Cultivating Community-Focused Norms in Law Enforcement:
Servant Leadership, Accountability Systems, and Officer Attitudes

Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in
the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

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2020

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Abstract

Salient incidents of officer misconduct, violence, and disrespect toward citizens threaten

public safety and weaken the legitimacy of the police. With an eye toward improving police-

community relations, law enforcement organizations employ multiple strategies to alter the

approaches of line-level officers. Law enforcement organizations implement recruitment and

retention strategies to better represent the demographics of communities they serve, body-

worn cameras to improve accountability in police-civilian interactions, and early-intervention

systems designed to identify problematic officers. Alternatively, some organizations

implement community-focused reform efforts that shift the approach of police from an "us vs

them" mentality to a co-productive, community-centered approach, which has been shown to

improve citizen satisfaction with police.

Despite efforts to improve police-community relations, law enforcement organizations have

been unable to overcome decades of unequal service provision and repeated instances of

officer misconduct. Some of these failures may be a product of the informal systems within

policing that are charged with carrying out reform, highlighting a need to better understand

how informal systems within policing inform the attitudes and approaches of line-level

officers. Efforts to understand these effects exist in a limited but growing body of research

investigating intra-organizational dynamics and the motivations or attitudes of line-level

officers. This study builds on this work by examining the influence of servant leadership

practices and work-unit climate on officer support for procedurally fair policing practices,

officer willingness to report peer misconduct, and officer community citizenship behavior.

There is evidence that leaders play a role in informing the attitudes of street-level bureaucrats (e.g., Wright and Pandey 2010; Keulemans and Groeneveld 2020); however, there are fewer examples of research investigating the influence of servant leadership in the public sector (e.g., Shim, Park, Kuem, and Kim 2020), and still fewer examining the effects of servant leadership on attitudes in law enforcement. Furthermore, while law enforcement organizations rely on accountability systems to improve performance, relatively little research has explored the effects of accountability climates on the climate within the organization or the attitudes and approaches of line-level officers.

This dissertation addresses these gaps in the literature by addressing four key questions: (1) Are higher levels of servant leadership associated with line-level officer attitudes about community-focused approaches to policing? (2) What are the pathways through which servant leaders influence line-level officer attitudes about community-focused approaches to policing? (3) Do work-unit climates that consist of high pressure for officer activity weaken the effectiveness of servant leadership? And (4) Do work-unit climates that consist of high levels of internal political behavior weaken the effectiveness of servant leadership?

To address the key questions in this dissertation, I collected original survey data from a large law enforcement organization. I analyze survey responses from enforcement personnel (response rate: 61%) across two surveys administered at two different time points. I anticipate that servant leadership behaviors from post commanders will be associated with higher perceptions of prosocial impact and work-unit identification, and that these psychological mechanisms will be associated with officer attitudes that prioritize the

community. In addition, I anticipate that unit climates that remove officers from their impact on the community – in the forms of accountability pressure or political behavior within units – moderate the effect that effective servant leadership has on officer attitudes, rendering servant leaders less effective when facing these climates.

Results of multilevel regression analysis suggest that servant leadership is significantly associated with higher prosocial impact and unit identification, and that these key psychological constructs are positively associated with support for community-focused approaches to policing. Additionally, the results of parallel mediation analysis and multilevel mediation analysis suggest that prosocial impact and unit identification mediate the relationship between servant leadership and key outcomes. The direct relationship between servant leadership and attitudinal outcomes is non-significant; however, servant leadership influences outcomes indirectly through influencing psychological constructs. Finally, the effects of servant leadership on outcomes are robust across different unit climates. Specifically, the results of moderated mediation analysis suggest that unit climates wherein officers perceive accountability pressure or political behavior in their units do not disrupt the effect that servant leaders have on officer attitudes through key mediators. However, the results show significant direct effects of pressure and political behavior on key mechanisms, echoing findings that unit climate has a strong influence on individual-level approaches of line-level officers.

These findings make noteworthy contributions to public administration research and practice. This is one of the first studies to examine the effects of servant leadership in a law

enforcement context, and the results inform our understanding of the attitudes and approaches of street-level bureaucrats, as well as efforts to repair police-community relations. In addition, these results inform our understanding of potential negative effects of climate stemming from performance management and accountability systems in law enforcement organizations, highlighting the importance of identifying alternative mechanisms that may motivate officers to prioritize the community.

Keywords: Police, Police-Community Relations, Servant Leadership, Procedural Fairness, Accountability

For Hannah, Grant, and Clementine,

I cannot wait to see what we do next.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Russell Hassan for pushing me to answer important questions, teaching me to ask for help, and valuing me as a person first. He models both discipline and care for others, and embodies what a mentor should be.

Thank you, Amanda Girth, for lending an ear and valuing my voice since my first year as a doctoral student. Thank you, Trevor Brown, for pushing for clarity in this and other projects. Thank you, Robert Greenbaum, for your warmth, beginning years ago when he answered a cold-call on a Friday afternoon from a criminology master's student. Thank you, Stephanie Moulton, for bringing positive energy that we all strive for every day.

I would like to thank my partner organization for this project. They continuously push for improvement and push me to do the same. I gratefully acknowledge their financial support as a partner on this research. Thank you to the faculty and doctoral students at Glenn College for working as hard as you do. I gratefully acknowledge five years of financial support from the John Glenn College of Public Affairs.

Thank you to my teammates who fill my life with happiness and laughter every day: Hannah, Grant, and Clementine. And thank you to family who provide extra joy on the tough days: Chelsea, Matthew, Mom, Dad, Amber, Amy, Nana, Papaw, and my Mattie Faye.

Hannah Marie: I adore you. Thank you for loving me through morning shifts, nervous dinners at Jeff and Marian's, cupcakes at LeVeque, and Piña Coladas at sea. Thank you for that little boy (Hi, Bub!) and his big sister. Thank you for teaching me never to apologize for being myself. And thank you for showing me what it looks like to let love guide each day.

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Fields of Study

Major Field: Public Policy and Management

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. The Erosion of Police Legitimacy

Police-community relations, rife with controversy and conflict, continuously challenge the criminal justice system's ability to provide services. Conflict stems from decades of unequal service provision and unequal outcomes for racial and ethnic minorities. In addition, repeated incidents of officer misconduct – including police killings of Black civilians like Michael Brown, Freddie Gray, Philando Castile, and, more recently, Breonna Taylor and George Floyd – contribute to mistrust between many citizens and police officers. This mistrust compromises service delivery throughout the criminal justice system, puts civilians and police officers at greater risk of harm, and weakens public perceptions of the legitimacy of police.

Shortcomings in the legitimacy of law enforcement weaken efforts to improve public safety in both broad and specific scenarios. The police rely on some level of voluntary cooperation from the community to aid in efforts to respond to crime. In a broad sense, deficits in police legitimacy lower the willingness of communities to comply with the law or voluntarily assist law enforcement in holding offenders to account (Tyler 2004). Communities that do not recognize police as legitimate may no longer inherently authorize police as the proper institution to be in charge of public safety (Tyler 2004). In specific police-civilian

interactions, low perceptions of legitimacy can lead officers to rely on abusive actions, threats of force, or use of force to gain compliance from civilians. The degree to which civilians view the police as legitimate is tied closely to whether they are willing to accept decisions from police, whether they are willing to cooperate with police, and their stated reasons for accepting decisions from police (Tyler and Huo 2002; Sunshine and Tyler 2003).

The erosion of police legitimacy indicates a lack of faith in the procedures at the heart of the institution of policing, including approaches to controlling crime, use of authority, mechanisms of accountability and oversight, and treatment of the public across repeated interactions. Recognizing the relationship between perceptions of legitimacy and the capacity of law enforcement to perform their duties, police organizations responded by attempting to change their systems of performance, accountability, and public engagement. Below, I review these efforts, potential reasons for their shortcomings, and suggest a way forward in understanding how police can prioritize the public.

1.2. Law Enforcement Response: Performance and Accountability Programs
In response to fragile perceptions of legitimacy, law enforcement organizations focus on officer recruitment, training, and accountability. These efforts come in multiple forms – organizations intentionally recruit a more diverse set of individuals to become officers, implement implicit bias training programs, adopt early intervention systems to identify the long-scapegoated "bad apple" within departments, and, more recently, implement police body-worn camera technology in an effort to enhance transparency and accountability of officer behavior. Furthermore, the proliferation of performance management systems that as

a means to direct resources and hold officers accountable signals efforts to simultaneously improve public safety and monitor officer performance. All of these are policies that, while not sold as a panacea to police misconduct, could lead an outsider to label a police department as progressive in the push to improve police-community relations.

These are promising efforts; however, there is mixed evidence regarding the effectiveness of these programs. Recent experimental evidence suggests that police body-worn cameras enhance citizen perceptions of procedural fairness in encounters, and thus enhance perceptions of legitimacy (Demir, Apel, Braga, Brunson, and Ariel 2020). In addition, body-worn cameras are associated with less-intrusive methods to resolve incidents (Headley, Guerette, and Shariati 2017). On the other hand, they appear to have little to no effect on officer use of force (Ariel, Sutherland, Henstock, Young, Drover, Sykes, Megicks, and Henderson 2016; Yokum, Ravishankar, and Coppock 2017), potentially increase force used against officers (Ariel et al. 2016), increase burnout, and lower perceptions of organizational support (Adams 2019). Furthermore, over time after implementation, officers may stop following protocols for camera use and do not consistently face discipline for failing to activate their camera (Vargas 2020). These results call attention to the potential of police body-worn cameras, but also emphasize the need for understanding informal dynamics within organizations that disrupt promising reform.

Recent research on early intervention systems designed to identify problematic officers suggests that, after randomly selected reports of behavior were scored by researchers rather than internally, there was not a statistically significant difference in scores between behaviors

flagged by an early intervention system and behaviors that were not flagged (James, James, and Dotson 2020). These systems – adopted by a majority of large police departments in the United States – fail to clearly differentiate between problem and non-problem behaviors (James, James, and Dotson 2020). Furthermore, these systems generally rely on use of force reports and citizen complaints (Walker 2001). Missing from these systems are incidents of incivility that are perceived to be less severe, but, over time, damage police legitimacy, especially if officers are not held accountable for them. These include unwarranted stops, unwarranted citations, or abusive language, all of which signify problematic officers and degrade public faith in the police. Despite the promise of such systems for identifying problematic officers, researchers suggest an approach that examines many aspects of officer performance, not just outcomes of certain encounters with civilians (James, James, and Dotson 2020).

Successes in police reliance on formalized, number-oriented approaches include use of directed patrol to respond to certain crime types in certain areas. Targeted or hot-spots policing efforts have been tied to substantial reductions in firearm assaults with little evidence of crime displacement to other areas (Rosenfeld, Deckard, and Blackburn 2014). In addition, targeted foot patrol efforts driven by GIS analysis have been tied to reductions in violent crime in treated areas (Ratcliffe, Taniguchi, Groff and Wood 2011). Taken together, these findings suggest that these approaches to accountability may be appropriate for decisions about dedicating resources to certain areas, but less appropriate for evaluating the performance of individual officers or attempting to mend police-community relations.

Law enforcement organizations have chosen highly formalized responses to failures in performance and breakdowns of police-community relations. These responses often rely on a few key outcomes of interest, and there are examples of this being valuable to police organizations, as noted earlier ; however, these formalized accountability systems fail when, for instance, officers reject the protocol surrounding body-worn cameras, or accountability systems are not properly tuned to measure the incivilities that are accepted by other officers in a unit. The failures of these accountability efforts largely are a product of informal systems within organizations failing to support the highly formalized systems that hope to improve police-community relations.

1.3. Law Enforcement Response: Community-Oriented Policing Programs

Other efforts toward reform take a more holistic approach, hoping to alter the approach of law enforcement in local communities through community-oriented policing efforts. These programs attempt to involve the community in efforts to control crime and solve community problems. Advocates of community-oriented policing suggest that through this collaboration, public trust in police may increase (Gill, Weisburd, Telep, Vitter, and Bennett 2014). Additionally, frontline officers are empowered to engage with the community more frequently, involving civilians in identifying and understanding local issues and potential responses. Gill et al. (2014), in a meta-analysis of research on community-oriented policing, do not find consistent evidence that these approaches reduce or prevent crime in communities. Nonetheless, the authors find that community-oriented policing improves citizen satisfaction with law enforcement. Relatedly, these programs improve perceptions of

police legitimacy, though that effect is not statistically significant. These findings confirm that community-oriented policing may accomplish its main goal – improving the relationship between police and community (Gill et al. 2014).

Despite these positive findings, there is some concern that the broad conceptualization of community-oriented policing fails to identify specific behaviors or mechanisms that lead to improvements in citizen satisfaction. Gill et al. (2014) point out two findings that demonstrate the ubiquity and vagueness of community-oriented policing efforts. The authors note that in the late 1990s, every single United States police department in a city with a population over 100,000 noted that they adopted community-oriented policing. Soon after, responses to another survey of law enforcement indicated that over 90 percent of departments in large urban areas employed fully-trained community-oriented policing officers (Hickman and Reaves 2001). Support for community-oriented policing – both financially and within organizations – varied in the years since, and it became difficult to determine which departments implemented which elements of the philosophy. Therefore, instead of evaluating the adoption of something with a community-oriented policing label, researchers must identify specific attitudes and behaviors of line-level officers that prioritize the community and enhance legitimacy of law enforcement. In addition, I contend that we must better understand informal systems within policing – leadership, organizational culture, and workgroup environment – to understand the shortcomings of police reform efforts and identify potential areas of progress in the future.

Leaders, particularly police supervisors in a hierarchical organizational structure, are uniquely positioned to model, encourage, and reward behavior that aligns with public service norms. Thus, these supervisors are uniquely positioned to inform the attitudes and approaches of line-level officers who regularly interact with civilians. In this research, I examine the relationship between informal dynamics of police departments and approaches of line-level officers that prioritize the community. This approach departs from evaluating community-oriented policing programs and instead focuses on mechanisms that influence community-oriented attitudes in police officers.

1.4. A Way Forward: Community-Focused Approaches to Policing

Specifically, I examine factors that may contribute to officer engagement in community citizenship behavior, support for procedurally fair policing practices, and willingness to report peer misbehavior. These outcomes represent a way forward in considering line-level officer attitudes about the community. These outcomes go beyond the broad philosophy outlined in community-oriented policing to identify attitudes that are more specific in prioritizing the community. Community-oriented policing appears to be an effective mindset or philosophy to guide departments; however, researchers have been unable to identify specific mechanisms that made it effective. The outcomes in this study benefit from a clearer link between line-level attitudes and possibilities for improving police legitimacy. Furthermore, each of these outcomes highlights a different element of prioritizing the community that will be essential to rebuilding police legitimacy. Community citizenship behavior informs us about officer attitudes about taking on prosocial roles in their

communities, illustrating an investment in the community and an opportunity for positive interactions between police and community. Support for procedurally fair policing practices indicates that an officer prioritizes neutrality, fairness, and providing citizens a voice in interactions. This is a direct route to improving perceptions of fairness and legitimacy of legal authorities, and a direct route to improving one-on-one interactions between police and civilians. Finally, a willingness to report misbehavior of other officers illustrates that officers prioritize the community over protecting their own peers, and is a direct route to improving perceptions of internal accountability mechanisms within policing. Below, I outline what we know about these community-focused attitudes, and follow with a proposed model of how law enforcement organizations can cultivate these attitudes in line-level officers.

1.4.1 Community Citizenship Behavior

Community citizenship behavior is comprised of non-mandatory behaviors that promote the effective functioning of society. The construct stems from conceptualizations of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ 1988), which includes helping team members, volunteering for extra tasks to get work done, avoiding conflict, internalizing norms and regulations of the workplace, and being tolerable of work-related inconveniences. Such behaviors are not mandated or explicitly stated within an employee's formal job requirements or job description. Instead, high levels of organizational citizenship behavior make up what we label as a "good soldier" within an organization – one who takes on extra work and cares about the team in ways that extend beyond what is required, simply because that is what is best for the team (Organ 1988). Connecting this to community citizenship behavior, this

paints a picture of an employee who knowingly and voluntarily goes beyond the formal requirements of their job because it makes a positive difference for the functioning of the community (Easterly and Miesing 2009).

While community citizenship behavior was conceived as an essential idea for non-government organizations that must carefully tend to their organization's public-facing attitudes and behavior, the importance of this construct for law enforcement becomes evident when one considers how heavily law enforcement depends on civilians and community leaders to effectively do their job. Law enforcement organizations rely on public perceptions of trust, fairness, and legitimacy to allow them to effectively enforce the law (Tyler 2006; Tyler and Huo 2002). Furthermore, as law enforcement organizations strive for better police-community relations, an officer's willingness to step outside his or her assigned duties to contribute positively to the community represents an essential step.

Despite the importance of interactions between law enforcement organizations and the community, there is little research that examines community citizenship behaviors in law enforcement organizations. One of the few examples of research focusing on community citizenship behavior in a public organization is Liu and Perry (2016), who find that community citizenship behavior is correlated with an individual's public service motivation and identification with the organization. I extend the research community citizenship behavior by examining how leadership practices and officer attitudes inform line-level officers' propensity to engage in community citizenship behavior.

1.4.2. Support for Procedurally Fair Policing

Procedural fairness refers to the extent to which formal policies and procedures used by organizational and legal authorities to make decisions that are perceived as fair and legitimate (Lind and Tyler 1988). Extensive research on procedural fairness shows individuals consider a procedure to be fair when the decision-maker is neutral and treats individuals with dignity and respect and the procedure is applied consistently across people, is correctable, based on accurate information, and allows people to represent their case (Lind and Tyler 1988). Research in legal and political psychology shows that citizens' trust and confidence in the police and courts depends largely on their procedural fairness judgments and, that citizens care about procedural fairness even when they experience unfavorable outcomes (Lind and Tyler 1988; Tyler and Degoey 1995; Tyler and Huo, 2002; Tyler, 2006)

We know from research that traditional command and control styles of policing are ineffective at reducing neighborhood crime and disorder in the long-term (Ramsey and Robinson 2015), and these styles harm the connection between police and the community. Procedurally fair styles of policing emphasize a set of norms that prioritizes openness, honesty, providing civilians with a voice, and encouraging community participation in the policing process (Tyler 2006). Tyler and Huo (2002) find that this approach is effective at promoting positive relationships between police and the community. Furthermore, procedural fairness secures cooperation, and public support, which enhances officer safety and contributes to positive police-community relations (Skogan and Frydl 2004; Tyler 2006). Tyler (2009) and Trinkner, Tyler, and Goff (2016) translate these findings into a call for new

approaches to policing, noting that explicit efforts to build and maintain public trust is

essential to a new direction for policing. Rather than relying on traditional approaches of

police as deliverers of deterrence mechanisms, Myhill and Bradford (2013) as well as

Trinkner et al. (2016) suggest that cultivating trust and legitimacy should be considered just

as important as combating or responding to crimes. Furthermore, these authors call for an

understanding of officer attitudes as a means of enhancing the likelihood that community-

policing practices are successful. They highlight the importance of officer attitudes about

their policing style, and specifically whether officers have positive, accepting attitudes of

"democratic" or procedurally fair forms of policing.

While prior research by Tyler and colleagues highlights the importance of procedural fairness

in citizen-police interactions, no prior study has examined leadership's role in improving

officers' commitment to procedurally fair policing practices. In this study, I examine the

direct and indirect effects supervisor servant leadership behavior on the acceptance of

procedurally fair policing practices.

1.4.3. Willingness to Report Peer Misbehavior

The third key outcome in this research concerns an officer's willingness to report peer

behavior that does not align with the norms of procedurally fair policing. This hones in on an

officer's acceptance of community-focused norms, as it shows whether an officer would be

willing to potentially break an unspoken, internal code to hold another officer accountable. A

key element that informs officer interactions with the public will be the norms and practices

of officers within the workgroup, and whether officers would expect to be held accountable

for behavior that does not align with those norms. Enhanced willingness to report problem behavior from fellow employees is an essential step in establishing a climate that discourages such behavior in public organizations (Miceli and Near 1985; 1988).

In the context of this study, willingness to report peer misconduct is a critical signal that line-level officers put the community first and have faith that supervisors and upper management will take appropriate action in response to misconduct. Furthermore, this behavior indicates a climate that is willing to discuss and engage with issues that run counter to organizational norms, rather than brushing such issues under aside and hoping they do not become a problem (Hassan, Wright, and Yukl 2014). This will prevent "bad apples" from persisting in police organizations, and help to prevent loss of public trust through repeated instances of misconduct.

1.5. Roadmap

In the next chapter, I outline the importance of perceived prosocial impact of work to the community and officer unit identification as psychological paths through which unit leaders will influence the attitudes of line-level officers. Next, I outline the merits of servant leadership as a key factor in enhancing unit identification and perceived prosocial impact amongst officers. Specifically, I outline expectations that servant leadership (Greenleaf 1977; 1998), through its focus on serving others in the organization and community, can enhance perceived prosocial impact (Grant 2007) and unit identification (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Simon 1945) within line-level officers, which will in turn influence officer attitudes about interacting with civilians. Then, I outline hypotheses regarding the effects of unit climates

stemming from rewards and accountability systems that may degrade the service mindset of line-level employees. Specifically, I contend that perceptions of accountability pressure and political behavior in units moderate the effect of servant leadership on unit identification and perceived prosocial impact.

Chapter 2. Research Model and Hypotheses Development

2.1. Introduction

In the following sections, I outline hypotheses that comprise the research model outlined in Figure 1 below, building the model piece by piece. First, I outline how unit identification and perceived prosocial impact influence key public-facing outcomes. When considering what informs the norms that will guide line-level officer behaviors, I look to the entities with which officers interact frequently, and the entities that play a major role in establishing organizational norms. These include the climate and accountability system that guide behaviors, as well as the supervisors who provide signals to line-level officers about acceptable behaviors. Therefore, I outline the influence of servant leadership on the unit identification and perceived prosocial impact. Additionally, I outline how perceptions of unit climate may moderate the impact of servant leadership on these key psychological mechanisms. I contend that unit climates that pull officers away from the community hinder even effective leaders in cultivating norms that improve police-community relations.

Below, I present the general research model, outlining anticipated mediation and moderation effects. I outline hypotheses for almost all of these relationships; however, some outline relationships receive less attention in hypothesis building. These results may still be discussed in Chapter 5 as they relate to the implications and directions of future research.
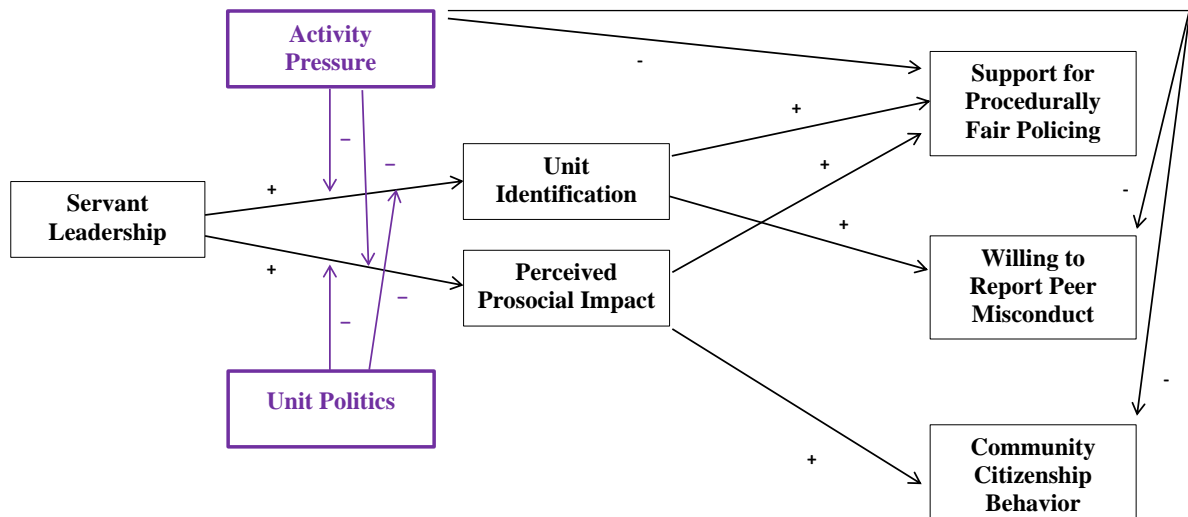
Figure 1: General Research Model[1,2]

2.2. Amplifying Community-Focused Approaches: Key Psychological Mechanisms

The following sections outline psychological constructs that I expect to be associated with

the aforementioned community-focused outcomes for police organizations. I outline

hypotheses regarding the influence of unit identification and perceived prosocial impact, and

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[1]Note that purple boxes and arrows indicate that these constructs consist of aggregating individual-level perceptions to the group level to provide a proper understanding of the group's perception of their unit climate.
[2]Also note that I outline both moderating and *direct* effects of activity pressure as a unit climate measure. I anticipate that pressure for activity will directly affect outcomes, and I will run additional analyses to test this combined moderating and direct effect; however, main hypotheses and analyses will focus attention on the moderating effects of unit climate.

their connection to these outcomes. Following that, I outline expectations regarding leadership practices that contribute to key outcomes through these psychological constructs.

2.2.1. Perceived Prosocial Impact

Research on relational job design suggests that informing or making public employees aware of how their work makes a positive impact on the lives of others can significantly improve their work attitudes, efforts, and performance (Grant 2007). The desire to make a positive impact on the lives of others exists in employees across many different types of organizations, and highlighting positive effects on society can be an essential strategy for managers to improve experiences of line-level employees (Grant 2007; Dutton and Ashford 1993). The perception that one's work makes a positive difference for the community acts as an important source of motivation that predicts individual attitudes and behaviors in an organizational context. While there is a clear connection between an employee's prosocial motivation and outcomes (Pandey and Stazyk 2008), research also suggests witnessing the benefit of services, and gaining confidence in the positive impact of services, is an important motivating factor (Grant 2007; 2008; Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright 2012).

When employees interact with beneficiaries and see the benefits of their actions, Grant (2007) argues that workers have a higher motivation to make a prosocial difference. This motivation leads to positive behavioral outcomes from employees, including higher effort

and helping behavior that extends beyond the individual's role in the organization (Grant 2007). In a policing context, I expect that perceived prosocial impact will motivate officers to be more involved in the communities they serve, going beyond their prescribed organizational role to give back to the community. Additionally, I anticipate that an officer perceiving that their work has an impact on beneficiaries in the community will also inform the attitudes they bring to these interactions with the community.

Experimental research on nurses at a public hospital (Bellé 2013) illustrates that while contact with beneficiaries may help leaders motivate employees to perform, a clear understanding that one's work makes a positive social impact mediates this relationship. Bellé (2013) found that a nurse's perceived social impact significantly predicted performance even after controlling for leadership practices and contact with beneficiaries. Bellé's (2013) findings echo the findings of Grant (2012), who found that perceived prosocial impact was a key factor in predicting performance, and that it remained a key factor at both high and low levels of beneficiary contact. This suggests that perceived prosocial impact may be a key factor in leadership's ability to motivate employees to go beyond expectations, and thus may predict an employee's tendency to engage with the community outside of their formal roles. Additionally, while these studies focused on performance, I anticipate that an officer's perceived prosocial impact can influence their attitudes about how to interact with the public. This is important, as perceived prosocial impact may be what influences officer attitudes even when they undergo difficult stretches with lower levels beneficiary contact. This leads to the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived prosocial impact will be positively correlated with officer community citizenship behavior

Hypothesis 2: Perceived prosocial impact will be positively correlated with officer support for procedurally fair policing practices

2.2.2. Identification with the Unit

Group identification in an organizational setting finds its roots in the theories of social identity (Tajfel and Turner 1979) and self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, and Wetherell 1987). Social identity theory suggests that individuals develop their sense of self via their affiliation with the norms and values associated with distinct social groups (Ashforth and Mael 1989). An individual identifies with a social group when they merge their own values with the values of the group (Tyler and Blader 2000), or when an individual perceives a connection between the definition of a group and the definition of one's self (Dutton et al. 1994). The shared values stemming from group membership then have an effect on the emotions, attitudes, and behaviors of those who adopt group membership. These effects may come in the form of positive feelings about fellow group members, greater cooperation with fellow group members, or more emphasis on the shared values or attitudes that are at the core of the social group (Ashforth et al. 2008).

Traditionally, this research focuses on organizational identification, which measures an individual's perception of belongingness to the organization (Ashforth and Mael 1989). Empirical research suggests that organizational identification is associated with a higher commitment to the organization (Tyler and Blader 2000), increased job satisfaction (van

Knippenberg and van Schie 2000), and organization-focused extra-role behavior (Cropanzano et al. 2002; Tyler and Blader 2000). Individuals who identify with particular social groups pursue what they perceive as the best option for both them and that particular group, stemming from a perceived match between their values and the core values of the unit with which they identify. van Knippenberg (2000) notes that this stems from an emotional attachment to the organization and a deep internalization of group norms.

Within research on group identification in organizations, there is an effort to differentiate the effects of identification with multiple levels of work context, e.g., identification with more granular work contexts like an individual's department or work unit. In this dissertation project, I focus on an officer's identification with their unit. Units or workgroups exist within the larger organization as entities that provide powerful signals to officers about acceptable behavior on the job (Ingram, Paoline, and Terrell 2013; Ingram, Terrill, and Paoline 2018). Despite the important influence of the work unit, little research explores the effects of unit identification in policing. Furthermore, research suggests that higher levels of work-unit identification will be associated positively with outcomes more closely tied to the unit, rather than the organization as a whole (Olkkonen and Lipponen 2006). For example, Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) find that work-unit identification is associated with extra-role behavior directed at the unit, such as volunteering to help unit members who face heavy workloads. Christ, van Dick, Wagner, and Stellmacher (2003) find that teacher identification with their team predicted citizenship behavior toward team members, while organizational

identification predicted citizenship behavior toward the organization. Procedurally fair policing practices mean something special to those with high levels of unit identification.

Additionally, employees with high levels of unit identification will not be able to silently observe fellow employees whose behavior is in conflict with deeply-held values and norms of the unit. Finally, studies suggest that identification can be a predictor of employee voice behavior (Qi and Ming-Xia 2014; Hu, Zhang, and Wang 2015), which is a key predictor of employees' willingness to report peer misbehavior. Employees who have fully internalized the norms of their units are more likely to engage their voice and report others' misbehavior, as it is an opportunity to guide others regarding acceptable practices in a particular unit. These arguments lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Unit identification will be positively correlated with officer support for procedurally fair policing practices
Hypothesis 4: Unit identification will be positively correlated with officer willingness to report peer misconduct

Unit
Identification

Perceived
Prosocial Impact

Support for
Procedurally
Fair Policing

Willing to
Report Peer
Misconduct

Community
Citizenship
Behavior

+

+

+

+
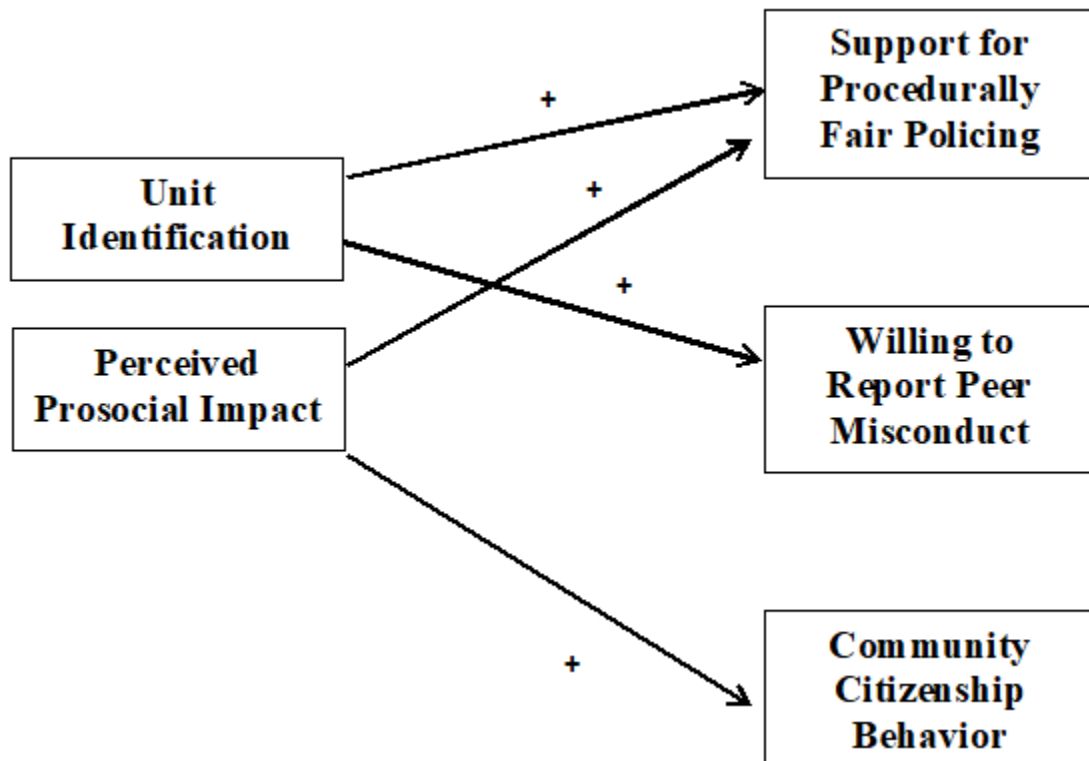
Figure 2: Psychological Mechanisms Affecting Approaches to Policing

2.3. Activating the Two Mechanisms: The Role of Servant Leadership Behavior

Above, I have outlined unit identification and perceived prosocial impact as essential factors

that can motivate officers to uphold the essential norms of policing and engage in

community-oriented behaviors. Given the importance of these, I hope to understand a unit

supervisor's (as opposed to a top-level organizational leader) role in developing and

empowering followers to enact these psychological mechanisms as a means to improving

officer attitudes and behavior. In a rigid hierarchical structure such as a law enforcement

organization, unit leaders provide essential signals regarding the norms of acceptable and

unacceptable behaviors. This places post commanders in the unique position to align

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organizational goals and attitudes of street-level bureaucrats to contribute to community-oriented outcomes. Servant leaders answer this call by prioritizing the development of line-level officers who regularly interact with the community, showing followers that serving others is a key aspect of the organization's mission, and illustrating that followers will be rewarded, not left behind, if they prioritize the needs of others over their self-interest. Before outlining specific hypotheses regarding the direct and indirect effects of servant leadership, I discuss servant leadership's uniqueness compared to other popular forms of leadership, its relevance to the context of this study, and outline the elements of servant leadership that will lead to moral development amongst followers.

2.3.1. Servant Leadership: Definition and Key Concepts

Servant leaders focus on follower needs and follower development, providing followers with the tools that allow them to grow to their full potential. Leaders who exhibit servant leadership are attuned to the goals and needs of followers (Van Dierendonck 2011) and assist followers toward accomplishing goals, setting aside self-interest and deemphasizing personal goals to assist others before themselves. Servant leaders encourage followers to adopt a similar approach of putting others before themselves (Greenleaf 1977). They legitimize serving others and make certain that the issues and people they serve are legitimized (Schwarz, Newman, Cooper, and Eva 2016). Instead of focusing efforts on serving their superiors or pushing toward short-term organizational goals, servant leaders encourage followers to focus on their development and their place in the community.

Servant leadership practices are especially important in organizations with extensive

formalization and bureaucracy, as servant leaders respond to employees even within a rigid

hierarchical structure (Eva, Robin, Sendaya, van Dierendonck, and Liden 2013). As

followers look to leaders for cues about acceptable or unacceptable behavior within a

workgroup, they engage in social learning (Bandura 1977). Social learning suggests that

followers look to leaders as role models for attitudes and values that are important to the

workgroup. Followers emulate the actions of their supervisor and, within service-oriented

leadership, feel empowered to care about clientele because their supervisor demonstrates the

importance of clientele and makes it clear that if a follower cares about the clientele, they

will have the supervisor's support. Servant leaders accomplish this through a few core

approaches to followers, outlined by Spears (1995) in an effort to clarify the earlier writings

of Greenleaf (1977).

Spears (1995) explains that servant leaders listen to followers, prioritizing communication

and understanding the will of their followers. They display empathy and awareness,

understanding the situations of others. They commit to the growth of people, nurturing both

the personal and professional development of followers. They build community by

emphasizing the importance of community in a person's life. All of these contribute to the

development of followers. Furthermore, Spears (1995) notes that servant leaders contribute

to long-term organizational outcomes through conceptualization, or thinking beyond the

present day about the needs of individuals, and stewardship, which emphasizes choosing

service over self to form a bond within groups.

As stewards of their organization, servant leaders take responsibility for the larger and longer-term institutional responsibilities of their organization, leading them to opt for service over self-interest. Additionally, their stewardship informs the priority they place on orienting followers to serve others. Stewardship theories of management (Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson 1997) suggest that these managers find higher utility in collective, pro-organizational behaviors than they do in self-serving or individualistic behaviors. In a hierarchical, competitive organizational setting like a law enforcement organization, supervisors might tend to seek as much control over subordinates as possible.

 A collective approach to leadership that fulfills the stewardship element of servant leadership represents an attempt to confront the complexity of the job of policing, rather than boiling their role down to the most readily tangible reward system or structure (Davis et al. 1997). These leaders, in turn, convince followers of the value of intangible rewards that are often more difficult to measure (Davis et al. 1997). In fact, theorists like Davis et al. (1997) argue that the motivations associated with stewardship are connected to follower self-leadership wherein followers have a belief in their own work that is outside of an organization's formal rewards system. Servant leaders may complicate their followers' opinions of formal rewards systems; however, in the place of these rewards systems are different sources of motivation and a more complex approach to their work. Davis et al. (1997) argues that when both supervisors and subordinates elect to act as stewards, they focus on long-term organizational purpose, feel high levels of empowerment, and experience maximized performance for the group.

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Across multiple studies and settings, servant leadership has been associated with positive outcomes for employees. It is associated with lower cynicism (Bobbio, Van Dierendonck, and Manganelli 2012) and lower turnover intention (Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney, and Weinberger 2013), illustrating additional attachment to the organization. Servant leadership is also associated with higher levels of volunteer and service motivation (Linda Parris and Welty Peachy 2012), indicating a connection between servant leadership and an employee's enthusiasm about volunteering.

2.3.2. Ethical/Moral Values-Based Leadership Forms

Servant leadership represents a form of positive leadership, which is a set of leadership forms that emphasize leader behaviors and interpersonal dynamics between leaders and followers to increase follower efficacy and enhance positive outcomes (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu 2018). Traditionally, scholars studying positive leadership forms employ transformational leadership, which Burns (1978) defines as a process where leaders and followers raise one another's morality and motivation to serve organizational interests.

Values-based leadership forms such as servant, ethical, or authentic leadership emerged in response to public corporate scandals including Enron, Fannie Mae, and others (Hoch et al. 2018). Many attributed moral failings of these organizations to failures of leadership, and scholars responded by beginning to examine whether leadership forms that emphasize morals or ethics could confront ethical problems within organizations (Hoch et al. 2018). Despite the rise in popularity of values-based leadership forms, there still exists some question about whether servant, ethical, and authentic leadership styles explain organizational phenomena

more clearly than the more traditional transformational leadership – that is, scholars wonder whether values-based conceptualizations of leadership represent new and theoretically distinct concepts, or their proliferation introduces redundancy compared to traditional approaches to studying leadership.

In this section, I contend that servant leadership is theoretically distinct from transformational leadership. Following that, I discuss empirical evidence that servant leadership is distinct from transformational, ethical, and authentic leadership. Finally, I argue that servant leadership introduces unique mechanisms to consider the effectiveness of leadership in enhancing community-focused outcomes in policing.

2.3.3. Conceptual Distinctions

My contention that servant leadership is conceptually distinct from transformational leadership echoes other leadership scholars who highlight transformational leadership's lack of a specific or explicit moral component (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999). Leaders viewed as transformational may still contribute to moral failings of corporations (Bass and Steidlmeier 1999; Hoch et al. 2018), thus leading scholars to introduce and emphasize leadership forms that account for a leader's ethical and moral character, and a leader's effect on the moral development of followers.

Transformational leaders work to build commitment to organizational objectives by encouraging followers to consider what is best for the group or organization (Seltzer and Bass 1990). The primary focus of a transformational leader in organizational research remains enhancing performance of employees to accomplish organizational objectives, and

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doing so via idealized influence on followers, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio et al. 1991). Effective transformational leaders attempt to develop followers to new levels of potential through effective rhetoric and through delegating tasks to followers and monitoring whether followers need support in accomplishing those tasks (Stone, Russell, and Patterson 2003).

Of these behaviors, individualized consideration presents the greatest overlap with servant leadership. Bass (2000) and Stone et al. (2003) note that servant leadership shares elements with transformational leadership. Both leadership forms encapsulate people-oriented leadership styles that prioritize trust, credibility, integrity, modeling behaviors, and risk-sharing (Stone et al. 2003). However, this overlap does not limit servant leadership to simply a "subset" of the behaviors within transformational leadership. There are different levels of emphasis on these overlapping elements of the leadership forms, and perhaps more importantly, leaders adopting these styles gain influence and work toward long-term goals in different manners (Stone et al. 2003).

For a servant leader, follower development holds a primary position. Optimal servant leadership consists of serving and responding to the needs of others. Servant leaders see the development of followers as the key tool for accomplishing long-term organizational goals; instead of focusing specifically on organizational objectives and tasks to accomplish these objectives, servant leaders focus on the people within the organization.

Servant leaders remove their self-interest and develop followers, trusting that followers will undertake action that aligns with long-term organizational goals (Stone et al. 2003). This

removes the leader as the primary focus, as is the case with transformational leadership. This may lead followers to perceive transformational leaders as more effective (Judge and Piccolo 2004); however, servant leaders sacrifice being the central focus for prioritizing subordinates, standing back, showing humility, and emphasizing followers as a key source of long-term organizational performance (van Dierendonck et al. 2014). Rather than focusing on task performance, servant leaders promote moral development of followers via modeling, delegating, empowering, and promoting normatively appropriate behaviors (Hoch et al. 2018). Servant leaders believe that without first developing and nurturing individuals within the organization, there cannot be continued progress toward organizational goals. They emphasize development and delegation over conformity and task performance (Bass 2000). Servant leaders empower followers to focus on a greater good, not limiting their moral development to only the costs and benefits of tasks (Graham 1995; Van Dierendonck 2011).

Further illustrating the appropriateness of servant leadership for informing and developing the attitudes of line-level followers, servant leadership is particularly effective at fulfilling the psychological needs of followers. This aspect of servant leadership has received empirical support (Mayer et al. 2008), and calls back to the conceptual beginnings of servant leadership, where Greenleaf (1977) envisioned servant leaders as those who will help followers grow as individuals and themselves become servant leaders.

In this dissertation research, I am interested in more than just an officer's performance on tasks. Instead, I am interested in officer attitudes when they interact with the public, and how officers value civilians and community during these interactions. While performing tasks and

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focusing on short-term objectives could be a positive element of community-focused approaches to policing, outcomes of interest in my research represent "softer" skills police employ when interacting and communicating with civilians. Transformational leadership's heavy emphasis on task performance and production to achieve objectives may cut against some of the community-focused ideals we wish to see in our law enforcement officers.

Grant (2012) notes that transformational leaders may find difficulty influencing followers through only inspiring rhetoric, and wonders whether transformational leaders have a responsibility to connect employees with beneficiaries as a means of illustrating the importance of follower work. He suggests that connecting employees to the service they do for those outside of the organization may be a new mechanism through which transformational leaders influence follower performance. In Grant's attempt to widen the scope and simply tack on another route of influence for transformational leaders, he highlights an important leadership practice that much more closely describes the behaviors of a servant leader. Servant leaders directly model the importance of serving others, and bridge the gap between line-level officers and their social impact. Providing this bridge represents a mechanism through which servant leaders influence officer attitudes. This may instill in followers a mindset that empowers them to sacrifice short-term measures of success for long-term positive impact on the community.

Servant leadership's effect on community-facing attitudes pushes beyond traditional studies of servant leadership, many of which focus on organizational behavior, not necessarily community-facing attitudes. While multiple forms of leadership influence psychological

mechanisms, servant leadership's ability to provide psychological support *and* prioritize the needs of others may make it suitable for the complex problem of influencing line-level officers' approaches with the public.

Servant leaders bring empathy and charisma that engenders follower trust and sets them off on the right foot toward being effective. After that, they develop followers to instill commitment and positive attitudes about the organization. Finally, they instill a sense of serving others – typically manifesting as positive intra-organizational behavior, but perhaps also manifesting as better serving the community. Therefore, in addition to contending that servant leadership is conceptually distinct from other positive leadership forms, I contend that the specific values modeled by servant leaders are essential to the context of this study. Below, I briefly empirical evidence regarding the distinctiveness and efficacy of servant leadership compared to other leadership forms. This empirical approach compares servant leadership to transformational leadership, and pits servant, ethical, and authentic leadership against one another to examine their correlations with key organizational behaviors.

2.3.4. Empirical Distinctions

Supporting the conceptual distinctions between servant and transformational leadership, Hoch et al. (2018) conducted a meta-analysis comparing the predictive power of transformational leadership compared to ethical/moral values-based leadership forms and found that ethical/moral values-based leadership explained additional variance beyond transformational leadership. Specifically, servant leadership explained additional variance in organizational citizenship behaviors, employee engagement, employee job satisfaction, and

organizational commitment (Hoch et al. 2018). Furthermore, servant leadership explained increases in incremental variance in follower trust in supervisor and quality of leader-member exchange (Hoch et al. 2018). Across all outcomes, servant leadership explained an average of 12% additional variance on outcomes compared to transformational leadership, while authentic and ethical leadership explained 5.2% and 6.2% additional variance on average. These results ease concerns regarding the potential redundancy of values-based forms of leadership. While measures of transformational leadership correlate highly with measures of authentic and ethical leadership, transformational leadership's correlation with servant leadership is considerably lower (Hoch et al. 2018). This suggests empirical non-redundancy (Hoch et al. 2018), in addition to the anticipated theoretical non-redundancy despite some overlapping concepts. While all three of these values-based forms of leadership appear to capture something that transformational leadership does not, Hoch et al. (2018) suggest that servant leadership has the strongest case for both construct and empirical non-redundancy.

Hoch et al. (2018) warn that some of this empirical distinctiveness may stem from servant leadership appearing less in the empirical literature; however, thus far, results of meta-analysis suggest that exploring the effects of servant leadership is not simply rehashing old conceptualizations of how leaders interact with followers. Additionally, servant leadership does not seem to share conceptual or empirical overlap with modern forms of values-based leadership (e.g., authentic or ethical leadership). These results do more than just rid one of the concern that these leadership forms are redundant – they go a step further and suggest

that a servant-first mindset is an important conceptual thread to pull on to better understand

how leaders can inform the attitudes of followers. There appears to be something unique

about leaders who prioritize serving, and that unique path to moral development of followers

is an untapped resource in understanding how leaders generate norms in public organizations.

2.3.5. Servant Leadership and Perceived Prosocial Impact

The following section outlines my hypotheses regarding the role of servant leadership

behaviors in improving the attitude and performance of law enforcement officers. I rely on

theories of servant leadership, relational job design, prosocial impact, and group

identification to explain how servant leadership behaviors of post commanders influence

officer attitudes and performance. Perceived prosocial impact, or the perceived impact of

one's work on the community, is an essential motivating factor for public employees. Law

enforcement personnel are no different, routinely facing harassment or harm on the job with

the hopes of improving the community.

Grant (2007) attempts to understand perceived prosocial impact through the relational

architecture of jobs, or the elements of a job that connect employees to those they serve.

Specifically, the elements that connect employees to the impact their work has on people.

Grant (2007) notes that different jobs will provide different levels of relational enrichment,

comparing a fireman's enriched relational impact with a janitor's relatively lower relational

impact. Furthermore, even within the same job, employees may experience a more robust

relational climate if they have more interaction with beneficiaries of their work or if they

clearly see that their work has a positive impact on beneficiaries. Employees vary in terms of

the overall impact they have on the lives of beneficiaries, and in the amount of time they are in contact with beneficiaries, both of which inform the level of relational enrichment they feel in their job.

The relational structure of jobs influences individuals' commitment to beneficiaries, as well as an individuals' perception that their work has a positive impact on beneficiaries (Grant 2007). When employees are other-oriented and aware of the benefits of a prosocial motivation, they are more likely to invest time and energy in helping other members of the organization voluntarily and without worrying about what it might cost them.

Grant (2007) argues that the relational architecture of a job influences an individual's perceived impact on beneficiaries, and that higher perceptions of positive impact enhance individuals' effort, helping behavior, and persistence in their roles. In other words, an employee's contact with beneficiaries and impact on beneficiaries – two key elements of relational architecture – motivate them to make a prosocial difference, and Grant (2007) expects those differences to manifest in the form of prosocial behaviors within the organization aimed at supporting other employees.

While understanding Grant's expectations regarding relational job design, I contend that leaders can play an important role in enhancing the relational environment of employees. Leaders can accomplish this in two ways. First, leaders occupy a position that allows them to communicate and model the importance of caring about others more than themselves. This approach exemplifies servant leadership, as servant leaders prioritize the needs of followers *and* other relevant stakeholders, including civilians, before their own self-interest. Second,

leaders can be the vessel through which followers recognize the impact that their job has on beneficiaries. Servant leaders downplay their own self-interest and career advancement to focus on the development of followers and the community at large. In the case of law enforcement organizations, this means that servant leaders will be more likely to communicate to followers how their work impacts the communities that they serve and the potential that each follower has to make a positive impact on the community through their work. When leaders do this, we expect a follower's perceived positive impact of their work to be higher. Servant leaders can influence follower perceptions of the positive impact of work, and illustrate to followers the importance of putting others ahead of self-interest. This recalls findings from Grant (2012) that leaders do not simply inspire followers through rhetoric and modeling, but also through how they direct their attention regarding job design. Grant (2012) and Belle (2013) focus on the impact of transformational leadership. Instead, I focus on servant leadership and contend that servant leaders inspire employees through more than just developing them and responding to their needs. Servant leaders illustrate the value of serving others before serving one's self. This alters the job design of officers by ensuring that officers see the importance of their work in society. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Supervisor servant leadership behavior will be positively associated with perceived prosocial impact of work.

This illustrates the important position of leadership in influencing the relational structure of jobs, an essential yet understudied phenomenon in policing research. The stewardship

elements essential to servant leadership provide an avenue to influence perceived prosocial impact compared to competing styles of leadership. For example, empowering leadership, and psychological empowerment as a potential psychological mechanism that leads to better outcomes, is often more task-oriented. Empowerment captures an individual's intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy to perform organizational tasks (Spreitzer 1995), but the primary goal of this study is to examine how officers approach interacting with citizens and serving communities, rather than performance on specific tasks within their role.
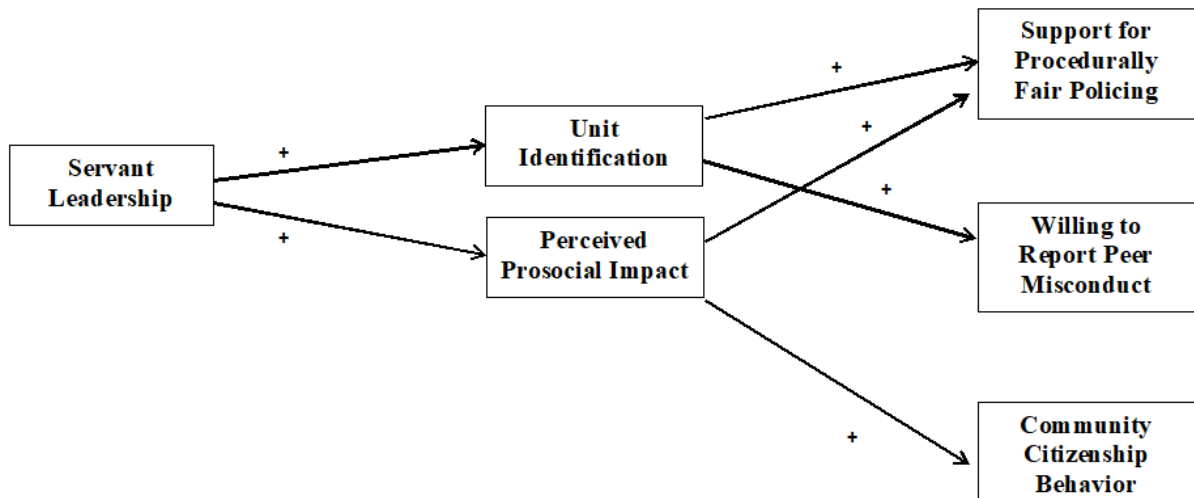
Figure 3: Leadership, Mediation, and Outcomes

2.3.6. Servant Leadership and Unit Identification

Organizational researchers have long examined correlates of an individual's attachment social groups within an organization. A classic concept within organizational behavior and public administration literature (Simon 1947), identification with groups within an organization can be an essential step in aligning the goals of individual bureaucrats with the goals of their respective units (Ashforth and Mael 1989; Dutton and Dukerich 1991; Dutton, Dukerish, and Harquail 1994). This alters the way individuals approach decisions; in the words of Lasswell (1935, p. 7), "In making a decision, an individual evaluates the several alternatives of choice in terms of their consequences for the specified group." Individuals who identify strongly with the unit will make decisions with the goals and values common to the unit at the forefront of their minds. This raises questions about paths to enhance unit identification amongst police officers, so that shared unit values are likely to play a role in individual decisions. This section outlines my expectations that servant leadership will be associated with higher levels of identification with the unit and, through increasing unit identification, servant leaders are essential to informing the values and attitudes adopted by followers.

We should expect servant leadership to be connected with high levels of unit identification for multiple reasons. First, research shows that unit-level identification is susceptible to influence from the sources that are closer to the unit, such as the supervisor, rather than from broad organizational features (Reade 2001). This is supported by Olkkonen and Lipponen's (2006) finding that supervisor-focused perceptions of justice are associated with work-unit

identification, whereas organization-focused justice perceptions are associated with

organizational identification. Second, servant leaders take the time to understand and respond

to the needs of individual followers (Chughtai 2016; de Sousa and van Dierendonck 2014;

Mayer et al. 2008; Van Dierendonck 2011). Research suggests when leaders take the time to

respond to the psychological needs of each follower, they enhance follower relational

identification and commitment to the leader (van Dierendonck 2012). This investment in the

needs of followers also enhances follower perceptions of leaders as legitimate sources of

authority, thus enhancing commitment to and compliance with norms those leaders espouse

for followers and for the unit as a whole. Third, when servant leaders provide for the needs of

followers, followers do not perceive the unit as in competition with their values or an

obstacle to them flourishing; instead, followers feel that key values of the unit are a welcome

part of their identity and essential to development in their career (de Sousa and van

Dierendonck 2014). Additionally, followers no longer see leaders as an obstruction to their

progress, even if there are clear status differences between the subordinate and the

supervisor. In order for line-level employees to adopt unit values and norms as an extension

of their own identity, it is essential that these employees do not feel unit leaders are working

against their values or career development. Just as servant leaders put aside self-interest and

buy into others, higher levels of servant leadership will lead followers to buy into the success

of their unit, and the key values of that unit, as part of their own success (de Sousa and van

Dierendonk 2014). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Higher perceptions of supervisor servant leadership will be positively associated with unit identification.

Taken together, these hypotheses and the relationships outlined in Figure 3 above suggest that servant leadership is essential for law enforcement organizations that hope for other-, service-, or community-oriented attitudes and outcomes. Servant leadership illustrates to officers the impact of their work to the community and encourages officers to adopt core unit goals as a key part of their identity. Through enhancing these psychological mechanisms, servant leadership can influence officer community citizenship behavior, support for procedurally fair policing, and willingness to report the misbehavior of peers. Other-oriented and ethical approaches to policing emphasized by servant leaders are made salient through enhancing identification with the unit and enhancing perceptions that line-level officer work is important for the community. This leads to my final hypotheses regarding the mediated effects of servant leadership on the three outcomes:

Hypothesis 7: Perceived prosocial impact will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and key attitudinal outcomes.

Hypothesis 8: Unit identification will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and key attitudinal outcomes.

Hypothesis 9: Perceived prosocial impact will act as a stronger mediator, compared to unit identification, between servant leadership and support for procedurally fair policing practices[3]

2.4. The Moderating Role of Unit Climate

2.4.1. Unintended Consequences of Highly Formalized Accountability Systems

In police organizations operating within modern performance management environments, there may be misalignment between measuring performance and the central mission, values, or ideals guiding officer activity. For example, missions of law enforcement organizations include language like "respect", "teamwork", "compassion", "integrity", and "adaptability." These are key elements of recruitment and training, and, with some variance, officers roundly buy-in to the importance of these values. These words represent the ideals that civilians hope police officers aspire to – respect, compassion, and integrity should be guiding principles for those who serve the public. However, rewards and recognitions that do not highlight these values and instead focus on objective measures of effective performance may implicitly encourage officers to stray from these values. These systems do not explicitly state that officers will be rewarded in accordance with their lack of integrity or lack of compassion when interacting with citizens; instead, they introduce conflict between the time it takes to

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[3] The presence of this hypothesis should not imply that I anticipate all other mediating effects to be equal. In my model, support for procedurally fair policing is the lone outcome variable that I anticipate will be influenced by *both* mediating mechanisms. Therefore, I present a hypothesis regarding the strength of those paths of influence from servant leadership. Other findings regarding the strength of influence from particular paths will be discussed in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

carefully and compassionately serve the community, and the efficiency of measured

performance and interactions. This conflict between the ideals we place on officers and the

rewards systems we use to track their performance recalls Kerr's (1975) discussion of the

tension between what society expects from certain professions, and what rewards systems

encourage.

Kerr (1975) posits that a manager's fascination with "objective" or simple, quantifiable

criteria may lead to greater prediction of performance in that area, but cause goal

displacement for items not captured by those measures. This is especially likely if the

outcomes a manager actually *desires* are quite complex and more difficult to observe (Kerr

1975). Kerr outlines the tension between society's *hope* that university professors will buy

into the importance of their teaching responsibilities and the formal (or informal)

accountability systems within universities that tie research and publications to job security

and success. This disconnect occurs for multiple reasons, and Kerr's discussion of why these

systems persist *and* why they introduce problems is informative for understanding similar

tensions in law enforcement organizations. Kerr begins by making it clear that research, on

its own, is not a negative product of a professor's work.

Similarly, objective measures of accountability in policing – contacts with citizens, number

of citations, number of felony arrests – are not inherently negative. These measures show

activity, presence, and attention to detail. They are likely correlated with safer roadways and

communities. However, when these measures compete with things that are important but

more difficult to measure – such as giving civilians a voice during those traffic stops or

interacting with civilians in a non-confrontational manner – these systems do not align with the organization's values. For Kerr, those more complex interactions during traffic stops represent the "teaching output" that is, compared to research outputs, more difficult to measure and quantify, and thus more difficult to reward. While there is nothing that formally discourages quality teaching, and nothing that formally discourages lengthy conversations between civilians and police, a rewards systems that leans toward rewarding quantifiable, objective performance measures inherently encourages those measures and discourages the complex activities that may align with society's ideals for police behavior. This can lead to a scenario where, despite robust accountability systems in police organizations, these organizations still struggle with improving police-community relations. Worse still, this may also lead to a scenario where police officers overreach or target certain areas to meet organizational goals for performance on quantifiable metrics.

Compounding the potential negative side effects of individual-based rewards and accountability systems, rewards systems that encourage measurable activity from individual officers inherently devalue team-based outputs. These systems put officers in competition with one another within a hierarchical system that already suffers from limited opportunities for training, recognition, or advancement through promotion. In response, officers will act in ways to promote their self-interest and their individual accomplishments, as these are essential to demonstrating good performance. Kerr (1975) presents the example of the team-focused baseball player who, instead of sacrificing himself to advance a baserunner, attempts to hit a home run. The ballplayer knows that individual accomplishments are much more

correlated with career advancement, even if it is to the detriment of the team. When individual activity informs officer rewards and opportunities for advancement, individuals will put their needs and career advancement before the needs of peers or the organization. This may result in an individual taking credit for another's work, degrading the effort or work of another, or working behind the scenes to call attention to their efforts, knowing how important that is for their career trajectory.

Line-level officers, acknowledging the importance of connecting with community members, still feel intense pressure from communities, politicians, media, and unit or organizational leaders (Schaible and Six 2016). This pressure often stems from accountability systems that recognize officers based on individually focused performance measures can make officers feel as though they are being pulled away from a mission to help the community, and instead responding to demands from supervisors for a specific number of citizen contacts, or, in the worst cases, number of citations and arrests. This phenomenon is supported by research on the consequences of accountability pressure aimed at improving school performance. While accountability pressure is tied to greater attentiveness from principals (Altrichter and Kemethofer 2015) and more spending on learning technology (Chiang 2009), there is also evidence that this pressure restricted new teaching strategies, lowered work satisfaction, and increased cheating from students or teachers (Ehren and Swanborn 2012; Altrichter and Kemethofer 2015). Additionally, accountability pressure in schools was associated with higher levels of teacher stress, reports of a more stressful school environment, and higher turnover intention among teachers (von der Embse, Pendergrast, Segool, Saeki, and Ryan

2016). Therefore, although accountability and rewards systems may identify and even address some of the problems within departments, they may introduce stress into the environment and fall short of reconnecting law enforcement organizations with the community. I contend in this study that understanding the informal systems within a law enforcement organization may provide more insight into how to begin to repair police-community relations, and may be more beneficial moving forward than the next move toward a more rigorous accountability system. Additionally, understanding how informal organizational dynamics play out within a high-pressure accountability environment will inform potential avenues for reform.

The current research contributes to our understanding of officer attitudes by examining whether perceptions of unit climate correlate with other negative attitudes towards policing. Specifically, I examine the role of pressure for activity and political behavior within units as organizational factors that disrupt the connection between servant leadership and unit identification or perceived prosocial impact. I argue that these organizational factors – pressure and political behavior – stem from rewards systems that do not push officers to emphasize the community or community stakeholders in their work. Instead, individual-based rewards systems increase pressure on officers and encourage political behavior within units as officers try to secure their own self-interest.

This self-interested behavior falls under the category of political behavior within organizations and does not account for, or might even harm, the well-being of others in the organization at the expense of promoting one's own self-interest and accomplishments.

Kacmar and Carlson (1997) identify common features of the various definitions of organizational politics (from Allen et al. 1979; Farrell and Peterson 1982; Ferris et al. 1993). They note that political behaviors in organizations consist of exercising some kind of social influence, often directed at those who determine rewards. Furthermore, these behaviors are almost exclusively designed to promote one's own self-interest (Cropanzano et al. 1995). Furthermore, Kacmar and Ferris (1991) note that organizational politics occur in three general forms: self-serving behaviors, silence or lack of action to secure self-interested outcomes, and the organization behaving politically through its policies. These self-serving, behind-the-scenes behaviors are connected to a number of negative organizational and individual outcomes and often having a strong negative effect on workers' commitment, turnover intentions, productivity, and stress.

Researchers have also investigated scenarios that are likely to give rise to political behavior within organizations. They note that a lack of clear rules and regulations governing actions can give rise to higher levels of perceived political behavior (Kacmar and Carlson 1997; Ferris and King 1991). When individuals do not have formal guidance about proper behaviors in a given scenario, they are more likely to develop their own systems that serve themselves (Kacmar and Cropanzano 1995). Organizations with a scarcity of resources and opportunities are also more susceptible to individuals engaging in political behaviors. Limited opportunities for promotion, transfers, or training enhance competition within an organization, which increases the likelihood of political behavior to secure one's own self-interests, and increases the perceptions of political behavior from fellow employees.

Inherently, individuals competing for positions to advance their interests engage in political behavior (Farrell and Peterson 1982).

Almost all organizations have limited resources in at least some area, and police organizations are no different. The hierarchical nature of police organizations introduces competition for opportunities to rise through the ranks, competition for preferred shifts, and competition for preferred posts. Furthermore, training opportunities that might improve one's career trajectory are competitive, and often require the support or recommendation of a supervisor. This places supervisors and others on promotion committees as prime targets for political behavior. Thus, while individuals may perceive that the overall structure of training, promotion, and advancement opportunities is fair, specific situations might give rise to perceptions that others within their unit or supervisors over their unit engage in self-serving political behavior.

If organizations design reward systems that focus on rewarding individuals, they inherently encourage individually-oriented behavior (Kacmar and Carlson 1997). This will often result in behaviors that focus on the individual, rather than the organization as a whole, and this often manifests in political behaviors to advance one's own self-interest. When self-interested behaviors are tied to reward systems, individuals receive recognition and praise for the products of self-interested behavior and are more likely to repeat them (Kacmar and Carlson 1997).

Even if the senior staff of a law enforcement organization deemphasizes individually-generated outputs, mid-level supervisors may still prioritize a small set of outcomes as a

strong signal of success for individual officers and the best way to measure performance of their unit. Street-level officers may feel the pressure of a push for numbers from their supervisors, regardless of an overall shift in the organization's approach. Officers also may perceive that producing these outcomes is the most clear cut way to display your performance. Pressure for numbers and activity means that street-level officers, as well as their supervisors, perceive that these numbers and activity are a significant predictor of shifts, training opportunities, fit for a special unit or assignment, performance recognition, or promotion. As officers try to meet thresholds or raise activity numbers, they may rely on methods that do not align with the ideals of the organization, or their own ideals of what will provide the most benefit for the community they serve. One version of this could be sacrificing compassion and respect in interactions, but more detrimental versions of behavior motivated by activity pressure could include pulling over more people than is warranted, targeting certain areas of a roadway or neighborhood, or giving citations for multiple issues where they would normally limit to one citation. This highlights the importance of understanding how *perceptions* of work climate influence their attitudes about policing, rather than just studying the effects of formal systems within departments. In the next section, I outline hypotheses regarding perceptions of activity pressure, perceptions of political behavior in the unit, and the possibility that these perceptions will moderate effects of servant leadership on unit identification and perceived prosocial impact.
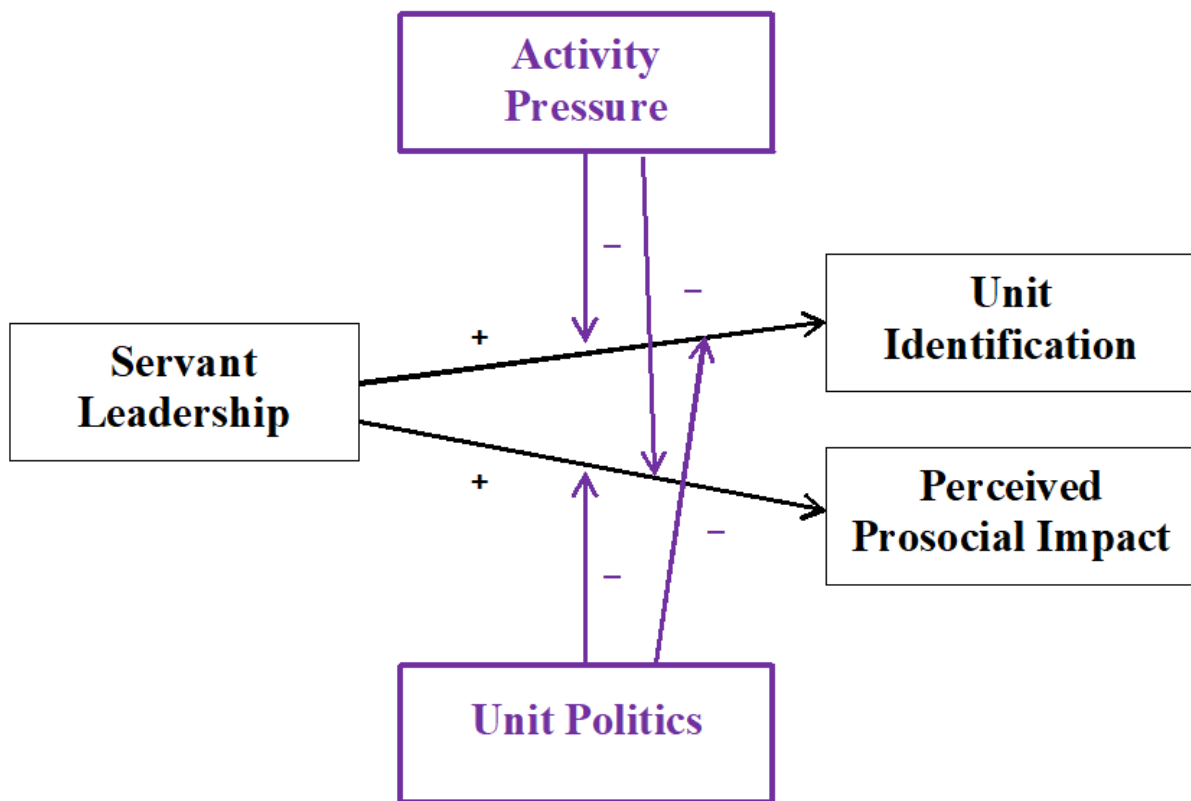
Figure 4: The Moderating Role of Unit Climates

2.4.2. What do Officers Say?

Above, I outlined expectations that there may be unintended consequences of strict,

formalized accountability systems intended to measure performance based mostly on

outcomes. I argue that these systems introduce added pressure to officers that may pull them

away from serving the community. Further, these systems may lead to informal, self-serving

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behaviors within the workgroup that, again, distract officers from focusing on the community. To provide additional detail surrounding my anticipation that rewards and accountability systems driven by a small set out outcomes are in conflict with carefully responding to and serving the community, below, I present quotes from officers within the partner organization for this study. These quotes are in response to asking officers to provide suggestions about how to improve officer morale. Some officers – both at the line level and in supervisory roles – noted the prominent and detrimental role of activity in their jobs, stating, *"I feel like if they were to not concentrate on the numbers as heavily then the overall morale would raise," "The Organization gives too much positive reinforcement for high activity, which results in a "whatever it takes" approach to putting numbers in a column,"* and, *"We are number driven and promote people that produce numbers. If you want to succeed you better manage people that produce a high volume of numbers. This makes managers push numbers in a self-serving way…"* These quotes amplify the role that activity plays in the organization and highlights the tension between accountability and caring for the community. When a few numbers play such a large role in performance evaluation and promotion possibilities, community-focused activities that do not contribute to these numbers may be discouraged.

2.4.3. Pressure for Activity as a Moderator

Activity pressure within units leads officers to stray from almost all that Grant (2007) outlines as essential for perceived prosocial impact. Grant (2007) includes frequency of contacts with beneficiaries as a key factor, but was careful to move beyond only frequency,

as shallow, repeated interactions do not illustrate the impact an officer has on the community – and may not even provide time to make it clear that an individual is benefiting from the services. Increased pressure for quantifiable metrics may lead the space between "extreme" prosocial and antisocial interactions to be filled by activities that do not provide employees with a clear picture of the importance of their work for the community. When line-level employees must prioritize a small set of outcomes or numbers, they lose the depth of contact with the community and their perceived prosocial impact suffers. In addition, when supervisors perceive activity pressure within the organization, they are less likely to communicate with subordinates about the impact their work has on the community. This means that, even if present, key connections between servant leadership and perceived prosocial impact may give way to the unit climates rife with accountability pressure. In this climate, leaders must communicate about performance on outcomes, year-over-year trends, or benchmarks. All of these align with the rewards system, but illustrate why a climate of activity pressure within the workgroup may degrade from the effects that servant leadership has on prosocial impact. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: Group-level perceptions of activity pressure will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an individual officer's perceived prosocial impact.

Unit identification finds its roots in social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979). This theory posits that identification with a specific social group is self-definitional, or that individuals self-categorize into social groups. Individuals define themselves in terms of individual characteristics *and* in terms of the features and qualities that are unique to the

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social groups to which they feel they belong (Tajfel and Turner 1986). Group identification within organizations builds upon social identity theory and suggests a specific type of identification wherein individuals incorporate organizational membership into their own descriptions of their identity (Mael and Ashforth 1992). Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994) explain organizational identification as an individual defining themselves by the same qualities that they believe define the organization. Simon (1945) notes that initially, group objectives are imposed upon individuals, but employees eventually internalize many group or unit values. As employees internalize these values, they make decisions that align with the objectives of the unit, as going against those values would be going against a part of one's own adopted identity (Simon 1945).

Rewards or accountability systems that hone in on individual accomplishment remove officers from community-focused ideals that align more with the long-term mission of the group. This lowers the extent to which law enforcement officers adopt unit identity as an important part of their social identity. Officers will perceive a larger disconnect between the personal values that led them to law enforcement and the values that the unit ties to success. Rather than seeing the organization as part of their identity, they see multiple out-groups within the organization, many of which run counter to their own adopted values. These climates force officers to adopt a more self-interested approach to work and act in a more self-interested way, despite signals from servant leaders that other-oriented behavior is essential. Instead of adopting unit identity and perceiving that they *share* in the outcomes and successes of the unit, officers instead focus on themselves. Thus, these climates may disrupt

a servant leader's ability to develop officers and enhance their identification with the unit, leading to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 11: Group-level perceptions of activity pressure will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an individual officer's identification with the unit.

Finally, I also anticipate that activity pressure will, on its own, have a direct effect on the approaches of officers when they interact with the public. As I argue earlier in this dissertation, and echoing the sentiments of officers within the organization, pressure for activity sometimes forces officer's to sacrifice community-facing behaviors as they respond to calls for numbers on key organizational outcomes. Similar to schools pushing for accountability, that pressure likely improves performance in some measurable ways, but may be detrimental to the approaches of some officers. Jakobsen, Baekgaard, Moynihan, and van Loon (2018), while investigating the failures of external performance regimes in the public sector, explain that public sector employees who feel pressure to perform very specific goals may work toward improving these goals at the expense of other outcomes. They cite an example from Ryan and Weinstein (2009) wherein teachers became less intrinsically motivated in their jobs and focused only on teaching to accountability measures, not giving effort to other, unmeasured elements that are essential to the public sector. This can narrow the focus of workers to only what is measured. While this law enforcement organization relies on an internal accountability system, it is limited in its scope and emphasis to a few key numbers. Therefore, in units that experience a climate of high accountability pressure, officers will place less emphasis on procedurally fair policing practices or community

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citizenship behaviors. Furthermore, because peer misbehavior does not cut against the pursuit of formalized outcomes, they will be less willing to report peer misconduct.

2.4.4. Perceptions of Unit political behavior as a Moderator

When facing pressure for one's own individual accomplishments while on the job, officers may be wary of fellow employees and believe that some of them are simply pushing for numbers, rather than focusing on the overall goals or mission of the organization. This section outlines my expectations regarding another phenomenon within workgroups that removes officers from the impact their work has on the community: political behavior within the unit.

Political behaviors include social-based tactics to secure one's own accomplishments or advancement, often at the expense of organizational goals (Pfeffer 1992). While this differs from pressure felt due to accountability systems, this behavior may be informed by systems that make individual accomplishments a key factor in evaluating employees. Relying on social exchange theory (Blau 1964; Cropanzano and Byrne 2000) as a way to understand the impacts of political behavior in workgroups, it is suggested that these behaviors can manifest as a perceived breach of the implied "contract" that underlies the work of the organization or unit. Social exchange theory highlights norms of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) as a key expectation within organizations. In order to maintain positive working relationships, participants continually exchange effort and reward with a shared idea of expected and desired outcomes. However, when actors within the workgroup engage in political behaviors, norms of reciprocity begin to fall apart, as those in the exchange become concerned that

another actor's political behavior will place self-interest above meeting expectations (Rosen, Chang, Johnson, and Levy 2009; Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, and Tepper 2013). Individuals within a workgroup expect salary increases, promotions, or recognition, and in exchange dedicate their time to helping others in the unit or performing at a high level. However, if perceptions of political behaviors are high, it is unclear whether their effort will be met with expected recognition or reward. In a highly political environment, it is not always clear what actions will be tied to rewards, as some rewards may be the result of behind-the-scenes political behaviors (Witt et al. 2002).

In many scenarios, breach of this implied contract will affect the internal dynamics of the workgroup, reducing helping behavior or cooperation within the unit (Kacmar et al. 2013). Individuals either do not feel that their helping behavior will be met with rewards, or are busy dedicating their time to self-serving political behavior in hopes of getting ahead. While these effects on the internal dynamics of the workgroup likely hold true in police organizations, I contend that political behavior in this context may represent a breach of the implied motivation and importance of one's work, not *just* the implied norms of reciprocity. In an inherently public-facing organization where key elements of the mission focus on helping the community, political behavior work degrades the connection between work activities and impact on the community. Instead of prioritizing the connection between one's work and its impact on the community, political behaviors prioritize the connection between one's work and one's self-interest or desired outcomes, i.e., reward or promotion. Therefore,

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I expect higher levels of perceived political behavior within the unit to be associated with lower levels of perceived prosocial impact, outlined in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 12: Group-level perceptions of political behavior within the unit will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an individual officer's perceived prosocial impact.

A key element that allows individuals to identify with their work and their unit is the perception that the unit structure works to *develop* their identity, rather than standing in the way as something that their identity must continuously work to overcome. Research at the intersection of identification and work alienation (Seeman 1959; Hackman and Oldham 1980; Mottaz 1981; Regoli et al. 1990) suggests that individuals identify less with their work tasks or roles if they perceive a lack of control over desired work outcomes or that their goals are blocked due to the nature of their work or the organization. This leads individuals to feel powerless over organizational direction and meaningless for organizational outcomes (Seeman 1959; Blauner 1964). Individuals isolate themselves because they feel their values do not align with their peers, and they withdraw from work that no longer feels tied to rewards (Blauner 1964). Elements of work alienation and the withdrawal of identification with the unit stem directly from factors related to unit climate. Perceptions of political behavior within the unit communicate to an individual that his or her values conflict with the internal rewards system, or that his or her career goals will be blocked by self-serving political behavior within the unit. This leads individuals to identify less with the unit, as the rewards structure within the unit is now in conflict with their personal values. Given this, I

expect group perceptions of political behavior to disrupt the effect of servant leadership on unit identification, as outlined in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 13: Group-level perceptions of political behavior within the unit will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an individual officer's identification with the organization.

Chapter 3. Study Design and Procedure

3.1. Research Design

To test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 2, I rely on a cross-sectional research design.

Rather than examining the effect of an external intervention or event, I compare existing

differences on key constructs across individuals. This approach sheds light on the

relationships between leadership, unit climates, and attitudes of line-level officers. It also

allows me to understand the experiences and perceptions of individuals in their day-to-day

setting, rather than in a lab setting or in response to a treatment. This approach also

overcomes difficulties and ethical questions associated with intentionally assigning law

enforcement officers to units suffering from negative or harmful leadership practices.

Cross-sectional designs sit in contrast with longitudinal, experimental, or quasi-experimental

designs, exceling in capturing perceptions of the current context and describing relationships

between variables (Lewis-Beck et al. 2003). This design does not rely on capturing changes

in measures or perceptions over time. Therefore, it does not indicate the sequence of events

or shed light on causal linkages. Instead, my design introduces essential new concepts to the

study of policing and sets the stage for future experimental or quasi-experimental research on

the effects of leadership and unit climate in policing. Because there is no external treatment

or random assignment to treatment, confounding variables may bias my estimates of the

effects of independent variables on dependent variables. To account for these concerns, I include many relevant control variables to account for their effects and better understand the connections among the main hypothesized relationships.

Another concern in cross-sectional survey research is the possibility that single-source survey data introduces common source or common method bias. In a general sense, this is a bias introduced by the *method* of measuring concepts, rather than introduced by the constructs themselves (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003). Specifically, one source of common method bias in survey research stems from collecting responses about both the independent and dependent variables from the same persons at the same time point (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Meier and O'Toole 2012). When respondents try to respond to a question where they are not immediately able to recall the answer, they might default to consistency within the same survey, which means answers on earlier items may influence subsequent answers. The order of items in a survey may also introduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al. 2003). For example, asking about particularly salient issues in the work environment might spark responses to other items that, instead of reflecting one's true perceptions, reflect the lingering feelings introduced by the earlier items.

Podsakoff et al. (2013) and Favero and Bullock (2015) suggest using data from separate sources as a route to address common method bias. In a scenario where that is not possible, these scholars suggest temporal separation when the researcher collects the independent and dependent variables for their research. Temporal separation eliminates context-related saliency that could bias responses about your outcome variable. It also limits the possibility

that a respondent reviews answers or uses previous answers to fill in gaps in later responses (Podsakoff et al. 2013).

I took multiple steps in the design and distribution of surveys to lower concerns regarding common method bias. I introduce temporal separation by measuring key predictor and key outcome variables in two separate surveys. This two-wave survey design allows me to collect responses from the same subjects, but at two different time points. This alleviates some concerns about common method bias in my measures. In addition, within the same survey, I place items measuring key outcome variables throughout the survey so that items for key constructs are not grouped together. These steps alleviate some concern related to common method bias. Finally, to minimize concerns of common method bias for my key predictor variable, servant leadership, I also include a group-level measure of servant leadership behaviors. Measures of servant leadership behavior at the group level come from multiple sources. When examining the effects of group-level perceptions of servant leadership, I control for individual-level perceptions, which addresses some concerns of common method bias.

I conduct this research in a large statewide law enforcement organization and capture a snapshot of perceptions of officers and supervisors. This organization covers both urban and rural areas, and thus may not perfectly reflect the challenges of some large urban police departments across the board. Nonetheless, I contend that the general tasks, organizational structure, and unit climate are reflective of many other law enforcement organizations and therefore informative for the research of leadership and unit climate in policing.

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3.2. Case Selection

The purpose of this dissertation project is to understand how servant leadership and unit climate influence line-level officer attitudes. In the following section, I discuss the partner organization for this research, their mission and general organizational structure, and their contributions as a partner in developing this survey and research project.

The partner organization for this research is a large law enforcement organization. This organization consists of both enforcement and administrative employees and is divided into multiple administrative districts. Each administrative district is commanded by a single senior officer. Within those administrative districts, there are multiple posts charged with covering a specific geographic area. There is a single mid-level supervisor in charge of each individual post, and that mid-level supervisor is the focal point of my conceptualization of servant leadership in this analysis. That supervisor is in charge of line-level officers within the post. Each post typically consists of 15-25 line-level officers, which include officers consistently on patrol and shift supervisors that spend some less time on the road. My analysis focuses on these line-level officers within posts.

This organization is an interesting and relevant case for this research. First, this organization's role as a partner and thoughtful participant in this research was vital. This partnership consisted of discussions and feedback about what should be the key focus of this research, focus groups to craft survey questions so that they are relevant to the day-to-day activities of employees, and welcoming researchers into the organization to better understand

practical organizational functions. This partnership and support from key leaders as well as line-level officers in the organization improved the response rate of both waves of the survey.

This agency participates in a variety of enforcement and community-focused activities and consistently works with other law enforcement organizations across jurisdictional lines. The organization is demographically homogenous, mostly consisting of white male law enforcement officers; however, this is reflective of the demographics of many similar law enforcement organizations, and something the organization is actively working to improve through recruitment and retention efforts.

Another interesting element that this organization provides is its rigid hierarchical organizational structure. While this potentially introduces problems related to competitiveness and opportunities for advancement, this also places supervisors within the organization in a unique position to influence the attitudes and approaches of line-level officers. Powerful organizational socialization processes as well as the strong influence of culture within policing combine to make this a proper organizational setting to examine the influences of leadership and unit climate.

Police organizations also provide a timely and essential setting to understand how officers interact with the civilians they serve. There are obvious and ongoing struggles in attempting to repair police-community relations; nonetheless, a police officer is a street-level bureaucrat who interacts with civilians as frequently as any type in the public sector. The public-facing nature of policing makes it an important type of organization to better understand in terms of the effects of leadership, norm development, and line-level employee attitudes.

Finally, this organizational setting is interesting for this research project because servant leadership, despite growing in popularity in recent years, has rarely and only tangentially been studied in law enforcement organizations (see Vito, Suresh, and Richards 2011).

3.3. Survey Development and Dissemination

As noted earlier, I employ data collection with two separate surveys to examine the relationships between the initial research model and hypotheses. The surveys were distributed to all ~1767 officers as well as their supervisors in the law enforcement agency. The organization provided a master list of employee email addresses, as well as employee job titles, ranks, supervisors, and demographic information. At the start of the project, the research team conducted focus groups with small groups of officers that included both supervisors and line-level officers. This was essential to developing the survey instrument in two ways: First, the research team was able to ensure the questions were clear and the language referring to supervisors captured the organizational structure of the law enforcement agency. Second, this enhanced the research team's understanding of how supervisors and workgroup members communicate, thus improving strategies when asking questions about norm communication.

The data collection for the project started in March of 2019 with the dissemination of invites to participate in Survey 1. The items in this survey were part of a larger research program focusing on officer safety, physical and mental wellness, diversity, recruitment, retention, and leadership. This larger research program included administering surveys to sworn personnel (law enforcement officers), as well as administrative personnel.

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The first survey includes items developed and validated in leadership and organization behavior literature (see Appendix A for the full instrument for Survey 1). It asks officers to provide some simple demographic information, and asks questions about officers' personality traits, public service motivation, work climate, work safety, and perceptions of leader behaviors. The items on personality traits assess generalized self-efficacy, self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability, which constitute the core self-evaluation scale developed by Judge, Bono, Ilies, and Gerhardt (2002). The officers responded to questions regarding their perceptions of the danger they face on the job and the dangers that their loved ones perceive they face on the job, in terms of legal liability, verbal altercations, and physical harm. Additionally, officers responded to questions about their supervisor's servant leadership practices. These questions included the leader's tendency to put follower needs ahead of their own and the leader's dedication to making officer career development a priority.

The research team was interested in multiple outcome measures of officer attitudes and behaviors. To acquire survey responses for these outcome measures, the research team conducted a follow-up survey that was also distributed to all officers. This design allows me to link individual responses from surveys 1 and 2, and alleviated some concerns regarding the possibility of common method bias that typically manifest when data for both predictor and outcome variables are collected from the same source and at the same time. Officers who did not respond to the first survey were still included in the invitation list for the second survey as a means of constructing group-level variables for this and other research.

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Survey 2 (Appendix B) was disseminated 3 months after Survey 1 in June of 2019. This survey design differed slightly from that of Survey 1, as the research team designed vignette scenarios that were highly relevant to specific rank levels and disseminated separate surveys to officers at different levels on the organizational hierarchy. Aside from these scenarios and some unique types of questions, officers still responded to a common set of questions in Survey 2. This survey asked officers to indicate their identification towards their unit/department, work engagement, job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and community citizenship behavior. Furthermore, Survey 2 honed in on key attitudinal outcome measures indicating line-level officer attitudes about community-focused policing practices. Specifically, it inquired about an officer's willingness to report a fellow officer for behavior that does not align with workgroup norms, officer perceptions of procedurally just policing practices when interacting with civilians, and officer community citizenship behaviors.

I used unique individual identifiers to link responses from Survey 1 and Survey 2. The overall response rate across all surveys (including administrative personnel) is 62%. Again comparing our population of 1,411 line-level officers to the response rate from line-level officers, we received 861 responses to Survey 1, indicating a response rate of 61%. For Survey 2, we received 833 responses, indicating a response rate of 59%. While the response rate from mid- and upper-level supervisors was higher, we still received a strong and fairly consistent response rate across Survey 1 and Survey 2. Overall, 612 line-level officers responded to both Survey 1 and Survey 2, indicating that 43% of line-level officers responded to both surveys.

3.4. Sample Characteristics

This law enforcement organization has approximately 2500 employees. Of these, approximately ~1700 are sworn personnel and ~800 are administrative personnel. I limit my analysis to officers who are at the line-level and thus much more likely to regularly interact with the civilians they serve; therefore, I compare the characteristics of my sample to the characteristics of the population of line-level officers within the organization. The population of these line-level officers is around 9% female and 84% White. The population of line-level officers has an average age of 38.17 years and an average tenure of 12.67 years.

Table 1 below displays the comparison between the population characteristics and the characteristics of the sample used in this research. Around 9% of those in my analytical sample are women officers and around 86% are white officers, which is only slightly higher than the percentage of white employees in the population. The average age of those in the analytical sample is 37.53 years, while the average tenure is 11.95 years. While both are slightly lower than the population characteristics, they are still very close to the overall average. Combined, these comparisons instill some confidence that there is no non-response bias in the analytical sample, to the extent that these measurable demographic factors of the population are correlated with the attitudes and perceptions that are the main focus of this research.

Table 1: Sample and Population Demographics

Characteristics	Sample	Population
Women	9%	9%
White	86%	84%
Avg. Age	37.53	38.17
Avg. Tenure	11.95	12.67

3.5. Key Measures

3.5.1. Predictor Variable

Table 2 below provides a summary of key study variables, their unit of analysis, their

hypothesized role in this research, and their source (first or second survey wave). First, the

key predictor variable is a subordinate's perceptions of their supervisor's servant leadership

behaviors. I measure this construct with seven items of Survey 1. Six items come from the

Servant Leadership Scale developed and validated by Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson

(2008). One additional item, "Recognizes exemplary service to the community," was added

by the research team to measure the extent to which the unit leader recognizes exemplary

community service by line officers. The other six items of the scale are: Your supervisor…

"Puts your best interests ahead of his or her own," "Emphasizes the importance of giving

back to the community," "Can quickly tell if there is a problem or something work-related is

going wrong," "Makes your career development a priority," "Would NOT compromise

ethical principles of this organization in order to achieve success," and, "Gives you freedom

to handle difficult work situations in the way you feel is the best." All items used a 5-point Likert style scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The internal reliability coefficient, Cronbach's alpha, of the servant leadership measure is .93.

3.5.2. Outcome Variables

The key attitudinal outcome variables include willingness to report peers, support for procedurally fair policing, and community citizenship behavior, all of which were measured in the second survey. Officer community citizenship behavior is measured with three items that were taken from the community citizenship behavior scale developed by Liden et al. (2008). The items include, "I am involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work," "I encourage others in my unit to volunteer in our community," and, "When possible, I try and get my unit members involved in community projects that I am involved in." These items attempt to measure an officer's attitudes about involvement in the community beyond their formal job roles; however, the items do not specify that the officer is involved in the communities they police. This means that officers could be reporting about involvement in their home communities, which could be different from those that they serve. Additionally, this item relies on officer self-reports, which are more susceptible to social desirability bias compared to peer or supervisor reports of an individual's community citizenship behaviors. The items have adequate internal reliability. The Cronbach's alpha value for this measure is 0.78.

I measure officers' willingness to report peer misconduct via the following measures, "If I observed a coworker being disrespectful to public, I would notify my superiors" and "If I

observed an officer from my unit use excessive force I would not hesitate reporting it." The items were adapted from the items used by Hassan, Wright, and Yukl (2014) to measure employee willingness to report peer misconduct. The Cronbach's alpha of the measure of willingness to report peer misconduct is .57, which is below the typical threshold value of 0.70. However, I have decided not to exclude either of the two items for a single-item measure because factor analysis results (presented in Chapter 4) indicate the two items load on one factor and because single-item measures generally have lower reliability.

Finally, I measure an officer's support for procedurally fair policing via four items that stem from Trinkner et al. (2016), including, "I feel I have an obligation to explain to people why they are being stopped on the road," "It is important for me to show that I care about people's concerns when I stop them on the road," "When I stop someone on the road, I feel it is important for me to show interest in what they say," "I feel I have a duty to treat everyone the same way when I stop them on the road," and a reverse-coded item, "I think that people who break the law do not deserve to be treated with respect." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.70.

3.5.3. Mediating Variables

The two mediating variables of the study include perceived prosocial impact and identification with one's unit. I use three items to measure officers' perception of the pro-social impact of their work on their community. The items were adapted from the scale developed by Grant and Campbell (2007). The items are: "The work that I do helps to make

the community a safer place," "The work I do is meaningful," and, "What I do at work makes a big difference in the community." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.86.

I use three items to measure officers' identification with their unit/department. The items are adapted from the organizational identification scale developed by Mael and Ashforth (1992). The items are "When I talk about my unit, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'," "When someone praises my unit it feels like a personal compliment," and "The successes of my unit are my successes." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.62, which is below the threshold value of .70, but all three items (as discussed in Chapter 4) have loaded on one common latent factor.

3.5.4. Moderating Variables

Key moderating variables include measures of a climate of pressure for activity and unit political behavior. To measure activity pressure, I asked individual officers to respond to the following statements: "How much pressure is there in your unit to keep up the count of citations and contact cards?" and, "How much pressure is there in your unit to make arrests in order to keep a good standing?" Respondents indicated the amount of pressure in their units using a 1-5 Likert-style scale where 1 indicates they feel no pressure at all and 5 indicates they feel a great deal of pressure. To construct this measure and incorporate it into our moderated mediation analysis, I construct a group-level measure as an indicator of the climate within a specific unit. The Cronbach's alpha for this measure at the individual level is 0.86.

I use two items of the first survey to measure a unit political behavior. The items are taken from Kacmar and Carlson's (1997) Organizational Politics Scale and capture self-serving behavior. The items are "There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on in my unit" and "People in my unit do what's best for them, not what's best for the organization." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.61. Multiple employees from the same unit rated political behavior in their unit. Hence, I aggregated the scale scores to the unit/department level measure unit political behavior.

Table 2: Measurement of Key Variables

Variable	Unit of Analysis	Role in this Analysis	Data Source
Servant Leadership	Individual	Predictor Variable	First survey
Perceived Prosocial Impact	Individual	Mediating Variable	Second survey
Unit Identification	Individual	Mediating Variable	Second survey
Support for Procedurally Fair Policing	Individual	Outcome Variable	Second survey
Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct	Individual	Outcome Variable	Second survey
Community Citizenship Behavior	Individual	Outcome Variable	Second survey
Accountability Pressure	Group-level variable	Moderating Variable	First survey
Unit political behavior	Group-level variable	Moderating Variable	Second survey

3.5.5. Control Variables

In this study, I control for a few key variables that may be related to officer attitudes about community-focused approaches. Second, officer reports of their supervisor's servant

leadership behavior, unit climates, and the outcome variables may vary by officer demographic characteristics. Hence, I control for officer race, officer gender, officer tenure, and a dummy variable indicating officers who are on patrol compared to officers who are mid-level supervisors within a post and spend relatively less time on line-level patrol. The partner organization's human resource records provided demographic information for officers. I indicate officer gender with a dummy variable equal to 1 for male officers. I indicate officer race with a dummy variable equal to 1 for white officers. To measure officer tenure, I rely on information provided by the partner organization indicating the year an officer started with the organization. I subtract an officer's start year from the year I launched the survey to construct a measure of officer tenure.

Additionally, I control for an officer's public service motivation. Public service motivation has been used to explain the differential motivations in public versus private sector employees, and as a measure to determine whether an individual relies on extrinsic rewards, or more heavily on intrinsic rewards and other motivations grounded in public-facing institutions, such as helping others and performing work that is worthwhile to the public (Perry and Wise 1990). Public service motivation has been linked to a number of positive organizational outcomes, including organizational citizenship behavior (Kim 2006) and volunteer activities (Houston 2006). While public service motivation is not the primary focus of this study, its potential connection to outcomes of interest makes it an important control variable. I measure public service motivation with 4 items, including, "Meaningful public service is very important to me," "I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it

means I will be ridiculed," "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements," and, "I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.78.

I also control for an officer's perceptions of organizational fairness. Controlling for the overall atmosphere of fairness in procedure and treatment allows me to hone in on the moderating effect of unit climate that explains differences beyond that explained by perceptions of organizational fairness. Researchers find that perceptions of organizational fairness can be an important factor in satisfaction with the organization and in resolving disputes within the organization (Lind, Tyler, and Huo 1997), and may also inform how line-level officers value procedural fairness in interactions with the public (Trinkner et al. 2016). This 5-item scale borrows from Leventhal's (1980) criteria for measuring organizational fairness. Example items include, "Employees are recruited objectively regardless of their ethnicity, gender, race or religion," and, "Policies defining employee misconduct are applied consistently across all employees." The Cronbach's alpha for this measure is 0.86.

In addition to individual-level controls, I control for group-level factors that may inform the attitudes and approaches of officers. I include controls for group size, average age of officers within the group, average tenure of officers within the group, percentage of male officers within the group, and percentage of white officers within the group.

3.6. Analytical Approach

I assess hypothesized relationships via regression models. As a first step, I rely on multilevel regression models to begin to understand the relationships between key variables. First, I

estimate the effects of key psychological mechanisms on outcomes. These models provide

results relevant to hypotheses 1 through 4, which outline the anticipated effects of prosocial

impact and unit identification on outcomes. Next, I rely on multilevel regression models to

estimate the effects of servant leadership on those key psychological mechanisms. This

represents a first step toward accepting or rejecting hypotheses 5 and 6, which suggested that

servant leadership will be associated with higher levels of prosocial impact and unit

identification. Across all models, I control for key demographic variables and other

perceptions organizational factors that are likely to influence the relationship between servant

leadership and outcomes.

3.7. Mediation Analysis

Next, I estimate the direct and indirect effects of servant leadership on outcomes through key

mediating variables. The simplest form of this is a simple mediation model (Hayes 2018)

where an antecedent variable, X, is proposed to influence an outcome variable, Y, through a

mediating variable, M. In this model, there are two ways that X can influence Y (Hayes

2018). First, there is the direct effect of X on Y – the effect of X on Y without passing

through M. Second, there is an indirect effect of X on Y through the mediating variable. This

effect passes from X to M, and then from M to Y.

Estimating a predictor variable's influence through a mediating variable represents an

attempt to untangle the contents of the "black box" of why or how an antecedent variable

influences an outcome variable. A key underlying assumption of this model is that these are

causal relationships, and that X, M, and Y are properly ordered in the causal chain – that is,

the model assumes that X causes M, which, in turn, causes Y. However, scholars interested in mediation analysis acknowledge that one can still conduct mediation analysis even in a situation where one's data does not allow for strict causal claims between constructs, so long as proper language, argument, cautions, and caveats accompany the analysis (Hayes 2018). For this dissertation research, my cross-sectional, rather than longitudinal, survey data limits my confidence in a clear temporal order between these variables. In addition, I am unable to test the effects of servant leadership on outcomes over time. Instead, I rely on a snapshot of the organization at one time. Therefore, I am not making causal claims about the relationships between key variables; rather, I am conducting a correlational analysis to examine how these constructs relate.

The first mediation model will attempt to understand the relationship between leadership behaviors and outcomes through key mediating psychological constructs. To examine the correlation between servant leadership and outcomes, I rely on parallel multiple mediator models where an independent variable (servant leadership behaviors) influences an outcome variable (for example, community citizenship behavior) through two mediating variables (perceived prosocial impact and unit identification). A sketch example of this model appears in the Figure 4 below:
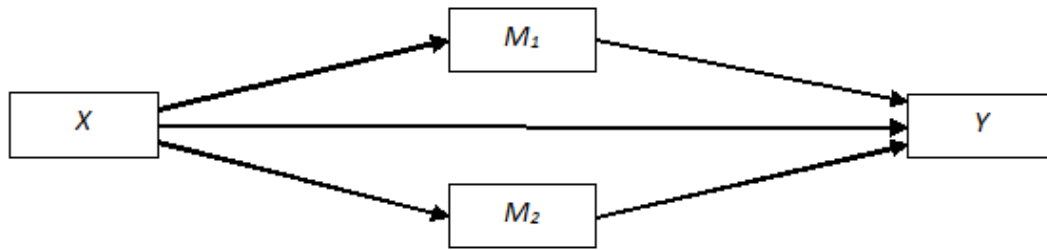
Figure 5: A Parallel Mediation Model

Here, I assume that one mediator does not influence the other. With two mediators, I will use three equations to estimate the effect of one independent variable on one outcome variable. These equations take the following general form:

$$(3.4) \quad M_1 = iM_1 + a_1X + eM_1$$

$$(3.5) \quad M_2 = iM_2 + a_2X + eM_2$$

$$(3.6) \quad Y = i_Y + c'X + b_1M_1 + b_2M_2 + e_Y$$

This form resembles a parallel mediation model, with the addition of another mediator. a_1 and a_2 above quantify the effect of a one-unit difference in X on mediator 1 and mediator 2, respectively (Hayes 2018). Furthermore, b_1 and b_2 estimate the amount that a one-unit change in mediator one influences the outcome variable, holding other mediators and covariates constant (Hayes 2018). Therefore, the overall indirect effect through mediator 1 will be a_1b_1, and the overall indirect effect through mediator 2 will be a_2b_2. Finally, c' estimates the direct effect of a one-unit change in X on the outcome variable Y, holding

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mediating variables constant. Below, I present Figure 6, which outlines the statistical

relationships in a parallel mediation model:
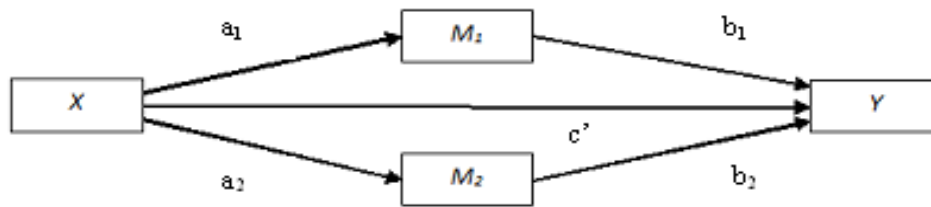
Figure 6: A Statistical Diagram Illustrating a Parallel Mediation Model

These models provide more evidence pertaining to hypotheses 1 through 6, as they provide

additional estimates of the effect of the mediators on outcomes, and the predictor variable on

mediators. Ultimately, however, three separate parallel mediation models will be most

relevant to hypotheses 7 through 9. Hypotheses 7 and 8 propose that the influence of servant

leadership on outcomes will be mediated by prosocial impact and unit identification. These

models provide estimates of the direct effects of servant leadership, which I anticipate will be

non-significant. They also provide estimates of the indirect effects of servant leadership

through mediated paths. I expect that the effects through these paths will be statistically

significant, suggesting full mediation of the effects of servant leadership. The combination of

non-significant direct effects and significant effects through mediated paths will provide

clear support for hypotheses 7 and 8. I rely on pairwise comparisons of the estimated indirect

effects on outcomes to test hypothesis 9. This hypothesis suggested that for the outcome of

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support for procedurally fair policing, prosocial impact will act as a stronger mediator compared to unit identification.

3.8. Moderated Mediation Analysis

To examine whether unit climates *moderate* the pathways through which servant leadership influences outcomes, I employ a conditional process model in the form of moderated mediation analysis. While moderated mediation analysis can take multiple forms, in general, this approach estimates the effect of a moderator on the mediation effect already outlined in a model. For this research, I will separately test two different moderators of mediation to examine if perceptions of u climate moderate the anticipated effect of servant leadership. In other words, I will examine whether perceptions of unit climate moderate the impact that a servant leader can have on officer attitudes. A sketch example of moderated mediation analysis appears in **Figure 7** below:
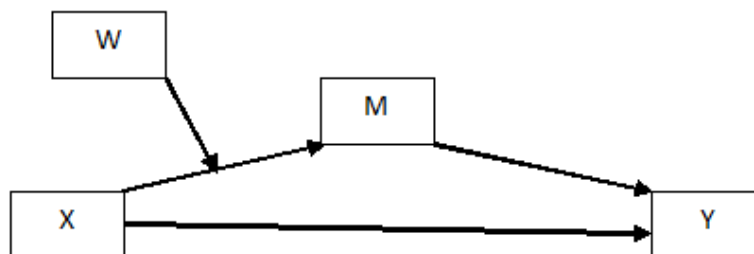
Figure 7: An example of a Moderated Mediation Model

A key goal of this research is to examine whether unit climates moderate the relationship between servant leadership and key mediators. In the figure above, W represents unit climate, the moderating variable, and I test whether it moderates the mediation effect between servant leadership and unit identification and perceived prosocial impact. When estimating these effect, I am estimating the moderation of a path and anticipate that the mechanisms within a process behave differently at different levels of a moderating variable (Hayes 2018) – that is, the effect of servant leadership will differ in size or strength as a function of different levels of unit climate.

The first step to examine this relationship is accounting for the multilevel nature of data as a means to understand how unit-level climate influences individual-level relationships. I rely on multilevel modeling to account for the nested structure of data. In this study, I have line-level officers nested within particular units. This means that individuals are clustered together in specific units, which means that observations from individuals within the same unit are likely to be more highly correlated than observations from different points across the population of individuals. To account for this data structure, I run multilevel mixed-effects regression models in STATA. This allows me to estimate the effects of servant leadership on various outcomes while accounting for the nested nature of the data. Additionally, this allows me to estimate the effects of unit climate, a unit-level measure, on outcomes. Finally, this approach allows me to estimate cross-level interactions wherein I estimate the effect of an interaction between unit climate and servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms. Estimates of this cross-level interaction provide evidence for or against hypotheses 10

through 13, which propose that unit climate will moderate the effect of servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms.

3.9. Data Aggregation

For three key measures in my analysis, I aggregate individual-level responses at the group level to create measures of unit climate. Specifically, for portions of the analysis of the effect of servant leadership on mediators, I aggregate individual-level perceptions of supervisor servant leadership to the group level to generate a measure of perceptions of the servant leadership climate within a workgroup. In addition, when estimating moderated mediation models, I aggregate individual-level perceptions of accountability pressure and political behavior to the group level to understand the effects of perceptions of a climate consisting of accountability pressure and political behavior within the unit. These aggregated measures enhance my ability to estimate the influence of shared perceptions regarding a particular phenomenon within the workgroup.

Prior to aggregation, I examine whether these measures have adequate within-group agreement and between-group variation. To test whether there is adequate between-group variation, I estimate a series of one-way ANOVA models where the outcome variables are individual-level perceptions of servant leadership, accountability pressure, and political behavior. Below in Table 3, I report the results of an F-ratio test to examine whether there is significant between-group variation for each measure.

Results of F-ratio tests suggest that there are statistically significant differences across groups for servant leadership, accountability pressure, and political behavior. Furthermore, adjusted

R-Squared values from ANOVA models suggest that roughly 10 percent of the variation in these constructs occurs between groups. Additionally, results of a null model indicate that there is significant between-group variation in perceptions of servant leadership, accountability pressure, and political behavior.

Table 3: F-Ratios from One-Way ANOVAs

	F Ratio	Adjusted R-Squ.	ICC2
Servant Leadership	2.09*	0.09	0.610
Accountability Pressure	2.37*	0.11	0.798
Political Behavior	2.72*	0.14	0.603

* $p<.05$

Finally, I also calculate intra-class correlation (i.e., ICC2) coefficients to assess the extent to which subordinates agree about their ratings of servant leadership behaviors, accountability pressure, and political behaviors within the unit. The estimated ICC2 values are 0.610, 0.798, and 0.603 for servant leadership, accountability pressure, and political behaviors within the unit, respectively. These estimates exceed the cutoff value of 0.60 suggested by Cicchetti and Sparrow (1981). These results combine to indicate adequate within-group agreement and between-group variation in scores used for aggregated measures.

Chapter 4. Results

4.1. Introduction

In this dissertation project, I investigate how mid-level supervisors influence the attitudes of line-level officers within a police department. In addition, I examine the influence of unit climates in moderating the effectiveness of servant leaders' efforts. I limit my analysis to line-level officers within each post to understand how their post commander's leadership practices influence the attitudes they bring in interactions with civilians. Additionally, I limit my analysis to posts from which I received at least six responses from line-level officers in hopes of capturing a clearer picture of perceptions of group climate.

In this chapter, I present the results of my analysis. In the next section, I present descriptive statistics of key variables in the study. In the third section, I present the results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to evaluate the measurement of my key constructs. In the fourth section, I present the results relevant to my key hypotheses. I present the results of multilevel regression analyses in STATA and mediation analyses through PROCESS in SPSS (Hayes, 2018) aimed at understanding the influence of servant leadership on outcomes through key mediating variables. These results correspond with hypotheses 1 through 9. Finally, I present the results of moderated mediation analysis aimed at examining the effects

of unit climates on the efforts of servant leadership behavior on officer work attitudes. These results correspond to hypotheses 10 through 13.

4.2. Descriptive Analysis

4.2.1. Servant Leadership

Perceptions of post commanders' servant leadership behavior is the key predictor variable in the study. Overall, respondents rated their servant leadership as a 3.55 on a 1 to 5 scale where a rating of 5 suggests that their leader displays strong servant leadership qualities. **Error! Reference source not found.** presents this overall mean and standard deviation, as well as the percentage by response options for each item comprising the overall measure. Of the 7 items, item 7, "Would NOT compromise ethical principles of (the organization) in order to achieve success," received the highest average rating and the largest proportion of responses in the category of Strongly Agree. The lowest average rating of 3.4 was associated with an item indicating supervisor support for subordinates' career/professional development, specifically, "Makes your career development a priority (item 4)." This item also had the largest standard deviation of all items and the largest proportion of responses in the strong disagreement category.

Table 4: Item Response Frequencies for Servant Leadership Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option							
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Overall
Strongly Disagree	2.6	4	4.3	7.6	4.3	4.4	3.1	
Disagree	12.3	12.2	13.5	15.6	6.9	10.4	4.4	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	28.4	34	23.6	27.6	18.7	28.4	16.3	
Agree	39.7	38.7	45.5	37.4	52.7	44.4	44.9	
Strongly Agree	14.1	11.2	13.2	11.9	17.5	12.3	31.2	
Mean	3.44	3.41	3.5	3.3	3.72	3.5	4	3.55
SD	1.05	0.98	1.02	1.1	0.97	0.99	0.97	0.84

4.2.2. Procedurally Fair Policing, Community Citizenship, and Willingness to Report Peers

Table 5, Table 7, and **Error! Reference source not found.** provide the descriptive statistics,

including means and standard deviations for each item, as well as percentage of responses for

each response category, for the three outcome measures. Descriptive statistics indicate a high

level of support for procedurally fair policing (Mean = 4.18, SD = 0.49). This reflects that

procedural fairness is emphasized in employee training and professional development.

Overall, the individual items comprising officer support for procedurally fair policing have

very little responses in the Strongly Disagree and Disagree categories; however, the lowest-

rated item attempts to capture a nuanced element of procedurally fair policing, showing an

interest in what civilians have to say when an officer stops them on the road. This item, along

with, "It is important for me to show that I care about people's concerns when I stop them on

the road (item 5)," were the two lowest-rated items. The highest-rated item, "I feel I have an

obligation to explain to people why they are being stopped on the road (item 1)," indicates

that line-level officers consistently support explaining to people why they are stopped, but

show slightly less support for giving civilians a voice or taking the time to show that they

care for a civilian's concerns.

Table 5: Item Response Frequencies for Support for Procedurally Fair Policing Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option					
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Overall
Strongly Disagree	0.5	1.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	
Disagree	0.6	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.7	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	5.3	8	10.9	14.9	17.1	
Agree	49.3	41.7	49.4	61.5	60.8	
Strongly Agree	44.3	47.1	37.2	21.2	19.2	
Mean	4.37	4.32	4.21	4.01	3.96	4.18
SD	0.65	0.79	0.74	0.68	0.7	0.49

Officers' willingness to report peer misconduct is measured with two items, and one receives

a much higher rating than another. The first item, "If I observed an officer from my unit use

excessive force I would not hesitate reporting it (item 1)," receives a considerably higher

rating. The lower-rated item, "If I observed a coworker being disrespectful to public, I would

notify my superiors (item 2)," again attempts to capture a more nuanced and less blatant

violation of organizational norms. Officers are likely to report an officer who uses excessive

force (Mean = 4.11), but much less likely to report an officer who is disrespectful to the

public (Mean = 3.5). Thirty five percent of officers strongly agreed that they would report

excessive use of force, while only 10 percent of officers strongly agreed that they would

report disrespect. This indicates the importance of understanding the informal norms that

inform the differences between officer's willingness to report two violations of

organizational norms that are perceived differently.

Table 6: Item Response Frequencies for Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option		
	Item 1	Item 2	Overall
Strongly Disagree	1.4	2	
Disagree	3.9	11.3	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	11.8	31.7	
Agree	48.3	44.7	
Strongly Agree	34.7	10.3	
Mean	4.11	3.5	3.81
SD	0.86	0.9	0.73

In comparison to the responses for officer support of procedurally fair policing and

willingness to report peer misconduct, the three-item measure of community citizenship

behavior received slightly lower ratings (Mean = 2.93). The lowest-rated item, "When

possible, I try and get my unit members involved in community projects that I am involved in

(item 3)," indicates a hesitancy/difficulty in getting fellow unit members involved in community-focused activities outside of work. The highest-rated item, "I am involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work (item 1)," indicates one's own tendency to get involved in the community, but is not specific to the communities one interacts with during their shift. Furthermore, this item may be the most susceptible to social desirability bias, as line-level officers may work hard to recall a time when they volunteered in community activities, or simply indicate that they are involved, regardless of the extent and frequency.

Table 7: Item Response Frequencies for Community Citizenship Behavior Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option			
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Overall
Strongly Disagree	8.2	6.2	9.2	
Disagree	23.4	22.2	29.3	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	25.8	47.7	43.5	
Agree	30.8	21.5	15.6	
Strongly Agree	11.8	2.4	2.6	
Mean	3.15	2.92	2.73	2.93
SD	1.15	0.88	0.92	0.82

4.2.3. Perceived Prosocial Impact and Unit Identification

Overall, unit identification received an average rating of 3.73. The lowest-rated item, "When someone praises my unit, it feels like a personal compliment," received a rating of 3.59. This initially indicates that officers may not see compliments of their unit as compliments of themselves; however, the highest-rated item, "When I talk about unit, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they' (item 1)," suggests that officers do consider their personally identity to be tied to their unit.

Table 8: Item Response Frequencies for Unit Identification Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option			
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Overall
Strongly Disagree	1.4	1.1	1.4	
Disagree	3.0	9.4	5.4	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	23.8	31.2	23.6	
Agree	52.3	46.1	56.2	
Strongly Agree	19.5	12.2	13.4	
Mean	3.9	3.75	3.59	3.73
SD	0.81	0.81	0.86	0.62

The four-item measure of prosocial impact provides a measure of how much an officer perceives that their work matters for the community. Overall, this measure received a higher rating than unit identification, and many responses fell in the Agree and Strongly Agree categories (see Table 9). The two lowest-rated items are measures of whether an officer

perceives their work makes a big difference in the community (item 2) or makes the

community a safer place (item 1), while the two higher-rated items measure whether officers

take pride in their work and consider their work important (items 3 and 4).

Table 9: Item Response Frequencies for Perceived Prosocial Impact Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option				
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Overall
Strongly Disagree	1.7	3	0.8	0.5	
Disagree	4	6.5	2.6	2.3	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	13.7	24	10.8	11.7	
Agree	59.6	48.8	59.4	61	
Strongly Agree	21.1	17.7	26.5	24.6	
Mean	3.95	3.72	4.08	4.07	3.96
SD	0.81	0.93	0.73	0.70	0.67

4.2.4. Perceptions of Accountability Pressure and Unit Political Behavior

Accountability pressure measures the extent to which officers perceive pressure to make

arrests or give citations to civilians. Perhaps unsurprisingly, Table 10 indicates that the

perceived pressure for citations is slightly higher (Mean = 3.76) than the perceived pressure

for arrests (Mean = 3.58). Overall, respondents rated this pressure as much more prevalent

compared to the perceptions of political behavior within units discussed below.

Table 10: Item Response Frequencies for Accountability Pressure Items

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option		
	Item 1	Item 2	Overall (by Post)
No pressure at all	6.9	6.2	
A little pressure	7.8	10.8	
Moderate pressure	22.3	29.5	
A lot of pressure	28	25.7	
A great deal of pressure	35	27.8	
Mean	3.76	3.58	3.7
SD	1.21	1.18	0.51

Overall, perceptions of unit political behavior received low ratings (Mean = 3.02), potentially

indicating low levels of perceived political behavior within one's unit. While Table 11

indicates that the two items have similar averages, the highest-rated item is a measure of

fellow unit members working behind the scenes to secure their own self-interest.

Table 11: Item Response Frequencies for Unit Political Behavior

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option		
	Item 1	Item 2	Overall (by Post)
Strongly Disagree	4.9	3.8	
Disagree	25.8	29.1	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	32.7	39.6	
Agree	28.2	22.8	

Strongly Agree	8.5	4.7	
Mean	3.09	2.96	3.02
SD	1.03	0.93	0.85

4.2.5. Control Variables

In addition to key demographic variables, I control for demographic characteristics at the

group level, including unit size, average age within the unit, average tenure within the unit,

percentage of male officers within the unit, and percentage of white officers within the unit. I

present relevant descriptive statistics for unit-level control variables in Table 12 below. As

expected, we see that groups have a high percentage of white officers and a high percentage

of male officers. In addition, Table 12 suggests that the average number of responses from

line-level officers within a post is around 14, with a range of 7 to 25 for the purposes of my

analysis.

Table 12: Summary Statistics, Unit-Level Demographic Control Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Group Size	14.39	3.47	7	25
Group Avg. Age	37.51	2.44	31.93	46.92
Group Avg. Tenure	11.93	2.14	6.87	21.33
Group – Percentage Male	0.91	0.08	0.71	1
Group – Percentage White	0.85	0.13	0.36	1

In addition, I control for officers' public service motivation, as well as their perceptions of organizational fairness. Descriptive statistics and percentages of responses by category are presented in

Table **13** and

Table **14** below. Overall, officers report high levels of public service motivation. This is in accordance with expectations of upper-level management within the organization, as they feel that high levels of public service motivation would lead someone to select into being in a law enforcement organization. The highest-rated item, "Meaningful public service is very important to me (item 1)," aligns with that expectation. Additionally, the item that received the lowest average score is, "Making a difference in society means more to me than personal achievements (item 3)." While this item still receives an average of 3.95 on a 1-5 Likert-style scale, it could shed light on some of the perceived career choices faced by line-level officers.

Table 13: Item Response Frequencies for Public Service Motivation

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option				
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Overall
Strongly Disagree	0.1	.04	0.1	0.3	
Disagree	0.3	2.2	3.4	2.6	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	8.2	11.6	22.1	16.9	
Agree	54.2	58.3	50.4	52.9	
Strongly Agree	37.3	27.5	22.9	27.4	
Mean	4.28	4.1	3.95	4.04	4.09
SD	0.63	0.71	0.78	0.76	0.56

I control for an officer's perceptions of overall organizational fairness. This sheds light on the fairness of recruitment, training, and promotion practices within the organization. Overall, organizational fairness was rated much lower (Mean = 2.79) than public service motivation (Mean = 4.09). Item 1 received the lowest average response, which asks officers about the perceived fairness of recruitment processes with respect to ethnicity, gender, race, and religion.

Table 14: Item Response Frequencies for Organizational Fairness

Response Options	Percentage (%) by Response Option					
	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Overall
Strongly Disagree	19	17.6	18.5	7.2	15.9	
Disagree	35.6	35.8	26.9	17.2	28.4	
Neither Agree nor Disagree	19.6	16.6	22.6	29.5	31.5	
Agree	19.9	22.3	24.5	36.5	19.1	
Strongly Agree	6	7.7	7.5	9.7	5.2	
Mean	2.58	2.67	2.76	3.24	2.69	2.79
SD	1.18	1.22	1.22	1.07	1.11	0.92

Table **15** presents correlations between key variables. Notable correlations include significant correlations between servant leadership and the two key mediating variables, perceived prosocial impact and unit identification. Additionally, we observe significant correlations

between key attitudinal outcomes and key mediating variables. Despite high correlations

between mediators and outcomes, we see relatively low correlations between servant

leadership and key outcomes. Servant leadership has a 0.11 correlation with support for

procedurally fair policing, 0.05 with community citizenship behaviors, and 0.08 with

willingness to report peers. Examining our control variables that will be included in all

models, there are significant correlations between public service motivation and prosocial

impact, unit identification, and support for procedurally fair policing. We observe a

significant correlation of 0.38 between organizational fairness and perceptions of servant

leadership. This is not surprising, as post commanders may be the vessel through which line-

level officers perceive fairness of organizational procedures. Finally, Table 15 shows

significant negative correlations between unit climate perceptions, i.e., perceived

accountability pressure and perception of political behaviors within the unit, and key

mediating variables of unit identification and perceived prosocial impact.

Table 15: Correlations between Key Variables

Individual Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Serv. Lead.	1															
2. Prosocial Impact	0.34	1														
3. Unit ID	0.32	0.49	1													
4. Proc. Fair Policing	0.11	0.40	0.35	1												
5. Comm. Citizenship	0.05	0.29	0.29	0.20	1											
6. Willing to Report	0.08	0.24	0.27	0.33	0.22	1										
7. Account. Pressure	-0.36	-0.19	-0.11	0.07	-0.03	0.08	1									
8. Political Behaviors	-0.41	-0.27	-0.30	-0.05	-0.11	0.02	0.30	1								
9. Org. Fairness	0.38	0.21	0.16	0.04	0.06	0.05	-0.27	-0.25	1							
10. PSM	0.21	0.38	0.31	0.39	0.15	0.15	-0.02	-0.09	0.08	1						
11. Male	0.00	-0.06	-0.02	-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	0.02	-0.06	-0.03	-0.03	1					
12. White	0.08	-0.06	-0.02	-0.14	-0.10	-0.04	0.07	-0.06	0.01	-0.05	0.06	1				
13. Tenure	-0.16	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.16	0.17	0.13	-0.01	-0.20	-0.09	0.10	-0.07	1			
Group Level																
14. Group - Serv. Leadership	0.41	0.18	0.17	0.01	0.03	0.00	-0.21	-0.24	0.04	0.08	0.00	0.09	-0.05	1		
15. Group - Account. Pressure	-0.20	-0.11	-0.08	0.02	0.02	0.09	0.44	0.14	-0.07	-0.02	0.02	0.01	-0.03	-0.49	1	
16. Group - Political Behaviors	-0.25	-0.16	-0.19	0.06	-0.07	0.07	0.16	0.47	-0.04	-0.05	-0.02	-0.08	0.03	-0.54	0.31	1

Note that all correlations above 0.07 are statistically significant

4.3. Factor Analysis

I conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the validity of key latent constructs in my analysis. This procedure assesses the validity of the multi-item constructs that comprise the latent variables within this study. The CFA results are shown in Table 4. All items have statistically significant factor loadings on their respective latent constructs and the vast majority of the items have loadings above .60. As indicated in **Table 16**, one individual item factor loading measuring the construct of procedurally fair policing is approaching the lower-end threshold of 0.40. This item within procedurally fair policing is a reverse-coded item intended to measure whether lawbreakers deserve to be treated with respect. In addition, I estimated average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) for each measure. These estimates capture the amount of variance captured by the construct relative to measurement error and the amount of true score variance relative to the total score variance, respectively. In most cases, CR values of constructs are high (>0.70), while AVE estimates range between 0.34 and 0.92. Across almost all constructs, these values combine to suggest convergent validity. For the construct of unit identification, a low AVE value (0.34) combines with a relatively higher CR value (0.60) to indicate convergent validity.

Table 17 presents the fit statistics of the CFA model. I used three commonly used fit indices – the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) -- to measure the fit of the measurement model to the data. In general, models with an RMSEA value of .08 or lower and CFI and TLI values of .90 or higher are considered having an adequate fit to the data. The RMSEA of the measurement

model is 0.04 which is below the threshold of 0.08. The values of the two comparative fit

indices -- CFI and TLI--are 0.94 and 0.93, respectively. These results suggest that the models

fit the data well.

Table 16: CFA Results

Construct	Factor Loading (standardized)	AVE	Composite Reliability
Servant Leadership		0.62	0.92
Servant Leadership 1	.83		
Servant Leadership 2	.72		
Servant Leadership 3	.83		
Servant Leadership 4	.86		
Servant Leadership 5	.75		
Servant Leadership 6	.81		
Servant Leadership 7	.72		
Prosocial Impact		0.61	0.86
Prosocial Impact1	.83		
Prosocial Impact2	.82		
Prosocial Impact3	.69		
Prosocial Impact4	.78		
Unit Identification		0.34	0.60
Unit Identification 1	.51		
Unit Identification 3	.60		
Unit Identification 4	.63		
Accountability Pressure		0.79	0.88
Pressure 1	.88		
Pressure 2	.90		
Unit political behavior		0.57	0.73
Unit political behavior 1	.79		
Unit political behavior 2	.72		
Procedurally Fair Policing		0.35	0.72
Procedurally Fair Policing 1	.60		
Procedurally Fair Policing 2	.52		
Procedurally Fair Policing 3	.47		
Procedurally Fair Policing 4	.76		
Procedurally Fair Policing 5	.57		
Willingness to Report Peers		0.44	0.60
Willing to Report 1	.50		
Willing to Report 2	.79		
Community Citizenship		0.57	0.80
Community Citizen 1	.60		
Community Citizen 2	.89		
Community Citizen 3	.75		

Table 16. Continued

Public Service Motivation			0.47	0.78
PSM 1	.68			
PSM 2	.57			
PSM 3	.73			
PSM 4	.76			
Organizational Fairness			0.54	0.85
Org. Fairness 1	.68			
Org. Fairness 2	.78			
Org. Fairness 3	.71			
Org. Fairness 4	.71			
Org. Fairness 5	.79			

Table 17: Fit Statistics of CFA Model

	Overall Model
Chi-square	1152.385*
CFI	0.94
TLI	0.931
RMSEA	0.04

*P<.05

4.4. Hypothesis Tests

4.4.1. Key Psychological Mechanisms and Outcomes

I use multilevel regression models to test hypotheses 1-4. Multilevel modeling techniques allow me to account for nested data structures. In this analysis, I am accounting for individual line-level officers nested within different units throughout the organization. This clustering within units introduces some problems for analysis. Observations from within the same workgroup are likely to be more highly correlated than observations selected from the entire population of respondents (Osborne 2000). Line-level officers existing within the same

workgroup tend to have increased correlations in perceptions of, for example, identification

with the unit, prosocial impact, or support for community-focused policing strategies. These

similarities due to nesting within the same unit violate assumptions in Ordinary Least

Squares (OLS) and other regression techniques of the independence of observations drawn

from the population. OLS regression techniques would produce standard errors that are too

small, increasing the chances of rejecting the null hypothesis (Osborne 2000). Multilevel

modeling helps to overcome this limitation by modeling the effects of level-1 (individual-

level) variables on outcomes while also modeling the effects of level-2 (unit-level) variables

on outcomes (Raudenbusch 1995; Osborne 2000). Before estimating multilevel models

relevant to my key hypotheses, I estimate null/empty random intercept models for

procedurally fair policing, willingness to report peer misbehavior and community citizenship

behavior. These models do not include predictors and instead help us understand if there is

significant variation in the intercepts across different units. These models take the following

general format level 1 and level 2, respectively:

$$(4.1)$$

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \gamma_{ij}$$

$$(4.2)$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}$$

where Y_{ij} in Equation 4.1 represents one of the three key dependent variables and β_{0j} is the

mean outcome for an individual unit, j. γ_{00} in Equation 4.2 represents the grand mean and μ_{0j}

represents the random effect of unit j.

I also estimate random intercept models to determine the effect of key psychological mechanisms on outcomes (hypotheses 1-4), as well as servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms (hypotheses 5-6). These models take the following general form for a line-level officer i in a unit j:

$$(4.3)$$

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(Prosocial\ Impact_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(Unit\ Identification_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}(PSM_{ij})$$
$$+ \beta_{4j}(Organization\ Fairness_{ij}) + \beta_{5j}(Demographics_{ij}) + \gamma_{ij}$$

$$(4.4)$$

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(Size_j) + \gamma_{02}(Avg.Age_j) + \gamma_{03}(Avg.Tenure_j) + \gamma_{04}(Pct.Male_j)$$
$$+ \gamma_{05}(Pct.White_j) + u_{0j}$$

where Y_{ij} represents the key outcome variable (i.e., procedurally fair policing, willingness to report peers, or community citizenship behavior) for an individual i in unit j. This outcome variable will be estimated as a function of individual-level variables, including their prosocial impact, work-unit identification, public service motivation, perceptions of organizational fairness, and demographic variables, including officer race, gender, tenure, and whether they are line-level officers compared to mid-level supervisors within a unit. β_{0j} represents the intercept and is a function of the grand mean, γ_{00}, as well as random unobserved unit-level error, u_{0j}. Additionally, in the level-2 model outlined above, γ_{01} through γ_{05} represent controls for group-level demographic characteristics such as group size, average age, average

tenure, percentage of male officers, and percentage of white officers. Across all multilevel

models, group-level predictors are grand-mean centered and individual-level predictors are

group-mean centered. Therefore, I interpret individual-level estimates as the individual-level

effects within each unit.

Results of the null model for community citizenship behaviors indicate significant between-

group variation in officer community citizenship behavior ($p < .10$), which justifies the

multilevel modeling strategy. The intraclass correlation coefficient .024, thus, 2.4% of the

variance in community citizenship behaviors is at the group level.

These hypotheses attempted to connect key psychological mechanisms to community-

focused attitudes as outcomes. I present results of these multilevel regression models in

Table 18 Table **18**. Hypothesis 1 suggested that an individual officer's perceived prosocial

impact would be positively correlated with an officer's attitudes about community citizenship

behavior. The outcome variable for hypothesis 1, community citizenship behavior, includes

items measuring an officer's involvement with their community and the extent to which they

encourage fellow officers to get involved in the community. Results in Table 18, Column 1

suggest that, after controlling for other key covariates, higher perceived prosocial impact is

correlated with higher support for community citizenship behavior. This result is statistically

significant ($\gamma = 0.14; p < .01$) and provides initial support for Hypothesis 1.

Results of the null model for procedurally fair policing practices also indicate significant

between-group variation in officer support for procedurally fair policing ($p < .01$). Again,

this justifies the multilevel modeling approach. The intraclass correlation coefficient .046, thus, 4.6% of the variance in community citizenship behaviors is at the group level.

Additionally, Hypothesis 2 proposed that officer perceived prosocial impact would be positively correlated with support for procedurally fair policing practices. Table 18, column 2 provides results relevant to this hypothesis. Results indicate that higher levels of perceived prosocial impact are positively and significantly ($\gamma = .11; p < .01$) correlated with higher support for procedurally fair policing practices. This provides initial support for hypothesis 2, that officer perceived social impact on the community is positively correlated with their support for policing practices that emphasize procedural fairness, honesty, and giving civilians a voice in interactions.

Hypotheses 3 and 4 proposed two separate relationships between an individual officer's identification with the unit and their attitudes about community-focused policing practices. I present results relevant to these hypotheses in Table 18, as well. Hypotheses 3 proposed a positive correlation between unit identification and support for procedurally fair policing practices. In Column 2, we observe that unit identification is positively and significantly ($\gamma = 0.09; p < .01$) correlated with an officer's support for procedurally fair policing practices.

Results of the null model for willingness to report peer misconduct indicate significant between-group variation in officer willingness to report peers ($p < .01$). Again, this justifies the multilevel modeling approach. The intraclass correlation coefficient .051, thus, 5.1% of the variance in community citizenship behaviors is at the group level.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that an officer's unit identification would be positively correlated with willingness to report peer misconduct. I present results relevant to hypothesis 4 in Table 18, column 3. Here, we observe that unit identification is positively and significantly ($b = 0.08; p < .05$) correlated with an officer's willingness to report peer misconduct. This suggests that officers who feel that the unit's values are a key element of their personal identity more likely to work to uphold those values if they observe peers straying from those norms. In practice, this manifests as an increased likelihood of reporting incidents of peer misconduct. Finally, Table 18, column 3 suggests that unit identification may act as a stronger predictor than perceived prosocial impact of willingness to report peer misconduct. This highlights the role that one's identification with internal norms of the unit may play in predicting intra-unit behavior, whereas prosocial impact may be a stronger predictor of behaviors when interacting with civilians.

In Table 18, results also suggest that an officer's public service motivation is significantly and positively correlated with both support for procedurally fair policing and willingness to report peer misconduct. Finally, white officers, compared to non-white officers, display lower support for community citizenship behaviors and lower support for procedurally fair policing practices.

Table 18: Multilevel Regression Results: Key Psychological Mechanisms and Outcomes

Variables	(1) Community Citizenship Behaviors	(2) Support for Procedurally Fair Policing	(3) Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct
Level-1 Effects			
Prosocial impact	0.14***	0.11***	0.09***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Unit identification	0.09**	0.09***	0.08**
	(0.03)	(0.00)	(0.02)
Public service motivation	0.02	0.11***	0.04
	(0.60)	(0.00)	(0.26)
Organizational fairness	0.06	0.00	-0.06
	(0.65)	(0.97)	(0.53)
Tenure	0.06	0.03	0.02
	(0.13)	(0.17)	(0.65)
Male	-0.14	-0.04	-0.09
	(0.24)	(0.53)	(0.39)
White	-0.15	-0.06	-0.04
	(0.17)	(0.33)	(0.66)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.30***	-0.01	-0.53***
	(0.00)	(0.78)	(0.00)
Constant	3.27***	4.26***	4.46***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Level-2 Effects			
Group size	0.01	-0.01	-0.02**
	(0.67)	(0.42)	(0.04)
Group age	0.02	0.00	0.01
	(0.60)	(0.97)	(0.71)
Group tenure	-0.01	-0.00	-0.02
	(0.90)	(0.85)	(0.59)
Group – Percentage male	-0.02	-0.26	-0.92**
	(0.98)	(0.38)	(0.03)
Group – Percentage white	-0.10	-0.44**	-0.15
	(0.79)	(0.03)	(0.59)
Random Effects			
Intercept (u_0)	0.02	0.01	0.01
Residuals (r)	0.56	0.17	0.38
ICC	0.04	0.04	0.02
Observations	503	503	501
Number of Groups	64	64	64

P-Value in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.10

4.4.2. Servant Leadership and Key Psychological Mechanisms

Given the relationships prosocial impact and unit identification have with key community-focused outcomes, I hypothesized about identify organizational factors that may influence these psychological mechanisms. Hypotheses 5 and 6 suggested servant leadership as a key factor in elevating or activating my proposed psychological mechanisms, prosocial impact and unit identification. I present results relevant to those hypotheses in Table 19 below.

These multilevel models take as similar general form to the multilevel models presented earlier. I again estimate empty random intercept models to determine if there is significant variance in key outcome variables across units. Then, I estimate random intercept models to understand the impact of servant leadership on perceived prosocial impact and unit identification. These models take the following general form:

(4.5)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(Servant\ Leadership_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(PSM_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}(Organization\ Fairness_{ij})$$
$$+ \beta_{4j}(Demographics_{ij}) + \gamma_{ij}$$

(4.6)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(Size_j) + \gamma_{02}(Avg.Age_j) + \gamma_{03}(Avg.Tenure_j) + \gamma_{04}(Pct.Male_j)$$
$$+ \gamma_{05}(Pct.White_j) + u_{0j}$$

where Y_{ij} represents the key outcome variable (i.e., prosocial impact or unit identification) for an individual i in unit j. This outcome variable will be estimated as a function of individual-level variables, including servant leadership, public service motivation, perceptions of organizational fairness, and demographic variables, including officer race,

gender, and tenure. Additionally, in the level-2 model outlined above, γ_{01} through γ_{05} represent controls for group-level demographic characteristics such as group size, average age, average tenure, percentage of male officers, and percentage of white officers. β_{0j} represents the intercept and is a function of the grand mean, γ_{00}, as well as random unobserved unit-level error, u_{0j}.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that an officer's perceptions of servant leadership in an officer's post commander – and thus presumably greater interactions with someone displaying servant leadership behaviors – would be positively associated with an officer's perceived prosocial impact of their work. In Table 19, column 1, we observe that servant leadership is positively and significantly ($\gamma = .17; p < .01$) correlated with perceived prosocial impact. This provides support for hypothesis 5 and suggests that servant leaders help illustrate the importance and impact of line-level officers' work in the community.

Hypothesis 6, again outlining the influence of servant leadership, suggested that higher perceptions of servant leadership would be positively correlated with an officer's identification with the organization. Table 19, column 2 provides results relevant to this hypothesis, suggesting that servant leadership is significantly and positively ($\gamma = .12; p < .01$) correlated with unit identification. This suggests that servant police leaders, through prioritizing the needs and development of followers, may enhance their subordinates' unit identification. Servant leaders, even in the competitive, hierarchical structure of law enforcement organizations, may be able to illustrate to followers that the core organizational values – namely, serving others – are relevant, important, and will be rewarded.

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Examining the effects of control variables, we observe that public service motivation and perceptions of organizational fairness are both significantly correlated with key psychological mechanisms. Additionally, we see a significant, negative effect of being a white line-level officer – compared to nonwhite officers, their perceptions of their prosocial impact on the community are significantly lower ($\gamma = -.19; p < .01$).

Table 19: Multilevel Regression Results, Servant Leadership to Key Mechanisms

Variables	(1) Prosocial Impact	(2) Unit Identification
Level-1 Effects		
Servant Leadership	0.17***	0.12***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Public service motivation	0.19***	0.12***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Organizational Fairness	0.18*	0.04
	(0.08)	(0.66)
Tenure	0.07**	-0.05
	(0.02)	(0.15)
Male	-0.11	-0.06
	(0.24)	(0.49)
White	-0.19**	-0.10
	(0.02)	(0.24)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.02	-0.25***
	(0.77)	(0.00)
Constant	3.71***	3.95***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Level-2 Effects		
Group size	-0.00	0.00
	(0.72)	(0.85)
Group age	0.03	0.01
	(0.39)	(0.63)
Group tenure	-0.02	-0.02
	(0.56)	(0.65)
Group – Percentage male	-0.16	0.02
	(0.71)	(0.95)
Group – Percentage white	0.62**	0.27

Table 19. Continued

	(0.03)	(0.30)
Random Effects		
Intercept (u_0)	0.02	0.01
Residuals (r)	0.33	0.32
ICC	0.06	0.02
Observations	503	503
Number of Groups	64	64

P-Value in parentheses
*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$

4.4.3. The Effects of Unit Servant Leadership Climate

Given the importance of unit climate in informing attitudes of line-level officers, I conduct

supplemental analysis to examine the effects of the unit's servant leadership climate. In other

words, I wish to understand not only the effects of an individual's perceptions of servant

leadership on key psychological mechanisms, but also the effects of the group's perceptions

of their post commander's servant leadership behavior, a rough measure of the post's servant

leadership climate. To do this, I estimate the effect of unit ratings of servant leadership as a

level-2 variable while controlling for the influence of individual perceptions of leadership.

Table 20: Multilevel Regression Results: Unit Servant Leadership Climate

Variables	(1) Prosocial Impact	(2) Unit Identification
Level-1 Effects		
Servant Leadership	0.17***	0.12***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Org. Fairness	0.13	-0.03
	(0.19)	(0.71)
Public Service Motivation	0.20***	0.12***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Tenure	0.08**	-0.05
	(0.02)	(0.15)
White	-0.11	-0.06
	(0.21)	(0.50)
Male	-0.20**	-0.10
	(0.02)	(0.22)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.02	-0.26***
	(0.76)	(0.00)
Constant	3.82***	3.86***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Level-2 Effects		
Unit SL Climate	0.36***	0.37***
	(0.00)	(0.00)
Group size	-0.01	-0.00
	(0.45)	(0.69)
Group age	0.01	-0.01
	(0.77)	(0.81)
Group tenure	0.00	0.01
	(0.91)	(0.71)
Group – Percentage male	-0.19	-0.05
	(0.62)	(0.89)
Group – Percentage white	0.32	-0.07
	(0.24)	(0.77)
Random Effects		
Intercept (u_0)	0.01	0.01
Residuals (r)	0.33	0.31
ICC	0.02	0.01
Observations	503	503
Number of groups	64	64

pval in parentheses
*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$

Results presented in **Table 20**20**Error! Reference source not found.** indicate that when controlling for individual perceptions of a post commander's servant leadership, we observe significant, positive correlations between unit members' perceptions of the post commander's servant leadership behavior and officer perceived prosocial impact ($\gamma = 0.36$; $p < .01$), as well as unit identification ($\gamma = 0.37$; $p < .01$). These associations are stronger than earlier individual-level perceptions of supervisor servant leadership presented in Table 19. These results highlight the importance of servant leadership and unit climates as key elements of informal pathways that inform the attitudes and approaches of line-level police officers.

4.4.4. Mediation Results: Indirect Effects of Servant Leadership

After assessing initial evidence regarding the relationships between leadership, key psychological mechanisms, and outcomes, I investigate my contention and hypotheses that servant leadership *is* a key factor related to attitudes about community-focused approaches to policing, but that the influence of servant leadership is indirect. In other words, I contend that servant leadership's effect only occurs through enhancing perceived prosocial impact and unit identification. In this section, I present results of separate parallel mediator models for the three main outcomes and discuss results in relation to hypotheses 7-9. For each outcome variable, I estimate a parallel mediation model, which involves estimating three regression equations, one for each mediator, and one for the outcome (Hayes 2018). For ease of interpretation, I present these results graphically. Tables containing coefficients, standard errors, p-values, and model r-squared information are available in Appendices C-D.
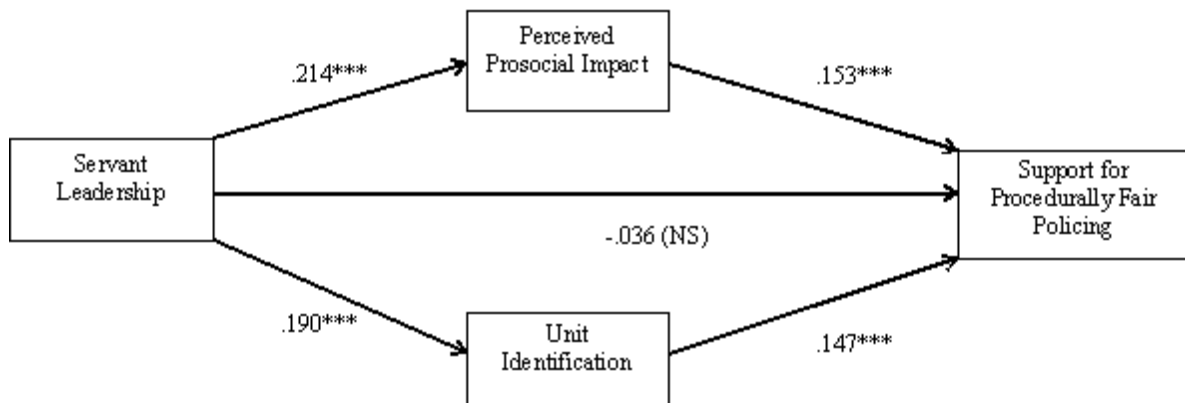
Figure 8: Results of Parallel Mediation Model for Procedurally Fair Policing
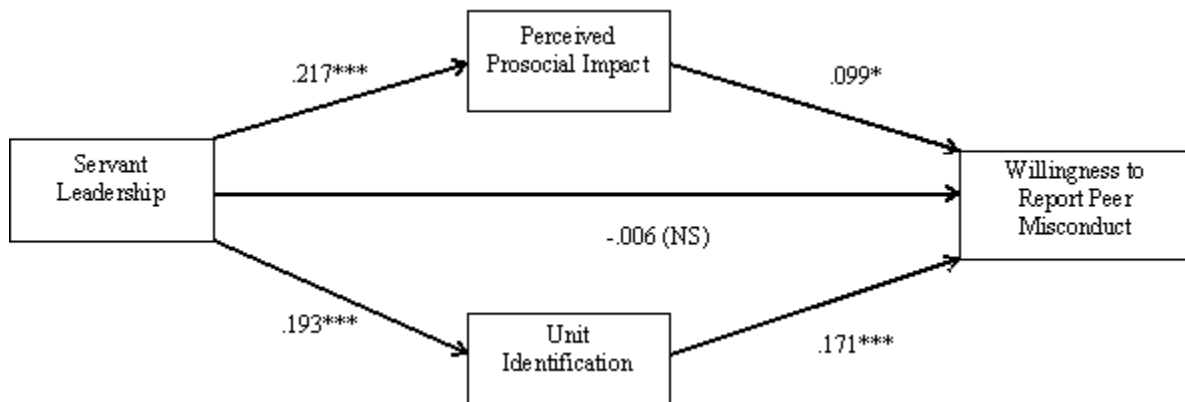
Figure 9: Results of the Parallel Mediation Model for Willingness to Report Peers
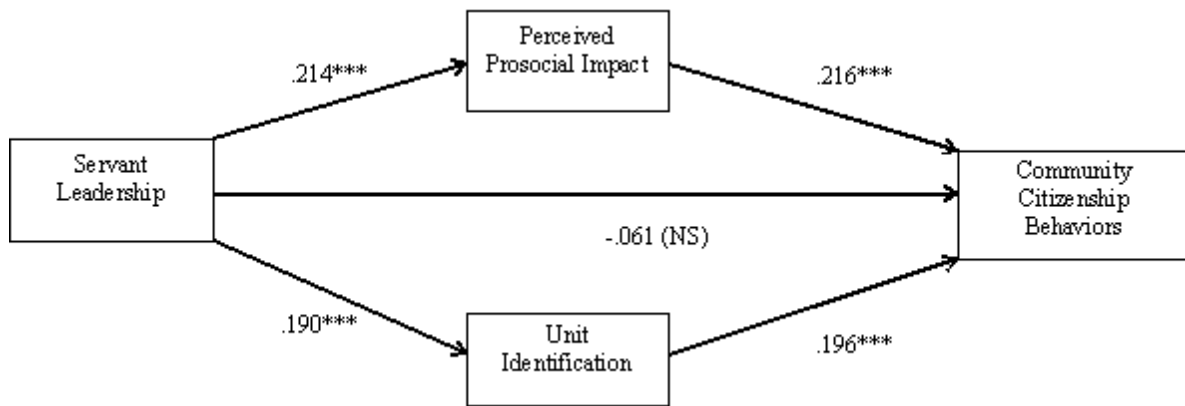
Figure 10: Results of the Parallel Mediation Model for Community Citizenship Behaviors

Examining Figures 8 through 10, we observe a significant relationship between servant leadership and both key mediating variables. This provides additional support for hypotheses 5 and 6 that servant leadership is a key factor related to higher levels of perceived prosocial impact and unit identification. Furthermore, we see more evidence in support of hypotheses 1 through 4, as we see significant relationships between mediating variables and outcomes.

For all three models, the direct effect of servant leadership on attitudes is close to zero and non-significant (also see

Table 23: Estimated Indirect Effect below). Additionally, the indirect effects of servant leadership through mediation paths are significant in most cases. These findings combine to provide evidence in support of hypotheses 7 and 8. Hypothesis 7 proposed perceived prosocial impact would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes, and hypothesis 8 suggested that unit identification would mediate the relationship between

servant leadership and outcomes. Results suggest that the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes occurs through the key psychological mechanisms of perceived prosocial impact and unit identification.

Hypothesis 9 suggested that perceived prosocial impact would act as a stronger mediator, compared to unit identification, between servant leadership and support for procedurally fair policing practices. Results presented in Figure 7 suggest that perceived prosocial impact has a slightly larger effect on support for procedurally fair policing compared to unit identification; however, this difference warrants further investigation. To do this, I examine the indirect effect through each path in the model, and utilize pairwise comparisons to determine the path with a stronger effect. I present estimates of indirect effects of servant leadership on outcomes in Tables 21-23 below. Results in Table 21 indicate that, despite slightly different indirect effects through prosocial impact compared to unit identification, the difference in effect size between these two mediating mechanisms is not statistically significant, as the confidence interval of the pairwise comparison of indirect effects contains zero (Hayes 2018).

Table 21: Estimated Indirect Effects, Procedurally Fair Policing

| | Procedurally Fair Policing | | |
Paths	Effect	bootSE	CI
Direct: Servant Leadership	-.036	.027	-.088; .017
Indirect: Through PSI	.033	.010	.015; .053
Indirect: Through UI	.028	.009	.013; .047
TOTAL indirect	.061	.012	.038; .087

Pairwise Comparison of Indirect Effects	-.005	.014	-.022; .032

Table 22: Estimated Indirect Effects, Willingness to Report Peers

	Willingness to Report Peers		
Paths	Effect	bootSE	CI
Direct: Servant Leadership	-.006	.043	-..091; .079
Indirect: Through PSI	.022	.013	-.001; .049
Indirect: Through UI	.033	.014	.008; .063
TOTAL indirect	.055	.016	.025; .089
Pairwise Comparison of Indirect Effects	-.012	.021	-.053; 0.03

Table 23: Estimated Indirect Effects, Community Citizenship Behaviors

	Community Citizenship Behaviors		
Paths	Effect	bootSE	CI
Direct: Servant Leadership	-.061	.049	-.157; .036
Indirect: Through PSI	.046	.015	.018; .077
Indirect: Through UI	.037	.015	.011; .069
TOTAL indirect	.084	0.19	.047; .123
Pairwise Comparison of Indirect Effects	-.009	.023	-.036; .054

4.4.5. Multilevel Mediation Analysis

I estimate multilevel mediation models to understand the direct and indirect effects of servant leadership on outcomes through key mediating variables. While all variables in my mediation

analysis are level-1 variables, this approach allows me to estimate effects while accounting

for the nested nature of my data that leads to within-unit correlation. This analysis comes

with some limitations compared to the above mediation analysis. First, the program designed

to estimate multilevel mediation analysis in STATA does not allow the inclusion of level-1

or level-2 covariates. Second, this approach does not allow for the estimation of a *parallel*

mediation model. Instead, I estimate separate simple mediation models for my two key

mediating variables and each of my three outcomes. Therefore, I estimate six separate simple

multilevel mediation models as a robustness check on my initial mediation analysis.

Figures containing these results are available in Appendices F-H. These results generally

echo findings from parallel mediation analysis using standard OLS regression models terms

of key psychological mechanisms mediating the relationship between servant leadership and

outcomes. One key difference is a significant direct effect of servant leadership on

procedurally fair policing when unit organization is the mediator. However, results of

multilevel mixed models (rather than multilevel mediation analysis, which limits the

inclusion of controls) indicate that this significant direct effect disappears when controlling

for the other key psychological mechanism, prosocial impact, or other key covariates.

4.4.6. Moderated Mediation Results: The Role of Unit Climate

In this study, I argue that in addition to the important role that leaders play in law

enforcement organizations, the role of unit climate is essential if we wish to understand what

informs the attitudes of line-level officers. I place unit climate alongside an officer's

supervisor as the entities with which they interact with frequently, and recent research in

policing suggests that the culture surrounding an officer can have a collective effect on the behavior of officers within a workgroup (Ingram, Terrill, and Paoline 2018). Ingram et al. (2018) find that perceptions of workgroup culture – for instance, the workgroup's attitudes toward aggressive tactics – were associated with use-of-force and complaints. Given the important role of servant leadership outlined in results above, I examine whether group-level perceptions of activity pressure and political behavior moderate the ability of servant leaders to enhance officers' prosocial impact and unit identification.

Hypotheses 10 through 13 suggested that group-level (in this case, unit-level) perceptions of accountability pressure and perceptions of political behavior will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and key mediating psychological constructs. To assess this relationship, I estimate the impact of servant leadership on key mediating variables, and then estimate the impact of unit-level climate on key mediating variables to determine if this unit-level measure affects the relationship between servant leadership and key mediating variables. If I find that unit-level climate interacts with servant leadership to influence key mediating variables, I will find support for hypotheses that propose a moderation effect. The equations to estimate cross-level moderation effects take the following general forms:

(4.6)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(Servant\ Leadership_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(PSM_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}(Organization\ Fairness_{ij})$$
$$+ \beta_{3j}(Pressure_{ij}) + \beta_{4j}(Demographics_{ij}) + \gamma_{ij}$$

(4.7)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(Unit\ Pressure_j) + \gamma_{02}(Unit\ Pressure_j) * (Servant\ Leadership_{ij})$$

$$+ \gamma_{03}(Size_j) + \gamma_{04}(Avg.Age_j) + \gamma_{05}(Avg.Tenure_j) + \gamma_{06}(Pct.Male_j)$$

$$+\gamma_{07}(Pct.White_j) + u_{0j}$$

(4.8)

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(Servant\ Leadership_{ij}) + \beta_{2j}(PSM_{ij}) + \beta_{3j}(Organization\ Fairness_{ij})$$

$$+ \beta_{3j}(Political\ Behavior_{ij}) + \beta_{4j}(Demographics_{ij}) + \gamma_{ij}$$

(4.9)

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(Unit\ Political\ Behavior_j) + \gamma_{02}(Unit\ Political\ Behavior_j)$$

$$* (Servant\ Leadership_{ij}) + \gamma_{03}(Size_j) + \gamma_{04}(Avg.Age_j) + \gamma_{05}(Avg.Tenure_j)$$

$$+ \gamma_{06}(Pct.Male_j) + \gamma_{07}(Pct.White_j) + u_{0j}$$

In these models, Y_{ij} represents the key mediating psychological mechanisms (i.e., prosocial motivation or unit identification). β_{3j} is a level-1 estimate of the effect of individual-level perceptions of accountability pressure or political behavior within the unit, and γ_{01} is a level-2 estimate of the group-level perception of accountability pressure or political behavior. Finally, the coefficient of interest is γ_{02}, a cross-level interaction between servant leadership at level 1 and group perceptions of climate at level 2. Additionally, in the level-2 model outlined above, γ_{03} through γ_{07} represent controls for group-level demographic characteristics such as group size, average age, average tenure, percentage of male officers, and percentage of white officers.

I present results of multilevel models with cross-level moderation effects in Table 24 **and** Table 25

Table **25**below. The outcome variables for these results are my key mediating variables, prosocial impact, and unit identification, respectively. As expected, results indicate a significant and positive effect of servant leadership on both prosocial impact and unit identification. Additionally, results indicate a direct effect of unit climates on key mediating variables.

Table **24**, model 2 and model 3 present effects of unit pressure and unit political behavior on prosocial impact. Both unit pressure and unit political behavior have a negative effect on prosocial impact. This suggests that there is some influence of unit climate on perceived prosocial impact. However, the interaction results presented in model 2 and model 3 suggest that the cross-level moderation effect of unit climate on the relationship between servant leadership and prosocial impact is non-significant. We observe the same story in the results in

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Table **25**, models 2 and 3. While there is a direct effect of unit political behavior on unit identification, the interaction effect of servant leadership x unit climate is non-significant for both accountability pressure and unit political behavior.

Table 24: Results of Multilevel Moderated Mediation Analysis: Prosocial Impact

Variables	(1) Prosocial Impact	(2) Prosocial Impact	(3) Prosocial Impact
Level-1 Effects			
Servant Leadership	0.11***	0.15***	0.13***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Org Fairness	0.13	0.12	0.12
	(0.18)	(0.24)	(0.22)
Public Service Motivation	0.20***	0.20***	0.19***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Accountability Pressure	-0.04*	-0.06**	
	(0.08)	(0.04)	
Political Behavior	-0.15***		-0.14***
	(0.00)		(0.00)
Tenure	0.07**	0.08**	0.07**
	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.03)
Male	-0.14	-0.10	-0.16*
	(0.11)	(0.27)	(0.07)
White	-0.18**	-0.17**	-0.20**
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.01)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.02	-0.02	-0.01

Table 24. Continued

	(0.81)	(0.72)	(0.85)
Constant	4.50***	4.06***	4.37***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Level-2 Effects			
Unit Pressure		-0.10	
		(0.15)	
Unit political behavior			-0.13
			(0.13)

Group size	-0.00	-0.01	-0.00
	(0.66)	(0.49)	(0.72)
Group age	0.03	0.03	0.03
	(0.43)	(0.43)	(0.31)
Group tenure	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
	(0.64)	(0.52)	(0.52)
Group – Percentage male	-0.17	-0.07	-0.18
	(0.68)	(0.86)	(0.66)
Group – Percentage white	0.48*	0.54*	0.43
	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.12)
Cross-Level Moderation Effects			
Serv. Lead x Unit Pressure		-0.02	
		(0.70)	
Serv. Lead x Unit political behavior			-0.02
			(0.79)
Random Effects			
Intercept (u_0)	0.02	0.02	0.01
Residuals (r)	0.31	0.33	0.31
ICC	0.05	0.05	0.04
Observations	497	499	501
Number of groups	64	64	64

pval in parentheses
*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$

Table 25: Results of Multilevel Moderated Mediation Analysis: Unit Identification

Variables	(1) Unit Identification	(2) Unit Identification	(3) Unit Identification
Level-1 Effects			
Servant Leadership	0.07**	0.12***	0.08***
	(0.02)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Org Fairness	-0.00	-0.00	-0.05
	(0.96)	(0.97)	(0.55)

Public Service Motivation	0.13***	0.13***	0.13***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Accountability Pressure	-0.00	-0.01	
	(0.97)	(0.71)	
Political Behavior	-0.18***		-0.13***
	(0.00)		(0.00)
Tenure	-0.04	-0.04	-0.05
	(0.17)	(0.25)	(0.12)
Male	-0.09	-0.09	-0.08
	(0.29)	(0.32)	(0.36)
White	-0.08	-0.07	-0.11
	(0.31)	(0.41)	(0.16)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.24***	-0.25***	-0.25***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	4.64***	4.11***	4.63***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Level-2 Effects			
Unit Pressure		-0.09	
		(0.16)	
Unit political behavior			-0.23***
			(0.00)
Group size	0.00	-0.00	0.00
	(0.83)	(0.89)	(0.96)
Group age	0.02	0.01	0.02
	(0.54)	(0.61)	(0.40)
Group tenure	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02
	(0.66)	(0.54)	(0.55)
Group – Percentage male	0.04	0.16	-0.03
	(0.90)	(0.67)	(0.93)
Group – Percentage white	0.09	0.18	-0.01
	(0.68)	(0.48)	(0.97)
Cross-Level Moderation Effects			
Serv. Lead x Unit Pressure		-0.05	
		(0.34)	
Serv. Lead x Unit political behavior			0.08
			(0.21)
Random Effects			
Intercept (u_0)	0.00	0.01	0.00
Residuals (r)	0.30	0.32	0.29
ICC	0.00	0.01	0.00

Table 25. Continued

Observations	497	499	501
Number of groups	64	64	64

pval in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.10

These results indicate a lack of support for Hypotheses 10 through 13. While there are significant direct effects of unit climate, these effects do not appear to moderate the relationship between servant leadership and key psychological mechanisms. Furthermore, even given the negative direct effect of unit climate on key mediators, servant leadership still has a significant and positive effect on key mediating variables.

Rejection of these hypotheses suggests that the indirect effects of servant leadership on outcomes through prosocial impact and unit identification do not differ or disappear across different levels of unit climate. While these hypotheses are unsupported, results illustrate important direct effects of perceptions of political behavior at the individual and group level. Group-level perceptions of political behavior have a significant, negative correlation with individual levels of unit identification ($\gamma = -.21, p < .01$). The direct correlations of group-level perceptions of political behavior approach significance for a negative relationship with prosocial impact ($\gamma = -.13$). Additionally, the direct correlations of individual-level perceptions of political behavior are significant and negative with both perceived prosocial impact and unit identification.

There is also the possibility that unit climates consisting of accountability pressure and political behavior are more likely to disrupt the effects of unit-level perceptions of servant leadership. I observe significant effects of unit-level perceptions of servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms; therefore, I also examine whether unit-level perceptions of pressure or political behavior may moderate the effect of unit-level perceptions of servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms. I present these results in Table 26. Results

indicate that there is not a significant interaction effect between group-level climate and group-level servant leadership, further suggesting that these perceptions do not moderate the effect of servant leadership on key mediators.

Table 26: Results of Group-Level Moderated Mediation Analysis

Variables	(1) Prosocial Impact	(2) Prosocial Impact	(3) Unit Identification	(4) Unit Identification
Level-1 Effects				
Servant Leadership	0.15***	0.13***	0.12***	0.08***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Org Fairness	0.11	0.12	-0.02	-0.06
	(0.27)	(0.22)	(0.84)	(0.49)
Public Service Motivation	0.20***	0.20***	0.13***	0.13***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Accountability Pressure	-0.05**		-0.01	
	(0.05)		(0.72)	
Political Behavior		-0.14***		-0.13***
		(0.00)		(0.00)
Tenure	0.08**	0.07**	-0.04	-0.05
	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.24)	(0.12)
Male	-0.10	-0.17*	-0.09	-0.07
	(0.28)	(0.07)	(0.33)	(0.43)
White	-0.18**	-0.20**	-0.08	-0.10
	(0.03)	(0.01)	(0.36)	(0.19)
Line-Level Patrol	-0.03	-0.02	-0.25***	-0.25***
	(0.70)	(0.82)	(0.00)	(0.00)
Constant	4.11***	4.36***	4.14***	4.64***
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)

Table 26. Continued

Level-2 Effects				
Group Servant Leadership	0.31***	0.31***	0.46***	0.23**
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.01)
Unit Pressure	0.00		0.07	
	(0.95)		(0.32)	
Unit political behavior		0.03		-0.11
		(0.77)		(0.19)
Group size	0.00	-0.00	0.00	
	(0.83)	(0.89)	(0.96)	

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Group age	0.02	0.01	0.02	
	(0.54)	(0.61)	(0.40)	
Group tenure	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	
	(0.66)	(0.54)	(0.55)	
Group – Percentage male	0.04	0.16	-0.03	
	(0.90)	(0.67)	(0.93)	
Group – Percentage white	0.09	0.18	-0.01	
	(0.68)	(0.48)	(0.97)	
Level-2 Moderation Effects				
Group Serv. Lead x Unit Pressure	0.08		-0.15	
	(0.62)		(0.27)	
Group Serv. Lead x Unit political behavior		-0.20		-0.06
		(0.40)		(0.75)
Random Effects				
Intercept (u_0)	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00
Residuals (r)	0.33	0.32	0.31	0.29
ICC	0.02	0.02	0.00	0.00
Observations	499	501	499	501
Number of groups	64	64	64	64

pval in parentheses
*** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.10$

4.4.7. Summary of Results of Hypothesis Tests

Table 27 below provides a summary of the results of hypothesis tests in this dissertation research. Results show that initial hypotheses about the relationships between mediators and outcomes, as well as the relationship between servant leadership and mediators, were supported by the results of multilevel regression models. Perceived prosocial impact was significantly and positively correlated with community citizenship behavior and support for procedurally fair policing practices (supporting hypotheses 1 and 2). Unit identification was significantly and positively correlated with support for procedurally fair policing practices and an officer's willingness to report peer misconduct (supporting hypotheses 3 and 4). Results also showed that servant leadership is significantly correlated with unit identification and prosocial impact (supporting hypotheses 5 and 6).

In addition, results of parallel mediation models indicate support for these hypothesized relationships. I find that servant leadership has a non-significant relationship with key attitudinal outcomes, instead affecting outcomes through prosocial impact and unit identification. The indirect effects of servant leadership *through* key mediating variables are positive and significant. Results of simple multilevel mediation models to better account for the nested structure of data echo these results (see Appendices F-H). These findings combine to suggest that proposed psychological constructs, prosocial impact and unit identification, mediate the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes (supporting hypotheses 7 and 8). Finally, concerning the strength of the relationship between key mediators and support for procedurally fair policing practices, results of parallel mediation analysis suggest that the paths through prosocial impact and unit identification do not have a statistically different effect on the outcome. These results indicate a lack of support for hypothesis 9.

Finally, as noted in Table 27, results do not support hypotheses 10 through 13. Across all hypothesized effects of moderated mediation, I find that group perceptions of accountability pressure and political behavior within the unit do not moderate the effects of servant leadership on key psychological mechanisms. However, there are significant direct effects of individual- and group-level perceptions of political behavior within the unit. This suggests that a climate that cuts against prioritizing the community may still have a negative impact on support for community-focused approaches to policing.

Table 27: Summary of Results of Hypotheses Tests

Number	Hypothesis	Result
H1	Perceived prosocial impact will be positively correlated with officer community citizenship behavior	Support
H2	Perceived prosocial impact will be positively correlated with officer support for procedurally fair policing practices	Support
H3	Unit identification will be positively correlated with officer support for procedurally fair policing practices	Support
H4	Unit identification will be positively correlated with officer willingness to report peer misconduct	Support
H5	Higher perceptions of supervisor servant leadership will be positively associated with perceived prosocial impact of work.	Support
H6	Higher perceptions of supervisor servant leadership will be positively associated with unit identification.	Support
H7	Perceived prosocial impact will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and key attitudinal outcomes.	Support
H8	Unit identification will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and key attitudinal outcomes.	Support
H9	Perceived prosocial impact will act as a stronger mediator, compared to unit identification, between servant leadership and support for procedurally fair policing practices	Unsupported
H10	Group perceptions of activity pressure will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an officer's perceived prosocial impact.	Unsupported
H11	Group perceptions of activity pressure will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an officer's identification with the unit.	Unsupported
H12	Group perceptions of political behavior within the unit will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an officer's perceived prosocial impact.	Unsupported
H13	Group perceptions of political behavior within the unit will moderate the effect of servant leadership on an officer's identification with the unit.	Unsupported

4.4.8. Supplementary Analysis

My measure of an officer's willingness to report peer misconduct may indeed measure two

separate constructs, one highlighting perceptions of reporting misuse of force and another

measuring disrespect toward citizens. We care about an officer's willingness to report both of

these; however, additional research is required to understand an officer's response to

something perceived as 'less serious' than use of force in police-civilian interactions. This

does not dismiss the importance of reporting the use of excessive force; however, repeated,

unchecked instances of disrespect toward citizens are sure to degrade police-community

relations and, at least in theory, law enforcement organizations rely on other street-level

officers to recognize and correct this behavior. Below, I present results of parallel mediation

analysis treating these two measures as separate constructs:

Indirect through PSI = .028

Perceived Prosocial Impact

.225***   .122*

Servant Leadership   Report Peer Using Excessive Force

-.049 (NS)

.189***   .169***

Unit Identification

Indirect through OI = .032
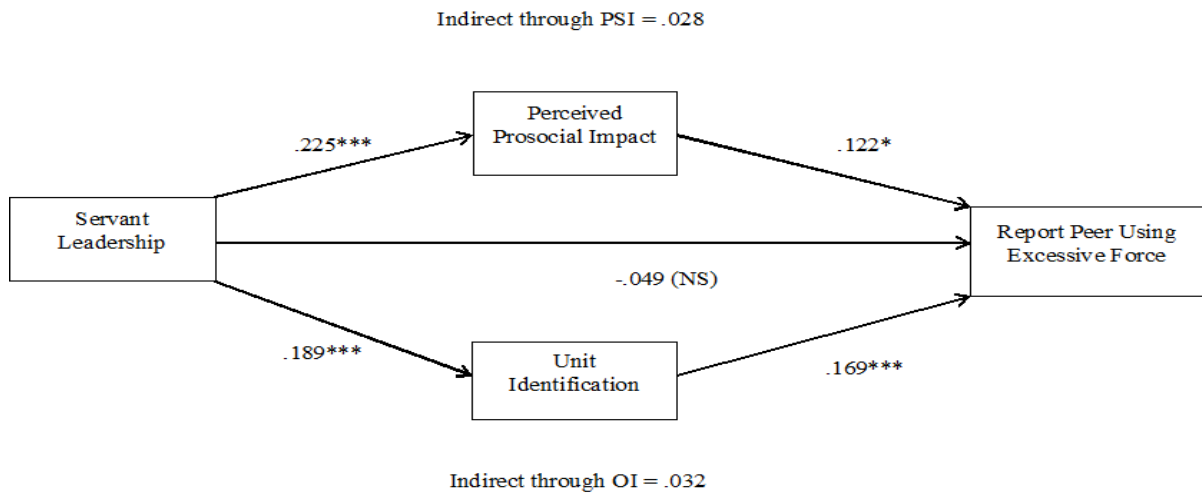
Figure 11: Parallel Mediation Results: Willingness to Report Excessive Force
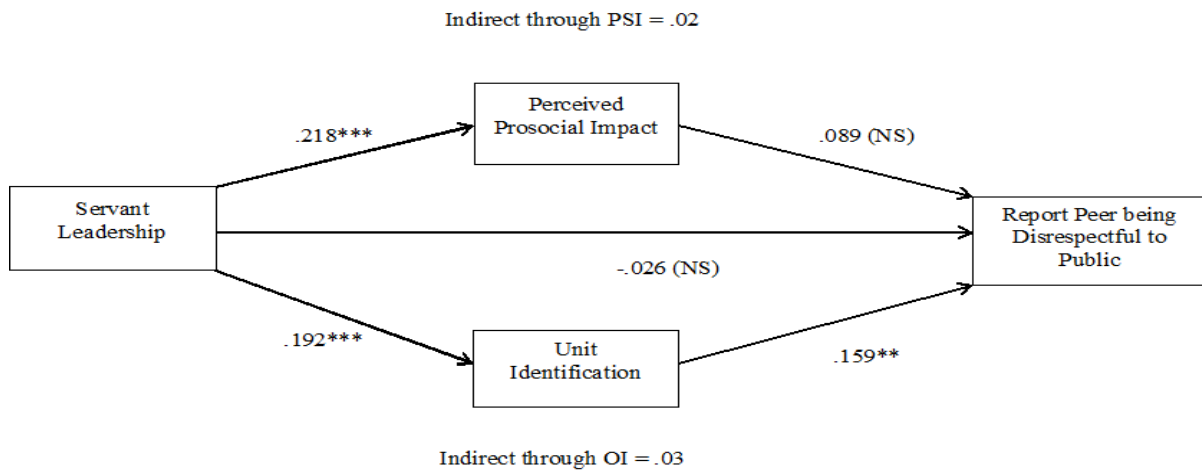
Figure 12: Parallel Mediation Results: Willingness to Report Disrespect toward Civilians

Results in Figure 11 and Figure 12 highlight two different findings that are essential to future research. First, officers overall are less willing or less likely to report their peers for disrespectful conduct toward civilians. Second, despite some similarities, results suggest that different processes within the organization could inform these two behaviors. A stronger identification with internal norms may be associated with a higher willingness to call peers out for conduct, while perceived prosocial impact of work may manifest in public-facing behaviors, rather than a willingness to hold peers accountable internally.

A potential limitation of this research is a potential violation of the assumption that the two parallel mediators in Section 4.4.4. Mediation Results: Indirect Effects of Servant Leadership are uncorrelated. A correlational analysis and an overall factor analysis suggest moderately high correlation between the constructs of unit identification and perceived prosocial impact, and even suggested that some individual items intended to measure unit identification loaded

with items measuring perceived prosocial impact. I contend that, while highly correlated, these concepts are conceptually distinct. Unit identification focuses more on an individual's interaction with or adoption of the core values of an organization, while prosocial impact attempts to capture perceptions that one's work matters for the community. Furthermore, these mediators are connected to different outcomes in the mediation models. For example, unit identification was a more influential path for the outcome of willingness to report peer misconduct, which is a more internally focused outcome. This may call for a more careful measure of these two items in future research.

Rather than abandon my specification or these constructs, high correlation might call for an alternate specification of the model. Rather than a parallel mediation process, this could be conceived of as a serial mediation process wherein servant leadership influences prosocial impact, which influences unit identification to influence outcomes. In practice, servant leaders may be essential to illustrate the prosocial impact of an individual's work. Recognition of that prosocial impact may lead officers to more readily adopt unit values as an important part of their identity. Then, high levels of unit identification could be essential for several outcomes, both within the organization and in interactions with the community. I present a diagram of that model below, followed by a diagram indicating results of that serial mediation model.
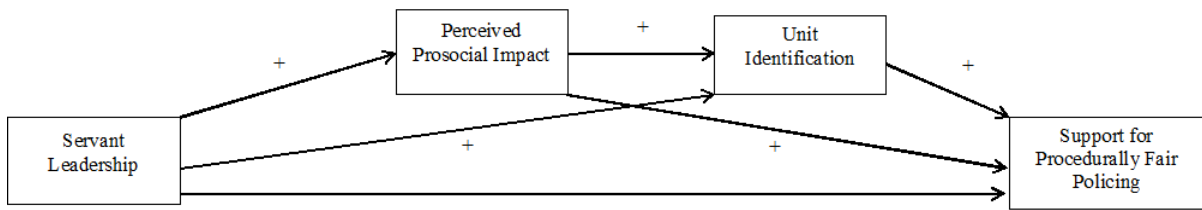
Figure 13: Alternate Specification of a Serial Mediation Model
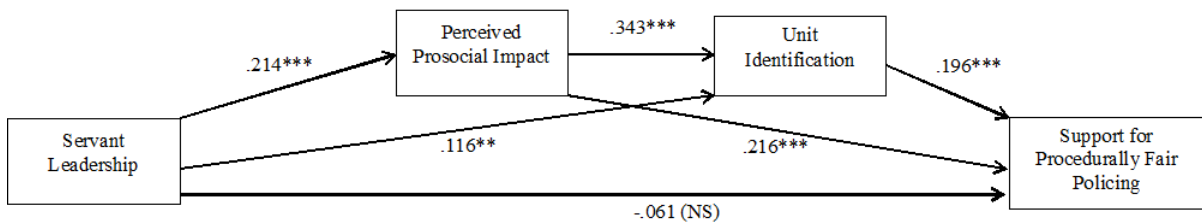
Figure 14: Alternate Specification: Results of a Serial Mediation Model

Results of the above serial mediation analysis are similar to findings from the parallel mediation model, as expected. The key difference comes from a better understanding of what influences unit identification. Results in **Error! Reference source not found.** suggest that prosocial impact is significantly and positively correlated with unit identification, and may be a key mechanism in enhancing unit identification. Therefore, this path may be important for injecting core internal values into the decision-making processes of line-level officers, and may further illustrate the importance of servant leadership in influencing prosocial impact. Note that pairwise comparisons of indirect effects suggest that servant leadership's indirect effect through perceived prosocial impact is not statistically significantly stronger than

servant leadership's indirect effect through prosocial impact on unit identification. Nonetheless, given the importance of prosocial impact and unit identification for a bevy of organizational outcomes, future research should consider these psychological mechanisms as key elements of the mediation path to improved outcomes.

Chapter 5. Discussion, Conclusions, and Future Considerations

5.1. Introduction

This dissertation examined how supervisors in law enforcement organizations influence the norms, attitudes, and approaches of line-level officers. This introduces a new approach to understanding the factors influencing officer attitudes about serving the community. Through this, I introduce a new approach for law enforcement organizations to attempt recovery of lost trust and legitimacy within communities. Given the important signals that law enforcement leaders provide to subordinates, I argue that leaders who emphasized serving and provide legitimacy to other-oriented approaches in a police organization can play an important role in influencing officer attitudes. These attitudes include two key psychological mechanisms, higher perceived prosocial impact of their work to their community, and higher identification with the unit. Through these mechanisms, mid-level servant police leaders enhance line-level officers' acceptance of community-focused approaches to policing.

In addition to these effects, I argued that pressure for performance and political behaviors within the unit can cut against serving the community and hinders a leader's ability to instill community-focused attitudes among frontline officers. Based on performance management literature, the effect of stringent accountability systems in education, and feedback from law

enforcement officers, I expected that these unit-level factors related to accountability systems would moderate servant police leaders' ability to influence the attitudes of followers.

5.2. Key Findings

5.2.1. Prosocial Impact, Unit Identification, and Officer Attitudes

A key focus of this research was to understand the factors that lead line-level officers to prioritize the community. A first step in this was attempting to identify attitudes that might inform how line-level officers prioritize the community. I identify perceived prosocial impact and unit identification as key psychological constructs that will motivate officers to support community-focused approaches to policing.

I find support for Hypotheses 1-4 that unit identification and perceived prosocial impact would be correlated with support for community-focused approaches to policing. The analysis showed that prosocial impact is significantly and positively correlated with line-level officer support for procedurally fair policing practices and community citizenship behaviors. This echoes findings from research (e.g., Grant 2012; Bellé 2013) that the perception that one's work makes a difference in the community is essential to motivate employees to go beyond expectations. Prior research found that this manifested as better performance within public-facing roles. My findings suggest that prosocial impact may motivate employees to go beyond expectations outside of their role, as well, and voluntarily engage in community citizenship behaviors. Additionally, I find that highlighting the prosocial impact of the work of public employees can lead to more positive attitudes about interacting with the public. This is similar to Grant (2008), who found that information about

prosocial impact of work can influence how public sector employees work to benefit others. However, this and other research on prosocial motives (e.g., Rioux and Penner 2001) find connections between prosocial motives and performance within one's role or enhanced organizational citizenship behaviors. My findings take this relationship a step further and connect perceived prosocial impact to public-facing approaches to one's work, suggesting that prosocial impact can be a key factor in influencing how officers interact with civilians.

Additionally, I find that work-unit identification is significantly correlated with support for procedurally fair policing practices and willingness to report peer misconduct. The connection between unit identification and willingness to report peers suggests that when officers adopt unit values as a core part of their own identity, they are more likely to uphold those values and speak out if peer behavior violates those norms. In general, this echoes findings that internalization of norms and higher levels of identification enhances an employee's willingness to speak up about behaviors that violate those norms. This echoes findings from Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) that unit-level identification may be more closely connected with unit-level behaviors, as this willingness to report is likely to manifest as reporting someone within their unit. Furthermore, the connection between unit identification and support for procedurally fair policing practices extends research on unit identification by highlighting connections between internalizing unit values and community-facing attitudes. Traditionally, research on unit identification illustrates connections with internally-facing behaviors (Christ et al. 2003), while my findings illustrate a connection

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between unit identification and approaches to interacting with the public. This is an essential step in understanding mechanisms that inform line-level approaches to civilian interactions.

5.2.2. Servant Leadership and Officer Attitudes

Another key goal of this study was to understand how leadership within a law enforcement organization can influence line-level officer support for community-focused approaches to policing. There are continuous efforts to improve accountability and performance in policing through, for example, body-worn camera technology, early-intervention performance management systems, or community-policing efforts aimed to work with the community; however, officer misconduct and violence toward citizens continue to degrade police-community relations. I contend that to understand the failures of these robust accountability efforts, researchers and practitioners must better understand intra-organizational factors that influence how line-level officers interact with the community. I begin this exploration by attempting to understand the effects of post commanders on the attitudes of line-level officers within their unit. I suggest that servant leaders will enhance unit identification and perceived prosocial impact of line-level officers, which, in turn, will affect how officers prioritize the community in their approaches to policing.

I find support for Hypotheses 5 and 6, which suggest that servant leadership will be significantly correlated with higher levels of unit identification and perceived prosocial impact. My analysis shows that line-level officer perceptions of their post commander's servant leadership behaviors are positively correlated with line-level officer prosocial impact and identification with the unit. Beyond these connections between individual-level

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perceptions, I find that group-level perceptions of servant leadership are significantly and positively correlated with line-level officer prosocial impact and unit identification. This echoes findings from Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) that work-unit identification is affected by localized elements within the organization, such as the behaviors of a post commander, more so than broad organizational elements, such as overall perceptions of organizational fairness or behaviors of top-level managers. The connection between servant leadership and perceived prosocial impact also confirms findings from prior research (Eva et al. 2013; Schwartz et al. 2016) that servant leaders effectively communicate the importance of serving others. The current study is the first to directly examine the relationship between servant leadership and prosocial impact among police officers.

I also find support for Hypotheses 7 and 8, that prosocial impact and unit identification mediate the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. Results suggest that the direct relationship between servant leadership and outcomes is non-significant. Instead, servant leaders affect outcomes by developing followers to enhance their identification with the work unit. Furthermore, servant leaders affect outcomes by modeling and communicating the importance of other-oriented approaches to the job, reminding officers of the important impact that their work has on the public, and illustrating to them that focusing on that public impact is welcome within that leader's work unit.

This extends research on officer support for community-focused approaches to policing. Past empirical evidence suggests connections between internal procedural fairness and acceptance of procedurally fair policing practices (Trinkner, Tyler, and Goff 2016). This outlines other

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pathways – beyond stringent accountability systems or broad perceptions of internal procedural fairness – that can influence the attitudes of line-level officers. Leaders can influence community-focused attitudes by building up followers, enhancing their connection with the values of their unit, and rewarding other-oriented behavior. Identification of additional pathways to influence the attitudes of officers provides police leaders with more options for reform. Moving forward, researchers must work to understand which pathways can be effective and which pathways are ineffective or lead to problematic behavior of line-level officers.

5.2.3. Accountability Pressure and Officer Attitudes

Another goal of this study was to examine the effects of climate that may stem from highly competitive accountability environments. Unit climate represents another intra-organizational factor that may influence the attitudes of line-level officers, and I contend that robust accountability systems in policing may actually pull officers away from the impact that they can have on the community. Therefore, I outlined hypotheses that negative unit climates – which I credit to over-emphasizing simple, measurable elements of accountability and performance – will disrupt the positive effects that servant leaders can have on followers. First, I hypothesized that pressure for activity or arrests would disrupt the effect of servant leadership on prosocial impact and unit identification, as it will blur the positive impact of officer's work on the public and run counter to the norms and ideals officers associated with the unit. These expectations stemmed from research on the push for performance management and accountability in the public sector, which suggested that teachers facing

external pressure for accountability performed well on measured elements of teaching, but gave less effort other unmeasured elements of their performance (Ryan and Weinstein 2009). This lack of effort reflects feelings of pressure and burnout that often occur in performance management regimes in public organizations (Jakobsen et al. 2018). The results did not support my hypothesis that pressure for accountability disrupts the effectiveness of servant leaders. While individual feelings of pressure were correlated with lower levels of prosocial impact, group-level perceptions of pressure did not negatively impact the influence of servant leadership. This suggests that effective servant leaders may be able to overcome perceptions that activity is paramount within an organization. Alternatively, this could mean that units who benefit from having servant leaders do not feel immense pressure for activity.

These results speak to findings from that *when paired with effective managers*, accountability and performance management systems are more effective and improve transparency or service delivery (Moynihan and Pandey 2005; Gerrish 2015; Destler 2017). Performance management research in public administration and policing typically limits its purview to internal attitudes about performance management systems or performance specifically measured by the performance initiative; therefore, this research attempts to connect perceptions of internal emphasis on performance to public-facing attitudes and approaches to policing.

5.2.4. Political Behavior and Officer Attitudes

In another attempt to understand the influence of intra-organizational dynamics on officer attitudes, I hypothesized that perceptions of political behavior within the unit will have a

negative impact on the effectiveness of servant leaders. My results suggest that unit climates high in political behavior do not disrupt the influence of servant leaders on followers, leading to a lack of support for that hypothesis. This, again, points to the potential robust effects of servant leadership across different unit climates – or to the absence of political climates when servant leaders are in charge of the post.

Despite lack of support for that moderation hypothesis, results do indicate that perceptions of political behavior within the unit may have a negative impact on officer attitudes. Both individual-level perceptions of political behavior and group-level perceptions of political behavior had a significant, negative impact on officer perceived prosocial impact. This suggests that officers who perceive political behavior within the unit may feel that the core reason why they do the work – the potential to have a positive impact on the public – are devalued and overrun by officer behaviors that do not prioritize the community. This echoes findings from Kacmar et al. (2013), which suggest that perceptions of political behaviors within the organization can reduce cooperation within the unit. Furthermore, my results suggest that individual- and group-level perceptions of political behaviors are correlated with lower levels of work-unit identification. This echoes findings from research on group identification and work alienation (Regoli, Crank, and Rivera 1990), which suggests that individuals who perceive that behind-the-scenes dealings and personal relationships will be rewarded more than behaviors that align with the ideals of the unit will withdraw from the work and, in this case, the work unit.

This dissertation project connected classical ideas in public management research – prosocial impact, identification with one's work, and leadership – and examines their connection with public-facing attitudes. Instead of limiting analysis to internal organization citizenship behaviors, I examine the effects of servant leadership on community citizenship behaviors. Instead of focusing on task performance, I investigate the influence of servant leadership on approaches to interactions with civilians. And, finally, while many studies of servant leadership test its effect on intra-organizational factors that are associated with improved performance (i.e., innovation, creativity, and knowledge-sharing), I examine the connection between servant leadership and "customer"-focused outcomes. Servant leadership has been shown to influence customer service quality and customer-oriented prosocial behavior (Chen et al. 2015). I focus on outcomes related to how officers serve civilians, and whether rewards systems in these organizations align with prosocial values.

The connection between leadership and public-facing attitudes is essential for public management research, and essential for understanding new directions for management in law enforcement organizations. Beyond this specific project, this sets a new course for considering best practices of leadership in law enforcement organizations amidst the continued proliferation of accountability systems.

5.3. Implications for Public Management Research and Practice

This research contributes to public administration's study of public management and performance management. Below, I briefly discuss what we know from this research as it

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relates to this study, the gaps in these streams of research, and discuss my dissertation's contributions to those areas of study in public administration.

This research takes place amidst performance management reforms across many public organizations, and a continuous emphasis on performance management and accountability in law enforcement organizations. Performance management systems emphasize measurable outcomes and measurable elements of performance as key indicators of organizational effectiveness and success (Moynihan and Pandey 2005). These initiatives combine reforms of managerial systems (e.g., pay-for-performance, benchmarking, contracting) with performance tracking and accountability to improve results for the organization. Performance management systems find their roots as early as the 1970s and gained popularity as part of the New Public Management movement in the 1990s (Moynihan 2008).

Theoretically, these systems have the potential to be more cost-effective, ensure better service delivery, and increase transparency of public organizations (Moynihan, Wright, and Pandey 2012), especially when paired with changes to management systems (Destler 2017; Moynihan and Pandey 2005); however, these systems also interact with the organizational climate, norms, and values, and rely on these informal elements to be effective. Despite the potential positive effects of performance management systems, they may fail to improve performance of public organizations, introduce tension into the organization, or incentivize behaviors that show improvement on outcomes without improving substantive performance (Courty and Marschke 2004; Heinrich and Marschke 2010; Gerrish 2015). Many of these

mixed results occur when performance management reforms do not happen in tandem with effective managerial reform (Destler 2016; 2017; Moynihan 2008).

A great deal of research on performance management examines the overall effect of adopting such systems on performance outcomes for organizations (Jang, Hoover, and Joo 2010; Dee and Jacob 2011; Dee and Wyckoff 2015). Additionally, many studies examine the influence that *managers* in the public sector can have on the effectiveness of accountability systems. Findings include a relationship between a manager's support for performance management systems and their adoption and implementation (Cavalluzzo and Ittner 2004), a relationship between perceptions of effectiveness and use of performance information (Yang and Hsieh 2007), and a relationship between formal training on performance management and greater perceived effectiveness (Cavaluzzo and Ittner 2004; Kroll and Moynihan 2015). Gerrish (2015) finds that pairing performance management systems with best practice techniques for managing those systems provides much greater positive impact on measured performance; however there is still a great deal of unexplained variation in the relationship between performance management systems and performance improvements. This unexplained variation highlights the first of two key shortcomings in this literature.

Despite strides in understanding how management can affect performance management and accountability systems, fewer studies (for example, see Destler 2017) examine how leaders and street-level bureaucrats interact with these systems. Similarly, there is limited research on how perceptions of accountability systems affect the attitudes of street-level bureaucrats. Destler's (2017) article investigates how street-level bureaucrats perceive and interact with

organizational climate. Without understanding how performance management systems influence the climate, norms, and culture present in an organization, these systems may fall short of inciting meaningful change.

Second, while performance management systems may affect measured performance outcomes in a positive manner, these systems may remove bureaucrats from the key motivation and impact of their work (Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright 2012). Quantitative indicators of performance align with the movement toward performance management and accountability but leave behind other sources of motivation that are either not easily measured, or not easily rewarded by such accountability systems. If employees are not motivated by aligning with these quantitative indicators of performance, and instead motivated by understanding that their work makes a difference in the community or benefits individual stakeholders, performance management will be an ineffective motivator (Moynihan et al. 2012).

This dissertation follows Destler (2017) in investigating the relationship between perceptions of organization climate with regards to performance and accountability systems and attitudes of street-level bureaucrats. I examine how leaders interact with pressures from accountability systems, and how these influences inform the attitudes of street-level bureaucrats in the form of line-level police officers.

Additionally, I carry forward a concept introduced by Moynihan, Wright, and Pandey (2012) by investigating the merit of perceived prosocial impact as an alternate model for motivating and managing performance. My findings suggest that perceived prosocial impact is an

essential motivating factor related to support for community-focused attitudes in policing. Leaders who can illustrate the positive impact of line-level officers' work on local communities can heighten support for approaches that prioritize the community.

5.4. Implications for Policing Research and Practice

This dissertation also contributed to research on public management and policing. I examine how law enforcement leaders influence officer attitudes, and how perceptions of unit accountability pressure and political behavior in law enforcement organizations contribute to community-focused approaches to policing.

Traditionally in public administration research, scholars approach the study of policing through examining how the public perceives the work of police, and how police organizations can respond to negative perceptions of service delivery. Scholars often employ the theory of representative bureaucracy to confront major differences in perceptions of service delivery across different groups. Representative bureaucracy research examines strategies to increase workforce diversity, as well as the relationship between personnel that are more diverse and citizen perceptions of police work. Scholars find that a greater match between the demographics of law enforcement organizations and the communities they police leads to positive perceptions of law enforcement performance, legitimacy, and trustworthiness (Riccucci et al. 2018; Theobald and Haider-Markel 2009). Taken a step further, studies also examine the influence of active representation, or the likelihood of acting in the interest of a civilian with similar demographic backgrounds. Scholars find, for

example, that that increases in the proportion of minorities in a police organization correlate with decreases in the proportion of minorities stopped and searched by police (Hong 2017).

Representative bureaucracy research provides empirical support for the relationship between diversity in police organizations and improved outcomes for minority citizens, as well as positive perceptions of police behavior. These positive perceptions of police behavior enhance legitimacy and offer one potential lever through which citizen perceptions of police can be improved. However, this literature falls short of identifying the norms and ideals that inform officer perceptions of fairness, accountability, and serving the public, and scholars suggest that there are limitations to the potential effects of small demographic changes within policing (Nicholson-Crotty, Nicholson-Crotty, and Fernandez 2017).

Without understanding the levers that can cultivate community-focused norms in police organizations, diverse hiring practices will fall short of solving the problems within police-community relations. This dissertation research identified informal factors that influence officer attitudes about policing, accountability, and serving the community. Even if organizations rely on a rigid internal accountability system that prioritizes performance on only a few metrics, servant leaders act as important models of behavior and can influence attitudes of line-level officers and champion a community-oriented mission in policing.

These results also provide police with characteristics to prioritize in their recruitment, retention, and promotion systems. Organizations should begin to identify servant qualities in the recruitment process and illustrate the value of other-oriented mindsets when an officer is early in their career to show that this self-sacrifice is an important part of the organization.

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Organizations can also respond to highly competitive environments by examining the effectiveness of training programs for current or potential leaders on best practices of servant leadership. Wood, Tyler, and Papachristos (2020) provide recent evidence that officers who were randomly assigned to procedural fairness trainings saw reduced complaints and reduced use of force against citizens. This illustrates the merit of in-career training to potentially alter the approaches of officers, and provides a model research design to begin to examine the effects of servant leadership training in policing.

5.5. Study Limitations and Future Research

The findings and contributions of this dissertation research must be discussed in light of its limitations. One limitation of the study is the cross-sectional nature of the data collection, which limits my ability to make causal claims about relationships between key variables. I explore a snapshot of the organization and, through theoretical arguments and regression models, attempt to understand how informal processes correlate with officer attitudes. Nonetheless, I cannot rule out reverse causality or other temporal ordering of my mediation models and other regression analysis. This is a valuable exploration of these concepts in policing; however, there is room for future researchers to explore these relationships through causal designs. Examining the effects of servant leadership over time within an organization, or examining the effects of a servant leadership training program, would be a suitable next step in this stream of research and may provide valuable information to police organizations.

The cross-sectional nature of this research also limits my ability to understand how officers interact with exogenous environmental factors. For example, despite the positive role of

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prosocial impact, officers may have negative interactions in the community that introduce perceptions of antisocial impact. To understand the negative effects of antisocial interactions and the potential role of prosocial impact in buffering those negative effects, future research would benefit from combining administrative data with longitudinal diary study approaches. Researchers undertaking this approach would collect qualitative feedback at multiple time points from line-level officers about their attitudes, behaviors, and activities. Then, researchers could match these responses to administrative data that captures officer interactions with the public, e.g., uses of force, complaints from citizens, or witnessing tragic events. This would shed light on how external events inform officer attitudes and whether leadership or workgroup culture can buffer negative effects of some interactions.

Another limitation of this research is the potential influence of social desirability bias in responses to survey questions. Social desirability bias occurs when respondents answer in ways that they anticipate will be popular or in line with societal expectations, rather than providing answers that most accurately reflect their perceptions (Fisher 1993). Support from organizational leaders was an essential and, frankly, enjoyable element of this research project. It improved our design of the survey, understanding of the problems, and overall response rate; however, this support and encouragement to participate from organizational leaders might cause respondents to anticipate review of their responses. Despite promises of anonymity, officers might respond in a way that they feel will reflect well on themselves or their leaders. In addition, this process might lead those who have clear problems with the organization to respond at a higher rate, as they feel this is their opportunity to be heard.

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In addition, there are some potential measurement issues for key variables. There is some

concern about the measurement of an officer's support for community citizenship behaviors.

These three items, "I am involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of

work," "I encourage others in my unit to volunteer in our community," and, "When possible,

I try and get my unit members involved in community projects that I am involved in,"

attempt to measure an officer's extra-role involvement in the communities they serve. The

items ask officers to report on their own involvement, as well as their encouragement of

peers to get involved. Unfortunately, these items are not specific enough to determine

whether these officers are involved in the communities they *police*, or simply involved in the

communities where they live. This measure was intended to indicate an officer's general

attitudes about proactive involvement in the community. Note that there is very limited

evidence that residency requirements improve police-community relations or public

confidence in police (Ungar-Sargon and Flowers 2014), so this is not to suggest a

requirement of involvement; however, an officer's eagerness to be involved in the

community in a positive, proactive manner may be a path to improved police-community

relations. Future research would benefit from asking this in a more specific manner, or

examining how officer voluntary community involvement influences officer attitudes about

those communities.

Measures of unit identification also warrant more attention in future research. In this study, I

conceptualize unit identification as an important mediating variable that will be correlated

with community-focused attitudes. This framing brings with it the implicit assumption that

high levels of identification will correlated with positive attitudinal outcomes among line-level officers. However, this discounts the potential negative effects of strong group identification within police organizations. High levels of identification with the overall organization, one's work unit, or a specific social group within the organization could lead officers to protect members of that in-group at all costs, a long-standing problem in policing. This highlights a need in future research to understand the nuances of identification within police organizations, and whether there is a threshold of identification after which officers de-prioritize the public in favor of their peers.

While there are minimal options in correcting the measure of variables in the current study, particularly those based on already validated measures, future research may be served well by a more detailed and careful measure of all variables in this study. In an attempt to keep surveys reasonably short and still capture a variety of concepts, researchers sacrificed some detail in measuring specific elements of servant leadership (Liden et al. 2008) and procedurally fair policing (Trinker, Tyler, & Goff 2016). This preference for breadth over depth allowed researchers to identify important informal relationships, and future research should follow up by examining specific underlying elements within these constructs. Servant leadership warrants detailed examination in a policing context, and I suggest that future researchers conduct a more detailed analysis of all elements of servant leadership to better understand the paths through which leaders influence the attitudes of line-level officers.

Finally, future research must more thoroughly test the efficacy of combined leadership styles. Scholars must examine the integration of servant-oriented and task-oriented leadership styles

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to determine if there are interactive or additive effects of instrumental approaches to performance while still responding to the needs of followers and the community.

5.6. Concluding Remarks

This research extends our understanding of leadership and workgroup culture within law enforcement, and outlines how these informal elements within law enforcement organizations may be linked to the attitudes of line-level officers. I find that leaders who display servant leadership qualities have the opportunity to instill approaches within line-level officers that prioritize the community. In addition, I find that elements of workgroup culture stemming from individually focused performance management may take away from officer approaches that prioritize the community. This suggests a simultaneous effect of supervisor behaviors and workgroup culture on the attitudes of line-level officer attitudes. Furthermore, this research identifies specific elements of both entities that influence officer attitudes. Given this simultaneous effect, I contend that immense responsibility resides with supervisors to integrate performance-focused and community-focused approaches to law enforcement, both of which will be key to repairing public perceptions of police trust, fairness, and legitimacy.

I argue that performance management initiatives that emphasize a few objective outcomes may have detrimental effects on the attitudes of line-level officers and, ultimately, may lead officers to de-prioritize the public in their approaches to policing. However, many of these performance management outcomes will directly contribute to the safety of communities through responding to crimes or holding offenders to account. Furthermore, these

performance outcomes also contribute to the public's *perception* that law enforcement is effective at improving public safety, which can directly contribute to perceptions of the legitimacy of law enforcement. It is the difficult job of supervisors to respond to strict, outcomes-based performance initiatives while still cultivating community-focused approaches within their unit. Shortcomings on either element – performance or serving the community – will have detrimental effects on already-fragile police legitimacy and police-community relations. Therefore, we must consider what characteristics of leaders and performance management systems allow or empower an integrative approach to informing approaches of line-level officers. This calls for an understanding of how supervisors can apply pressure while still prioritizing the public in every interaction, and how supervisors can model and reward the complex, nuanced elements of prioritizing the public without sacrificing law enforcement's role in responding to crime and enhancing public safety. I find that servant leadership may be important for implementing this integrative approach. Servant leaders instill a climate that is supportive of followers through understanding and responding to those needs. In addition, servant leaders understand and respond to the needs of the community. This supportive climate may help communicate to followers and the community that some pushes for performance align with long-term community needs. Line-level officers will then perceive performance management initiatives as a tool to assist them in serving the community, rather than something held over their heads that distracts from community-focused approaches to policing.

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Appendix A: Survey 1

Survey 1: Work Culture and Motivation in Law Enforcement Organizations

Q1.1 The Ohio State University Consent Form to Participate in Research Study

This is a consent form for research participation. It contains important information about this study and what to expect if you decide to participate.

Your participation is voluntary. Please consider the information carefully. Feel free to ask questions before making your decision whether or not to participate.

 Purpose and Tasks: The purpose of this research is to learn how leadership practices influence law enforcement officers' work motivation, attitudes and behaviors. The participation involves completing two surveys separated by a month. Each survey will take 20 minutes or less to complete. You can complete the surveys during your work hours.

Duration: You may leave the study at any time. If you decide to stop participating in the study, there will be no penalty to you, and you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision will not affect your future relationship with The Ohio State University.

Risks and Benefits: We do not expect risk to exceed that you may encounter during your daily routine on the job; however, we anticipate the benefits of this research to include knowledge of workplace experiences and strategies that can positively influence police-citizen interactions and police-community relations.

Your Rights: You may refuse to participate in this study without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. By agreeing to participate, you do not give up any personal legal rights you may have as a participant in this study. An Institutional Review Board responsible for human subjects research at Ohio State University reviewed this research and found it to be acceptable, according to state and federal regulations and University policies designed to protect the rights and welfare of research participants.

Confidentiality: Your individual responses to the survey will not be shared with anyone in (redacted). We will work to make sure that no one sees your online responses without approval. But, because we are using the Internet, there is a chance that someone could access your online responses without permission. At the end of data collection, survey responses will be de-identified and stored in a secure location at the Ohio State University.   Also, there may be circumstances where this information must be released. For example, personal information regarding your participation in this study may be disclosed if required by state law. Also, your records may be reviewed by the following groups (as applicable to the research):

Office for Human Research Protections or other federal, state, or international regulatory agencies;

The Ohio State University Institutional Review Board or Office of Responsible Research Practices;

The sponsor, if any, or agency (including the Food and Drug Administration for FDA-regulated research) supporting the study.

Future Research: Your de-identified information may be used or shared with other researchers without your additional informed consent.

Contacts and Questions: For questions, concerns, or complaints about the study, or you feel you have been harmed as a result of study participation, you may contact the investigator at (redacted). For questions about

your rights as a participant in this study or to discuss other study-related concerns or complaints with someone who is not part of the research team, you may contact the (redacted).

Providing Consent: I have read (or someone has read to me) this page and I am aware that I am being asked to participate in a research study. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have had them answered to my satisfaction. I voluntarily agree to participate in this study. I am not giving up any legal rights by agreeing to participate. To print or save a copy of this page, select the print button on your web browser.

Please click the button below to proceed and participate in this study. If you do not wish to participate, please close out your browser window.

Q1.2
Employee Characteristics

Do you identify yourself as:

Female

Male

Q1.3 What is your race?

White

Black

Hispanic

Asian

Middle Eastern

Native American

Other

Q1.4 How would you describe your views on most political matters?

Conservative

Moderate

Liberal

Other

Q1.5
What is your highest level of education?

High School

Some College

Associate Degree

Bachelor's Degree

Master's Degree

Q1.6 What is your current rank?

(Rank Titles removed to protect anonymity of organization)

Q1.7 On your last birthday, how old were you (in years)?

_____

Q1.8 Which year (enter four digits) did you join (the organization)?

_____

Q1.9 Opinions on Social Issues
Please indicate how much you favor or oppose each idea below. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions, so your first feeling is generally best

	Strongly Oppose	Oppose	Neither oppose nor favor	Favor	Strongly favor
An ideal society requires some groups to be on top and others to be on the bottom					
Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups					
No one group should					

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
dominate in society					
Groups at the bottom are just as deserving as groups at the top					
Group equality should not be our primary goal					
It is unjust to try to make groups equal					
We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups					

Q1.10 About Yourself

Below are some statements about you with which you may agree or disagree.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life					
Sometimes I feel depressed					
When I try, I generally succeed					
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless					
I complete tasks successfully					
Sometimes, I do not feel in					

control of my work					
Overall, I am satisfied with myself					
I am filled with doubts about my competence					
I determine what will happen in my life					
I do not feel in control of my success in my career					
I am capable of coping with most of my problems					
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me					

Q2.1
Field Training Experience

This section focuses on your Field Training Experience during the first few months of your job.
To what extent your Field Training Officer...

	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Treated you with kindness and consideration					
Considered your viewpoint before making decisions that affected you					

Showed concern
for your rights
as an employee

Communicated
with you in a
truthful manner

Took time to
explain
decisions that
affected you
personally

Treated you the
same way he or
she treated other
trainees

Understood
your needs and
concerns as a
trainee

Q2.2
Do you identify that Field Training Officer as:

Female

Male

Q2.3 Was your Field Training Officer Caucasian/White?

Yes

No

Q2.4
Diversity ManagementThe items below focus on how (the organization) should manage diversity of its
workforce. Please read the items carefully and indicate how much you oppose or favor each idea.

	Strongly Oppose	Oppose	Neither oppose nor favor	Favor	Strongly favor

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(the organization) should hire employees based on their skills and abilities, NOT based on their gender, race or sexual orientation

(the organization) should recruit more women into the organization

(the organization) should treat all employees the same regardless of their gender, race or sexual orientation

(the organization) should promote employees based on their job performance, NOT on based on their gender, race or sexual orientation

(the organization) should recruit more racial and ethnic minority individuals into the organization

(the organization) should offer professional

development to employees based on their job performance, NOT based on their gender, race or sexual orientation					
(the organization) should offer more professional development opportunities for LGBT employees					
(the organization) should offer more professional development opportunities for racial and ethnic minority employees					
(the organization) should offer more professional development opportunities for women employees					

Q2.5 Servant Leadership Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the items below about leadership practices of your supervisor.
Your supervisor

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Puts your best interests ahead of his/her own					

Emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community	
Makes your career development a priority	
Gives you freedom to handle difficult work situations in the way you feel is the best	
Recognizes exemplary service to the community	
Can quickly tell if there is a problem or something work-related is going wrong	
Would NOT compromise ethical principles of (the organization) in order to achieve success	

Q2.6 About Yourself

Below are some statements about you with which you may agree or disagree.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am often reminded by daily events about how dependent we					

are on one another

When I talk about law enforcement officers, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they

Meaningful public service is very important to me

Being a law enforcement officer is an important part of who I am

When a story in the media criticizes law enforcement officers, I feel upset

I am not afraid to go to bat for the rights of others even if it means I will be ridiculed

When people praise law enforcement officers, it feels like a personal compliment

I am prepared to make enormous sacrifices for the good of society

Making a difference in society means more to me than

personal
achievements

Q2.7
Ethical Guidance
The items below focus how much ethical guidance your supervisor provides to subordinates. Think about each item separately and be assured your responses will remain confidential. To what extent your supervisor

	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Stimulates discussion on ethical problems and issues					
Provides clear guidelines to subordinates about how to handle ethical issues or problems at work					
Ensures that subordinates follow codes of conduct of (the organization)					
Communicates clearly what is expected from subordinates in terms of behaving with integrity					
Explains clearly the likely consequences of behaving unethically while on duty					

Q3.1 Physical Activities

This section focuses on your exercise habit. Each week, how many times do you do the following types of physical exercise for more than 15 minutes in your free time?

Strenuous Exercise (e.g., running, jogging, hockey, football, soccer, squash, basketball, cross country skiing, judo, roller skating, vigorous swimming, vigorous long distance bicycling):	▼ 0 ... 7
Moderate Exercise (e.g., fast walking, baseball, tennis, easy bicycling, volleyball, badminton, easy swimming, alpine skiing, popular and folk dancing):	▼ 0 ... 7
Mild Exercise (e.g., yoga, archery, fishing from river bank, bowling, horseshoes, golf, snow-mobiling, easy walking):	▼ 0 ... 7

Q3.2 Interactional FairnessThis questions in this section focuses on interactional fairness of your supervisor. Be assured your responses will remain confidential. To what extent your supervisor...

	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Considers your viewpoint before making decisions that affect you					
Treats you with kindness and consideration					
Shows concern for your rights as an employee					
Communicates with you in a truthful manner					
Takes time to explain work decisions that affect you personally					
Treats you the same way he or she treats other employees					

Q3.3 Diversity Management
Below are some additional ideas about how (the organization) should manage diversity of its workforce. Read the items carefully and indicate how much you favor or oppose each idea.

	Strongly Oppose	Oppose	Neither oppose nor favor	Favor	Strongly Favor
Increasing diversity in (the organization) will lead to more conflict in the workplace					
(the organization) should recruit more LGBT individuals into the organization					
We should recognize and celebrate diversity amongst (the organization) employees					
People fit better into (the organization) when they are similar to its existing workforce					
(the organization) should try to have a workforce where everyone is similar to each other					
It is easier to do our job when we work with people who are similar to us					

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Diversity in (the organization) brings new ideas and different knowledge to the workplace

Employees of different social backgrounds in (the organization) should downplay their differences

Knowing more about cultural beliefs of employees with different backgrounds would help (the organization) employees to become more effective at their job

Q3.4 Consistency in Supervisor Behavior

The items in this section focus on consistency between "what your supervisor says" and "what he or she does." Be assured your responses will remain confidential. To what extent your supervisor...

	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Can be trusted to do things he or she says					
Keeps his or her promises					
Keeps his or her words					
Can be relied on to honor his or her commitments					

Q4.1

Performance MonitoringPlease indicate how much your supervisor...

	Not at all	To a small extent	To a moderate extent	To a large extent	To a very large extent
Asks subordinates to explain their interactions or behavior with citizens					
Questions subordinates about their performance in helping citizens or responding to their requests					
Discusses with subordinates procedures they use in activities related to enforcement					
Reviews subordinates' performance on					

helping or interacting with citizens Questions subordinates how they interact with citizens during contact or enforcement

Q4.2
Work Environment
You are almost done! The questions in this last section focus on your your work environment.

Q4.3 How much pressure is there in your unit to keep up the count of citations and contact cards?

No pressure at all

A little pressure

Moderate pressure

A lot of pressure

A great deal of pressure

Q4.4 How much pressure is there in your unit to make arrests in order to keep a good standing?

No pressure at all

A little pressure

Moderate pressure

A lot of pressure

A great deal of pressure

Q4.5 How often people who you deal with think that the police, not criminals, are the problem in their community?

Always

Most of the time

About half the time

Sometimes

Never

Q4.6
How much do you think the public and police agree about what is right and wrong?

A great deal

A lot

A moderate amount

A little

None at all

Q4.7 How often do you think people share the truth when talking to the police?

Always

Most of the time

About half the time

Sometimes

Never

Q4.8
How often do you think people hide information when talking to the police?

Always

Most of the time

About half the time

Sometimes

Never

Q4.9
Work Environment (Contd.)
At the beginning of each day, how concerned are you about getting home safely at the end of the day?

Not at all concerned

Slightly concerned

Moderately concerned

Very concerned

Extremely concerned

Q4.10 How concerned are your family and friends for your safety due to the risks involved in your job?

Not at all concerned

Slightly concerned

Moderately concerned

Very concerned

Extremely concerned

Q4.11
How often does your job expose you to the threat of physical harm or injury?

Very often

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q4.12 How often does your job personally subject you to potential legal liability?

Very often

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q4.13 How often does your job expose you to verbal abuse or confrontations with the general public?

Very often

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q4.14 Over the past six months, have you experienced or been exposed to any trauma while at work?

Yes

No

Q4.15
Thank you for completing the First Survey. Click on the next button to submit your responses.

Appendix B: Survey 2

Work Culture and Motivation Survey 2

Start of Block: General Instructions

Q1.1 Instructions (Please read carefully)

Thank you for your willingness to complete the Second Survey of the (organization) Work Culture and Employee Motivation Study. This survey includes questions about a hypothetical work scenario and your opinions about your job, supervisor, unit, and organization. YOUR RESPONSES WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL NOT SHARED WITH YOUR SUPERVISOR OR COMMANDER. THERE WILL BE NO PENALTY OR NEGATIVE REPERCUSSION FOR SHARING YOUR HONEST OPINIONS IN THE SURVEY.

End of Block: General Instructions

Start of Block: M

Q2.1 READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist an officer with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between the officer and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. He raises his voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q2.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q2.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q2.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q3.1 READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist an officer with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between the officer and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. She raises her voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q3.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q3.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

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Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q3.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q4.1 READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer Jackson with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between the officer and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. The officer raises their voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q4.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q4.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q4.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q5.1 READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer Jacobsen with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between the officer and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. The officer raises their voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q5.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

194

Q5.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q5.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q6.1
READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer DeShawn Jackson with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between DeShawn and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. He raises his voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q6.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q6.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q6.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q7.1
READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer David Jacobsen with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between David and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. He raises his voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q7.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q7.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q7.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q8.1 READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer Amy Jacobsen with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between Amy and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. She raises her voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q8.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q8.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q8.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q9.1
READ THE HYPOTHETICAL WORK SCENARIO BELOW

You are instructed by a dispatcher to assist Officer Aaliah Jackson with a traffic crash at a busy intersection. While assisting to clear up the crash site, you notice that the interaction between Aaliah and the driver involved in the accident has become pretty tense. She raises her voice and berates the driver for reckless driving who is already shaken by the accident.

Q9.2 On a scale of 1 (not serious at all) to 7 (very serious), how serious do you consider this behavior to be?

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Q9.3 How likely it is that you will report this incident?

Very unlikely

Unlikely

Somewhat unlikely

Unsure

Somewhat likely

Likely

Very likely

Q9.4 What disciplinary action, in your own opinion, do you think should follow?

No disciplinary action

A "garage talk"

Training IOC

Administrative investigation

Q10.1
The items below focus on how you feel in your job (current assignment). Read each statement and indicate how frequently you feel this way.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
I feel bursting with energy					

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I feel happy when I am working intensely					
I feel inspired about my work					
I feel proud of the work that I do					
When I wake up I feel excited to go to work					
I am totally immersed in my work					

Q10.2 Please indicate how much you agree/disagree with the statements below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
When I stop someone on the road, I feel it is important for me to show interest in what they say.					
I am confident about my ability to do my job					
When I talk about unit, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'					
The work I do is meaningful					

I am involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work

If a story in the media criticized my unit, I would feel embarrassed

Q10.3 Please indicate the overall effectiveness of your supervisor as a manager. YOUR RESPONSE WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL.

The least effective manager I have known.

Well below average, in the bottom 10%.

Moderately below average, in the bottom 25%.

A little below average, in the bottom 40%.

About average in effectiveness.

A little above average, in the top 40%.

Moderately above average, in the top 25%.

Well above average, in the top 10%.

The most effective manager I have known

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Q10.4 Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each statement below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my job duties					
People in my unit are working behind the scenes to ensure they get their piece of the pie					
If I observed an officer from my unit use excessive force I would not hesitate reporting it					
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job					
If things at work do not go the way that they should, I will hear about it from my supervisor					
What I do at work makes a big difference in the community					

Q10.5 Please indicate the overall effectiveness of your commander as a manager. YOUR RESPONSE WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL.

The least effective manager I have known.

Well below average, in the bottom 10%.

Moderately below average, in the bottom 25%.

A little below average, in the bottom 40%.

About average in effectiveness.

A little above average, in the top 40%.

Moderately above average, in the top 25%.

Well above average, in the top 10%.

The most effective manager I have known

Q10.6 Please indicate how much agree or disagree with each statement below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on in my unit					
If I think a rule or procedure is pointless, I will find a way around it					
The work that I do helps to make the community a safer place					
I feel I have a duty to treat					

everyone the same way when I stop them on the road

With regard to the use of force, the rules and policies are just way too restrictive

I have considerable influence over what happens in my unit

I feel I have an obligation to explain to people why they are being stopped on the road

Q10.7
Have you been in a situation where your direct supervisor (i.e., supervisor)...?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Put you down or was disrespectful to you?					
Made an insulting remark about you either publicly or privately					
Paid little attention to your ideas or showed little interest in your opinion?					

Q10.8 Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each statement below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I encourage others in my unit to volunteer in our community					
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work					
If I observed a coworker being disrespectful to public, I would notify my superiors					
I will bend a rule or procedure if it helps to make the roadways safer					
When someone praises my unit, it feels like a personal compliment					
In some cases, the use of more force than is allowed should be tolerated					
We are not permitted to use as much force					

		as is often necessary

Q10.9 The items below focus on your direct supervisor (supervisor) and unit/post commander (commander). Please indicate how much you agree/disagree with each item below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The supervisor really cares about my well-being					
Even if I did the best job possible, the supervisor would fail to notice					
The supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work					
The commander really cares about my personal well-being					
Even if I did the best job possible, the commander would fail to notice					
The commander takes pride in my accomplishments at work					

Q10.10
Have you been in a situation where your unit/post commander (i.e., commander)...?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often

	Put you down or was disrespectful to you?
	Made an insulting remark about you either publicly or privately
	Paid little attention to your ideas or showed little interest in your opinion?

Q10.11 Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each statement below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
My impact on what happens in my unit is large					
I will bend a rule if it helps me do a better job for the community					
I think that people who break the law do not deserve to be treated with respect					
I will bend a rule if it makes my job easier					
I always consider the effects of my job decisions on the well-being					

Q10.12 The questions below focus on how employees are treated in (THE ORGANIZATION) . By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

Q10.13 While working in your unit, have you ever observed any employee being excluded because of their ethnicity, gender, race, religion or sexual orientation?

Yes

No

Q10.14 While working in your unit, have you observed any employee being discriminated because of their ethnicity, gender, race, religion or sexual orientation?

Yes

No

Q10.15 While working in your unit, have you ever felt excluded because of your ethnicity, gender, race, religion, or sexual orientation?

Yes

No

Q10.16 While working in your unit, have you ever felt discriminated because of your ethnicity, gender, race, religion, or sexual orientation?

Yes

No

Q10.17 Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each statement below. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I have mastered the skills necessary for					

performing my job

In terms of visible characteristics (gender, race, ethnicity), I am different from my unit members

The successes of my unit are my successes

My work values are different from work values of my unit members

The work that I do is very important to me

My educational background is dissimilar to educational backgrounds of my unit members

It is important for me to show that I care about peoples' concerns when I stop them on the road

Q10.18 Will you take the same job if you had the choice to start over again?

Definitely not

Probably not

Might or might not

Probably yes

Definitely yes

Q10.19

Will you recommend the job to friends who are interested in working in your field?

Definitely not

Probably not

Might or might not

Probably yes

Definitely yes

Q10.20 All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?

Extremely dissatisfied

Somewhat dissatisfied

Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied

Somewhat satisfied

Extremely satisfied

Q10.21 How much are your unit members willing to listen to your personal problems?

Not at all

Little

Somewhat

Much

Very much

Q10.22 How much can other people in your unit be relied on when things get tough at work?

Not at all

Little

Somewhat

Much

Very much

Q10.23 Based on your own definition of burnout, how would you classify your level of burnout.

I enjoy my work. I have no symptoms of burnout.

Occasionally I am under stress, and I don't always have as much energy as I once did, but I don't feel burned out.

I am definitely burning out and have one or more symptoms of burnout, such as physical and emotional exhaustion.

The symptoms of burnout that I'm experiencing won't go away. I think about frustration at work a lot.

I feel completely burned out and often wonder if I can go on. I am at the point where I may need some changes or may need to seek some sort of help.

Q10.24 Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each item. By unit, we mean the post or department where you have your current assignment.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am held accountable for my actions at work					
People in my unit do what's best for them, not what's best for the organization					
When possible, I try and get my unit members involved in community projects that I am involved in					
I often have to explain why I do certain things at work					
My work activities are					

	closely scrutinized by others at work	

Q10.25 You are almost done! Please indicate how much agree/disagree with each item below.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Women are as capable as men to handle the duties of law enforcement					
Law enforcement is not a suitable occupation for women					
A woman can be just as good a police officer as a man					
In (THE ORGANIZATION) , female employees often get preferential treatment over male employees					
In (THE ORGANIZATION) , minority employees often get preferential treatment over nonminority employees					

Q10.26 Do you have any specific suggestion for the Senior Leadership Team about how to improve employee morale?

_____

_____

Q10.27
Thank you for completing the survey. Please click on the "Next" button to record your responses.

End of Block: Block 14

Appendix C: Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and P-Values for the Parallel Mediation Model for Procedurally Fair Policing

	Consequents								
	M1 (PSI)			M2 (UI)			Y (Procedurally Fair Policing)		
Antecedents	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p	Coeff	SE	p
X (Servant Leadership)	.214	.035	.000	.190	.034	.000	-.036	.027	.186
M1 (PSI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.153	.036	.000
M2 (UI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.147	.036	.000
Constant	1.60	.233	.000	1.93	.229	.127	2.4	.187	.000
R-squared		0.263			0.167			0.252	

Appendix D: Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and P-Values for the Parallel Mediation Model for Willingness to Report Peers

	Consequents								
	M1 (PSI)			M2 (UI)			Y (Willingness to Report Peers)		
Antecedents	Coeff.	SE	*p*	Coeff.	SE	*p*	Coeff.	SE	*p*
X (Servant Leadership)	.217	.034	.000	.193	.034	.000	-.006	.043	.894
M1 (PSI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.099	.058	.087
M2 (UI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.171	.056	.004
Constant	1.60	.231	.036	1.89	.227	.000	2.37	.3	.000
R-squared		0.271			0.173			0.1	

Appendix E: Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and P-Values for the Parallel
Mediation Model for Community Citizenship Behaviors

	Consequents								
	M1 (PSI)			M2 (UI)			Y (Community Citizenship)		
Antecedents	Coeff.	SE	*p*	Coeff.	SE	*p*	Coeff.	SE	*p*
X (Servant Leadership)	.214	.035	.000	.190	.034	.000	1.28	.341	.000
M1 (PSI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.216	.065	.001
M2 (UI)	---	---	---	---	---	---	.196	.066	.003
Constant	1.6	.233	.000	1.93	.229	.000	.772	.307	.012
R-squared		0.263			0.167			0.127	

Appendix F: Multilevel Mediation Results: Support for Procedurally Fair Policing Practices
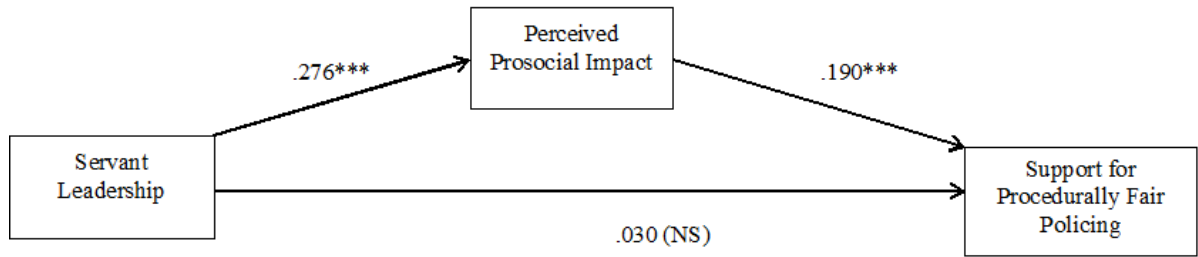
Figure 15: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Prosocial Motivation, and Procedurally Fair Policing
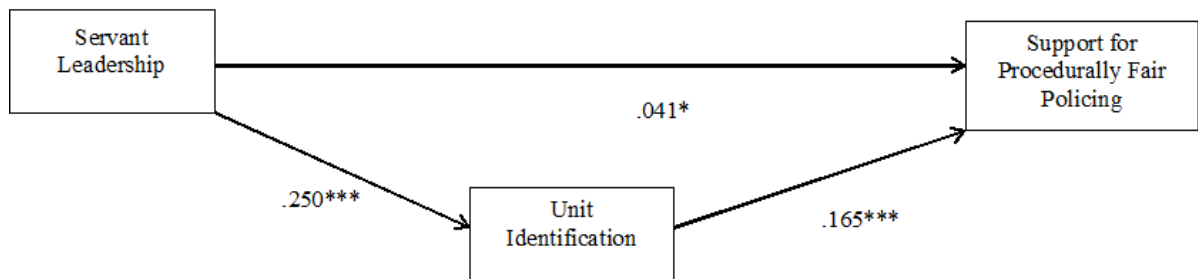

Figure 16: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Unit Identification, and Procedurally Fair Policing

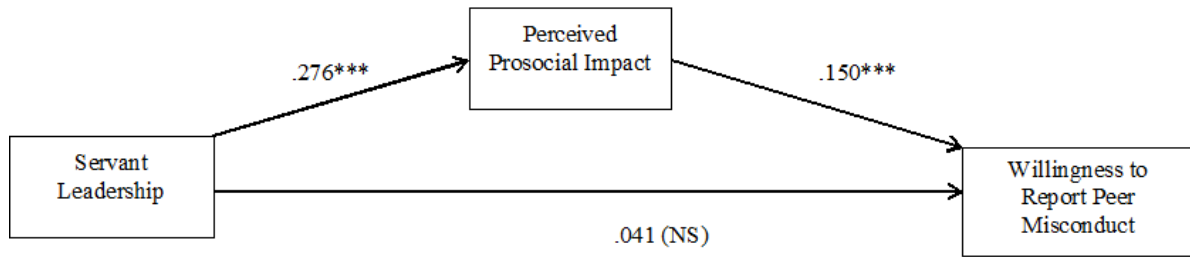Appendix G: Multilevel Mediation Results: Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct

Figure 17: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Prosocial Motivation, and Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct
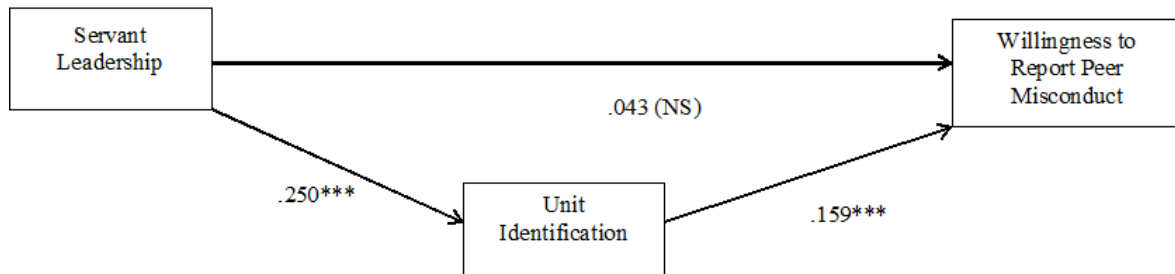

Figure 18: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Unit Identification, and Willingness to Report Peer Misconduct

Appendix H: Multilevel Mediation Results: Community Citizenship Behaviors
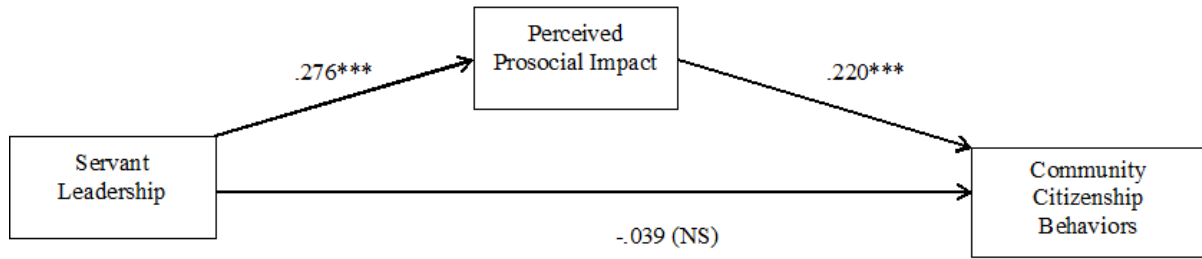

Figure 19: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Prosocial Motivation, and Community Citizenship Behaviors
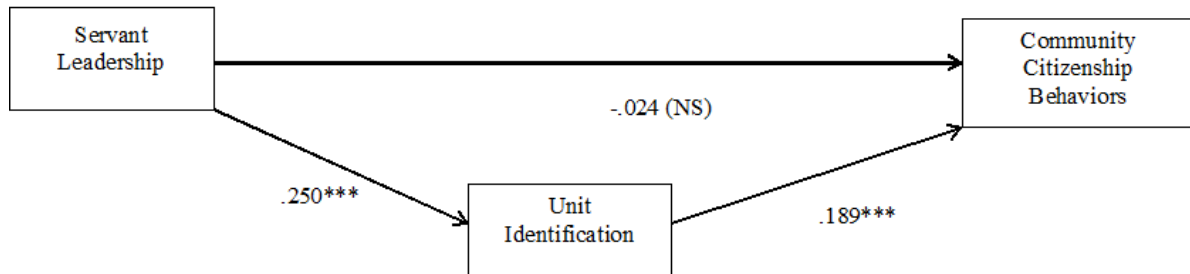

Figure 20: Multilevel Mediation Analysis: Servant Leadership, Unit Identification, and Community Citizenship Behaviors