic leader influence actions of police leaders in a large police organization, namely, the Louisville Metropolitan Police Department (LMPD). Every police organization has different organizational structures, financial restrictions, goals and numbers of employees. All of these factors might affect the implications of the results substantially in a similar study. Moreover, the use of strategic leader influence actions of police leaders might vary in small- or medium-sized police organizations in urban or rural settings. In addition, the number of participants in this study may not be large enough to generalize the results to other police organizations in the U.S.

Second, the strategic leader influence actions of police leaders were identified according to the perceptions of their subordinates. Personal assessment or self-observations of the police leaders were not included in this study's scope.

Third, this study used just the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)) as a research tool in order to detect strategic leader influence actions of police leaders. It excluded other quantitative and qualitative research instruments.

Last, the researcher used only the strategic leadership model to identify the leader effectiveness of police leaders in a large organizational context. The study did not include other leadership models to measure leader actions and effectiveness.

Limitations of the Study

First, this study used a non-probability convenience sampling. Therefore, the selection of the participants was purposeful.

Second, although this study examined the use of strategic leader influence actions, the organization's policy and procedures may limit the usage of these actions. For example, a police leader may want to reward her subordinates with a day off, but this rewarding power may exceed the authority of the leader. The bureaucratic structure of police organizations may limit the ability of police leaders to engage in such leadership (Mayo, 1985; Stamper, 1992).

Third, the researcher assumed that all participants were willing to take part in the study and honestly answer the questions in the survey instrument. Nevertheless, some participants may not want to provide honest responses for various reasons. For example, they may or may not like their leaders' personalities and could give a biased assessment of a leader's performance. Although validity scales are included in the SLQ (v4)—that is, indicators to find “fake good” (“My leader is the best—5 out of 5”) or “fake bad” (“My leaders is the worst—1.5 or less out of 5”)—there is still the possibility that in sub-threshold levels (e.g., 1.6 out of 5), there may be bias. However, in the absence of a more conservative measure, the honesty of participants had to be assumed.

Fourth, the survey instrument was placed online to enable participants' easier access. Using online surveys is more effective than using mail surveys in terms of speed and cost (Schaefer & Dillman, 1998; Cook, Heath & Thompson, 2000). However, if a researcher uses online surveys, it may be difficult to control the number and location of the participants, because every eligible individual might receive the survey and fill it out (Sheehan, 2001). Using the SLQ (v4) as an online survey may be considered a limitation in terms of determining the study participants in this study.

Fifth, the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)) was completed by participating subordinate officers in this study. Thus, it is possible that there may be a difference between the perceptions of participating and nonparticipating subordinate police officers regarding their leaders' strategic leader influence actions and effectiveness.

Sixth, the study was based on a model that tried to identify the use of strategic leader influence actions in a large police organization. Since police leaders in this study were appointed, this concept may not correspond with the definitions of "leader" in the literature. Because managers are usually considered as appointed supervisors, the studied leaders might exhibit strong manager characteristics, instead of leader attributes.

Finally, the present study measured strategic leader influence actions of police leaders and their effectiveness exclusively by the ratings from subordinate officers. However, police leaders may see themselves differently than the perceptions of their subordinates.

Assumptions of the Study

Three assumptions are relevant to this study. First, the researcher assumed that all participants would answer the survey questions honestly. Second, the researcher assumed that all participants in the sample were willing to participate in the study (i.e., were not coerced or mandated). Third, it was assumed that the use of strategic leader influence actions and perception of leader effectiveness could be validly measured by the survey instrument, SLQ (v4).

Definitions of Terms

Bartering Action: A type of strategic leader influence action in which resources are exchanged to reinforce relationships (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Bonding Action: A type of strategic leader influence action taken to ensure that trust is a characteristic of the system rather than just something developed among individuals (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Bridging Action: A type of strategic leader influence action taken to advance alliances with people of influence from internal and external environments in order to gain insights, support and resources (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Leader Effectiveness: The leadership outcome in the SLQ (v4). The term refers to the perceptions of subordinates regarding whether their leaders apply the five strategic leader influence actions and whether they perceive them as effective (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008)

Large Police Departments: Police organizations at the local level that have more than 750 sworn police officers.

Leadership: The ability to influence the behaviors, capabilities and views of a group of people in order to achieve organizational goals (Burns, 1978; Northouse, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2012; Pisapia, 2009).

Managing Action: A type of strategic leader influence action taken to maintain consistency so that organizational goals are achieved efficiently as well as effectively (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Police Leadership: A practice of influencing subordinate officers in order to complete given tasks and to achieve organizational goals (Baker, 2000).

Police Leaders: Synonym to “police managers” or “supervisors”; refers to all ranking officers within a police department. The ranks include sergeant, lieutenant, captain, major and other (commanding staff). They have formal power to lead subordinate officers.

Police Officers: Non-ranking officers who usually work as line officers.

Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)): A survey instrument used to determine the use of strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness in this study, as identified in the strategic leadership theory (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008).

Strategic Leadership: A theory that defines leadership as the ability and wisdom to produce effective leader decisions in uncertain organizational environments (Pisapia, 2009, p. 7).

Strategic leader influence actions: Also “multifaceted leader actions,” these actions include managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding actions as defined in strategic leadership theory (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Subordinate Officers: Police officers who are under the supervision of an immediate superior irrespective of their rank.

Transforming action: A type of strategic leader influence action taken to affect direction, actions and thoughts in order to change organizational conditions and culture. This action is also used to ensure that learning and change become routine throughout the organization (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 presents the background of the study and describes the research problem. It specifies the purpose of the study, presents the research questions and

hypotheses, denotes the conceptual framework, and states the delimitations and limitations as well as defines special terms used in this study.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of leadership literature. In particular, it explains the leadership definition debate and attempts to understand effective leadership; summarizes leadership theories and studies of police leadership; introduces the leader–manager debate, leadership challenges of postmodern times, strategic leadership theory and individual strategic leader influence actions; and reviews empirical studies related to strategic leadership. The chapter concludes by presenting information about organizational/personal characteristics and leader effectiveness.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology used in this study. In particular, it reviews the research questions and the purpose of the study, explains the organization of the research, describes the predictor and criterion variables, the population and sample, the research instrument (SLQ (v4)), the data collection methods, and the statistical techniques used in the data analyses.

Chapter 4 presents the data analysis. Specifically, it introduces the validity indicators of the research instrument, presents organizational/personal characteristics of the participants' leaders, strategic leader influence actions and the outcome factor scale of the SLQ (v4), and, finally, explores the results through descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

Chapter 5 provides a brief summary of the study, an examination of the research findings, implications of the research findings, a description of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research, then concludes with final remarks.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to examine strategic leader influence actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones. This chapter presents a wide body of literature related to strategic leadership. The literature reviewed is divided into four sections that include the following topics: (a) the leadership definition debate, understanding leadership, leadership theories, leadership studies in police organizations, and leaders vs. managers, (b) particular leadership challenges of the postmodern era, new habits needed for leaders, and strategic leadership; (c) strategic leader influence actions, dual tensions of change or stability, multifaceted actions leaders need; and (d) the organizational environment, personal characteristics of leaders, and leaders' effectiveness and success.

Leadership Definition Debate

It is important to consider what scholars mean by "leadership." Researchers from interdisciplinary studies have been attempting to define leadership and interpret it in the context of our century's highly changing environment. For example, Bass (1981) noted, "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 11). According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), scholars have conducted several thousand empirical leadership studies over the last century; however, they have not been able to find a piece of universal knowledge that separates leaders from non-leaders.

According to Burns (1978), leadership has been the most studied subject in the world. Bass (1990) noted that leadership is a difficult concept to define. Interestingly,

after the term *leadership* was coined, more than 7,000 articles and books were published about the leadership phenomenon (Kolb, Osland, & Rubin, 2001). Moreover, scholars formed nearly 65 different systems to introduce various aspects of leadership (Northouse, 2012, p. 4). The leadership phenomenon has always been an important discussion point and research topic in organizational behavior studies. DePree (1989) stated that scholars have used leadership as “the subject of much thought, discussion, writing, teaching and learning.”. Like Bass, he accepted that leadership is difficult to define. Strategic leadership theory considers leaders’ thinking and acting processes in its definition of leadership.

Scholars have provided several leadership definitions. According to Rost (1993), there have been more than 200 definitions of leadership in more than 500 books and academic articles published from 1900 to 1990. While synthesizing some of these definitions, Pisapia (2009) emphasized the constantly changing environment of leadership during our century. He defined the leadership phenomenon as a process whereby leaders try to influence subordinates and subordinates try to influence leaders for goal accomplishment. The present study adopted his definition of leadership.

Understanding Leadership

Leaders are recognized by their actions. Senge, McCabe, Lucas, Smith, Dutton and Kleiner (2000) stated that leaders help their organizations adapt to their environment and turn it into a more effective and cooperative atmosphere. The authors noted of leaders that every aspect of their performance, every value they hold, every action they take, demonstrates what they believe is important to the organization (p. 66). Therefore,

effective leaders need to choose influential actions to ensure their organizations fit the constantly changing environment.

While transforming the organization, Pisapia (2009) claimed, most leaders mistakenly put more emphasis on projects than processes. He stated that they need to focus on processes to turn their organizations into learning organizations, which have the capacity to adapt to changing environments. Similarly, Overman (1996) noted that projects usually have a basis of technical knowledge and experimentations, and that these often drive management steps and philosophy. However, Overman said, managers need to focus on human factors, which play vital roles in transforming processes.

Recognized relationship patterns between leaders and the led have provided new insight to leadership studies. According to Pisapia and Pang (2013), several interpretations have been used to explain why scholars have traditionally framed leadership theories as the relationship among leaders, followers and common goals. This academic determination helped scholars interpret leadership actions in vertical relationships, in which leaders usually used command and control strategies to make changes in the organization. However, they claim that in horizontal relationships, in order to make organizational change, executives lead people by teamwork, coordinating, with minimum specifications, using “generative processes and chunking change” (p. 29). Pisapia and Pang (2013) also stated that leadership scholars have suggested new vertical or horizontal leadership frameworks to fill the gap created by our century’s highly changeable, ambiguous and complex organizational environments.

Excessively defining and naming the leadership concept may distract from the importance of understanding leader actions. Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson and

Wahlstrom (2004) stated that one should use caution while utilizing leadership concepts like “ethical,” “transformational” or “participative.” These labeling adjectives may disguise the generic leadership roles that are necessary to create an organizational direction and move followers toward a determined way. Pisapia (2009) proposed the strategic leadership model as a framework, which puts such generic roles together. The present study investigated the strategic action portion of this model in police context.

There are scholarly opinions about whether leadership is an art or a science. DePree (1989) noted that leadership is art rather than science. According to Pisapia (2009), leadership does not have an owners’ manual that one can read and practice immediately. It is an everyday practice, and learning to lead is a gradually developing process. While scientists deal with a problem by objective research, and then take action, leadership does not follow the same pattern. Police leaders, too, need to consider leadership as an art rather than a science.

Leadership Theories

For decades, several theories have been developed to define certain leadership actions and qualities that enhance individuals’ performance and motivation (Yukl, 2006). These theories can be observed as a sequence of paradigm shifts. As the work environment changed, leadership theories and concepts changed along with the new paradigms. The strategic leadership model combines the premises of traditional and contemporary leadership theories. It proposes a model based on the current leadership literature. Therefore, the following paragraphs will discuss the most relevant traditional and up-to-date leadership theories.

Trait theory tried to identify the inherent characteristics of famous political and military personalities. According to Northouse (2012), in today's world, the trait theory is "alive and well." He said "It began with an emphasis on identifying the qualities of great persons, shifted to include the impact of situations on leadership, and, currently, has shifted back to reemphasize the critical role of traits in effective leadership" (p. 20). Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986) conducted a meta-analysis to examine the relationship between leadership perceptions and personality traits. They found that traits of intelligence, masculine-feminine attitudes and dominance were strongly correlated to leadership perceptions.

Charismatic leadership is an important example of the trait analysis approach to understanding leadership. Northouse (2012) stated that "Charismatic leadership catapulted to the front of public attention with the 2008 elections of the United States' first African American president, Barack Obama, who is charismatic among other attributes" (p. 20). Jung and Sosik (2006) conducted a study to examine the traits of charismatic leaders. They measured the relationship among five leader traits: "self-monitoring, self-actualization, motive to attain social power, self-enhancement, and openness to change" (p. 1). The participants were 218 leaders and 945 followers. The study found that charismatic leaders constantly had motivation to acquire social power and self-actualization, self-monitoring as well as a commitment to influencing others.

Unlike the trait approach, skill theories, which emerged at the beginning of the 1950s, claimed that leadership consisted of a set of skills and visible behaviors. Moreover, these skills could be taught to people; in other words, individuals could be trained to become leaders. For example, Katz (1955) claimed that leadership is a set of

competencies developed through training, rather than a set of fixed characteristics and traits. He asserted that effective leadership has three types of skills: technical, human and conceptual. Technical skill is a comprehensive knowledge and competency in an expertise field. Human skill is a competency to work with subordinates, supervisors and peers. Conceptual skill is a competency to work with concepts and thoughts. Katz (1955) concluded that effective leaders used these three types of skills according to their leadership position.

Like Katz's work, Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman (2000) proposed a skill-based leadership model. They studied nearly 2,000 military leaders from different ranks. They examined leaders' skills, work experiences and the organizational environment. The model consists of three elements: leaders' knowledge, skills and leader effectiveness. This model claims that after gaining work experience and going through training, leaders can improve their skills and effectiveness.

Although the trait approach focuses on leaders' personal attributes and the skill approach focuses on leaders' competencies, the style approach focuses on how leadership works. Northouse (2012) noted that style approach researchers found that leadership consists of two major types of behaviors. The first one is task behavior, which leaders use to help followers reach organizational goals. The second is relationship behavior, which leaders use to ensure that followers feel pleasant about the environment and their peers. The ultimate goal of style approach is to identify in what way effective leaders use these two behaviors (Northouse, 2012).

As an example of the style approach to understanding leadership, Blake and Mouton (1985) proposed a managerial grid model. This model articulates that leaders

need to have two kinds of leadership attitudes in achieving their organizational goals. First, they need concern for production (task behavior), which shows how much a leader is interested in achievement of organizational goals. For example, leaders will form new policies and improve products and sales. Second, leaders need a concern for people (relationship behavior), which is shown through interactions with followers in achievement of organizational goals. For example, this includes how leaders resolve a conflict, establish a peaceful work environment, and invest in employees' personal growth.

Other scholars have studied the style approach as well. As an example, Likert (1967) explored two distinct types of leadership: “employee-centered” and “job-centered” (p. 214). After interviews with subordinates of leaders, Likert and his colleagues surveyed the leaders to measure their perceptions. Leaders who were perceived as job-centered viewed their employees as a means to reach the end—production. These leaders believed that close supervision, coercion and rewards are three instruments needed to communicate with followers. They used their power to influence followers. However, leaders who were perceived as employee-centered thought, that in order to meet organizational goals, their followers need to work in a supportive environment. They encouraged their followers to master their tasks by providing opportunities for them. They claimed that if an organization wants to be effective, employees need to feel effective, as well. The strategic leadership model arguably proposes managing actions for the job-centered style of leadership and bonding, bridging and bartering actions for the employee-centered style.

In contrast to the style approach, some scholars have claimed that leadership cannot be understood without considering the situations that leaders encounter. Situational leadership theory emerged in the late 1960s with the idea that leader behaviors need to be tailored to the situation at hand. Hershey and Blanchard (1993) stated that one could not be effective by just employing leader behaviors, without understanding the situation and time. Situational leadership theory focuses on two functions of leadership. The first is directive functions, which are used to help followers establish goals, give directions and define roles. The second is supportive functions, which are used to establish a friendly work environment, communicate effectively and help followers feel comfortable with their situations (Hershey & Blanchard, 1993, p. 172). The present study emphasizes the 21st century's constantly changing work environments.

Rather than focusing on situational effects on leadership, transformational leadership theory focuses on leaders' behavior. Transformational and transactional leadership theories are products of Burns' (1978) studies. His transformational leadership theory has transforming and moral components. He used biographies of numerous political leaders as he developed his theories.

According to Burns, transformational leaders seek to fulfill their followers' greater needs, to help them reach their ultimate goals. He claimed that to influence followers, transformational leaders pursue strategies based on followers' needs. Burns maintained that leaders should be moral agents, acting responsibly in making commitments, and followers have a responsibility to acquire sufficient information about alternatives and make informed choices.

Burns (1978) noted that “leaders and led have a relationship not only of power but of mutual needs, aspirations and values” (p. 4). He theorized that transactional leadership is the opposite of transformational leadership. He stated that leaders applying transactional leadership see follower–leader relations as an exchange process. Transactional leaders give something to followers in exchange for another thing, e.g. employment benefits for votes. He considered this exchange as a leader action that does not bond followers with their leaders in achieving supreme purposes.

According to Burns (1978), power and purpose are essential elements of leadership. Leadership and power are purposive, relational and collective. He used purpose to differentiate a leader from a power wielder. He argued that simple power wielders view followers as things; however, leaders must see followers as collaborators, in order to reach organizational goals. He pointed out that “we must see power and leadership as not things but as relationships. We must analyze in a context of human motives and physical constraints” (p. 11). Furthermore, Burns described transformational leadership as the following:

The transforming leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower. But, beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower (p. 23).

In the literature, several scholars studied transformational leadership. For example, Bass (1985) extended Burns’ studies and concurred that they have two poles: transformational leadership and transactional leadership. By critical modifications to Burns’ original theories, Bass claimed that transformational leadership repaired negative

impacts of transactional leadership regarding followers' effectiveness, satisfaction and exertion effort.

Bass (1985) argued that transformational leaders inspire their followers using two behaviors: convincing the followers to give up their personal goals for the organizational vision, and making them achieve organizational goals by motivating them.

Transformational leaders also influence their followers by addressing their urgent needs.

Bass (1985, 1990) introduced four aspects to transformational leadership studies to make them more functional: charisma, inspirational stimulus, personalized consideration and intellectual inspiration.

Bass (1985) also modified Burns' transformational leadership theory by removing ethical and moral elements. Pisapia (2009) considered Bass's modifications of Burns' transforming leadership theory very substantial. He noted that Bass excluded its moral purpose variable and substituted it with measurements of effectiveness, satisfaction of subordinates and extra effort. He moved away from Burns' ethical element—leading for social change. He included altering conditions and the culture in organizations, instead (Pisapia, 2009, p. 24).

Burns (1978) argued that a leader could be a transformational leader or a transactional leader, but he also stated that a leader could not be both. However, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) claimed that a leader needed to have both transformational and transactional skills, and they called this a "full range of leadership" model. Sergiovanni (1992) articulated that transactional leaders are effective in leading followers' daily activities, and that this is an initial phase in leadership development. Leithwood (1994)

argued that transformational and transactional leadership styles are different and that, for organizational long-term goals, transactional leadership might not be enough.

Bass (1985) established a survey instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership as well as to measure the association between leaders' behaviors and organizational effectiveness and gratification. The instrument is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. This questionnaire was used in conceptual and empirical studies with long-term observations, in-depth interviews and factor analyses. Ideal leadership definitions were collected from both leaders and followers. The definitions were later enriched and made valid to represent the component of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Scholars studied these two leadership styles mostly in for-profit, political and military contexts. Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) stated that survey results of 198 military officers established a base for the formation of the questionnaire.

Studies on transformational and transactional leadership conducted by Burns, Bass, Leithwood and other scholars have shifted the center of the behavioral approach to leadership. For example, the trend changed from topics such as transactional give-and-take among leaders, followers and the self-interests of followers to topics such as followers' giving up personal benefit for the sake of the group's interest. The discussion also moved from topics such as "autocratic versus democratic approaches" to topics such as "more communication between leaders and led" (Bass, 1985, p. 3). Strategic leadership theory aligns transforming actions with transformational leadership and bridging and bartering actions with transactional leadership.

Leaders and Managers

For several decades, scholars have debated leader/manager roles in terms of stability and change. For example, Zaleznik (1977) noted that managers and leaders are different. Managers are risk-avoidant administrative officials, leaders are sacred visionaries. Managers rely on logic, control, conflict resolution and effective decision-making. Every day, they promote stability as a way to support organizational functioning. They also value consistency and lawful power in order to perform daily organizational work. In terms of attitudes toward organizational goals, managers are more likely to adopt non-personal attitudes. Their goals are derived from organizational necessities instead of desires. Thus, managerial goals are profoundly embedded in organizational culture and organizational history.

Zaleznik (1977) noted that leaders tend to adopt personal and dynamic attitudes regarding goals. They exert influences to alter moods, to raise expectations and establish specific inclinations and goals. This influence affects organizational direction and ultimately transforms organizational members' thoughts regarding what is worthy, essential and viable. While managers are reactive, leaders are proactive. Leaders influence action and thoughts. Organizations are in need of both leaders and managers in order to reach organizational goals. Zaleznik argued that organizations should employ different individuals to fill leader and manager positions.

Some scholars agreed and extended Zaleznik's (1977) distinction between leader and manager. For example, Bennis and Nanus (1985) argued that managers deal with daily organizational functioning without questioning. Managers articulate their ideas, establish trust among followers and keep the status quo. However, leaders encourage

people to act and to follow orders. Leadership is available to all people and is all-embracing; therefore, leaders should not be considered extraordinary people, like charismatic or heroic. In short, leadership and management have different paradigms (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Hersey and Blanchard (1993) maintained that the leadership concept is wider than the management concept.

In contrast to the views of Zaleznik (1977), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Hersey and Blanchard (1993), there are academic views that claim that an individual can practice leading *and* managing while guiding followers. For example, Kotter (1988) stated that leaders and managers are not different. In order to grow in a highly changing environment, organizations need to hire people who can manage and lead simultaneously. Kotter further stated that leadership and management concepts are mutually beneficial and complement one other. Whether both abilities are acquired in single, talented individuals, or whether an organization acquires both, albeit in different individuals, the organization benefits. Managers keep organizations stable, leaders look for ways to make changes. When an organization includes both kinds of individuals, it can prosper in even ambiguous environments. Kotter also argued that organizations need 20% management and 80% leadership in order to make an organizational change. Unfortunately, many organizations apply 20% leadership and 80% management, and this hardly produces change. He also stated that leaders tend to apply management styles rather than leadership styles. Kotter concluded that leadership should be distributed at all levels of the organization rather than just the top level (Kotter, 1988; Pisapia, 2009).

Kotter (1999) classified managers' basic actions as planning and financial work, organizing and human resourcing, and disciplining as well as problem solving. He

defined leadership as a group of actions to transform, to make change. Leaders describe a vision and encourage people to internalize that vision by inspiring them to reach organizational goals, even if there may be some obstacles. Moreover, Kotter (2001) argued, management is about dealing with complexity. Practices and processes of management are mostly constituted in response to the rise of big corporations. On the contrary, he noted that leadership is all about dealing with organizational change.

In recent decades, new scholarly opinions have emerged to add to the leader–manager discussion. Like Kotter, Pisapia (2009) stated that leading and managing can be accomplished by the same person as the need in the environment determines. One can be a leader or a leader–manager, or a manager–leader or a manager. He noted that organizations need a new breed of leader. Since the postmodern condition requires change and stability constantly, leaders having both skills are needed. He summarized the views of the scholars who take a different approach than Zaleznik on the “leader–management” conundrum. He noted that even though leaders may be challenged by the idea of balancing leadership with management practices, leaders need to overcome this challenge and adopt this duality to reach organizational goals. He said, “What organizations really need are both kinds of people—leaders who know how to manage, and managers who know how to lead” (p. 26).

Rather than focusing on the leader–manager conundrum, Pisapia (2009) stated that strategic leadership theory combines the new and old leadership knowledge. It proposes that strategic leaders are able to lead and manage their followers concurrently, and thus, in uncertain times, they can conduct organizational change with a deep consideration of stability. Strategic leaders have common goals, mutual values and

adjustable techniques and tactics (Pisapia, 2009). The present study adopted the academic views of scholars who claimed that leading and managing could be practiced by the same person.

Leadership Studies in Police Organizations

Police leadership scholars have frequently used purposeful sampling in their empirical studies. Leadership research in police organizations is mostly conducted in police training programs, by surveying or interviewing the attending officers. Therefore, researchers frequently use purposeful sampling (Andreescu & Vito 2010). Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) stated that most empirical knowledge about effective police leadership comes from studies measuring leadership perceptions rather than from objective effectiveness measures. Therefore, purposeful sampling and subjective perception measures seem to be common tools in police leadership research.

Scholars have studied ideal leadership styles for police organizations. In their study, Burns and Shuman (1988) asserted that a more inclusive leadership style was necessary for police organizations in Arizona. By surveying 365 police officers who attended 10 leadership training programs from 1978 to 1982, the researchers concluded that the respondents favored a participative leadership style in police organizations rather than other authoritative and consultative leadership styles.

Andreescu and Vito (2010) investigated ideal leadership behavior in police organizations. They surveyed 126 police leaders from 23 U.S. states with Stodgill's (1963) Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Their aim was to categorize leadership characteristics in terms of their importance and to produce a taxonomy of preferred leadership styles. They also aimed to identify the demographic factors

influencing ideal police leader behavior. The study revealed that race and gender influence the perception of ideal leadership behavior. While both male and female officers in the study preferred task-centered and structured leader behaviors, only female officers favored transformational, democratic and worker-oriented leader behaviors more. In terms of race, African American officers preferred more structured, task-centered and transformational leader behaviors than white officers did.

Scholars have also studied leader effectiveness, performance and competencies in police organizations. For example, Densten (2003) researched factors influencing leadership effectiveness. He surveyed nearly 500 senior police officers in Australia. His study found that certain factors determined leader effectiveness. Some of these factors include subordinates' satisfaction with their leaders' performance, reputation of leaders and the degree of followers' dependence on direction and resources. The study concluded that there was a reciprocal relationship between leaders, followers and followers' interpretation of leader behavior.

Krimmel and Lindemuth (2001) conducted research to determine municipal managers' evaluation of police chiefs' performance. Their sample consisted of 205 municipal managers in the state of Pennsylvania. They found that police chiefs who earned promotion within the police department, led a union, earned a college degree and graduated from the FBI National Academy were assessed as having higher performance rates than those who did not have the above-mentioned characteristics.

In terms of the relationship between the leaders and followers, Rowe (2006) studied the perception of leadership competency in the British police context. He found that officers appreciated leaders who had street experience. They also respected leaders

who knew how to develop trust with people on the street. These two factors were considered the bases for leader credibility in a police context. The study concluded that the officers' view of leaders who were promoted without these credentials is that those leaders are less experienced and less acceptable.

Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) conducted a systematic review of police leadership literature. They examined 57 recent empirical research studies from the United States, Canada, United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. They found that seven leader characteristics are commonly observed in effective police leaders: being a role model, ethical leadership, effective communication, acting legitimately, effective decision-making, being trustworthy and effective thinking. They also discovered that five leader behaviors were common in effective police leaders: "creating shared vision, care for subordinates, engendering organizational commitment, driving and managing change and problem solving" (p. 7). Since a large portion of reviewed research measured leader effectiveness by perceptions, the authors stated that further research is needed to establish more objective measures for measuring the effectiveness of police leadership and determining what makes a police leader effective. By examining the five strategic leader influence actions of police leaders, the present study investigated leader effectiveness with a purpose of filling the gap, which was pointed out by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013).

Leadership Challenges Brought On by the Postmodern Condition

It is true that globalization has been changing the way leaders think and act. Pisapia (2009) stated that the 21st century's globalization moves bring new and challenging demands to organizations and leaders. The world has become highly

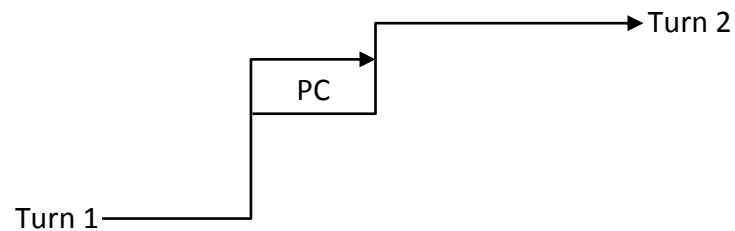
connected and many events no longer have boundaries. For example, excessive CO₂ emissions trigger global warming and cause ozone holes in the earth's atmosphere.

Pisapia noted that the modern age emphasized rationalism and stability. Leadership scholars emphasized management skills grounded in vertical and central decision-making processes and bureaucracy as means to reach organizational goals. However, new and challenging demands of the 21st century are forcing a change to this emphasis on centralized decision making (Pisapia, 2009).

Not only globalization, but changes in employment bring new challenges for organizations. According to Handy (1994), dramatic changes have been taking place in today's workforce. He claimed that things that worked well in the past might not work well tomorrow. For example, he asserted, by the year 2040, retirement benefits will be a dream, as only one individual out of five will be able to have them. Similarly, organizations will have only 50% full-time workers. Part-time and self-employment will increase (Handy, 1994). Organizations and leaders must adapt to the changes if they hope to survive in these challenging times.

Pisapia (2009) used a turn metaphor (Figure 2) to describe today's postmodern era. The turn metaphor is a representation of a growth profile over time. It starts with a slow progress phase, continues by a cycle of prompt expansion, and ends by a period of inactivity. By the completion of a paradigm cycle, a fresh turn starts and eventually it forms a new paradigm. Pisapia (2009) stated that the common term for this process is "jumping point," which means that leaders need to get their organizations ready for the next turn long before the previous paradigm cycle ends.

Figure 2. Postmodern Condition (PC) in Turn Metaphor, adapted from Pisapia (2009).



The critical point where the paradigm shift takes place is important for leaders. Pisapia (2009) refers to this critical point as the postmodern condition, which indicates a shift from a known to an unknown paradigm. The postmodern condition typically nests chaotic ideas, multiple truths and disorder. The postmodern condition's circumstances indicate the start of a new economic system whose mantra is worldwide business and globalization. Computerization of information for accessibility and the subsequent knowledge production have been granting a new source of wealth (Pisapia, 2009, p. 3).

According to Castells (2010), research needs a new approach to understanding the economy, society and culture of the postmodern era, where our lives are affected by ambiguous conflicts. Patterns used to interpret world events have been constantly changing. In the beginning of the 21st century, social, economic, cultural and technological transformations gave rise to the emergence of a new society.

Rather than conferring new opportunities, Pisapia (2009) stated that postmodern conditions create new challenges for leaders who keep practicing rational and linear thinking and vertical leadership models. He claimed that such leadership cannot attain a conclusive solution to current leadership challenges. These challenges affect all leaders around the world. Leaders face local constraints while they struggle to overcome the pressures coming from a highly globalized society. They will (a) spend effort to change

the environment, (b) adjust the organization to meet environment requirements, or (c) vanish (Pisapia, 2009, p. 4).

Pisapia (2009) argued that postmodern conditions require leaders to work harder for high organizational performance; there is not an easy way to achieve organizational success. The traditional legacy models of leadership do not help to create sustainable change. Pisapia claims that leaders need a fresh leadership theory to bridge the gap between the vanishing modern turn and the emerging globalized turn. Organizations need leaders who can adaptively meet four counterbalances, of necessity: transforming, stabilizing, acting ethically, and keeping an eye on the political possibility (Pisapia, 2009).

Leaders Need New Habits

The world we live in today is quite different from 50 years ago; Pisapia (2009) stated that under postmodern circumstances, life is complex, ambiguous and messy. This reality makes leaders define change as a nonlinear process. When leaders are faced with such postmodern challenges, they feel trapped between two choices: acting for change or keeping the stability.

Green and Roberts (2012) noted that the postmodern era has brought significant demographic change to the American workforce, and made organizational growth painful. Interestingly, today's workforce includes four different generations in the workplace at the same time. Moreover, leaders are challenged by global competition and insufficient financial resources. Since current leadership practices mostly ignore generational differences in leading, they may not be enough to overcome the conflicts

among employees belonging to different generations (Green & Roberts, 2012). Therefore, leaders need new practices to respond to generational differences in the work place.

Harding (2000) clarified that organizations need to make changes in order to avoid significant human resource problems that come from a new generation of workers. He named this new generation as an emerging workforce. This generation symbolizes different ages, races and geographies from previous generations. They have new sets of values and work expectations. Therefore, leaders need new instruments to deal with emerging workforce issues.

Whether public or private, organizational change is inevitable in the postmodern condition. Pisapia (2009) noted that today's leaders need to realize that organizations have been going through constant changes. Leaders should adapt their organizations to the continuously changing environment so that they can survive. Therefore, leaders need to rethink, reorganize and revise their organizations in order to remain connected to the environment. Pisapia (2009) noted that if leaders want to prepare their organizations to benefit from change, they need to perform like artists instead of scientists. In doing so, they will be able to manage organizational transformation with a deep understanding of stability and appreciation of values as well as strategies and actions (Pisapia, 2009).

Pisapia (2009) also stated that leadership scholars and practitioners in this age are well aware of today's leadership problem. They try to fashion a leadership model that can amend leadership failures and also can allow for on-going change, even though the road to change is not clear. To overcome postmodern challenges, leaders should move from the 20th century's hierarchic command and control model to the 21st century's coordinating and collaborating leadership style (Pisapia, 2009). Police leaders also need

such leadership styles to deal with the challenges of our century. The present study examines whether strategic leadership theory's actions provide new skills to increase leader effectiveness in police context.

Strategic Leadership

Leadership failures are a part of the leadership development process. According to Pisapia (2009), leaders experience several difficulties in the postmodern environment and they may not realize the real cause and effects of these difficulties. Therefore, they may fail for various reasons on their leadership journey.

First of all, today's leaders are trained in and trust linear thinking and hierarchical responses to change, which do not work in ambiguous and complex situations. Therefore, they may fail to comprehend changes in the organizational environment. Thus, they may rarely achieve their organizational goals. They may be following an old road map, formed by linearity.

Today's leaders may fail to recognize crucial societal forces and their impact on the organizational environment. Accordingly, these leaders may fail to link their organizations to contemporary success themes. Another reason for failure is that leaders see their organizations as independent from other individuals and organizations' actions and views. Thus, they cannot take advantage of bridging to important powers that could help them reach success.

Further, many of today's leaders do not connect important notions for organizational changes to followers' hearts and minds. Therefore, they are deprived from authorized and self-managed subordinates, which the above-mentioned connections encourage.

Finally, in order to influence their followers to achieve common goals, many leaders use limited, one-dimensional leader actions. Thus, they only become effective provided that organizational environment conditions favor one-dimensional actions (Pisapia, 2009, p. 5).

According to Dingle (1997), fear of change is a common excuse for leadership failures. He acknowledged that change is a challenging process for every leader, especially if it requires human and financial transformations, but, he said, if leaders continue to fear to make necessary changes in their organizations, changes in the environment will leave them behind. Their organizations will be negatively affected by their reluctance.

After reviewing the leadership literature, Pisapia (2009) noted that postmodern conditions require new leadership concepts. He advocated the necessity of strategic leadership by presenting leadership failures in a highly changing postmodern environment. He proposed the strategic leadership model to enhance leaders' understanding and practice of the leadership concept.

Today's leaders experience a high level of uncertainty. According to strategic leadership theory, organizations live in an unpredictable environment. Strategic leaders concentrate on formulating strategies that include strategic intent and decision-making. They also match strategy formulation with necessary alternatives to motivate members to contribute to the organization's intent (Pisapia, 2009).

According to Sutcliffe and Weick (2001), uncertainty is one of the enormous challenges any organization faces. They said that when leaders' expectations of future developments do not come true, it is one of two things: either what leaders expect to

happen fails to happen, or what leaders do not expect to happen actually happens.

Leaders can manage this uncertainty in their work environment by using the strategic leadership model.

Pisapia (2009) defines strategic leadership as a competence to make decisions regarding outcomes, activities and methods in uncertain environments. This approach to leadership combines management and leadership actions, as well as ethical (bonding) and political (bartering, bridging) considerations. It is a promising theory for leaders who want to overcome traditional leadership failures. Strategic leaders' success depends on their ability to respond to challenges coming from the postmodern environment. It also depends on how a leader remodels systems of organizational learning (Pisapia, 2009).

Canella and Monroe (1997) stated that strategic leadership attributes the outcomes of the organization to leaders' decisions. Strategic leaders' values, psychological features and characteristics influence their interpretation of events, information and vision. These interpretations might affect leaders' capacity of decision-making. From this perspective, strategic leadership can be considered a theory that empowers the decision-making capacity of leaders (Canella & Monroe, 1997).

In the literature there are different ideas regarding the use of strategic leadership. Although traditional strategic leadership scholars (e.g., Hambrick & Mason, 1984) suggested that strategic leadership is only the purview of top executives, Pisapia (2009) claimed that strategic leadership should exist at all levels of the organization. In other words, executive, managerial and supervisory levels all must be trained to strategically lead. He acknowledged that some strategic leader influence actions will be more functional at the managerial and executive levels. Leaders having management or

supervisory duties may challenge the strategic leadership theory's all-level approach by claiming a lack of sufficient decision-making discretion. Pisapia named this claim as a traditional legacy type of leadership. He said that the more internal and external restraints based on personal attributes, political orientation or demography, the less discretion a leader might have. Likewise, Canella and Monreo (1997) stated that personal constructs and demographics have an impact on organizational outcomes. This impact could be dependent on the amount of discretion or scope of action enjoyed by the leader.

Leader-follower relations have been going through changes. Pisapia (2009) noted that the postmodern condition pushes organizations to be flatter; as a result, today's leaders have begun using horizontal relationships. These changes may give more discretion to lower level leaders. However, leaders in supervisory or management roles could not perceive this discretion, or they could avoid the responsibility of decision making. When leaders have more discretion, they have more opportunity to affect the organizational intent. Pisapia (2009) concluded that leaders in supervisory and management levels still could make strategic choices in their area of responsibility.

This approach merges vertical and horizontal relationship structures among leader, follower and common goals. Pisapia and Pang (2013) claimed that strategic leadership theory's all-echelons approach attaches special importance to collective and horizontal leader actions. However, it does not eradicate vertical and controlling leader influence actions.

Senge (1996) argued that one common assumption, which states that only top leaders can make significant organizational changes, is extremely disempowering. He stated that we live in an age of empowering leaders at all levels and most people do not

favor top-down decision-making. It is interesting that we still try to establish less vertical (hierarchical) organizational cultures by expecting all the changes from top executives (Senge, 1996). Strategic leadership empowers the ability of conducting organizational change for all leaders in the organization.

Although epic leaders are expected to overcome challenges, Pisapia (2009) claimed that traditional heroic-type leadership could not meet the expectations of the postmodern conditions. In this new context, leaders using strategic thinking and actions are needed. Those leaders can anticipate, envision and maintain adaptability as well as establish trust with organizational members. He referred to such high-level performers as strategic leaders. These leaders apply leadership skills by a) practicing a holistic learning style; b) leading while managing; c) understanding the ongoing politics and ethical framework of the organization; and d) focusing on increasing organizational performance (Pisapia, 2009, p. 8).

Organizational change brings new opportunities and threats for leaders. Pisapia (2009) argued that strategic leaders prepare their organizations to benefit from the opportunities that come from change. They manage the changes with a deep appreciation for stability. Strategic leaders' slogans include ethical values and flexibility. They try interpreting organizational environments, setting the end results, forming a cohesive organizational culture, developing relationships and creating a learning organization (Pisapia, 2009).

Top leaders may avoid making strategic decisions for organizational change. Pisapia (2009) noted that if external leaders do not establish goals, leaders who adopt strategic leadership theory must independently or cooperatively establish them. After

ensuring that the goals are recognized, strategic leaders work to form the settings that will help to achieve those organizational goals. They need to develop connections with followers and organize them. In addition, they need to try to provide new resources and form a cohesive and adaptive organizational culture.

According to Senge (1996), top managers mostly implement reorganizing processes, employee and cost reductions in large scale, or redesign major programs in their organization. However, these transformations, centered on panic and defensiveness, cannot change the organizational culture. They also do not create dedication and commitment among the employees. They decrease the organizational intelligence that people at the lower levels use to deal with increasingly dynamic and uncertain organizational environments. Leadership should be exercised at various levels of the organization rather than just at the top level. This will help to build a productive organizational culture (Senge, 1996).

Postmodern conditions require leaders to act alternatively. Pisapia (2009) theorized that leaders who exercise strategic leadership tend to become more effective in complex environments. Strategic leaders make choices among bonding, bridging and bartering actions. They also make choices between the organizational change actions of transforming and managing, which maintain organizational stability. Grove (1996) stated that leaders might face challenges when the fundamentals of business are on the edge of changing. This challenge might carry an opportunity of rise or collapse for an organization. Leaders need to make timely transformations in these situations. They also need to manage the change after implementing it. In agreeing with Grove's opinions, Pisapia (2009) said, "I extend Andy Grove's suggestion that leaders should lead, when

appropriate, and manage when appropriate, by adding that leaders should compromise, when appropriate, and stand firm when appropriate” (p. 28).

Empirical Research

Recent empirical studies tested the strategic leadership theory in different organizational contexts. For example, Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) surveyed 440 hospital managers using the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire. They found that strategic leader influence actions—managing, transforming, bridging/bartering (political) and bonding (ethical)—are highly correlated with leaders’ self-reported effectiveness. They also found that when leaders perceived an increasing complexity in the environment, they tended to use the more strategic actions of transforming, bridging and bonding (political). Yasin (2006) surveyed 22 deans and 124 university professors with the strategic leadership questionnaire. Yasin’s study found that effective leaders use more strategic leader influence actions than less effective leaders.

Reyes-Guerra (2009) surveyed participants from 42 public schools using the SLQ. His study concluded that strategic leader influence actions are highly correlated with leadership effectiveness, as described by followers. Moreover, that study showed that unless leaders use managing actions with strategic actions in tandem, they might not implement mandated policies and programs effectively. It also showed that leaders could implement free-choice policies and programs effectively by using the influential actions of transforming, bonding, bridging and bartering.

Fazzino found that strategic leader influence actions are highly correlated with objective effectiveness measures. Her study also found that frequent and joint usage of

the five strategic leader influence actions could help leaders increase organizational performance (Fazzino, as cited in Pisapia & Pang, 2013).

Pisapia and Ying (2011) surveyed 106 Chinese school principals using the SLQ. Their study found that Chinese school leaders mostly used the strategic leader influence actions of transforming and bonding; managing and bridging actions were used secondarily. Their study revealed that bartering actions were rarely used. Interestingly, Chinese school leaders' preference for transforming and bonding was consistent with the results of previous studies. Urdegar (2008) found that the strategic actions of transforming, bridging and bonding are correlated with cohesive culture in education.

Pisapia (2009) stated that traditional empirical research in the strategic leadership literature could be grouped into three areas. First, the upper echelons approach has been addressed by several leadership studies. These studies investigated embedding ethical considerations into organizational culture; managing several internal and external stakeholders; strategic decision making; cultivating a powerful culture in organizations; establishing and articulating an organizational vision; determining and training organizations' future leaders; the need for building strategic skills and competencies, and the need for building organizational system, processes, and command and controls. For example, Ireland and Hitt (2002) stated that strategic leadership practices in organizations could help performance thrive. As a result, leaders can successfully guide their organizations in an increasingly competitive, turbulent and complex environment.

Pisapia's (2009) second group attempted to determine strategic leaders' roles and competencies: cognitive complexity and absorptive capacity (ability to learn). For example, Cohen and Levithal (1990) argued that absorptive capacity is a strategic

leader's ability to recognize new information, assimilate it and use it to achieve organizational goals. Some scholars examined the flexibility and social intelligence of strategic leaders. Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor and Mumford (1992) stated that social intelligence is an asset for strategic leaders who want to be effective.

Pisapia's (2009) third group of studies claimed that strategic leaders emerged when organizations have ambiguous and complex environments. They also mentioned that those organizations were situated on quicksand due to hyperturbulent changes. For example, Eisenhardt (1989) argued that top strategic leaders, those who can make rapid decisions in complex environments, use more information than leaders who are slow in decision-making. They also create more alternatives to overcoming challenges. Pisapia (2009) claimed that, other than his research on strategic leadership, almost no studies extended this theory to all echelons of the organization. The present study examines his model in the police organizational context.

Strategic Leader Influence Actions

During the establishment of the survey instrument (SLQ (v4)), the theoretical framework was transforming, managing, political and ethical actions (Pisapia, 2009). Yasin (2006), Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010), Urdegar (2008), Yasin and Tahir (2013) used this framework in their studies. However, when the survey instrument was revalidated through exploratory factor analysis, it was found that the political dimension broke out into two constructs, which were called bridging and bartering, while the transforming and managing dimensions remained intact. It was further found that the ethical dimension was related to the building of trust between the leader and follower, and it was changed to bonding (as cited in Reyes-Guerra, 2009). All studies after the validation used the newer

version of SLQ with five dimensions, rather than the previous version with four dimensions, for data collection. For example, Reyes-Guerra (2009), Pisapia and Ying (2011), Pisapia and Pang (2013) and Aydin, et al., (2014) studied strategic leadership in five dimensions. Therefore, the present study followed the new conceptualization of five dimensions.

Strategic leadership theory suggests that leaders who use the five strategic leader influence actions are more likely to be effective than leaders who do not use them (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). The following paragraphs will discuss managing, transforming, bonding, bridging, and bartering actions and demonstrate their grounds in the established leadership literature.

Transforming Actions

Strategic leaders use transforming actions to change and develop their organizations. Ellington and Pisapia (2013) stated: “Transforming actions are taken to influence direction, actions, and opinions in order to change organizational conditions and culture so that learning and change occur as a normal routine of the organization” (p. 14). They noted that leaders who use transforming actions could focus on development and long-term goals. Such leaders could also emphasize organizational intent and the organization’s fit into its environment.

Transforming actions can be easily understood using transformational leadership theories. As mentioned above, Burns (1978) formed the transformational concept to explain the association between leaders and followers. He believed that leadership was a skill of encouraging followers to achieve organizational goals, and that this skill embodies ethics, inspiration and consideration of the needs of followers as well as

leaders. Transformational leaders seek followers' possible motives in order to meet their wants and to make them fully involved in their tasks. He concluded that the ultimate goal of transformational leadership is to establish a win-win situation between the leader and the led. Eventually, this association is expected to turn followers into leaders, as well as to turn leaders into moral agents (Burns, 1978).

According to Pisapia (2009), transforming actions help leaders position their organizations to adapt to the changing environment. When strategic leaders sense a change, they start to alter the organizational structure to meet the new conditions. Since the transforming process is a frame-changing aspect of leadership, transforming leaders' characteristics include change and development orientation. They concentrate on organizational intent and the alignment of the organization with its changing context. They nurture their followers to become leaders. In that sense, transforming leaders view their actions as leading leaders. They view subordinates as colleagues having dedication and similar values. Leaders using transforming actions are storytellers and vision developers, as they motivate their subordinates (Pisapia, 2009).

Bridging and Bartering Actions

Strategic leaders use bridging actions to gain social power. Ellington and Pisapia (2013) stated, "Bridging actions are taken to develop alliances with people of power and influence from outside and inside the organization in order to gain insights, support, and resources" (p. 14). Strategic leaders spend their effort to attain more resources to keep and increase their power in order to achieve organizational goals. They focus on establishing relationships by meeting others' needs through negotiations. Strategic leaders are practical. They concentrate on alternatives for keeping more people involved.

They use political actions to achieve high organizational performance (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

As did Ellington and Pisapia (2013), Pisapia (2009) said that bridging actions help strategic leaders establish relationships and grasp power in order to gain support for organizational goals. These actions are used to build social influence and to acquire obtainable resources. When leaders use bridging actions, their followers may perceive this process as a personal investment to get access to individuals having influence. Therefore, this relationship establishment process should conform to ethical and moral criteria. Strategic leaders use bonding actions to control the legitimacy of using bridging actions.

Strategic leaders also use bartering actions to negotiate and exchange resources. Ellington and Pisapia (2013) noted, “Bartering actions are taken to give something in exchange in order to strengthen the effectiveness of relationships and alliance building efforts” (p. 14). Strategic leaders have the competence to balance political realities and ethical concerns. They frequently use bartering actions to find a win-win situation for necessary changes. They trade resources internally and externally in order to make adjustments for the unexpected changes in the organization as well as for goal achievement. Although most leaders should advocate for the right, strategic leaders are aware of the fact that doing the right thing may not satisfy the needs of the postmodern age. Therefore, they use bartering actions to empower relationships and alliances to make changes in the organization (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Likewise, according to Pisapia (2009), strategic leaders use bartering actions to offer rewards and promises for organizational goals. When leaders use these actions, their

followers might perceive this practice as a procedure of making something in expectance for help. However, this exchange process should be ethically and morally correct. In other words, bartering actions are subject to the limitations of ethical considerations (bonding actions) (Pisapia, 2009).

Bartering and bridging actions have a political nature. In the literature, some scholars have been incorporating political factors into leadership studies within the context of moral and ethical values. For example, Sergiovanni (1995) stated that leaders apply political behaviors, assuming that humankind is driven by self-interest. Effective leadership requires bartering of the fulfillment of followers' needs. He called this bartering "the politics of virtue" and defined it as "a politics motivated by shared commitment to the common good and guided by protections that ensure the rights and responsibilities of individuals" (p. 30). He advocated that politics of virtue could help transform followers into natural members of an organization who share mutual commitments. Pisapia (2009) also identified political aspects of leadership. He mentioned that in chaotic environments, leaders should use bartering and bridging (political) actions to master negotiating skills and relationships. He concluded that by using bartering and bridging actions, leaders can acquire power with which to manage and transform their organizations.

According to Lancaster and Stillman (2002), due to rapid changes in information technologies, leaders have started to supervise different types of subordinates. They differ in terms of communication styles and needs, levels of motivation and generational attributes. They also vary regarding their ability to use technology. Similarly, Pisapia (2009) noted that today's managers lead subordinates diverse in background and ability

and the subordinates need to be led according to their uniqueness. Bridging and bartering actions help today's leaders build social capital by employing tactics and levers necessary to guide their organizations successfully with different types of people (Pisapia, 2009).

Leaders may overlook the importance of organizational politics. People often play politics, furthering individual agenda rather than organizational goals. Pisapia (2009) stated that whether public or private, there are always politics in every organization. Moreover, leaders need to accept the politics rather than ignore them. In transforming their organizations, leaders should manage organizational politics and convince internal and external stakeholders to embrace change as well as respect organizational values (Pisapia, 2009).

Bolman and Deal (1991) explained that leaders who operate from a political framework see their organizations as places of conflict. Political leaders are pragmatists and realists. They tend to advocate and negotiate to get things done. Bolman and Deal stated that political leaders "spend much of their time networking, creating coalitions, building a power base, and negotiating compromises" (p. 512).

The bartering and bridging actions of these leaders are relevant to the sociological definition of organizations where subordinates are competitors rather than colleagues (Pisapia, 2009). These actions could be considered building rapport, bargaining for power, and negotiating in uncertain organizational environments. Leaders may benefit from bartering and bridging actions if their organization has a muddling-through situation rather than achievement of success with serious planning. Pisapia (2009) acknowledged that it is extremely important for leaders to use these actions if they want to be effective in organizations in which individuals always fight for power and/or survival.

Bridging and bartering actions can be easily interpreted using the transactional leadership model. Burns (1978) stated that transactional leaders try to establish follower engagement through bartering treasured favors in order to achieve their organizational goals. Namely, they use interest relationships to lead their followers.

Pisapia (2009) claimed that transformational and transactional leadership theories made significant contributions to leadership literature; however, these alone were not successful in meeting the leadership challenges of the postmodern age. He recommended transformational leadership with managing actions. He also recommended transactional leadership with bridging, bartering and bonding (ethical) actions.

Pisapia (2009) proposed his strategic leadership theory by moving from the two-factor model (transformational–transactional) to a five-factor model. Strategic leadership theory combines the two leadership theories with additional leadership styles: managerial and ethical (bonding) leadership. Moreover, Pisapia (2009) used political (bartering, bridging) actions instead of transactional leadership in his model. He introduced bridging and bartering actions to help managers lead their organizations effectively. When leaders use bridging actions, they develop relationships with powerful internal and external stakeholders. By incorporating bartering actions, leaders can understand the value of motivational leverages (Pisapia, 2009).

Managing Actions

Strategic leaders use managing actions to keep their organizations stable. Ellington and Pisapia (2013) stated, “Managing actions are taken to maintain consistency in order that current organizational goals are accomplished efficiently and effectively” (p. 14). They articulated managing as a stabilizing aspect of leader actions. Managing actions

are associated with monitoring, organizing, allocating, and planning to achieve common goals. Leaders use managing actions to focus on organizational efficiency and effectiveness.

Managing actions can be easily understood by managerial leadership. In the early 1900s Henri Fayol, the French industrialist, provided the first description of management. He published his book *Industrial and General Administration* in 1916. He theorized that five different management roles could be played by industrial and general managers: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling.

In the late 1900s, Mintzberg (1973) defined managerial functions and grouped them as interpersonal roles, informational roles and decisional roles. In interpersonal roles, a manager acts as a symbol and determines the organizational atmosphere as well as deals with internal and external stakeholders. In informational roles, a manager consistently searches for information to understand what is happening in the organization. The manager disseminates information from both the external and internal organizational environment. In the decisional role, the manager initiates and designs organizational changes by seeking opportunities for improvement. The manager resolves conflicts and handles emergencies. The manager also decides about resource allocation and takes part in negotiations (Mintzberg, 1973).

There are different views regarding the use of managing actions or managerial functions. According to their managerial grid theory, Blake and Mouton (1985) theorized that leaders use seven managerial functions: planning, organizing, directing, controlling, staffing, managing-by-objectives and performance appraising. Robbins and Coulter (2002) claimed that in order to define the actual management functions, one needed to

focus on management processes in which the leaders take action. They stated that managing actions can be used for planning, organizing, leading and controlling. Managers use the planning function for goal setting, strategy establishment and coordination. They use the organizing function for task clarification. The leading function is used to direct and motivate followers. The controlling function is used to monitor processes and projects so that organizational goals are achieved as they were planned (Robbins & Coulter, 2002). Pisapia (2009) hypothesized that strategic leaders basically used four management functions: planning, organizing, allocating and monitoring.

Transforming actions may seem more tempting for leaders. However, strategic leadership theory posits that leaders cannot be effective by just applying transforming action. They need to govern change by applying managing actions, which are derived from managerial leadership.

Bonding Actions

Strategic leaders use bonding actions to promote ethical leadership in the organization. Ellington and Pisapia (2013) noted, “Bonding actions are taken to ensure that trust is an attribute of the system and not just something developed among individuals in order that followers exhibit emotional commitment to the organization’s aspirations and values” (p. 14). They argued that bonding actions are derived from the leader’s ethical values, which leaders use to decide what is right or wrong. Leaders using bonding actions see followers as students, and they help them develop to their full potential. These leaders have honest attitudes and they make decisions according to their values, and to the benefit of everyone, to reach organizational goals.

Bonding actions can be easily understood through ethical leadership. According to Gardner (1995), effective leaders need to mirror their verbal messages with their behaviors. With this behavioral exemplification, they are able to teach their followers the value of ethical and moral issues in management. Sergiovanni (1996) stressed that in leadership, having moral values, being a team player, sacrificing one's own needs for the sake of the team, and assigning tasks and responsibilities are important.

Sergiovanni (1996) further noted that due to the complex nature of leadership challenges, ethical considerations, alone, might not be enough to ensure effective decision making. He claimed that even if a leader had good intentions, and meant to make an effective decision, this would not necessarily happen. Because of its complexity, the decision-making process cannot be completed by simple steps.

Strategic leaders use bonding actions to communicate the ethics of the organization and build trust. Robbins and Coulter (2002) stated that regardless of whether a leader's actions are ethical or unethical, they are indicators of organizational culture, the individual's moral reasoning, and the magnitude of the ethical argument. Kohlberg (1981) argued that moral reasoning might be classified as principled, conventional or preconventional, depending on the individual's moral development. At the highest, principled level, leaders pursue their ideal principles and respect others' rights. They do not avoid following their principles, even if they face threats. However, in the least ethical, preconventional style, leaders may or may not obey ethical rules in order to reach their interest and avoid threats. Therefore, a high level of bonding action is essential for strategic leaders to become more effective.

Dual Tensions: Change or Stability

Leaders usually face two tensions while leading their organizations. Pisapia (2009) stated that the works of Zaleznik, Bennis and Nanus, and Kotter illustrated the two challenging choices imposed on organizations by the postmodern condition. The first is what the organization *is* (managing) and what the organization desires *to be* (transforming), and the second one is what the organization *must do* (bonding) and what the organization *can do* (bartering, bridging) (Pisapia, 2009, p. 27).

Gill (2003) stated that while conducting change, leaders should exhibit different leadership behaviors. For example, they need to articulate a vision, pursue a strategy and reflect value and motivation. If effective leadership lacks strategic thinking and an attainable vision, organizations can be misguided and change process may be painful. Change requires effective leadership (Gill, 2003).

The 21st century's highly changing conditions require leadership scholars to create new models to respond to the two tensions. Pisapia (2009) asserted that a fresh leadership theory embracing bartering, bridging and bonding aspects needs to be produced. He incorporated these aspects in order to mitigate the dichotomy of managing (stability) and leading (change). When leaders understand these choices and apply five strategic action sets to deal with them, they can develop the ability to make organizational changes, especially when the organization needs improvement as well as stability (Pisapia, 2009).

Grove (1996) suggested that when an organizational environment pushes for changes, most leaders know the direction they need to take. However, due to ambiguity in the environment, they generally postpone taking action. Moreover, organizations may

have conflicting priorities that make it difficult to determine the most suitable time to start the change. While some organizations are swift at recognizing and responding to change, other organizations may wait to see their competitors' initiatives in order to view the results of the chosen response to change (Grove, 1996).

Strategic leadership theory is a comprehensive model that contains essential leader actions for our century's highly changing environment. While developing his theory, Pisapia (2009) incorporated political and ethical frameworks from transformational and transactional leadership theories. He embraced the two frameworks as new strategic leader influence actions: ethical (bonding), and political (bartering and bridging). He stated, "In order to transform and to sustain their organizations, leaders must be able to juggle the political realities while honoring the values identified as important by organization and society" (p. 28).

Using bartering and bridging actions does not constitute a hindrance for the usage of bonding actions. Pisapia (2009) noted that leaders who could compromise could keep their moral values, as well. Strategic leaders acknowledge that change is inevitable; they also accept that there is a consequent need to revisit their mental models and to recognize change signs from the internal and external environment. Thus, strategic leaders reconsider, reorganize and transform their organizations, as the postmodern condition requires (Pisapia, 2009).

Leaders Need Multifaceted Actions

The five strategic leader influence actions are important for leaders to reach organizational goals. Pisapia (2009) argued that leaders could only be successful provided they develop an ability to apply multifaceted leader actions. If the

organizational environment remains stable, leaders can keep their organizations moving by applying one type of action (e.g., managing); however, in unstable, highly changing and even chaotic organizational environments, leaders should be decisive, compromising, stabilizing, and transforming at the same time. Unlike traditional leadership frames, being flexible is a significant attribute of strategic leaders. Thus, strategic leaders can use bonding, bridging and bartering actions during leading and managing (Pisapia, 2009).

According to Hitt and Ireland (2002), 21st-century conditions challenge organizations by their complexity, severe competitiveness, risks and possibilities. Strategic leadership practices can help organizations improve performance in highly changing and volatile environments. The authors proposed multifaceted actions for effective leadership, actions such as establishing organizational mission and vision, supporting a positive culture in the organization and giving emphasis to ethical considerations. They claimed that if strategic leaders apply these components in tandem, they can safely guide their organizations in today's turbulent and challenging environments (Hitt & Ireland, 2002).

Leaders applying strategic influence actions seek the familiar in the unfamiliar and the unfamiliar in the familiar. Pisapia (2009) noted, "If leaders only have a hammer, they tend to see every problem as a nail" (p. 31). Using this limited tools analogy, he stated that those leaders can be effective only if the organizational environment matches their limited leader toolset. Therefore, leaders need to lead as manager, transformer, negotiator and referee (Pisapia, 2009). He further stated that if a theory becomes outdated for poorly addressing a problem, scholars need to develop a new theory. For this reason,

he included bridging, bartering and bonding actions in his strategic leadership model so that leaders could use them to overcome postmodern challenges.

Pisapia (2009) defined strategic leaders as individuals who have the ability to use transforming, managing, bonding, bartering, and bridging actions in order to respond to a leadership problem. The following paragraphs will discuss the need for each of the five strategic leader influence actions in depth, in order to better understand the premise of strategic leadership theory and explore its application for 21st-century leaders.

Leaders need managing actions to concentrate on organizational control and stability. Managing ability is leadership's frame-sustaining aspect. Leaders use their managing ability to keep the organization running and reach goals. Managers are inclined to view their followers as subordinates, and they tend to help them to turn into better employees.

Leaders need transforming actions to concentrate on organizational change. While leaders discover the stabilizing facet of leadership in managing actions, they find the change preference facet in transforming actions. Since transforming ability is leadership's frame-breaking aspect, transformers emphasize organizational development and change. They emphasize an organization's purpose and organization's fitness to the environment (Pisapia, 2009). When leaders become aware of the need for change, they need to renew organizations' structures in order to respond to changes in the environment and better reach organizational goals (Pisapia, 2009).

Due to the fact that leaders focus on the stabilizing aspect of the leadership by applying managing actions and on change adaptation by applying transforming actions,

Pisapia (2009) concluded, “No matter which action set is chosen, managing or transforming, these actions are balanced by political and ethical considerations” (p. 38).

Pisapia (2009) stated that leaders also need bonding, bartering and bridging actions, which serve as contrasting powers. Leaders can utilize them to modify, control or impede the organizational purpose as well as to set goals. Since these actions move against each other continuously, they enable strategic leaders to focus and adjust their actions in order to stabilize an organization and to make changes in an organization.

Leaders need bartering and bridging actions to emphasize the attainment and distribution of resources in order to keep or enhance their competence and to achieve organizational goals. Such leaders establish transactional rapport in order to achieve individual and organizational aims (Pisapia, 2009). Specifically, leaders need bridging actions to build coalitions and networks, and to develop consensus for goal achievement. Leaders using these actions are pragmatic. Leaders also need bartering actions to exchange resources from the external and internal environments. They work to improve the effectiveness of formal and informal relationships, as well as to barter for resources in managing change (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

Leaders need bonding actions to focus on connecting changes with values. Leaders use these actions to balance the potential risks of bartering and bridging actions. They preserve individual principles and morals; they also respect others’ rights, and they seek mutual benefit for all (Pisapia, 2009).

According to Pisapia (2009), leaders need to stand for the right thing; however, he claimed that doing the right thing may not satisfy organizational needs. Also, doing the right thing might be controversial. For example, what is right does not mean the same

thing to every leader. Therefore, leaders need to know and understand how to negotiate to make necessary changes. Strategic leaders have the ability to direct their organizations by strictly ethical actions, which are mediated by real political demands. Leaders adapting the strategic leadership model do not hesitate to use bartering and bridging actions in order to facilitate aims and tactics, provided that these actions conform to ethical policies. Pisapia claimed that effective strategic leaders apply bartering, bridging, and bonding actions comfortably and, by doing this, are able to mediate political and ethical demands coming from both the internal and external organizational environments. He concluded that if a leader is mostly motivated politically, and is strict in terms of ethics, this is the best practice for strategic leaders (Pisapia, 2009). Like bonding actions, bartering and bridging actions are a stabilizing part of leadership.

Multifaceted actions constitute a guiding model for leaders. Pisapia (2009) noted that effective leaders act in balance, with vision and enthusiasm, a good estimate, and a correct set of actions to reach success in all situations. Leaders can use the strategic leadership model as a compass. The north of the compass is the transforming facet, and the south is the managing facet; bartering, and bridging (political) and bonding (ethical) parts of this model are east and west directions, respectively (Pisapia, 2009).

Pisapia (2009) determined that managing and transforming actions have a directional nature. Leaders use them to pull their organization toward stability or change. Leaders using directional actions also use bonding (ethical) and bartering/bridging (political) strategic actions in balance. He stated that if a leader employs transforming actions, he or she uses the supporting strategic actions to decide “what is right (ethical) and what is possible (political). These action sets differ in that they are used in

conjunction—as supporting actions—with directional transforming and management actions” (p. 39).

Strategic leadership theory claims that leaders can guide their organizations using any of the strategic leader influence action sets. Effective leaders mostly use managing and transforming actions while compromising the tension by political (bridging and bartering) and ethical (bonding) actions appropriate to the situation (Pisapia, 2009).

Pisapia (2009) said leaders may utilize the five types of strategic leader influence actions singly, but that using all the leader actions together can be more effective. He also stated that leaders may direct their organizations in stable environments by using just one type of action. Nevertheless, in unstable environments, leaders need to be consistent and they need to act flexibly to meet the challenges of the unstable organizational environment (Pisapia, 2009).

Frame-breaking and Frame-keeping Change

Pisapia (2009) stated that strategic leaders need to know and understand the difference between frame-breaking change and frame-keeping change in order to securely move their organizations. Frame-keeping change focuses on helping the organization to proceed better while doing the work that is already being done. Frame-breaking change focuses on switching the organization’s position, proceedings and culture in order to help the organization’s achievement.

According to Pisapia (2009), leaders need to be aware of the fluctuating aspect of leadership if they want to change their organization to reach goals. This knowledge enables them to focus on keeping the organization stable or changing the organization as needed. Managing actions help leaders to conduct frame-keeping change for establishing

stability, and transforming actions help leaders to conduct frame-breaking change for making necessary alterations in the organization. Leaders need to consider whether changing or maintaining stability will enable their organizations to survive in postmodern conditions. Pisapia (2009) stated that when a leader starts working in an organization, he or she needs to determine whether the organization needs change or stability. He described a strategic leadership pyramid for change. The pyramid helps the leader to decide whether to pursue either frame-changing or frame-keeping policies (p. 36).

Pisapia (2009) theorized that leaders can use either managing or transforming actions, depending on the organizational context. If leaders interpret the context as requiring steadiness or frame strengthening, then they use managing leader actions. Likewise, if they interpret the context as requiring a frame change, they apply transforming leader actions. He stated that leaders should use the managing and the transforming leader actions, as well as bridging, bartering and bonding leader actions in order to transform their organizations and sustain them in the 21st century's challenging environments (p. 37).

Pisapia (2009) noted that five action sets can be used to conduct strategic change. The managing actions emphasize stability and negotiating the tension between bridging and bartering (political) and bonding (ethical) actions during strategic change. Therefore, while a leader applies managing actions in pursuit of managerial goals, he or she might face tension between political and ethical considerations, and the leader needs to deal with them. If a leader applies transforming actions to make strategic change, he or she again needs to deal with political and ethical tensions. As mentioned above, the fight between political and ethical considerations emerging from the organizational

environment has existed for decades. Leaders need to consider both during the application of strategic leader influence actions in order to make strategic change.

Organizational Environment and Personal Characteristics

Scholars have asserted that both internal and external organizational environments have a significant influence on leader actions. According to Kolb, Osland and Rubin (2001), the organizational environment has substantial influence on leadership behaviors. They claimed that the organizational environment determines flow of communication and structural choices that can directly affect leader behavior. Shivers-Blackwell (2004) noted that there is a direct relationship between organizational context and leader behaviors. Specifically, leaders' perceptions of organizational context can affect or constrain their use of transforming and transactional leadership behaviors.

According to Pisapia and Pang (2009), ambiguous and complex organizational environments reward creative leaders and challenge compliant leaders. Creative leaders utilize critical and integrative thinking skills. They apply multifaceted leader actions, and develop connections between themes in the organizational environment and the organization itself. Such challenging environments compel leaders to exhibit strategic thinking and acting (Pisapia & Pang, 2009).

Osborn, Hunt & Jauch (2002), too, asserted that leader behaviors are influenced by organizational environment conditions. Moreover, leadership effectiveness mostly depends on the organizational context. Changing the organizational environment may eventually change leader behaviors. They argued that this change might be considered as an influence, which comes from the interaction between leader behaviors and

organizational environment. However, they claimed that leadership behavior is actually embedded in the organizational context.

Cook (2001) stated that the organizational environment has two dimensions: internal and external. Both of these dimensions have an impact on leader behavior. Moreover, they may cause the leaders to present dominant leadership actions in their organizations. Osborn, et al. (2002) stated that in addition to leadership styles, structural and environmental working conditions might affect leaders' performance. Leadership cannot be considered as just inspiring followers. Leadership roles are more comprehensive in and out of organizations (Osborn, et al., 2002).

Some scholars studied personal, emotional and physical characteristics of effective leaders to distinguish them from ineffective leaders (e.g., Griffin, 2002; Luthans, 1981). According to Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts & Luthans (2001), leaders who have realistic optimism, hope, confidence and emotional intelligence tend to be more effective than leaders who do not present these psychological attributes. These attributes also contribute to organizational leadership development in turbulent environments (Luthans, et al., 2001).

From 1930 to 1940, several studies used the trait approach to inspect effective leadership. According to Yukl (2002), some of these studies suggested that there is a strong relationship between personal characteristics and effectiveness. The personal characteristics associated with effectiveness included high self-assurance, ability to take initiative, emotional maturity, coping skills with stress and self-control. Since such characteristics are difficult to qualify, due to the quantitative method of the present study,

three individual leader characteristics (demographics) were chosen: age, rank and years of service.

The type of unit was chosen for measuring an organizational environment characteristic. Gender, race and other personal characteristics were not included, since they could be used to identify the studied leader. For example, some leadership positions may be occupied by few female Caucasian police leaders. Since their number is small, followers may feel reluctant to provide such sensitive demographic data, which can be used to identify the studied leader.

Leaders' Effectiveness and Success

Scholars have often used “success” and “effectiveness” interchangeably to assess leaders' actions, and these two terms have been treated as equal. However, Luthans (1988) made certain distinctions between leaders' success and effectiveness. He claimed that if a leader was promoted rapidly in the organizational structure, he or she could be referred to as a successful leader. However, if the leader was dedicated to satisfying the higher needs of followers and teams with high performance, he or she could be referred to as an effective leader. The present study followed Luthan's definition of leader effectiveness, and measured it by the perceptions of followers.

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (1994) approached leader effectiveness by considering leaders' individual effectiveness, leaders' effectiveness in-group and leaders' effectiveness in the organization. They argued that leader effectiveness can be measured by the level of goal accomplishment of the leader. Subordinates may see their leaders as effective or not effective depending on the subordinates' satisfaction with the overall work experience (Gibson, et al., 1994).

According to Fiedler (1971), leader effectiveness should be considered within the situational context of leadership. Fiedler points out that personality factors and leaders' interaction with the environment can affect leader effectiveness. His contingency theory postulated that leaders who are task oriented are more effective in favorable and unfavorable situations, leaders who are relationship-oriented are more effective in mildly favorable situations.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) stated that effective leaders are able to use an adaptive, situational style (direct, coach, support, and delegate) to fit the subordinates' maturity level. They determine followers' maturity level and they apply the best leader actions. By doing this, the authors claimed, leaders could learn to use effective leadership styles with every subordinate they supervise.

Kim and Yukl (1995) stated that most leadership theories considered effectiveness as leadership outcomes instead of success. Effective managers jointly use various complementary leader behaviors. They inspire a shared vision, organize processes to use the manpower and resources efficiently, develop alliances for resources, and monitor work operations with an eye to discovering risks and opportunities. They also take action decisively to solve problems, clarify their expectations to subordinates, promote teamwork, and help subordinates develop skills and self-assurance by power sharing, consulting, teaching, updating, recognizing and encouraging (Kim & Yukl, 1995).

According to Drucker (1973), leader effectiveness is the existence of success. He argued that after leaders reach success, they need efficiency, which is a minimum

condition for the sustainability of success. He described effectiveness as doing the right thing and efficiency as doing things in the right way.

Summary

Chapter 2 reviewed current leadership literature by addressing the following four major categories of topics: (a) leadership definition debate, understanding leadership, leadership theories, leadership studies in police organizations, leaders versus managers; (b) leadership challenges brought by the postmodern condition, leaders' need for new habits, and strategic leadership; (c) strategic leader influence actions, dual tensions of change and stability, and leaders' need for multifaceted action; and d) organizational environment and personal characteristics, and leaders' effectiveness and success.

The first section introduced various academic definitions of the leadership phenomenon. It also discussed relevant leadership theories and leadership studies in police organizations.

In the second section, leadership challenges in the 21st century and the need for new leader behaviors were presented, and strategic leadership studies were examined.

In the third section, leader actions proposed by strategic leadership theory were discussed in depth. The chapter was concluded with a discussion of organizational and personal characteristics and their influence on leader effectiveness.

This literature review demonstrated that the strategic leadership model is capable of providing a promising direction for leaders who are challenged by ambiguous, postmodern conditions. This capability will allow the present study to use it as a theoretical foundation for measuring strategic leader influence actions and the effectiveness of police leaders.

This literature review also established that the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire instrument successfully measured strategic leader influence actions in previous empirical studies. Therefore, it will be used for measuring strategic leader influence actions and the effectiveness of police leaders in the present study. In conclusion, the strategic leadership model has been found to be an encompassing model that interprets effective leadership better than other leadership models do.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Chapter 3 provides a broad description of the research design and procedures used in the study. The chapter includes (a) review of research questions and the purpose of the study, (b) organization of the research, variables of the study, study participants and sampling, the research instrument, data collection, and (c) data analysis.

The present study investigated strategic leader influence actions to distinguish successful managers in a large organization. It was based on previous strategic leadership studies (i.e., Yasin, 2006; Urdegar, 2008; Ugurluoglu, et al., 2010; Reyes-Guerra, 2009; Yasin & Tahir, 2013; Aydin, et al., 2014). According to Ellington and Pisapia (2013), strategic leader influence actions should be classified as transforming, managing, bonding, bridging and bartering. Yasin and Tahir (2013) stated that effective leaders use more strategic leader influence actions than do less effective leaders.

Review of Research Questions and the Purpose of the Study

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study was to examine the strategic leader influence actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones. If organizations can detect the characteristics and actions of effective leaders, they can hire the right individuals to increase the performance of their organizations. Moreover, they can prepare leadership development programs for prospective leaders.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Does the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding actions influence followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness? This question was used

to find out whether the use of strategic leader influence actions helps leader to be more effective.

2. Does the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) influence the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader actions? This question was used to find out whether a leader's type of unit can make a difference in the use of strategic leader influence actions.
3. Do personal characteristics influence the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader actions? This question was used to find out whether a leader's age, rank or years of service can make a difference in the use of strategic leader influence actions.
4. Does a predictive relationship exist among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perception of leader effectiveness? This question was used to find out whether the type of unit, personal characteristics and the use of strategic leader actions influence leader effectiveness.

Organization of the Research

This study incorporated a quantitative nonexperimental research design. In terms of statistical analysis, the study used descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses to explain the relationships between the variables. This researcher sought to find out whether police leaders' perceived effectiveness could be predicted from the use of strategic leader influence actions.

Variables of the Study

Due to its nonexperimental nature, the study named the dependent variable as the criterion variable and the independent variables as predictor variables. The followers' perceptions of the use of strategic leader influence actions and organizational and personal characteristics were the main predictor variables involved in this study. The strategic leader influence actions were categorized in five categories: transforming, managing, bonding, bridging and bartering. The variables for personal characteristics were age, rank and years of service. The sole organizational characteristic was the type of unit in which leaders worked. The main criterion variable in this study was leader effectiveness, as reported by followers.

Study Participants and Sampling

The study employed the followers of police leaders in the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD) as participants. After the approval of the Research Ethics Committee of the university was received, the researcher requested the research and development unit of the LMPD to send the strategic leadership questionnaire to study participants through email invitations, which included a link to the online questionnaire. After the completion of the survey, the researcher eliminated the inconsistent responses according to the coding document of the survey. To ensure the internal validity of the research, the researcher received 244 final responses for an effective data analysis.

The researcher used the nonprobability convenience sampling method. Creswell (2005) stated that in this sampling method, participants are chosen by the researcher on purpose, since they tend to participate and they are accessible. Consequently, this study

used the nonprobability convenience sampling method to employ voluntary participants from the studied organization.

As a research setting, the LMPD is located in Louisville, Kentucky. The organization has a bureaucratic and hierarchical structure. The ranks are comprised of non-sworn, officer, sergeant, lieutenant, major, lieutenant colonel, colonel and the chief of police. As one proceeds up through the chain of command, the power increases, with upper level leaders enjoying more power. The present study investigated the ranks in five categories: non-sworn, sergeant, lieutenant, major and other (higher than major or commanding staff).

The organization provides policing services to residents of Jefferson County, Kentucky. This county is the largest urban zone in the state. It has a population of 609,893 (2013 census)—African Americans (23%), Whites (71%), Hispanic or Latino (5%), and Asians (2%). The median household income is \$44,159 and approximately 18% of the residents live under the poverty level (Census Bureau, 2013).

The LMPD is the largest police department in Kentucky and among the 20 largest police departments in the U.S. It is comprised of administrative, support bureaus, patrol services and other services. It has various units including complaint response, narcotics, crimes against children, robbery, traffic and homicide. The organization functions to maintain public order, apply the law, enforce traffic safety, prevent crime and respond to 911 police calls throughout the region. Since the organization has several sub units, the present study considered administrative bureau, support bureau, patrol services and other services as four major branches of the organization. These four dimensions were measured by the type of unit variable.

Research Instrument

This study used the observer version of the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)) as a data collection tool. Strategic leadership theory shaped the dimensions of the survey. It is two pages long and consists of over 40 items. The first 35 items measuring strategic leader influence actions were cast on a five-point Likert scale: 1. almost never, 2. once in a while, 3. sometimes, 4. often, 5. almost always. The higher number shows more usage of strategic leader influence actions, the lower number shows less usage of strategic leader influence actions.

The instrument enabled the researcher to measure the five types of strategic leader influence actions: transforming, managing, bonding, bartering and bridging (Pisapia, 2009, p. 206). There is also an effectiveness scale, with five items measuring perception of leader effectiveness. These five items were cast on a 9-point scale from least effective to most effective.

In the literature, different versions of the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire were employed in various studies and significant empirical results were produced. For example, Reyes-Guerra (2009) found that the dimensions of transforming, bridging/bartering, and bonding actions were significantly related to work environments, which have cohesion and support. Yasin (2006) and Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) concluded that the usage of a wider array of strategic leader actions was related to leaders' effectiveness. Pisapia and Ying (2011) found that the Chinese school leader prototype was shaped around bonding and transforming actions. Pisapia and Pang (2013) found that bonding, bridging and bartering actions change from culture to culture, but transforming

and managing actions are universal. Aydin, et al., (2014) found that the use of strategic leader influence actions could increase leader effectiveness in organizational learning.

In terms of the instrument's reliability, Pisapia (2009) noted that the survey has an acceptable internal reliability, which was evaluated by the standardized Cronbach's alpha. For example, the second version of the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQv2) had reliability scores as follows: The Cronbach Alpha scores for the transforming, managing, bartering/bridging (political), and bonding (ethical) actions were .95, .95, .93, and .94 respectively. Moreover, the survey was proven neutral in terms of cultural bias (p. 207). The present study also calculated its Cronbach's alpha scores in the data analysis.

Data Collection

Different data collection methods could have been used for the present study such as in-depth interviews, ethnography or experimental design. However, after a comprehensive evaluation of the data collection methods in the previously conducted strategic leadership studies, the researcher determined that a survey would be an effective method for meeting the aims of the present study.

There are advantages to using a questionnaire to examine the perceptions of a group of people about a specific topic. According to Goldstein and Ford (2002), individuals who respond to questionnaires can mention their personal opinions more securely since this method provides a high level of confidentiality and anonymity. Moreover, Creswell (2005) stated that applying questionnaires is an efficient strategy to learn individuals' perceptions; also, it enables researchers to obtain responses from a high number of participants in a reasonably small amount of time.

Prior to data collection, the researcher acquired permission from three sources. First, permission was obtained from Dr. John R. Pisapia to use the SLQ (v4) as a research instrument; the researcher was granted written permission from him as the official owner of the questionnaire (see Appendix A). Second, permission was acquired from the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD) to administer the SLQ (v4) (see Appendix B). The final permission was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of Spalding University, which examined the ethical characteristics of the study and the SLQ (v4) instrument (see Appendix C).

After acquiring the necessary permissions, the researcher contacted the Research and Development Unit of the LMPD. The unit is responsible for doing research that can influence policy development in the organization. The researcher discussed how the SLQ (v4) could be applied to all police officers in the LMPD in a reasonable time. Then the researcher collaborated with a contact person from the Research and Development Unit, and the SLQ (v4) was converted to a password-protected account on www.surveymonkey.com.

On November 13, 2014, the contact person sent an invitation email to the personal email accounts of all officers in the organization ($N = 1,236$). The email included the scope of the study and information about the researcher (see Appendix D). Moreover, the link to the questionnaire through www.surveymonkey.com was also provided.

The informed consent form was placed at the beginning of the questionnaire. It provided information to participants regarding the following ethical considerations.

First, participation in this study was voluntary. However, if any question made them uncomfortable, they did not have to answer it. They could also choose not to

participate at all. They were furthermore informed that participation would have no effect on their job or any other benefits to which they were otherwise entitled.

Second, the risk of participating in this study was judged to be minimal. However, the researcher cautioned that some participants might feel uncomfortable or vulnerable about describing their leaders' strategic actions and effectiveness. Nevertheless, in order to reduce this potential risk, the researcher assured the participants that (a) the researcher was independent from the LMPD and that data results could be used only for the purpose of this dissertation, and that (b) no personal, identifiable information about the respondents was gathered, and anonymity was maintained.

Third, the participants were informed that there would not be any direct benefits for participation. However, their involvement might help establish effective police leadership training programs. Such leadership training programs might eventually improve the quality of police services, as well.

The researcher also used the questionnaire instructions to increase the internal validity of the study. The researcher asked the participants to answer honestly concerning the extent to which their leaders truly utilize the relevant strategic leader influence actions. Furthermore, the researcher asked the participants to base their responses on their leaders' actual work practices. By this manipulation, the researcher aimed to minimize potential inflation in the answers.

A total of 33 days were allowed for participants to complete the questionnaire, which took 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Participants were asked to rate the strategic leader influence actions of their leaders and the leaders' effectiveness. In order to increase the response rate, reminder emails were sent to all officers. On the last day of the

data collection, December 15, 2014, the results were retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com and were converted into an MS Excel file. The results included a total of 244 responses, representing a response rate of almost 20%. The researcher entered the data into Version 22 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for data analysis. The data was kept in a securely locked file. The data will be stored for the required seven-year period and will then be destroyed.

Data Analysis

After the collection of the responses, the data was analyzed through (a) descriptive statistics and (b) inferential statistics.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics were used to understand what the data demonstrate alone. They were used to make simple summaries regarding the sample and the measurements.

The present study used descriptive statistics to depict (a) the demographics of the sample, (b) the strategic leader influence actions and (c) the outcome factor scales of the SLQ (v4).

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make generalizations for a population by examining a sample drawn from the population. With the help of data, inferential statistics are used to draw conclusions about population characteristics, in terms of corresponding attributes of the sample (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

As an inferential statistical procedure, this study used bivariate correlation, and simple and multiple regressions. Bivariate correlation is used to examine the relationship

between two variables. According to Cronk (2010), the multiple regression analysis helps researchers predict one variable from different variables (p. 49). Therefore, the multiple regressions were used to identify the predictive relationship among leader effectiveness, personal characteristics, the type of unit and the use of strategic leader influence actions. An alpha level of .05 was set for the statistical operations. Pearson's correlation coefficient, or Pearson's (r), determined the strength of the relationships. The null hypotheses along with the research questions were tested through these statistical operations. The study used the SPSS 22 for Windows software version to statistically examine the data.

Summary

This chapter presented an in-depth explanation of the organization of the research and its steps. A quantitative nonexperimental research design guided this study to examine the use of strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness as perceived by followers. The study measured the usage of strategic leader action sets and leader effectiveness through follower-reported perceptions as surveyed using the SLQ (v4). The chapter concluded with the preferred data collection and analysis methods.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to examine the strategic leader influence actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones. This chapter will present and analyze the data, which was collected from the study population. The first section of this chapter will present validity indicators of SLQ (v4), descriptive statistics including demographic characteristics of the participants' leaders, strategic leader influence actions, and effectiveness factor scales of the SLQ (v4). The second section will present inferential statistics and analyze the effects of strategic leader influence actions on leader effectiveness.

Validity Indicators of SLQ (v4)

The study was completed in the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD) in the state of Kentucky. The organization is among the largest police departments in the country with a population of 1,236 officers. The data was collected in a 33-day period from November 13, 2014, to December 15, 2014, through an online version of the SLQ (v4). There were a total of 244 responses, representing a response rate of almost 20%.

According to the coding document, the SLQ (v4) includes three validity indicators to strengthen the accuracy of the study. The first validity indicator is the omission rate (number of omitted responses). If a case has more than five missing items, then the case is removed from the analysis. From the collected data, 34 cases were removed from the analysis since they did not meet this validity criterion.

The second validity indicator is the inconsistency index (degree of response inconsistency). The inconsistency index is composed of two identical items, which are

used to create a lie scale. When the responses have a two or more point difference (for example, 5 and 3) the coding document requires that such cases be removed from the analysis. From the collected data, eight cases were removed from the analysis since they did not meet the second validity criterion.

The third validity indicator is impression adjustment, which is the tendency toward exaggerated positive responding (positive impression) or the tendency toward exaggerated negative responding (negative impression). The coding document suggests that mean scores of all strategic leader influence actions of 5 or below 1.5 should be set aside for further investigation before proceeding with the analysis of the data. This validity indicator is an important feature for self-report measures because it reduces the distorting effects of social response bias (such as “faking good” and “faking bad”). It also increases the accuracy of the obtained results. Seven cases were removed from the analysis since they did not meet the third validity criterion.

In total, the researcher removed 49 total cases that did not meet the three validity indicators of the SLQ (v4). This left a sample size of 195.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic Characteristics of the Participants’ Leaders

Participating officers were asked to provide their leaders’ simple demographic information including age, rank, type of unit and years of service (see Appendix E).

Rank. The rank of leaders ranged from non-sworn to major and other (commanding staff). There were five (2.6%) non-sworn; 68 (34.2%) sergeants; 49 (25.1%) lieutenants; 32 (16.4%) majors; 34 (17.4%) other; seven cases did not provide the rank of their leaders.

Years of Experience. The number of years in which the respondents' leaders spent in law enforcement ranged from 1 to 21+. There were three (1.5%) with 1 to 5 years of experience; 15 (7.7%) with 6 to 10 years of experience; 47 (24.1%) with 11 to 15 years of experience; 51 (26.2%) with 16 to 20 years of experience; 69 (34.5%) who had been in law enforcement for over 21 years; 10 cases did not provide their leaders' years of experience in law enforcement.

The Type of Unit. The type of unit classifications included patrol services, administrative services, support services and other services. There were 26 (13.3%) employed in administrative services; 105 (53.8%) in patrol services; 28 (14.4%) in support services; 31 (15.9%) in other services; 5 cases did not provide the type of unit their leaders work in.

Age. Out of 195 eligible responses, leaders' ages ranged from 25 to 65 and over. There were 15 (7.7%) in the 25 to 34 age group; 72 (36.9%) in the 35 to 44 age group; 78 (40%) in the 45 to 54 age group; 19 (9.7%) in the 55 to 64 age group; one (0.5%) in the 65-and-older age group; 10 cases did not provide the ages of their leaders.

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the respondents' leaders by frequency and percentage.

Table 1

Demographic and Organizational Characteristics of Respondents' Leaders.

Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Rank	Non-Sworn	5	2.6
	Sergeant	68	34.2
	Lieutenant	49	25.1
	Major	32	16.4
	Other	34	17.4
Years of Experience	1–5 Years	3	1.5
	6–10 Years	15	7.7
	11–15 Years	47	24.1
	16–20 Years	51	26.2
	21+ Years	69	34.5
Type of Unit	Patrol Services	105	53.8
	Administrative Services	26	13.3
	Support Services	28	14.4
	Other	31	15.9
Age	25–34	15	7.7
	35–44	72	36.9
	45–54	78	40.0
	55–64	19	9.7
	65–older	1	.5

Note: Totals do not equal 100% or N = 195 due to non-responses.

Referring to Table 1, the respondents' leaders are predominantly between the ages of 45 and 54 (40%) and have worked in law enforcement over 21 years (35.4%). More than half of the leaders (53.8%) were reported as working in patrol services.

Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Outcome Factor Scale of SLQ (v4)

Two hundred forty-four officers in the LMPD were requested to rate their leaders by answering 40 questions on the SLQ (v4). The questions pertained to (a) how often their leaders demonstrate each of the strategic leader influence actions and (b) to what extent they perceived effectiveness in their leaders. For strategic leader influence actions, a 5-point Likert scale was used, ranging from Almost Never = 1, Once in a While = 2, Sometimes = 3, Often = 4, and Almost Always = 5 (see Appendix F). After the 40 Likert-scale questions on the instrument, four questions requested demographic information and three examined the emotional connection of the participant to the work environment.

There were five items for the outcome factor, or effectiveness, scale. The items used a 9-point scale ranging from 1 (the least effective leader I have known) to 9 (the most effective leader I have ever known). In order to create a new factor for effectiveness, a factor analysis was conducted by using the extraction method of principal component analysis. The scores of each item were as follows: effectiveness of managing (.917), effectiveness of transforming (.927), effectiveness of bonding (.905), effectiveness of bridging (.889), and effectiveness of bartering (.890). The results of the factor analysis indicated that all five items could be used as one factor. Therefore, the result of the factor analysis was saved as a new variable for one total outcome factor of leader effectiveness.

The total responses were calculated for six separate factor scales, including five strategic leader influence actions and one leader effectiveness. The researcher determined the five scale by taking the average scores for the items that represented each strategic leader action. This was done in line with the instructions in the coding document of the survey (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). When any factor had missing responses, the factor score was calculated by averaging the other answered questions. If a respondent missed more than five questions of all factor scales, then the case was removed from the analysis.

The researcher calculated the results and dealt with nonresponses and inconsistent responses by validity indicators of the SLQ (v4), according to the coding document of the questionnaire that was provided by the copyright holder of the survey (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008).

Strategic Leader Influence Action Factor Scales

In order to measure the internal consistency of this study, reliability analysis was conducted. The analysis was used to determine how accurately the different survey items measured the same factor scale, whether strategic leader influence actions or leader effectiveness. Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) was used to measure the reliability of the six-factor scales. If a Cronbach's alpha score is equal to or more than .70, this means each item in the same factor scale is closely related to the other (Patten, 2006; Nunnally, 1978). That is, a greater Cronbach's alpha score demonstrates a higher reliability of the factor scale. Moreover, the mean and standard deviation scores of all factor scales were analyzed. The scores of standard deviation also showed that there is a set of values that were tightly clustered around the mean.

The SLQ (v4) provided five strategic leader influence action factor scales, which were used as predictor variables: (a) managing, (b) transforming, (c) bartering, (d) bridging, (e) bonding. Five survey items were used to measure each factor scale. The results of the reliability, mean, and standard deviation analyses of the five strategic leader influence action factor scales are demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 2.

Reliability, Mean and Standard Deviation Scores of Strategic Leader Influence Actions Factor Scales

Strategic leader influence actions	A	M	SD
Managing	.83	3.87	.81
Transforming	.94	3.56	1.09
Bartering	.90	3.50	.99
Bridging	.88	3.62	.90
Bonding	.90	3.94	.94

Managing Actions

Leaders take these actions in order to keep organizational stability and to reach organizational goals effectively (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). “My leader decides how things are to be done” is a sample item for managing actions (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for the managing actions factor scale was .83 and its mean score was 3.87 with a standard deviation of .81 (Table 3). The mean score demonstrates that subordinate officers “sometimes” observed their leaders as demonstrating managing actions.

Transforming Actions

Leaders take these actions in order to influence organizational direction and to improve organizational culture, so that organizational learning and change take place routinely (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). “My leader promotes our commitment to the organization’s long-term goals” is a sample item for transforming actions (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for the transforming actions factor scale was .94, and its mean score was 3.56 with a standard deviation of 1.09 (Table 2). The mean score demonstrates that subordinate officers “sometimes” observed their leaders as demonstrating transforming actions.

Bartering Actions

Leaders take these actions in order to exchange resources, improve the quality of relationships and establish alliances in the organization (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). “My leader is willing to negotiate with us to get things done” is a sample item for the bartering actions (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for bartering actions factor scale was .90 and its mean score was 3.50 with a standard deviation of .99 (Table 2). The mean score demonstrates that subordinate officers “sometimes” observed their leaders as demonstrating bartering actions.

Bridging Actions

Leaders take these actions in order to establish alliances with powerful and influential characters from in and out of the organization for obtaining support, insight and resources (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). “My leader associates with individuals who have influence” is a sample item for bridging actions (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for the bridging actions factor scale was .88 and its mean score was

3.62 with a standard deviation of .90 (Table 2). The mean score demonstrates that subordinate officers “sometimes” observed their leaders as demonstrating bridging actions.

Bonding Actions

Leaders take these actions in order to ensure that trust becomes an important attribute of the system, rather than something built between leaders and subordinates. By bonding actions, subordinates demonstrate dedication to the organizational goals and ethics (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013). “My leader is honest with us” is a sample item for bonding actions (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for the bonding actions factor scale was .90 and its mean score was 3.94 with a standard deviation of .94 (Table 2). The mean score demonstrates that subordinate officers “sometimes” observed their leaders as demonstrating bonding actions.

In conclusion, Table 2 shows that Cronbach’s alpha (α) reliability scores for all strategic leader influence actions in the SLQ (v4) were well above the accepted value of .70. This indicated that, based on the respondents’ ratings, the survey items for each factor scale measured the same strategic leader influence actions with reliability and consistency.

The mean scores for the five strategic leader influence actions factor scales range from 3.50 to 3.94, thus demonstrating that subordinate officers graded their leaders as “sometimes,” using all strategic leader influence actions described in the SLQ (v4). From all strategic leader influence actions, bonding ($M = 3.94$) and managing ($M = 3.87$) were the most frequently used actions, whereas transforming ($M = 3.56$) and bartering ($M = 3.50$) were the least frequently used actions.

Outcome Factor Scale

In addition to the five strategic leader action factor scales, the SLQ (v4) also provided “leader effectiveness” as an outcome factor scale, also known as the criterion variable. The outcome factor scale is measured by five items. Table 3 indicates the results obtained by the survey items: reliability, mean and standard deviation score.

Table 3.

Reliability, Mean and Standard Deviation Score of Outcome Factor Scale

Effectiveness Outcome	A	M	SD
Leader Effectiveness	.94	6.06	1.85

Leader Effectiveness

Leader effectiveness indicates the followers’ perceptions of their leader’s level of competence in each of the strategic leader influence actions. A sample item is “Managing actions are taken to maintain consistency in order that current organizational goals are accomplished efficiently and effectively” (Pisapia & Reyes-Guerra, 2008). The reliability score for leader effectiveness was .94 and the mean score was 6.06 with a standard deviation of 1.85 (Table 3). The mean score demonstrated that subordinate officers perceived their supervisors effective as “A little above average, in the top 40%.”

In conclusion, Table 3 indicates that Cronbach’s alpha (α) reliability score for leader effectiveness in the SLQ (v4) was well above the accepted value of .70. That is to say, based on the respondents’ ratings, the five items measured the leader effectiveness reliably and consistently. The mean score of leader effectiveness was 6.06. Subordinate officers perceived their leaders’ effectiveness as a little above average, in the top 40%.

Inferential Statistics

This study was guided by four research questions during the data collection and analyses; in order to address these questions, four hypotheses were tested. The collected data were analyzed and presented through correlation and regression analyses. Bivariate correlations' effect sizes were also reported. According to Cohen (1992), an effect size of .20 or less is small, an effect size between .20 and .80 is medium, and an effect size above .80 is large. If the relationship was found significant, multiple regression analyses were conducted to find a predictive relationship. An alpha level of .05 was set for all statistical analyses.

Sample size is important in order to use a multiple regression analysis accurately. A large sample size is essential for generalizing the study findings to the population. In the literature, researchers have been providing different guidelines for proper sample sizes in multiple regression analyses. According to Stevens (1996), each predictor needs 15 subjects for a reliable equation in social sciences. Therefore, nine predictors requires a sample size of 135 cases. This research used nine predictors—managing, transforming, bartering, bridging, bonding actions, as well as age, years of experience, rank and type of unit. Therefore, the response of 195 is a sufficient sample size for a proper multiple regression analysis.

Hypothesis Testing

The first hypothesis (H_{01}) stated that there is no relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions and followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

To address this hypothesis, the bivariate correlations between predictor variables were examined, then bivariate correlations between predictor variables and the criterion variable were investigated. After these analyses, three multiple regressions were conducted to find a predictive relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging, bonding actions and leader effectiveness.

Before conducting multiple regressions, the present study investigated the correlations among predictor variables. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (r) were used to examine the correlations among the strategic leader influence actions. The correlation matrix in Table 4 displays the bivariate correlations among strategic leader influence action factor scales.

Table 4.

Bivariate Correlations between Strategic Leader Influence Action Factor Scales

	Bonding Actions	Bridging Actions	Bartering Actions	Transforming Actions	Managing Actions
Managing Actions	.701**	.554**	.605**	.726**	1
Transforming Actions	.856**	.721**	.840**	1	
Bartering Actions	.854**	.649**	1		
Bridging Actions	.560**	1			
Bonding Actions	1				

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

The researcher measured the correlations between strategic leader influence action factor scales (managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding). Transforming and bonding actions were found to be highly correlated with the three other leader actions

($r = .726$ to $.856$). However, the relationships were not high enough to cause a multicollinearity ($r < .86$). According to Pallant (2007), multicollinearity prevails if the independent variables are very highly correlated ($r = .90$ and above). She also noted that tolerance and variation inflation factor (VIF) scores should be more than .10 and less than 10 respectively. Similarly, Belsley (1991) and Hair, et al., (1995) noted that critical values for tolerance and VIF are more than .10 and less than 10 respectively (as cited in Dormann, et al., 2013). Since the relationship between the strategic leader influence actions (predictor variables) were $r < .90$, multicollinearity may not affect the results in this case. Furthermore, while running multiple regression analyses, collinearity diagnostics were conducted and the tolerance scores were more than .17 and variation inflation factor (VIF) scores were not higher than 6.2. These two scores (tolerance and VIF) indicated that the predictor variables can be used together. In order to examine the possible effects of high correlation, additional multiple regression analyses were conducted by omitting transforming and bonding actions to determine whether or not high correlation affected the results of the study.

Based on the results of the SLQ (v4), bivariate correlations were conducted between strategic leader influence actions factor scales and the leader effectiveness factor scale. Bivariate correlations examine the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable by ignoring the effect of other predictor variables in a statistical analysis (Pallant, 2007). The correlations were tested by Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (r). A high coefficient (r) demonstrates a strong correlation between a predictor variable and the criterion variable.

Table 5.

Bivariate Correlations between Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Leader Effectiveness Scales

Strategic leader Influence Actions	Leader Effectiveness
Managing Actions	.675**
Transforming Actions	.845**
Bartering Actions	.827**
Bridging Actions	.711**
Bonding Actions	.806**

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

The correlations between strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness factor scales were measured. There were strong, positive correlations between them. Hierarchically, transforming actions had the strongest correlation with leader effectiveness ($r = .845$) followed by bartering actions ($r = .827$), bonding actions ($r = .806$) and bridging actions ($r = .711$) respectively. There was a moderate positive correlation between managing actions ($r = .675$) and leader effectiveness.

As mentioned above, due to the high correlations between transforming, bonding and the three other strategic leader influence actions, three different multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine any possible effects of this high correlation on the statistical analysis. In the first multiple regression, all five strategic leader influence actions factor scales were used. In the second multiple regression, the transforming action scale was omitted while the four other action scales were included. In the last multiple regression, the bonding action scale was omitted while the four other action scales were

included in the regression analysis. Table 6 displays the results of the first multiple regression analysis.

Table 6.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between All Five Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	-.970	.365		-2.661	.008
Managing	.210	.117	.092	1.799	.074
Transforming	.404	.143	.238	2.831	.005*
Bartering	.540	.137	.288	3.935	.000**
Bridging	.414	.104	.201	3.968	.000**
Bonding	.352	.157	.179	2.248	.026*
R = .888 R ² = .788 F _(5,189) = 140.897 p < .001					
*p < .05 Criterion: leader effectiveness ** p < .01					

Referring to Table 6, the first multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between all five strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness. The results of this analysis produced an R square value of .788 and the overall relationship was significant ($F_{(5,189)} = 140.897$, $p < .001$). The results also demonstrated that the five strategic leader influence actions contributed to 78.8% of the variance in leader effectiveness. The beta values for bartering, bridging, transforming, bonding and managing actions were .540, .414, .404, .352 and .210, respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the strongest predictor of

leader effectiveness, followed by the use of transforming, bridging, bonding and managing actions.

From Table 6, a regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4 + B_5 * X_5$) can also be acquired. A regression equation is a statistical method that is used to measure the predicted value of predictor variables on a criterion variable (Cronk, 2010). Y is the criterion variable, and X s are predictor variables. B s are listed under column B. Therefore, the regression equation for the first multiple regression would be as follows:
 Effectiveness = $-.970 + .210 * \text{Managing} + .404 * \text{Transforming} + .540 * \text{Bartering} + .414 * \text{Bridging} + .352 * \text{Bonding}$.

While bartering and bridging actions were significant at the .01 level ($p < .01$) and transforming and bonding actions were significant at the .05 level ($p < .05$), managing actions were not significant. However, managing actions were found to be positively correlated with leader effectiveness (Table 6).

Table 7 displays the results of the second multiple regression analysis.

Table 7.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Four Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	-.1.430	.333		-4.297	.000
Managing	.299	.114	.130	2.614	.010**
Bartering	.647	.134	.345	4.808	.000**
Bridging	.538	.145	.261	5.585	.000**
Bonding	.537	.145	.273	3.701	.000**
R = .883 R ² = .779					
F _(4,190) = 167.918 p < .001					
**p < .01 Criterion: leader effectiveness					

Referring to Table 7, the second multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the four strategic leader influence actions (transforming actions excluded) and leader effectiveness. Results of the analysis produced an R square value of .779 and the overall relationship was significant ($F_{(4,190)} = 167.918$, $p < .001$). The results also demonstrated that the four strategic leader influence actions contributed to 77.9% of the variance in leader effectiveness. The Beta values for the bartering, bridging, bonding and managing actions were .647, .538, .537 and .299 respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, followed by the use of bridging, bonding and managing actions.

From Table 7, a regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4$) can also be acquired. Y is the criterion variable, and Xs are predictor variables. Bs are listed under column B. Therefore, the regression equation for the second multiple

regression would be: Effectiveness = -1.430 + .299*Managing + .647*Bartering + .538*Bridging + .537*Bonding.

Table 8 shows the results of the third multiple regression analysis.

Table 8.

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Four Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	-.689	.346		-1.990	.048
Managing	.286	.113	.125	2.529	.012**
Transforming	.537	.131	.316	4.100	.000**
Bartering	.704	.118	.376	5.983	.000**
Bridging	.349	.101	.170	3.448	.001**
R = .885	R ² = .783				
F _(4,190) = 171.207	p < .001				
** p < .01	Criterion: leader effectiveness				

Referring to Table 8, the third multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the four strategic leader influence actions (bonding actions excluded) and leader effectiveness. Results of this analysis produced an R square value of .783 and the overall relationship was significant ($F_{(4,190)} = 171.207$, $p < .001$). The results also demonstrated that these four strategic leader influence actions contributed to 78.3% of the variance in leader effectiveness. The Beta values for the bartering, transforming, bridging, and managing actions were .704, .537, .349 and .286 respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the

strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, followed by the use of transforming, bridging and managing actions.

From Table 8, a regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4$) for this model can be acquired. Y is the criterion variable, and X s are predictor variables. B s are listed under column B. Therefore, the regression equation for the third multiple regression would be: Effectiveness = $-.689 + .286 * \text{Managing} + .537 * \text{Transforming} + .704 * \text{Bartering} + .349 * \text{Bridging}$.

In order to examine the possible effects of high correlations between transforming actions, bonding actions and other strategic leader influence actions, three different multiple regression analyses were conducted. All three regression analyses indicated that the overall relationship was statistically significant ($p < .001$). In other words, the high correlations did not affect the overall relationship between all strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness. All results were consistent.

The results of three multiple regression demonstrated that there was a statistically significant relationship between strategic leader influence actions and followers' perception of leader effectiveness. Thus, H_{01} , which claims that there is no relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions and followers' perception of leader effectiveness, is rejected.

The second hypothesis (H_{02}) stated that there is no relationship between the type of unit characteristic (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

To address this hypothesis, data manipulation was necessary. Since the type of unit was a categorical variable, it could not be directly used in a regression analysis.

Therefore, it was converted to indicator (dummy) variables to determine the relationship with strategic leader influence actions. After converting the categorical variables into indicator variables, simple regression analyses were conducted to examine the predictive relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding actions and the type of unit. During the regressions, “administrative services” was used as a reference variable to conduct comparisons.

The first simple regression analysis was performed to investigate the relationship between the type of unit and the use of managing actions. The results from this regression analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9.

Results of Simple Regression Analysis Between the Type of Unit and the Use of Managing Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	3.562	.159		22.401	.000
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.433	.178	.263	2.437	.016*
Support	.140	.221	.061	.635	.526
Other	.335	.216	.151	1.555	.122
Administrative (Reference)					
R = .196	R ² = .039				
F _(3,186) = 2.487	p = .062				
*p < .05	Criterion: Managing Actions				

The results produced an R² value of .039, which suggests that the types of unit as a whole represent only about 3.9% of the variance in the use of managing actions.

Therefore the model was not considered significant (F_(3,186) = 2.487, p > .05).

The second simple regression analysis was conducted between type of unit and the use of transforming actions. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 10.

Table 10.

Results of Simple Regression Analysis between the Type of Unit and the Use of Transforming Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	3.138	.213		14.731	.000
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.448	.238	.204	1.883	.061
Support	.540	.296	.175	1.826	.070
Other	.700	.289	.237	2.424	.016*
Administrative					
(Reference)					
R = .0181	R ² = .033				
F _(3,186) = 2.096	p = .102				
*p < .05	Criterion: Transforming Actions				

The results produced an R² value of .033, which suggests that the types of unit represent only about 3.3% of the variance in the use of transforming actions. Therefore, the model was not considered significant (F_(3,186) = 2.096, p > .05).

The third simple regression analysis was conducted between type of unit and the use of bartering actions. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 11.

Table 11.

Results of Simple Linear Regression Analysis between the Type of Unit and the Use of Bartering Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	3.027	.213		14.731	.000
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.550	.214	.277	2.566	.011*
Support	.607	.267	.218	2.277	.024*
Other	.597	.260	.223	2.294	.023*
Administrative (Reference)					
R= 0.199	R ² = .040				
F _(3,186) = 2.561	p = .056				
*p < .05	Criterion: Bartering Actions				

The results produced an R² value of .40, which suggests that types of unit represents only about 4% of the variance in the use of bartering actions. Therefore the model was not considered significant (F_(3,186) = 2.561, p > .05).

The fourth regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the type of unit and the use of bridging actions. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 12.

Table 12.

Results of Simple Regression Analysis between the Type of Unit and the Use of Bridging Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	3.685	.178		20.734	.000
Type of Unit					
Patrol	-.157	.198	-.086	-.789	.431
Support	.83	.247	.033	.337	.736
Other	.144	.241	.059	.599	.550
Administrative (Reference)					
R = .137	R ² = .019				
F _(3,186) = 1.189	p = .315				
Criterion: Bridging Actions					

The results indicate an R² value of .019, which suggests that types of unit represent only about 1.9% of the variance in the use of bridging actions. Therefore the model was not considered significant ($F_{(3,186)} = 1.189$, $p > .05$).

The fifth analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between type of unit and the use of bonding actions. The results are as presented in the Table 13.

Table 13

The Results of Simple Regression Analysis between the Type of Unit and the Use of Bonding Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	3.531	.184		19.195	.000
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.494	.205	.261	2.407	.017*
Support	.469	.255	.176	1.837	.068
Other	.527	.249	.206	2.114	.036*
Administrative					
(Reference)					
R = .182	R ² = .033				
F _(3,186) = 2.114	p = .100				
*p < .05	Criterion: Bonding Actions				

The results produced an R² value of .033, which suggests that the types of unit represent only about 3.3% of the variance in the use of bonding actions. Therefore, the model was not considered significant ($F_{(3,186)} = 2.114$, $p > .05$).

The results of the five multiple regression analyses demonstrated that in comparison to administrative services, there were no predictive relationships between the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

Consequently, the null hypothesis H₀₂, which states that there is no relationship between the type of unit characteristic (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions, is retained.

The third hypothesis (H₀₃) stated that there is no relationship between personal characteristics and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

To test this hypothesis, five bivariate correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding actions and the personal characteristics of leaders (rank, age and years of service). Any significant correlation was followed up by multiple regression analysis in order to examine any potential predictive relationship between these variables.

The first bivariate correlation analysis focused on the relationship between the personal characteristics and the use of managing actions. Results from this analysis are presented in the Table 14.

Table 14.

Bivariate Analysis: Personal Characteristics and the Use of Managing Actions

	Managing Actions	Rank	Years of experience	Age
Managing Actions	1			
Rank	-.218**	1		
Years of experience	-.126	.309**	1	
Age	-.162*	.413**	.684**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

The results above indicate that all personal characteristics were not significantly correlated with the use of managing actions. However, rank and age were significantly correlated with the use of managing actions. (Rank, $r = -.218$, $p < .01$, small effect size = .045; Age, $r = -.162$, $p < .05$, small effect size = .026). There were significant positive

correlations among rank, age and years of service, as would be expected; as age increases, leaders tend to have more years of service and get promotion in ranks. Since these correlations among rank, age and years of service were beyond the scope of this study, they were not examined further.

Table 15 only indicates the individual correlations of the used variables. In order to examine the total effect of the personal characteristics on the use of managing actions, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The result of the analysis can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between the Personal Characteristics and the Use of Managing Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	4.631	.281		16.476	.000
Rank	-.128	.056	-.181	-2.278	.024*
Years of Experience	-.039	.079	-.049	-.490	.625
Age	-.055	.105	-.054	-.519	.604
R = .235	R ² = .055				
F _(3,180) = 3.507	p = .017				
*p < .05	Criterion: Managing Actions				

The results indicate an R² value of .055, which suggests that personal characteristics represent about 5.5% of the variance in the use of managing actions. The model was significant (F_(3,180) = 3.507, p < .05).

The second bivariate correlation analysis was conducted between personal characteristics and the use of transforming actions. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16.

Bivariate Analysis: Personal Characteristics and the Use of Transforming Actions

	Transforming Actions	Rank	Years of experience	Age
Transforming Actions	1			
Rank	-.227**	1		
Years of experience	.020	.309**	1	
Age	-.102	.413**	.684**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

The results above indicate that all personal characteristics were not significantly correlated with the use of transforming actions. However, rank was significantly correlated with the use of transforming actions ($r = -.227$, $p < .01$, small effect size = .051).

This analysis only indicated the individual correlations of the used variables. In order to examine the total effect of the personal characteristics on the use of transforming actions, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 17.

Table 17.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Personal Characteristics and the Use of Transforming Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	B	t	P
(Constant)	4.162	.375		11.104	.000
Rank	-.215	.075	-.228	-2.885	.004*
Years of Experience	.172	.106	.161	1.630	.105
Age	.162	.140	-.119	-1.156	.249
R = .256	R ² = .066				
F _(3,180) = 4.220	p = .007				
*p < .05	Criterion: Transforming Actions				

The results produced an R² value of .066, which suggests personal characteristics represent only about 6.6% of the variance in the use of transforming actions. The model was significant (F_(3,180) = 4.220, p < .05).

The third bivariate correlation analysis was conducted between personal characteristics and the use of bartering actions. The results are as presented in Table 18.

Table 18.

Bivariate Analysis: Personal Characteristics and the Use of Bartering Actions

	Bartering Actions	Rank	Years of experience	Age
Bartering Actions	1			
Rank	-.256**	1		
Years of experience	.063	.309**	1	
Age	-.094	.413**	.684**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

The results above indicate that all personal characteristics were not significantly correlated with the use of bartering actions. However, rank was significantly correlated with the use of bartering actions ($r = -.256$ $p < .01$, small effect size = .065). This analysis only indicates the individual correlations of the used variables. In order to examine the total effect of the personal characteristics on the use of bartering actions, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The results of the analysis can be seen in Table 19.

Table 19.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Personal Characteristics and the Use of Bartering Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	P
(Constant)	4.008	.329		12.178	.000
Rank	-.241	.066	-.286	-3.682	.000**
Years of Experience	.223	.093	.233	2.401	.017*
Age	-.169	.123	-.139	-1.370	.172
R = .320	R ² = .102				
F _(3,180) = 6.841	p < .01				
*p < .05	Criterion: Bartering Actions				
**p < .01					

The results indicate an R² value of .102, which suggests that personal characteristics represent only about 10.2 % of the variance in the use of bartering actions. The model was significant (F_(3,180) = 6.841, p < .01).

The fourth bivariate correlation analysis was conducted between personal characteristics and the use of bridging actions. The results are presented in the Table 20.

Table 20.

Bivariate Analysis: Personal Characteristics and the Use of Bridging Actions

	Bridging Actions	Rank	Years of experience	Age
Bridging Actions	1			
Rank	-.065	1		
Years of experience	.057	.309**	1	
Age	-.082	.413**	.684**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

The results shown above indicated that none of the personal characteristics was significantly correlated with the use of bridging actions.

The fifth bivariate correlation analysis was conducted between personal characteristics and the use of bonding actions. The results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21.

Bivariate Analysis: Personal Characteristics and the Use of Bonding Actions

	Bonding Actions	Rank	Years of experience	Age
Bonding Actions	1			
Rank	-.283**	1		
Years of experience	.045	.309**	1	
Age	-.108	.413**	.684**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

The results above indicate that all personal characteristics were not significantly correlated with the use of bonding actions. However, rank was significantly correlated with the use of bonding actions ($r = -.283$, $p < .01$, small effect size = .080). This analysis only indicates the individual correlations of the used variables. In order to examine the

total effect of the personal characteristics on the use of bonding actions, a multiple regression analysis was conducted. The results of this analysis can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22.

Results of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis between the Personal Characteristics and the Use of Bonding Actions

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	T	P
(Constant)	4.516	.314		14.367	.000
Rank	-.255	.063	-.314	-4.067	.000
Years of Experience	.192	.089	.208	2.161	.032*
Age	-.144	.118	-.123	1.221	.224
R = .336	R ² = .113				
F _(3,180) = 7.653	p < .001				
*p < .05	Criterion: Bonding Actions				

The results shown in Table 22 indicate an R² value of .113, which suggests that personal characteristics represent only about 11.3% of the variance in the use of bonding actions. The model was significant (F_(3,180) = 7.653, p < .001).

The cumulative results of the five bivariate correlations and subsequent four multiple regression analyses demonstrated that there were no significant influences by personal characteristics as a whole on the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding actions.

However, age was significantly correlated with the use of managing actions, while rank was significantly correlated with the use of managing, transforming, bartering, and bonding actions. Therefore, the null hypothesis H₀₃, which claims that there is no relationship between personal characteristics and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions, is rejected.

The fourth hypothesis (H₀₄) stated that there are no predictive relationships among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness.

To address this hypothesis, the bivariate correlations between predictor variables were examined, followed by bivariate correlations between predictor variables and the criterion variable. After these operations, three multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the predictive relationship among the use of strategic leader influence actions, leaders' personal characteristics, type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perception of leader effectiveness.

Before conducting the multiple regression, bivariate correlations were investigated among predictor variables. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (r) were used to examine the relationship between strategic leader influence actions and personal characteristics; type of unit was excluded from this correlational analysis, as it was a categorical variable. The correlation matrix in Table 23 demonstrates the bivariate correlations among strategic leader influence actions and personal characteristics.

Table 23.

Bivariate Correlations between Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Personal Characteristics

	Managing Actions	Transforming Actions	Bartering Actions	Bridging Actions	Bonding Actions	Rank	Years of Experience	Age
Managing Actions	1							
Transforming Actions	.726**	1						
Bartering Actions	.605**	.840**	1					
Bridging Actions	.554**	.721**	.649**	1				
Bonding Actions	.701**	.856**	.854**	.560**	1			
Rank	-.218**	-.227**	-.256**	-.065	-.283**	1		
Years of Experience	-.126	.020	.063	.057	.045	.309**	1	
Age	-.162*	-.102	-.094	-.082	-.108	.413**	.684**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

Bivariate correlations between strategic leader influence actions and personal characteristics were examined. Personal characteristics were not found highly correlated with strategic leader influence actions, nor were they not highly correlated among themselves. However, similar to the results found in hypothesis testing one, transforming and bonding actions were found highly correlated with other leader actions ($r = .726$ to $.856$). Due to these high correlations, the multiple regression analyses were conducted in three different formats to examine the effect of high correlation on the result of the regression analysis.

Based on the results of the survey, bivariate correlations were conducted between strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics and leader effectiveness. The type of unit variable was excluded from this correlational analysis, as it was a categorical variable. Bivariate correlations were tested using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (r). A high coefficient (r) demonstrates a strong correlation between a predictor variable and the criterion variable.

Table 24.

Bivariate Correlations between Strategic Leader Influence Actions, Personal Characteristics and Leader Effectiveness

Strategic Leader Influence Actions and Personal Characteristics	Leader Effectiveness
Managing Actions	.675**
Transforming Actions	.845**
Bartering Actions	.827**
Bridging Actions	.711**
Bonding Actions	.806**
Rank	-.231**
Year of Experience	.044
Age	-.147*

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed)

Correlations between strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics and leader effectiveness variables were assessed. Strong, positive correlations were found between a number of them; hierarchically, transforming actions had the strongest correlation with leader effectiveness ($r = .845$), followed by bartering actions ($r = .827$), bonding actions ($r = .806$) and bridging actions ($r = .711$). Additionally, there was a

moderate positive correlation between managing actions ($r = .675$) and leader effectiveness. Moreover, there was a low negative correlation between personal characteristics (rank and years of service) and leader effectiveness.

Due to the high correlations between transforming actions, bonding actions and three other strategic leader influence actions, three different multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine any possible effects of high correlation in the statistical analysis. In the first multiple regression, all five strategic actions, personal characteristics and the type of unit variables were used. In the second multiple regression, the transforming actions scale was omitted and the other four strategic actions (i.e., managing, bartering, bridging and bonding), personal characteristics and the type of unit were included. In the last multiple regression, the bonding action scale was omitted and the other four strategic actions (i.e., managing, transforming, bartering and bridging), personal characteristics and the type of unit were included in the regression analysis. Table 25 displays the results of the first multiple regression analysis.

Table 25.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Five Strategic Leader Influence Actions, Personal Characteristics, Type of Unit and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	-.747	.557		-1.342	.181
Managing	.198	.127	.087	1.555	.122
Transforming	.380	.150	.224	2.538	.012*
Bartering	.533	.143	.281	3.726	.000**
Bridging	.432	.113	.210	3.820	.000**
Bonding	.369	.168	.187	2.201	.029*
Rank	.010	.065	.006	.152	.879
Years of Experience	.118	.091	.065	1.296	.197
Age	-.203	.116	-.088	-1.749	.082
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.100	.207	.027	.485	.628
Support	.075	.254	.014	.294	.769
Other	-.018	.237	-.004	-.076	.940
Administrative (Reference)					
R = .893	R ² = .797				
F _(11, 172) = 61.477	p < .001				
*p < .05	Criterion: Leader effectiveness				
**p < .01					

Referring to Table 25, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship among the five strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit and leader effectiveness. Results of this analysis displays an R² value of .797 and an overall significant relationship ($F_{(11,172)} = 61.477$, $p < .001$). These results also demonstrate that the five strategic actions, in combination with personal characteristics

and the type of unit, contributed to 79.7% of the variance in the followers' perception of leader effectiveness. The beta values for the bartering, bridging, transforming, bonding and managing actions were .533, .432, .380, .369 and .198, respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, followed by the use of bridging, transforming, bonding and managing actions. On the other hand, personal characteristics and type of unit variables did not have a significant p value.

From Table 25, a regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4 + B_5 * X_5 + B_6 * X_6 + B_7 * X_7 + B_{5=8} * X_{5=8} + B_{5=9} * X_9 + B_{10} * X_{10} + B_{11} * X_{11}$) for this model can be acquired. Y is the criterion variable, X s are predictor variables, and B s are listed under column B. Therefore, the regression equation for this analysis would be as follows:

$$\text{Effectiveness} = -.747 + .198 * \text{Managing} + .380 * \text{Transforming} + .533 * \text{Bartering} + .432 * \text{Bridging} + .369 * \text{Bonding} + .010 * \text{Rank} + .118 * \text{Years of Service} - .203 * \text{Age} + .100 * \text{Patrol Services} + .075 * \text{Support Services} - .018 * \text{Other Services}.$$

While bartering and bridging actions were significant at the .01 level ($p < .01$) and transforming and bonding actions were significant at the .05 level ($p < .05$), managing actions were not significant at either. Table 26 shows the results of the second multiple regression analysis.

Table 26.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Four Strategic Leader Influence Actions, Personal Characteristics, Type of Unit and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	p
(Constant)	-1.299	.532		-2.311	.022
Managing	.279	.125	.123	2.228	.027*
Bartering	.624	.141	.330	4.440	.000**
Bridging	.551	.108	.268	5.271	.000**
Bonding	.555	.153	.282	3.624	.000**
Rank	.014	.066	.009	.210	.834
Years of Experience	.108	.092	.060	1.169	.244
Age	-.193	.118	-.084	-1.637	.103
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.117	.210	.031	.558	.577
Support	.127	.257	.023	.495	.622
Other	.052	.239	.010	.218	.828
Administrative (Reference)					
R = .889	R ² = .790				
F _(10, 173) = 64.937	p < .001				
*p < .05	Criterion: leader effectiveness				
**p < .01					

Referring to Table 26, the multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship among the four strategic leader influence actions (transforming excluded), personal characteristics, the type of unit and leader effectiveness. Results of this analysis displayed an R² value of .79 and an overall significant relationship (F_(10,173) = 64.937, p < .01). The results also demonstrated that four strategic actions in combination with personal characteristics and the type of unit contributed to 79% of the variance in the leader effectiveness. The beta values for bartering, bonding, bridging and

managing actions were .624, .555, .551, and .279, respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness followed by the use of bonding, bridging and managing actions. However, personal characteristics and type of unit variables did not have a significant p value.

Using Table 26, a regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4 + B_5 * X_5 + B_6 * X_6 + B_7 * X_7 + B_8 * X_8 + B_9 * X_9 + B_{10} * X_{10}$) for this model can be acquired.

Y is the criterion variable, X s are predictor variables, and B s are listed under column B.

Therefore, the regression equation for this analysis would be as follows: Effectiveness = $-.1.299 + .279 * \text{Managing} + .624 * \text{Bartering} + .551 * \text{Bridging} + .555 * \text{Bonding} + .014 * \text{Rank} + .108 * \text{Years of Experience} - .193 * \text{Age} + .117 * \text{Patrol Services} + .127 * \text{Support Services} + .052 * \text{Other Services}$.

While bartering, bonding and bridging actions were significant at the .01 level ($p < .01$) and managing actions were significant at the .05 level ($p < .05$), personal characteristics and type of unit were not significant. Table 27 shows the results of the third multiple regression analysis.

Table 27.

Results of Multiple Regression Analysis between Four Strategic Leader Influence Actions, Personal Characteristics, Type of Unit and Leader Effectiveness

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	P
(Constant)	-.415	.542		-.765	.445
Managing	.287	.122	.126	2.350	.020*
Transforming	.524	.136	.309	3.849	.000**
Bartering	.692	.125	.365	5.545	.000**
Bridging	.361	.110	.175	3.294	.001*
Rank	-.009	.065	-.006	-.144	.886
Years of Experience	.147	.091	.081	1.611	.106
Age	-.219	.117	-.095	-1.868	.063
Type of Unit					
Patrol	.062	.208	.017	.299	.765
Support	.034	.256	.006	.135	.895
Other	-.044	.239	-.009	-.185	.854
Administrative (Reference)					
R = .890	R ² = .792				
F _(10, 173) = 65.681	p < .001				
*p < .05	Criterion: Leader Effectiveness				
**p < .001					

Referring to Table 27, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship among four strategic leader influence actions (bonding excluded), personal characteristics, type of unit and leader effectiveness. Results of the analysis produced an R² value of .792 and an overall significant relationship ($F_{(10,173)} = 65.681$, $p < .01$). The results also demonstrated that these four strategic actions (managing, transforming, bartering and bridging), in combination with personal characteristics and the type of unit, contributed to 79.2% of the variance in the leader effectiveness score.

The beta values for bartering, transforming, bridging and managing actions were .692, .524, .361, and .287, respectively. According to these beta values, the use of bartering actions was the strongest predictor of leader effectiveness, followed by the use of transforming, bridging and managing actions. However, personal characteristics and type of unit variables did not have a significant p value.

In Table 5, the regression equation ($Y = B_0 + B_1 * X_1 + B_2 * X_2 + B_3 * X_3 + B_4 * X_4 + B_5 * X_5 + B_6 * X_6 + B_7 * X_7 + B_8 * X_8 + B_9 * X_9 + B_{10} * X_{10}$) for this model can also be acquired. Y is the criterion variable, X s are predictor variables, and B s are listed under column B. Therefore, the regression equation for this analysis would be as follows:
 Effectiveness = $-.415 + .287 * \text{Managing} + .524 * \text{Transforming} + .692 * \text{Bartering} + .361 * \text{Bridging} - .009 * \text{Rank} + .147 * \text{Years of Experience} - .219 * \text{Age} + .062 * \text{Patrol Services} + .034 * \text{Support Services} - .044 * \text{Other Services}$.

While bartering and transforming actions were significant at the .01 level ($p < .01$) and bridging and managing actions were significant at the .05 level ($p < .05$), personal characteristics and type of unit were not significant at either.

Three different multiple regression analyses were conducted to find a predictive relationship among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, type of unit and leader effectiveness. These statistical operations also examined the possible effects of high correlations between transforming actions, bonding actions and other strategic leader influence actions. All three multiple regression analyses indicated the overall relationship was statistically significant ($p < .001$). In other words, all results consistently demonstrated that the high correlations did not affect the overall predictive relationship among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics,

type of unit and leader effectiveness. Thus, H_{04} , which stated that there are no predictive relationships among the use of strategic leader influence actions, leaders' personal characteristics, the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perception of leader effectiveness, is rejected.

Summary

In two sections, this chapter analyzed and presented data from 195 officers employed in the LMPD. In the first section, descriptive statistics were analyzed in order to examine the strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness determined by the survey instrument, SLQ (v4). From all strategic leader influence actions, bonding was the most frequently used, while bartering was the least used. The mean score of leader effectiveness demonstrated that subordinates perceived their leaders' effectiveness in the top 40%.

The second section presented the results of inferential statistics. Bivariate correlation, and simple and multiple regression analyses were used to test the validity of the strategic leadership theory. The analyses examined the influences of strategic leader actions on leader effectiveness and the influences of personal characteristics and type of unit on the use of strategic leader actions. For the first model (H_{01}), managing, transforming, bartering, bridging, bonding actions were used as predictor (independent) variables while perception of leader effectiveness was used as a criterion (dependent) variable. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the influences of strategic leader influence actions on leader effectiveness by testing H_{01} on whether strategic leader influence actions significantly predicted leader effectiveness. The results presented support for rejection of the null hypothesis, H_{01} , since leader actions—

managing, transforming, bartering, bridging, bonding—as a whole predicted a significant proportion of variance in the criterion variable (78.8%).

The influences of personal characteristics and type of unit on the use of strategic leader influence actions were also investigated through bivariate correlations and simple and multiple regressions. Results of these analyses led to retention of the second hypothesis (H₀₂) and rejection of the third (H₀₃).

In the final predictive model, three multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the influences of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics and the type of unit on leader effectiveness (H₀₄). The results presented strong support for rejection of the null hypothesis since strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics and the type of unit predicted a significant proportion of variance in the criterion variable of leader effectiveness (78.4%). For the models that rejected H₀₁ and H₀₄, it should be noted that bartering and bridging actions made unique contributions to the prediction of leader effectiveness ($p < .001$).

Chapter 5

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the strategic leader influence actions that distinguish effective police leaders from less effective ones. Pisapia (2009) proposed a five-factor leadership model composed of strategic leader influence actions, which leaders could use in their leadership journey. The findings of this study were presented in the preceding chapter. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss these findings and their relations to the relevant literature. This chapter will present a summary of the study, discussion of findings, policy implications, and limitations of the study as well as recommendations for future research and final remarks.

Summary of the Study

Walsh and Vito (2004) stated that police leaders are confronted with several challenges, such as demands by citizens for high accountability, better performance and comprehensive crime-prevention programs from their law enforcement organizations. Likewise, police agencies have been going through intense changes in their work environment; they face emerging forms of crime, an increasing diversity in the population and high expectations from the community. Moreover, due to globalization and advancing technologies, police leadership has become a multifaceted and cognitively challenging leadership setting (Ursino, 2001).

Police leadership research has indicated that leader actions influence perceptions of subordinates in terms of leader behaviors and attitudes. Leaders' actions also influence their subordinates' development (Baker, 2000; Densten, 2003; White, 2007). Since new policing strategies are introduced to respond to the changes in postmodern times, police

leadership should be improved to deal with such organizational challenges. Specifically traditional police leadership, which favors vertical and command-control leadership, should be replaced with horizontal and democratic leadership models (Goldstein, 1990; Engel, 2002).

The inherent assumption in the strategic leadership model is that when leaders apply multifaceted strategic actions, they are more likely to be perceived as effective by their subordinates. Strategic leadership researchers have investigated the model's validity in education (Yasin, 2006; Urdegar (2008); Reyes-Guerra (2009); Pisapia & Pang, 2013; Yasin & Tahir, 2013; Aydin, et al., 2014) and in health care (Ugurluoglu, 2010). However, the model has not been previously tested in police organizations. This study extends the strategic leadership model's validity to police administration by investigating strategic leader actions and their influence on subordinates' perceptions of leader effectiveness. When subordinates perceive their leader as effective, this will likely also contribute to organizational effectiveness.

To test the strategic leadership model in police organizations, the present study was completed in the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD), a large police department in the state of Kentucky. A nonprobability convenience sampling method was used. The research instrument was the SLQ (v4), which has been used in previous studies with high reliability scores (Yasin, 2006; Pisapia, 2006, 2009; Aydin, et al., 2014). The SLQ (v4) online version was sent to the work e-mail addresses of all officers in the LMPD ($N = 1,236$) by means of www.surveymonkey.com. The officers were allowed 33 days to complete the survey. The survey consisted of 35 leader actions items, five effectiveness items and basic demographics and control items. Officers were asked to rate

their leaders in two different areas: (a) how often leaders exhibited strategic leader influence actions and (b) to what extent they perceived their leaders as effective.

The results of the survey were retrieved on December 15, 2014. These included a total of 244 responses demonstrating a response rate of almost 20%. The participants' leaders were predominantly between the ages of 45 and 54 (40%) and had over 21 years of experience (35.4 %). More than half (53.8%) were reported as working in a patrol unit.

With the purpose of analyzing the data collected from this sample, descriptive statistics were used to investigate the demographics and the frequency of strategic action usage. Inferential statistics were used to investigate the influence of strategic action usage on leader effectiveness. Bivariate correlation, simple regression and multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the model. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22, was used for analyzing descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. A p value of .05 was used.

Summary and Discussion of the Findings

Results demonstrated that all strategic leader influence actions—managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding, were significantly related to the effectiveness of police leaders. Bartering and bridging actions were the two strongest predictors of police leaders' effectiveness ($p < .01$). Transforming, bonding, and managing actions were also statistically significant predictors ($p < .05$).

These findings indicated that police leaders could develop effective leadership by mastering these five strategic leader influence actions. Descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used in the data analysis. The following paragraphs summarize

the findings and link these findings to the theoretical framework of strategic leadership as well as existing literature.

Descriptive Statistics

Reliability coefficients of Cronbach's alpha (α) for the five strategic leader influence actions (managing, transforming, bartering, bridging, and bonding) in the SLQ (v4) ranged from .83 to .94. These scores indicated that all strategic leader influence actions were reliably represented by the relevant items in the survey as described by subordinate police officers in the LMPD. These scores also supported Pisapia's findings (2009) whereby he reported Cronbach's alpha reliability scores (α) that ranged from .93 to .95.

Participants' possible responses to the strategic leader action items were Almost Never = 1; Once in a While = 2; Sometimes = 3; Often = 4; Almost always = 5. The mean (M) scores of five strategic leader influence actions, ranging from 3.50 to 3.94, indicated that subordinate officers perceived their leaders as applying all strategic leader influence actions in the SLQ (v4). The aggregate mean score for bonding actions was 3.94, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders as "sometimes" displaying bonding actions. The aggregate mean score for managing actions was 3.87, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders as "sometimes" utilizing managing actions. The aggregate mean score for bridging actions was 3.62, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders as "sometimes" implementing bridging actions. The aggregate mean score for transforming actions was 3.56, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders as "sometimes" using transforming actions. The aggregate mean

score for bartering actions was 3.50, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders as “sometimes” engaging in bartering actions.

Participants’ responses to the leader effectiveness items ranged from Least Effective Leader I Have Known = 1 to Most Effective Leader I Have Ever Known = 9.” The mean scores of leader effectiveness items were 6.06, which indicated that participants perceived their leaders’ effectiveness to be a little above average, or in the top 40%.

Inferential Statistics

Bivariate correlation, and simple and multiple regression analyses were used to investigate the validity of the strategic leadership model by testing the effects of strategic leader actions on perception of leader effectiveness in the LMPD. A p value of .05 was used to reject or retain null hypotheses.

The following four null hypotheses were tested:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions and followers’ perceptions of leader effectiveness.

H₀₂: There is no relationship between the type of unit characteristic (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

H₀₃: There is no relationship between personal characteristics and the use of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding strategic leader influence actions.

H₀₄: There are no predictive relationships between the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness.

The outcomes of this research can be summarized in four findings:

Finding 1: There is a strong relationship between the use of managing, transforming, bonding, bridging and bartering strategic leader influence actions and followers' perception of leader effectiveness. Overall, the use of strategic leader influence actions was a significant predictor of leader effectiveness in the LMPD ($F_{(5,189)} = 140.897, p < .05$). Namely, strategic leadership is a strong model, indicating that 78.8% of the variance in the outcome variable of leader effectiveness can be predicted by the use of strategic leader influence actions ($R^2 = .788$). Bridging and bartering actions were significant at a level of $p < .01$. Transforming and bonding actions were significant at a level of $p < .05$. Managing actions were not found to be significant in the first multiple regression analysis ($p = .074$). However, the second and third multiple regression analyses indicated that managing actions were significantly related with leader effectiveness ($p = .01$ and $p = .012$ respectively). Therefore, H₀₁ was rejected.

This finding is consistent with the literature. The five strategic leader influence actions are important in terms of leader effectiveness. Since the early 20th century, scholars (e.g., Henri Fayol) have stated that managerial actions are important to increasing production. Transforming leaders use actions to look for potential motivations of followers and to satisfy followers' higher needs, so followers can fully engage with organizational goals (Burns, 1978). While Zaleznik (1977) claimed that leading (transforming) and managing are different, Pisapia (2009) noted that best practices come

from transforming and managing actions. He asserted that managing actions are used for frame-keeping, and transforming actions are used for frame-breaking. These two actions are complementary to each other (Pisapia, 2009).

Most leadership theories did not include bonding, bartering and bridging actions together. However, strategic leadership theory offers them as balancing factors to the use of transforming or managing actions (Pisapia, 2009). Bonding actions are derived from an ethical frame. Leadership ethics is accepted as an essential element of leading. Strategic leadership theory introduced bonding actions as a more sophisticated form of ethical leadership. Bonding actions link individual commitments to ethics and help to develop trust between subordinates and their leaders. According to Ellington and Pisapia, (2013), leaders use bonding actions to make decisions about what is right or wrong. They behave virtuously, apply best practices, and instill values into their decisions. Bartering and bridging actions are interpreted from the point of view of transactional leadership. They are important factors in managing organizational politics and getting things done whether frame-breaking or frame-keeping (Ellington & Pisapia, 2013).

This finding also confirms findings of previous empirical studies in the strategic leadership literature. For example, Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) found that there was a significant relationship between the use of strategic leader influence actions and leaders' self-reported effectiveness. Similarly, Yasin and Tahir (2013) found that more effective leaders use a multidimensional set of strategic leader influence actions, while less effective leaders do not.

Police leaders in this study used all five strategic leader influence actions. The most used action was bonding ($M = 3.94$). Managing, bridging, transforming and bartering

actions' means were 3.87, 3.62, 3.56, and 3.50, respectively. Interestingly, although the bartering action was the least-used action ($M=3.50$), in the regression analyses, it was one of the best predictors of leader effectiveness ($p < .01$). This situation is different from previous strategic leadership studies conducted in education and healthcare contexts; in other words, this finding may be unique to the police organizational context. One explanation could be that due to the paramilitary and hierarchical structure, some police leaders may prefer using less bartering actions, because such actions may reduce perceived leadership dominance. As a result, subordinates may appreciate leaders using more bartering actions because it may be counter to hierarchical police culture—consequently, they feel more valued and may perceive those leaders as more effective.

Another explanation could be drawn from the police leadership literature. There have been empirical studies that examined leader actions similar to bartering actions but using a different terminology. For example, in Andreescu and Vito's (2010) study of ideal police leadership, participants rated that ideal leaders must mainly use the "demand reconciliation" action in order to "be able to reconcile conflicting demands and reduce disorder in the system" (p. 571). This definition is arguably similar to the bartering action, which requires leaders to remain open to negotiation and reconciliation with subordinates. In addition, the authors stated that preference for a certain leader behavior does not eliminate the inclination toward other leader behaviors. Therefore, from this perspective, this finding seems to be consistent with the police leadership literature.

Another outcome that is different from previous strategic leadership studies is the mean score for bonding actions. Although the bonding action was the most used action ($M=3.94$) in the regression analyses, it was not a better predictor of leader effectiveness

than bartering actions ($p < .05$). One explanation could be that police leaders primarily need to use bonding actions to build trust. For example, in a life-threatening situation, officers and leaders need to trust each other; otherwise, they cannot maintain a safe operation. Therefore, subordinate officers may perceive bonding actions as essential leader behavior. In other words, leaders are expected to build trust through bonding actions, and subordinates may take this for granted. Thus, they may look for other actions (such as bartering) to perceive their leaders as more effective.

Another explanation could be found in police leadership literature. For example, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) found in their literature review that trustworthiness and being ethical are primary characteristics of police leaders. In this sense, bonding actions arguably correspond to these important leader characteristics.

A final explanation could be drawn from the mean scores of all actions. The present study demonstrated that the mean scores of all strategic leader influence actions were not very different from each other (ranging from 3.50 to 3.94). All actions were rated as “sometimes.” Due to the low variation among the ratings of leader actions, it may still be considered a normal finding that the most-used action may not be the best predictor of leader effectiveness.

In sum, the first finding of this study determined that the more leaders applied strategic actions, the more they were perceived as effective by their subordinates. This conclusion is consistent with strategic leadership theory’s premise.

Finding 2: There is not a significant relationship between the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and the use of transforming, managing, bonding, bridging and bartering strategic leader influence actions. Five simple regression

analyses were conducted. However, none of them produced significant results. Therefore, H_{02} is retained.

This finding is consistent with the literature. In their study, Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) investigated whether organizational characteristics influence the use of strategic leader influence actions. Their study showed, in part, that there was no relationship between the type of hospital (close to type of unit concept) and the use of strategic leader influence actions.

Finding 3: There is a significant relationship between personal characteristics and the use of transforming, managing, bonding, bridging and bartering strategic leader influence actions. The first bivariate correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant correlation between personal characteristics and managing actions. Specifically, rank was significantly correlated with managing actions ($r = -.218$, small effect size). This relationship was negative, which means that the lower ranking police leaders use managing actions more and vice versa. In other words, when the ranks are lower, the use of managing actions is higher. The analysis also found that age was significantly correlated with managing actions ($r = -.162$, small effect size). The relationship was negative, which means that younger police leaders use managing actions more and vice versa. In other words, the lower the age, the higher the use of managing actions.

A multiple regression analysis was then conducted for personal characteristics (predictor variable) and managing actions (criterion variable); the result was significant $F_{(3,180)} = 3.507$, $p < .05$. Namely, 5.5% of the variance in the outcome variable of

managing actions can be predicted by the overall personal characteristics of rank, age, and years of service ($R^2 = .055$).

The second bivariate correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant relationship between personal characteristics and transforming actions. Specifically, rank was significantly correlated with transforming actions ($r = -.227$, small effect size). The relationship was negative, which means that the lower ranking police leaders use transforming actions more and vice versa. In other words, the lower the rank, the higher the use of transforming actions. Afterwards, a multiple regression analysis was conducted for personal characteristics (predictor variable) and transforming actions (criterion variable); the result was significant ($F_{(3,180)} = 4.220$, $p < .05$). Namely, 6.6% of the variance in the outcome variable of transforming actions can be predicted by the overall personal characteristics of rank, age, and years of service ($R^2 = .066$).

The third bivariate correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant correlation between personal characteristics and bartering actions. Specifically, rank was significantly correlated with bartering actions ($r = -.256$, small effect size). The relationship was negative, which means that the lower ranking police leaders use bartering actions more and vice versa. The lower the rank, the higher the use of bartering actions. Afterward, a multiple regression analysis was conducted for personal characteristics (predictor variable) and bartering actions (criterion variable); the result was significant ($F_{(3,180)} = 6.841$, $p < .01$). Namely, 10.2% of the variance in the outcome variable of bartering actions can be predicted by the overall personal characteristics of rank, age and years of service ($R^2 = .102$).

The fourth bivariate correlation analysis indicated that there is no significant correlation between personal characteristics and bridging actions. Thus, follow-up regression analysis was not conducted.

The fifth bivariate correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant correlation between personal characteristics and bonding actions. Specifically, rank was significantly correlated with bonding actions ($r = -.283$, small effect size). The relationship was negative, which means that the lower ranking police leaders use bonding actions more and vice versa. In other words, the lower the rank, the higher the use of bonding actions. Afterward, a multiple regression analysis was conducted for personal characteristics (predictor variable) and bonding actions (criterion variable); the result was significant ($F_{(3,180)} = 7.653$, $p < .01$). Namely, 11.3% of the variance in the outcome variable of bonding actions can be predicted by the overall personal characteristics of rank, age, and years of service ($R^2 = .113$). Therefore, H_{03} is rejected. In conclusion, these analyses indicated that rank was negatively correlated with all of the strategic leader influence actions except bridging actions. In other words, high-ranking police leaders do not use strategic leader influence actions as much as do low-ranking police leaders. Additionally, age was negatively correlated with managing actions.

Considering all strategic leader influence actions except bridging, the negative correlation between rank and strategic leader influence actions is an interesting finding. This correlation might be due to the fact that, since low-ranking police leaders usually work at a supervisory level, they may need to use more leader actions to increase the performance of their subordinates, which can lead to promotions for the low-ranking leaders. However, high-ranking police leaders may feel reluctant to use more leader

actions as they have already received promotions and may not be working as closely with subordinates. They may not have as many opportunities to engage in strategic leadership. Therefore, they may apply fewer strategic leader influence actions than low-ranking leaders. Finally, this might be an effect of general differences between low-ranking (younger) and high-ranking (older) police leaders.

This finding extended the literature in a different direction. Although Yasin and Tahir (2013) and Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) found that the use of the strategic leader influence actions was not significantly related by the personal characteristics of hospital and higher education managers, the present study demonstrated that personal characteristics of police leaders (rank and age) are related to the use of strategic leader influence actions. This finding is a valuable contribution to strategic leadership literature.

Finding 4: There are is an overall significant predictive relationship among the use of strategic leader influence actions, personal characteristics, the type of unit (support, patrol, administrative and other) and followers' perception of leader effectiveness. Three multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the predictive relationship among personal characteristics, type of unit, the use of strategic leader influence actions (predictor variables) and leader effectiveness (criterion variable). The result from the first multiple regression analysis was significant ($F_{(11,180)} = 61.477$, $p < .01$). Namely, 79.7% of the variance in the outcome variable of leader effectiveness can be predicted by personal characteristics, type of unit and the use of strategic leader influence actions ($R^2 = .797$). Personal characteristics and type of unit variables were not significantly related in any of the regression analyses. The strategic leader influence actions of bridging and bartering were significant at ($p < .01$). Transforming and bonding

actions were significant ($p < .05$), while managing actions were not significant in the first multiple regression analysis ($p > .05$). However, the second and third multiple regression analyses indicated that managing actions were significantly related with leader effectiveness ($p < .05$ and $p < .05$, respectively). Moreover, second and third multiple regression analyses also confirmed the overall significant results of the first multiple regression. Therefore, H_{04} is rejected.

This finding demonstrated that LMPD might employ strategic leaders by using this predictive relationship. This finding is consistent with the studies in the literature. For example, Ugurluoglu, et al., (2010) found that there was a predictive relationship among strategic leader influence actions, personal and organizational characteristics and leader's self-reported effectiveness.

The findings revealed that the strategic leadership theory is a powerful model. It is clear that the use of strategic leader influence actions is strongly related to leader effectiveness. When leaders use more strategic leader influence actions, they are perceived as more effective by their followers.

One point that needs attention in this study is that there was no correlation between the type of unit and the use of strategic leader influence actions. As an organizational characteristic, type of unit was not a significant predictor of strategic leader action usage. A possible explanation is that in order to maximize the anonymity of the participants and their leaders, the present study collected just one organizational characteristic, which is type of unit. However, units may not have homogeneous cultures because of other organizational characteristics—place in the organizational chart, shift, or other. The present study did not investigate such factors, out of a need to maintain

maximum anonymity. Consequently, only collecting the type of unit might have affected the findings.

Another point that needs attention in this study is that there was a low correlation between personal characteristics (age, years of service and rank) and the use of strategic leader influence actions. A possible explanation for this is that in order to maximize the anonymity of the participants and their leaders, a limited number of personal characteristics were collected. Similar to type of unit, these three factors may not represent homogenous samples. In other words, if the survey contained items about additional personal characteristics such as gender, race, education, job title, discipline and rewards, a greater correlation might have been found. But additional characteristics were not used because it was thought that participants would be reluctant to respond, since more characteristics might make it easier to associate them with their responses. In short, collecting only three personal characteristics might have affected the findings.

Policy Implications

There are four implications of these results for future research and practitioners. First, by extending the applicability of the strategic leadership model to police organizations, this study provided important implications for all police leaders, ranging from sergeant to chief. The study results indicated that police leaders could be more effective by applying strategic leader influence actions.

Second, the findings of this study also indicated that police leaders need to know how to manage and transform their organizations. They also need to infuse bonding, bartering and bridging actions to their leadership practice. In order to be effective, they need to use all of the five strategic leader influence actions in tandem.

Third, like previous studies of strategic leadership conducted in education (Yasin, 2006; Urdegar, 2008; Reyes–Guerra, 2009; Pisapia & Pang, 2011; Yasin & Tahir, 2013; Aydin et al., 2014) and healthcare environments (Ugurluoglu, 2010), this study also demonstrated that strategic leadership theory could be a part of leadership development programs. The findings of this study require policymakers to adopt strategic leadership as a principal management strategy in police organizations. This study makes it clear that strategic leadership should be a part of leadership development programs for police leaders. Postmodern conditions call for more effective police leaders who have strategic skills to make necessary changes in their organizations. They also call for police leaders who have the competency to develop their subordinates to their full potential. According to Yukl (2002), while organizations increasingly need new leadership skills and abilities, the importance of leadership training programs has become more significant than ever. The inclusion of strategic leadership development and practices will eventually increase the effectiveness of future police leaders.

Fourth, the findings may have implications for the effective hiring of police leaders, specifically, commanding staff. If police leaders who are candidates for executive level positions have a tendency to use strategic leader influence actions, they can be trained in how to more intentionally lead their subordinates that way. Effective hiring may reduce turnover costs as well as conflicts between leaders and subordinates. This will eventually improve organizational performance as well.

Limitations of the Study

Although the study disclosed substantial findings concerning the influence of strategic leader actions on leader effectiveness, there are some limitations that may affect the study results.

The first limitation is associated with the generalizability of the findings. This study examined the use of strategic leader influence actions of police leaders in LMPD. The studied organization is one of the largest police departments in the United States. However, due to the fact that every police department is distinctive regarding goals, compositions, financial restrictions and the number of employees, these varying characteristics may have significant effects on study results. For instance, the organizational culture in small and mid-size or rural police organizations may interpret strategic leadership needs differently than large police organizations. For that reason, researchers should view the findings carefully in terms of generalizability.

The second limitation is related to the sample. The participating officers freely completed the SLQ (v4). However, it is always possible that there will be a discrepancy between their perceptions of leader effectiveness and the perceptions of non-participating officers. Moreover, there may be a disparity between police leaders' use of strategic leader influence actions and their followers' perception of this usage.

The third limitation is related to demographic variables. The sole organizational characteristic was the type of unit. Due to the risk of identification of the studied leaders, other organizational characteristics such as exact work place in the organizational chart or work schedules (night, day shifts or office hours) were not included. Similarly, only a limited number of personal characteristics were collected: age, years of service and rank.

Personal characteristics such as gender, race, education, job title, discipline and rewards were not collected as these data could threaten the anonymity of leaders. Therefore, these two narrow demographic variables might have limited the findings of the study.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher suggests that future studies should be done to extend the present research. The studies should address the limitations of this research through the following procedures.

Future studies can replicate the present study in small and medium-size police departments at local, state and federal levels. These organizations can be in rural or urban locations outside the Midwestern portion of the U.S. This may help researchers define variances and similarities in findings, which eventually will widen the present study's generalizability.

The present study investigated the use of strategic leader influence actions and leader effectiveness through a subordinate-reported survey. Future studies may apply the survey to both leaders and their subordinates and compare the differences between self-reported and subordinate-reported strategic leader influence actions and effectiveness results.

Future studies may also complete a 360-degree evaluation of strategic leadership by applying self, observer and supervisor versions of the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ (v4)). Such studies may provide more objective effectiveness measurements. The differences in the perception of leader effectiveness can also be examined. This sort of research would disclose the variances and the similarities in how police leaders see their leadership skills in comparison to how they are seen by their

supervisors and subordinates. Moreover, police leaders could improve their leadership capacity by receiving subordinate and supervisor feedback.

Future research may conduct longitudinal studies in order to determine the positive effects of using strategic leader influence actions on leadership effectiveness over a long period. For example, a police leader's strategic actions and effectiveness may be examined at different ranks, such as sergeant, lieutenant and major. By providing strategic leadership development programs, the leader may be observed while climbing through different ranks. Since the present study found a correlation between strategic leader influence actions usage and rank, this may be further analyzed with longitudinal studies. Such research would help determine the importance of strategic leader influence actions for different ranks. In other words, managing actions may be more vital at middle ranks, and transforming actions may be important in upper ranks.

Although the present research found that there were no correlations between type of unit and the use of strategic leader influence actions, future research may investigate why some leaders in the same units use certain strategic leader influence actions more than others. Additionally, the impact of subcultures in the organization needs to be taken into consideration.

Subordinate officers have different characteristics in terms of expectations and needs. Using one type of leader action may not be enough to deal with this complexity. Strategic leader influence actions enable leaders to use multifaceted leader actions so that they can address the different situations and needs of their followers. Therefore, police leadership researchers need to prepare leadership development programs by including a strategic leadership model.

Future studies can use mixed method research by mixing followers' SLQ (v4) survey results with qualitative research methods such as individual interviews with leaders. By doing this, the studies can examine the perceptions of leader actions from the point of view of both leaders and subordinates. This type of study can validate and enhance the present findings.

Final Remarks

In recent decades, police organizations have been experiencing changes in their work environment. The new crimes, changes in the community, and expectations from citizens have contributed to the challenges that police leaders deal with. These challenges necessitate effective leadership skills to respond to the postmodern conditions' rapid changes as well as to guide followers effectively (Ursino, 2001).

Police organizations can achieve success by improving leadership skills of police leaders from various ranks. However, simply relying on traditional leadership models cannot help police leaders in pursuit of organizational goals. Leaders need to apply leader actions that exhibit flexibility and effectiveness. Strategic leadership is a promising model that can provide these leader actions. This model has been tested in higher education, health care and school management fields. The present study extended earlier research by investigating the effects of strategic leader influence actions on leader effectiveness in a large police organization.

The study delivered empirical support for the application of the strategic leadership model in a police organization. The results indicated that police leaders could improve their effectiveness by applying strategic leader influence actions.

The present study also contributed to the literature of police leadership. It provided a fresh perspective on how police leaders can effectively lead their organizations in a rapidly changing postmodern environment. In addition, at all levels, police departments need strategic leaders to make essential maneuvers and improve leader–follower relations as well as enhance organizational performance.

By and large, the study results strongly suggest that police organizations need to adopt the strategic leadership model and its associated actions of managing, transforming, bartering, bridging and bonding. Police organizations need to prepare leadership development programs to promote strategic leadership among police leaders. In addition, SLQ (v4) can be used as a diagnostic tool to measure the strategic actions of police leaders. These leadership development programs along with hiring potential strategic leaders will ultimately contribute to organizational success.

The researcher was awarded a full scholarship by the Turkish National Police (TNP) to pursue a doctoral degree in leadership at Spalding University. The researcher believes that Turkish police leaders can also use the five strategic leader influence actions to develop effective strategic leadership in the management of TNP's several services including security strategy development. This will eventually help to produce better police services for Turkish citizens.

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Appendix A

The Researcher's Request Letter and Permission Email from the Copyright Holder of the SLQ (v4)

Dear Dr. Pisapia

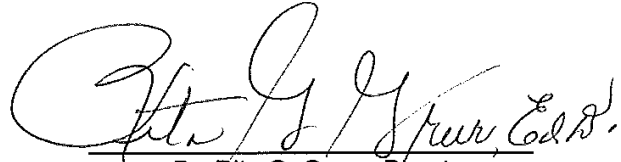
I am Necmettin PAR, an international graduate student at the Collage of Education, Spalding University. I started my Doctor of Education program in August, 2012. I currently take second year courses. I am highly interested in your Strategic Leadership studies. I will start writing my dissertation after the comprehensive exam in June 2014. In terms of dissertation topic, I am planning to conduct a quantitative study to measure: Police organization leaders' strategic leadership actions and/or strategic thinking skills and their influence on the leaders' effectiveness.

For this study, I am requesting to use your Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) and Strategic Thinking Questionnaire (STQ) for my dissertation. My advisor, Dr. Rita Greer assures that I am in good academic standing and I am willing to share my dissertation study findings with you. She approves my academic direction. She further assures that I will begin writing my dissertation in summer 2014 provided I have completed app prerequisites.

I appreciate your consideration of sharing your survey instruments with me. Thank you again for your willingness to support my studies.

Sincerely,



Necmettin PAR
Graduate Student
College of Education
Spalding University

Dr. Rita G. Greer, Director
Leadership Education Doctoral Program
Spalding University
College of Education

From: Par, Necmettin [mailto:npar@spalding.edu]

Sent: Monday, November 25, 2013 3:56 PM

To: John Pisapia

Cc: Greer, Rita

Subject: Letter for request

Dear Dr. Pisapia,

I hope you are doing well.

I have appended the letter regarding my request of the survey instruments.

If you send the surveys and the coding scheme, I will be glad.

Thank you once more for your help. Happy Thanksgiving to you and to your loved ones.

Sincerely,

Necmettin PAR

From: John Pisapia <jpisapia@fau.edu>
Sent: Mon 11/25/2013 11:01 PM
To: Par, Necmettin <npar@spalding.edu>;
Cc: Greer, Rita <rgreer@spalding.edu>;
Subject: Drafts
Attachments: SLQv4observer5-1-13.doc; SLQv4self5-1-13.doc; CodingSTQself2014.doc;
STQself2014.doc; Coding the SLQ2014allversions.docx

Necmettin,

I have received and reviewed Professor Greer's letter.
Please see the SLQ and STQ instruments and codes attached.
Best of luck with the study and let me know if you have questions related to the instruments.

John Pisapia, Professor

Leadership Studies, Florida Atlantic University
Visiting Scholar University of Rijeka , Croatia 2013
Fulbright Scholar, Chinese University of Hong Kong 2012
Adam Smith Research Scholar, University of Glasgow 2012
Visiting Scholar, Hong Kong - American Center, 2012
www.johnpisapia.com • jpisapia@fau.edu

Permission to reproduce six items of SLQ (v4)

From: John Pisapia
Sent: Saturday, April 11, 2015 10:47 PM
To: Par, Necmettin Subject: RE: My first draft

Necmettin:

I grant permission for you to use the six items as I saw them in this draft.

John

John Pisapia, Professor
Leadership Studies, Florida Atlantic University
www.Johnpisapia.com

Appendix B

Permission Letter from LMPD



LOUISVILLE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT

GREG FISCHER
MAYOR

STEVE CONRAD
CHIEF OF POLICE

October 7, 2014

Chief Necmettin PAR
Turkish National Police
9201 Blossom Ln #7
Louisville, KY 40241

Dear Chief PAR,

The Louisville Metro Police Department will be glad sponsor your dissertation research.

I understand that your proposal will gauge sworn personnel's perception of strategic supervisory actions and effectiveness. Our Research and Development Unit will administer the online surveys anonymously, according to the survey methods outlined in your proposal. At the end of the data collection, you will receive the survey results in an Excel spreadsheet.

We look forward to assisting you on this project and I will be available as the project progresses. Good luck on your research.

Sincerely,

Major Robert Schroeder
Administrative Services Division

633 WEST JEFFERSON STREET LOUISVILLE, KY 40202
OFFICE PHONE 502.574.7660 FAX 502.574.2450

Appendix C

Research Ethics Committee Approval Letter

noreply@spalding.edu

Wed 11/12/2014 10:39 AM

To: Par, Necmettin <npar@spalding.edu>;

Cc: Hasan, Haman <HHasan@spalding.edu>; Research Ethics Committee <rec@spalding.edu>;
4/15/2015 Research Ethics Proposal:PAR, Necmettin Par,

Research Ethics Proposal:PAR, Necmettin

[Submitted by kellis02@spalding.edu]

Lead Investigator: PAR, Necmettin

Faculty Advisor: Hammam A. Hasan PhD

Proposal Title: Strategic Leader Actions related to the effectiveness of police leader

Greetings,

I am happy to inform you that the proposal you submitted to the Research Ethics Committee at Spalding University has been approved.

This approval is for the research protocol described in your application. Please inform the Committee as soon as possible and in writing of any changes you make to the procedure described in your application.

The Committee assumes that you will comply with other requirements established by the site, school, organization or setting within which you conduct your research and that you have or will attain such compliance before conducting your research.

The Committee assumes that you have permission to use any instrument that you have not developed if such permission is required. The Committee assumes that you will comply with the use of published or commercial instruments.

This approval is valid for 12 months. Please update the committee upon the completion of your study (on the REC website), or reapply online to request an extension.

Please also remember that it is your responsibility to notify the Committee immediately of any adverse reactions related to participation in your research study.

Navigate to the REC website if you would like to update/amend your proposal. Click on "submit proposal updates online" under "library QuickLinks" and follow the on-screen directions to inform the committee of these changes. Feel free to ask me any questions with regard to this review and best wishes with your research.

Sincerely,

Stacey Deck, PhD, MSSW
Chair, Research Ethics Committee

A handwritten signature in blue ink, reading "Stacey Deck", is displayed within a light gray rectangular box.

Appendix D
Information and Consent Form

Dear Police Professional,

I am a doctoral candidate in Leadership Education program at Spalding University. I am also proud to be a graduate of Southern Police Institute (SPI). The purpose of my dissertation is to examine followers' perception of strategic leader actions and leader effectiveness in the Louisville Metro Police Department (LMPD). Therefore, as part of this research process, I invite you to complete the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire.

This online questionnaire is administrated by the Research and Development Unit of LMPD through SurveyMonkey.com. The unit will collect and have access the survey data. You will use the 35-item Strategic Leadership Questionnaire to rate your leader's strategic leader actions and rate his or her overall leader effectiveness in five areas, and provide demographic information about your leader. You will not be required to identify yourself or your leader by name.

Your responses are anonymous. This survey should take about 10–15 minutes to complete. As a researcher independent of the police department, I will use the data results only for my dissertation. There will not be any direct benefits to your participation in my study. However, your involvement may help establish effective police leadership training programs. Such leadership training programs may eventually improve the quality of police services as well.

Participation in this study is voluntary. The risk of participating in this study is judged to be minimal. Some participants may feel uncomfortable or vulnerable about describing their leaders' strategic actions and effectiveness. However, if any question makes you uncomfortable, you do not have to answer it. You may also choose not to participate at all. You can also skip any question you prefer not to answer, and your decision about whether to participate can have no effect on your job or any other benefits to which you are otherwise entitled, because the participation is anonymous.

Should you decide not to participate in this study, you may stop at any point. However, your participation and honest responses to the questionnaire are important in terms of the validity of this research. I appreciate your contribution.

If you have any further questions, please contact the researcher, Necmettin PAR, (502-415-2073 or npar@spalding.edu) or the Faculty Advisor, Dr. Hammam A. Hasan (hhasan@spalding.edu). Should you have any concerns about your rights as a research volunteer, you can contact Dr. Beverly Keepers, Dean of the College of Education (bkeepers@spalding.edu).

Necmettin PAR

By beginning the survey, I acknowledge that I am at least 18 years old, have read this information, and agree to participate in this research, with the knowledge that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without penalty. Begin the survey by clicking this button: NEXT.

Appendix E

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is this individual's rank?
 - A. Detective
 - B. Sergeant
 - C. Lieutenant
 - D. Major
 - E. Non-sworn
 - F. Other
2. About how many years of experience in law enforcement does this individual have?
 - A. 1–5 years
 - B. 6–10 years
 - C. 11–15 years
 - D. 16–20 years
 - E. 21 or more years
3. What is this individual's age?
 - A. 18 to 24
 - B. 25 to 34
 - C. 35 to 44
 - D. 45 to 54
 - E. 55 to 64
 - F. 65 or older
4. What type of unit does this individual work in?
 - A. Patrol services
 - B. Administrative services
 - C. Support Services
 - D. Other

Appendix F

Sample SLQ (v4) Items and 5–point Likert Scale

Managing Actions

SLQ (v4) Item number 8. My leader decides how things are to be done.

Transforming Actions

SLQ (v4) Item number 15. My leader promotes our commitment to the organization's long-term goals.

Bartering Actions

SLQ (v4) Item number 1. My leader is willing to negotiate with us to get things done.

Bridging Actions

SLQ (v4) Item number 4. My leader associates with individuals who have influence.

Bonding Actions

SLQ (v4) Item number 3. My leader is honest with us.

1. Almost Never	2. Once in a While	3. Sometimes	4. Often	5. Almost Always
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Leader Effectiveness

SLQ (v4) Item number 36. MANAGING ACTIONS are taken to maintain consistency in order that current organizational goals are accomplished efficiently and effectively.

This item was rated by 9 point scale: from 1. The least effective Leader I have known; to 9. The most effective Leader I have ever known.

Biography

Necmettin Par was born in August 1975 in one of the southern provinces of Turkiye. He graduated from the National Police Academy in June 1997 and earned a bachelor's degree. He started his law enforcement career in Istanbul Police Department, the largest provincial police department of the Turkish National Police (TNP). From July 1997 to January 1998, he worked as a shift leader at a police station. Later he started working at the training division of the police department from January 1998 to June 2004. He worked as an international police officer in Kosovo from June 2004 to June 2005. Then he returned to the training division and worked there from June 2005 to June 2008. After promoted to major, He worked in county police divisions of Istanbul Police Department from June 2008 to July 2009. After Istanbul, he was redeployed to Refahiye county police division of Erzincan Police Department. He worked in Refahiye from July 2009 to August 2012. In August 2012, he was awarded a full scholarship from the Turkish Interior Ministry to pursue the leadership education doctoral program at the Spalding University. His research interests are strategic leadership, leadership development and security strategies.