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# The Impact of Police Officer Age on Leadership and Workplace Preferences

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THE IMPACT OF POLICE OFFICER AGE ON LEADERSHIP

AND WORKPLACE PREFERENCES



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ABSTRACT

Police departments are experiencing low levels of police applicants and high turnover

rates due to the current climate of policing and internal and external stressors. Police

department management desires to be proficient in recruiting and managing police

officers of different generations who may have varying desires and needs. The purpose of

the current study was to investigate the impact of generational differences on police

officer leadership and workplace preferences in order to make recommendations to police

department management about how to better engage, manage, recruit and retain police

officers of different generations. The current study employed a quantitative design made

up of four survey instruments that examined 160 ($n = 160$) police officers' responses

about leadership, trust in management, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Data analysis included analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) controlling for race and

gender. Statistical significance was found between police officer age and demand

reconciliation in leadership ($p = .049$). Statistical significance was found between the age

of police officer and trust in management with older police officers more trusting ($p

= .037$). Statistical significance was found between intrinsic ($p = .000$), extrinsic ($p = .000$),

and general job satisfaction ($p = .000$) and organizational commitment across all ages of

police officers. Older police officers reported having greater organizational commitment

than younger officers. Police departments should consider that different generations of

police officers may require different opportunities, motivation, and leadership in order to

keep them satisfied in their jobs and create lifelong careers at the same police department.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Curtis (1856) said, "Age is a matter of feeling, not of years" (p.111). Age is more

than just a number. While people are often categorized according to age, as Curtis

pointed out, age is a finite number that cannot reflect the whole story of a person. With

each new year of life, people bring with them everything from their experiences of the

past. Age is a culmination of our experiences: life experience, work experience and

things that cannot be rushed, bought, or taught. Rogers (2003) described the aging

experience by pointing out that who we are in the present includes who we were in the

past. According to Lalonde (2013) as people age, they grow and change in different ways

that have an impact on family, personal, and work lives. Thoughts, feelings, behaviors,

and attitudes at one's current age may influence opinions and feelings, as well as

precipitate decisions to do things people did not think possible before. Our pasts tend to

leave a mark on us, and our opinions are typically formed on the basis of what we have

experienced (Lalonde).

Nin (1961), said, "We don't see things as they are, we see them as we are" (p.

124). As we age, we may see things with a different perspective. According to Surdek

(2016) *perspective* is the way individuals see the world. Perspective comes from a

person's personal point of view and is shaped by life experiences, values, current state of

mind, and the assumptions a person brings into a situation. As culture evolves, we see

how society and times are changing and the ways in which things were done in the past may not be the best way to continue in the future. Alton (2018) believed change is to be expected, unfolding at a constant rate as new generations replace old generations. But, Alton explained further, in the technological culture of the present, change is not unfolding at a constant rate—it is unfolding at a faster and faster rate. Alton contended that the pace of change is especially evident in the workplace.

As society becomes more advanced technologically, the spread of news, both good and bad, is almost immediate due to social media access around the clock. Ritholz (2017) contended it is easy to ignore not only the speed at which disruption caused by technology is affecting society, but the acceleration in the pace of change. This acceleration and its effect on markets, companies, and labor is astonishing. Technology has evolved over the past 20 years. Ritholz suggested that to see how the pace of change has accelerated, people should consider the impact of technology since 2000. YouTube®, Facebook® and Twitter® hit a 50-million user mark in four, three and two years, respectively (Ritholz).

With increased availability of technology both at home and in the workplace, many employees rely on the Internet and other forms of technology to get their jobs done. Employees are connected to technology not only on the job but outside of it as well. A survey conducted by Purcell and Rainie (2013) through Pew Research found that 94% of jobholders are internet users and they were in all kinds of enterprises—from technology companies to non-technology firms; from big corporations to small operations; and from those in urban areas, farms, and places in between. The same survey found that one in five adults worked online outside the workplace. The survey also revealed 35% of

employed adults reported the Internet, e-mail, and cell phones have increased the amount of time they spend working.

Brooks (2014) reviewed a study of employees and the Internet conducted by Randstad USA (2014), which revealed 45% of employee's surveyed felt obligated to respond to emails after hours and 47% of employees felt guilty if they did not work – either on site or from home when sick. Brooks further stated that Millennials and Gen Y had the most trouble finding a work-life balance. Employees born between 1982 and 1993 were most inclined to remain *on* during off hours, with more than half feeling compelled to respond to emails outside of work.

According to Vandermey and Rapp (2017), technology is transforming every profession in profound ways. The World Economic Forum (2016) published a survey called The Future of Jobs which reported that over a third of the core skills sets in most jobs will be replaced by new ones in 2020. Employees of all ages and in nearly every occupation have been affected by advancements in technology and societal shifts. Boomer and Wiley (2018) broke down the technological differences by generation and said Traditionalists and Baby Boomers prefer face-to-face and telephone communications. Gen X uses those communication methods but prefer e-mail, and Millennials think e-mail is archaic and are driven by communicating on cell phones with the use of text messaging and instant messaging. Boomer and Wiley further explained these differences in preferred communication methods can lead to communication gaps within an organization.

Roufa (2017) contended that technology that changes at warp speed continues to incorporate itself into every facet of our lives, and criminal justice jobs are not immune.

Historically, according to Gasior (2017) law enforcement has always been on the forefront of using technology to improve public safety. Roufa stated most police departments across the country now supply their officers with an in-car computer. New digital video recording technology has made it affordable and practical to provide more officers with cameras, either in their squad car or carried on their uniform. Gasior wrote that technology and policing go hand in hand. As further technology inevitably develops, police have the opportunity to leverage it for increased efficiencies that can be used for the greater good in their departments and communities. The introduction of new technologies into policing, complicated by the preferences and skills of police officers of different generations may possess, points back to the evolution of a profession that has changed radically in the last century (Gasior).

Policing has a long history in Europe as well as the United States. The existence of a distinct police culture in the United States and the emphasis placed on professionalism traces its roots to 1829 when Peel (as cited in Uchida, 2004) established the London Police Department. The Peelian Principles (as cited in Loader, 2016) highlight Sir Robert Peel's prominent statement "the police are the public; the public are the police. The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police existence, actions, behavior and the ability of the police to secure and maintain public respect" (p. 430). In one of the first published works on police culture Skolnick (1966) argued that police culture arises from the common tensions that are associated with the job of being a police officer. These include the potential danger that officers face in their encounters with the public, the authority they are able to draw upon during such encounters and the pressure to be efficient.

Wexler (2012) opined that law enforcement and policing has changed throughout history, saying "policing in the United States has undergone a fundamental transformation in just the last 30 or 40 years. Policing today bears very little resemblance to the policing of the 1970s" (para 1). One difference police face in today's society is that policing is at the forefront of the news each day. Police actions, both positive and negative, are widely debated on social media. The media portrayal of police can influence police culture and have a negative effect on police officers themselves. A 2017 Pew Research survey conducted by the National Police Research Platform indicated that police officers felt they are mistreated by the media. According to a Pew Research study by Gramlich and Parker (2017), eight-in-ten police officers (81%) who worked in departments of 100 or more sworn officers said the media generally treat the police unfairly. Only 18% of police officers disagreed, and 40% of police officers strongly agreed that the media are unfair to police.

Police officers perceptions of the media and its' portrayal of police actions can have a direct relationship on officers morale and productivity, which may affect different generations of police officers differently. Wolfe and Nix (2015) said the ease with which citizens can use cellphones to record the police, coupled with widespread use of social media, have made it easier than ever to scrutinize officer actions – something that wasn't possible only 15 years ago. A survey conducted by Wolfe and Nix investigated the Ferguson effect, which refers to the hypothesis that recent increases in violent crime can be ascribed to negative publicity associated with police actions such as police-involved shootings. Wolfe and Nix's study indicated there is a relationship between reduced motivation in police officers as a result of negative publicity and less willingness to work

directly with community members to solve problems. Noble (2015) said as more civilians use their cell phones to record and later share police interactions on social media, officers may feel under attack when videos are posted online that capture a confrontation but misrepresent the entirety of the exchange. Lt. Gary Vickers of the Newark, New Jersey Police Department, (as cited in Noble) said that social media has given rise to the fear among law enforcement dubbed "death by media" (para 4). Vickers said police wonder "Am I going to be the next one put on display for doing an honest job?" (para. 4). Vickers explained this issue dictates how police officers react today, which was not a problem in the past.

Berman (2016) highlighted FBI Director James B. Comey's praise of police officers during a speech when Director Comey said police are serving during a uniquely difficult time. Comey stated that the steady stream of videos showing police officers using deadly force – a series of widely seen recordings that have stretched from the death of Eric Garner in New York to the killing of Keith Scott in Charlotte, North Carolina – has helped fuel a bleak perception of law enforcement. Wolfe and Nix (2015) contended that in many ways, the use of social media has made high profile incidents such as Ferguson a national-level police issue rather than one constrained to the jurisdictional bounds of the city itself. Officer Langhenry, a 21-year police veteran said

> social media puts the police in the spotlight now more than ever before. Social media is a way for information to spread quickly, but unfortunately much of the information is not accurate. The video footage does not always show the whole story and puts the police at a disadvantage because we cannot counter the

mistruths that are out there (T. Langhenry, personal communication, May 2, 2018).

When many incidents involving police officers are captured on video and released to the public through FaceBook®, YouTube®, and the media, a police encounter can quickly become a high-profile incident. Police officers may avoid certain confrontations or back down in order to avoid ending up on the news. Referred to as the YouTube® effect, Davis (2015) reported that police chiefs say patrol officers still do their jobs, clocking in and policing their beats. But fewer officers take extra steps such as confronting a group loitering on a sidewalk late at night (an action that might gain intelligence or lead to an arrest) for fear that any altercations that ensue would be uploaded to the Internet.

Additionally, Stepler (2017) of Pew Research Center reported that of 7,917 police officers in 2016, 86% said high-profile incidents between blacks and police have made their jobs harder. Roughly nine-in-ten, 93% said officers in their departments have become more concerned about their safety, while nearly 75% said that their colleagues are more reluctant to use force when appropriate or to stop and question people who seem suspicious. Three-quarters of respondents also reported that interactions between police and blacks have become more tense. An example of this is detailed by Jimenez-Peel (2016) in a 60 Minutes report about the city of Chicago. Jimenez-Peel noted Chicago ended 2016 with more than 700 murders and 4,000 people shot, the worst bloodshed the city had seen in 18 years. Data in the report from a Freedom of Information Act request showed that in 2015 Chicago police officers stopped and questioned 49,257 people. In 2016 the stops by police dropped by 80% and arrests declined by a third, also the same

year the city had a record number of murders and shootings.

During these difficult times in law enforcement, police officers of different generations may have differing views about what is best for the police department as well as what type of leadership is needed to move forward. These views may be based on officer age, generation or stage in life and in their career as well as experiences both on and off duty. According to Bright (2010) "age diversity is a major issue in the American public sector workplace" (p.1). Age and generational differences can have an impact on how employees of any group view their workplace, co-workers, supervisors, and their opinion of the job itself. Kupperschmidt (2000) explained that generational differences can have an impact on the workplace, because when managers and coworkers do not understand each other's generational differences, tension increases and job satisfaction and productivity decrease. Therefore, managers and co-workers should adopt a generational perspective; that is, they should become more sensitive and understanding of generational differences. Kupperschmidt continued to explain how a generational perspective enables managers to leverage employee uniqueness as a source of learning, productivity, and innovation and to create and role model a shared vision of positive co-worker relationships.

Bright (2010) argued that while it is apparent that employees of different ages want different things from organizations, it is important to understand why. Since generational cohort differences have an impact on workplaces, it is important to understand the generations and characteristics of those generations that are currently working alongside one another in order to get a better understanding of how to manage and incorporate them into the organization. Currently, many organizations have four

generations of employees working alongside one another: (a) Traditionalists, (b) Boomers, (c) Generation X, and (d) Generation Y (Lester, Standifer, Schultz, & Windsor, 2012). The following range of years commonly divide each generation by birth: Traditionalists, born before 1946; Baby Boomers, born between 1946 and 1964; Generation X, born between 1965 and 1981; and Generation Y or Millennials, born between 1982 and 2000 (Reynolds, Campbell-Bush & Geist, 2008).

The modern workforce is extremely diverse, and each generation comes with its own beliefs, views and experiences. Differing views by each generation in the workplace bring with them challenges and opportunities for leaders. Police departments are not exempt from the impact of generational differences on the workplace. Harrison (2007) describes the gap between those in charge and those who follow wider than it has ever been. As a police consultant, Harrison calls on police executives to seek ways to bridge the gap and to learn flexibility. According to Greene (2009):

> Science continues to develop and advance, and the human lifespan has greatly increased. People are living longer and remaining longer in the workforce for a variety of reasons. The multi-generational workforce is here to stay, and it is time for law enforcement to evolve with it. (p. 7)

## Statement of the Problem

One of the biggest challenges facing managers today is learning how to effectively lead a multigenerational workforce. Employees from different generations may have varying expectations of what they want (or value) from the workplace, both from an intrinsic and extrinsic standpoint, and therefore may approach work, and how they prefer to be motivated, differently (Lester, et al., 2012). Generational differences can

lead to either strength and opportunity or stress and conflict in the workplace. According to Kupperschmidt (2000), when managers and coworkers do not understand each other's generational differences, tension increases and job satisfaction and productivity decrease. Arsenault (2003) said it is essential for managers to be savvy about generational differences, because in the twenty-first century generations are working together more than ever before. Arsenault contended this shift is due to the demise of the bureaucratic organization in favor of a horizontal style, new technology, globalization, and a more information-friendly atmosphere in the workplace.

Generational cohort theory, developed by Inglehart and later made popular by Strauss and Howe (1991) explained that a *generation* is a social construction in which individuals born during a similar time period experience are influenced by historic and social contexts in such a way that these experiences differentiate one generational cohort from another. Strauss and Howe said generations are influenced by a variety of critical factors, including: shifts in society-wide attitudes; changes in social, economic, and public policy; and major events such as wars. Each generation comes from unique backgrounds and is not without its' complications and issues.

Kupperschmidt (2000) provided the following background information about the Traditional, Baby Boomer, and Generation X cohorts. The Traditional generation (born before 1946) grew up in the aftermath of tough economic times during which great leaders and experts stepped forth and directed and guided the nation. Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) also called this generation the Greatest Generation or the Veteran generation.

Standifer (2012) identified that while Traditionalists are still present in the workforce, their numbers are small. The common age bracket delineated for this generation places the youngest Traditionalist at age 72. Thereby, Standifer pointed out that because 65 is commonly viewed as a benchmark age for retirement, most research focuses on the three generations (Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y) that will be working together for the next 15 to 20 years.

According to Kupperschmidt (2000), the Baby Boomer generation (born 1946-1964) grew up during times of economic and educational expansion. The Baby Boomers embraced the psychology of entitlement (entitled to and expected the best from life). The legacy of the Vietnam War had a profound and divisive effect on this generation. Many Baby Boomers either participated in or protested the war.

Generation X (born 1965-1981), according to Kupperschmidt (2000) are generally the children of the Boomers. Instead of inheriting a future bright with promise, Gen X inherited Boomers' social debris. Kupperschmidt described Generation X employees as multitasking parallel thinkers who are able to do several things concurrently. They are risk takers and they are entrepreneurial.

Generation Y (born 1982-2000) also known as the Millennial Generation is typically viewed as a technology-driven, multitasking group of individuals who are committed to generating a culturally sensitive, optimistic, and fun workplace. Generation Y values fast-paced, technological interaction and constant and instantaneous feedback from leaders. (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Lancaster & Stillman, 2005).

The older generations of employees are retiring and younger generations join the workforce each day. According Fry (2018) of Pew Research Center, Millennials are now

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the largest generation living in the United States. There are over 75.4 million Millennials in the U.S., making up an ever-increasing portion of the workforce. With different generations employed together in the workplace, Bright (2010) asserted "age diversity is a major issue in the American public sector workplace. This is most evident in the federal government, where large numbers of public employees are reaching retirement age" (p. 5). The United States Office of Personnel Management (OPM) stated federal employees' retirement rates increased by 10.9% during the fiscal years 2005-2014 (Bright). A total of 609,584 federal employees retired during that time period (Bright).

> According to Bright (2010):
>
> in light of these figures and facts, leaders of public organizations must grapple with the dilemma of retaining and motivating highly experienced and skilled older employees who are transitioning out of the workplace, while at the same time remaining attractive to generally lesser experienced and skilled younger employees who are entering into the workplace (p. 1).

Bright said a key to this conundrum is to foster work opportunities that are desirable to public employees of all ages. Unfortunately, fostering opportunities that are desirable to all employees is difficult to achieve for most public organizations, especially since older and younger public employees may want different work opportunities. Bright contended public managers much first understand why age influences the work preferences of public employees before effective motivational strategies are developed.

A small body of research has investigated the relationship between age and the work preferences of public employees. According to Bright (2010) scholars have found that older and younger employees desire different work opportunities, such as job

flexibility, career advancement, professional development, and monetary compensation.

Bright argued there is evidence to support that employees at different ages desire

different things but there is a lack of research in this area and missing information about

why older and younger employee's desire different work opportunities. According to

Craig & Bennett (1997), work values amongst generations may differ and have an impact

on the workplace through the shaping of beliefs, values, goals, work attitudes, world

views, and attitudes towards leadership. However, to date the little empirical research that

exists has not pinned down specific differences.

Law enforcement and public service employment are not immune to generational

differences and the impact of generations on workforce behaviors, recruitment, and

retention of employees. Police agencies are having a difficult time filling open positions

due to attrition and retirement. Wilson, Dalton, Scheer, and Grammich (2010) argued

maintaining the police workforce level is one of the most difficult challenges facing law

enforcement today. In the long run, both the supply of and demand for qualified officers

are changing in a time of increasing attrition, expanding law-enforcement responsibilities,

and decreasing resources. These issues contribute to agencies experiencing difficulties in

creating a workforce that represents the demographics of their communities. According to

Sisak (2015) police recruiting is entering a new age. Scrutiny and hostility for officers

have amplified. Hampered by low pay and threats to generous pension plans, some of the

country's largest police forces saw significant drops in applicants long before chants of

*black lives matter* entered the conversation (Sisak). Attaining and maintaining diversity

remains a challenge. Wexler (2012) said the obstacles police departments face post-

Ferguson make some potential officers wonder if policing is an occupation they want to pursue.

While police departments question why they are experiencing difficulty with recruitment and retention of police officers, the police officers they currently employ are facing scrutiny based on their generation. The researcher is a police officer in a medium-size police agency in a Midwestern suburb. The researcher has seen first-hand that older generations of police management may not understand younger generations and often attribute problems and complaints to the fact that they are Millennial police officers. Police management is unsure how to manage younger generations of police officers on the force as well as increase police officer organizational commitment. Officer Pearce, a police officer with 6 years of experience employed by the Hanover Park Police Department said,

> There is a divide amongst older cops and younger police officers in terms of how they view certain aspects of police work. The older generation, I feel believes a cop must pay his or her dues on patrol for many years before they should move to a specialty position or be promoted to supervisor. They view a young ambitious officer as entitled or overzealous for wanting to move quicker through the career. Older officers also tend to not like change and prefer to keep police work status quo. They do not like to engage in community outreach such as charity events with the public and do not see the benefit of doing such activities. Younger officers often grow discontent with staying in the same position (e.g. patrol) and want to move around within the agency. Younger officers often face the reality that moving to a new position or being promoted within the first five years is not

always realistic. This leads to them becoming dissatisfied with the job and wanting something else. Younger officers also tend to view community engagement with enthusiasm. They view the community outreach such as special charity events as beneficial to the image of the department and want to strengthen the bond between the police department and its' citizens (J. Pearce, personal communication, May 1, 2018).

Officer Langhenry, a 21 year veteran police officer provided a perspective of older generations of police officers,

Twenty years ago the typical beat officer was more reactive to crime and often displayed a mentality of us versus them. Today's officers are using analytical data and intelligence to guide their patrol efforts. Younger officers have been trained in problem-oriented policing and often solve criminal behavior by bringing together community resources and stakeholders (T. Langhenry, personal communication, May 2, 2018).

According to Johnson (2012), determining what organizational characteristics can increase officer organizational commitment is of benefit to scholars of policing and organizational psychology. Additional research could advance the policing literature by expanding our knowledge of police organizations and officer work attitudes. Sanders and Stefaniak (2008) stated law enforcement leaders, as well as those in other government organizations, can view Generation Y and Millennials in two ways: a problem to be reckoned with or an opportunity to be harnessed and used. According to Henchey (2005) police department leaders should look for ways to foster the growth and development of new police officers by determining what motivates and drives them best. In order to

ensure the ability to recruit and retain the most promising of employees, leaders of law enforcement must recognize how the different attitudes and perceptions of generations will impact the workplace.

Considering the extent to which generational stereotypes are commonly accepted, it is surprising that empirical evidence of generational differences is relatively sparse (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). Studies that examine and test generational differences have important applied and theoretical implications (Trzesniewski & Donnellan, 2010). However, according to Deal, Peterson, and Gailor-Loflin (2001) to date, there is little empirical research to validate these generational cohort differences at work. There is also little research that considers how leaders in different generational cohorts are perceived by their subordinates, although there are a few studies that consider age (Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, & Brown, 2007). Accordingly Becton, Walker, and Jones-Farmer (2014) stated that accepting common generational stereotypes without empirical support can have potentially adverse effects on both research and practice. As a result, more research on differences between generations in the workforce is needed, especially in law enforcement where there are accelerating pressures and little research.

The purpose of this study is to examine differences among police officers regarding leadership preferences, trust in leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on age and generation in order to make recommendations to police management about how to better engage, manage, recruit and retain police officers of different generations.

Background

A review of the existing literature examining age diversity in the public sector workforce identified limited research specific to the career of law enforcement. The available literature revealed that there is a need to examine the relationships between generations and their relationships with workplace behaviors, differences and expectations. A small amount of research exists that examines age diversity in the public sector workforce, specifically law enforcement. Law enforcement culture is evolving, and with new generations coming into the field it is important for law enforcement leaders to recognize and understand the generational facets of these employees and try to implement ways to incorporate the generational differences into the police agency. Jensen and Graves (2013) found the most significant responsibility for the police leader of the future may be that of a coalition builder. Given the many challenges facing policing, including dwindling resources and the increasing sophistication of criminality, police leaders should understand that their personnel will come to include a much wider circle than the employees of their agency are currently composed of (Jensen & Graves).

Four different generational cohorts currently exist in the American workforce: (a) Traditionalists, (b) Boomers, (c) Generation X, and (d) Generation Y (Standifer, 2012). While the number of employees from each generation may vary from workplace to workplace, each generation will generally share commonalities and a sense of cohesion among themselves and their attitudes in the workplace. Gursoy (2008) reasoned that since employees from the same generation are likely to share similar norms, it is likely that their values and their attitudes towards leadership and workplace culture are influenced

by the generation they belong to, suggesting that adaptions are likely to occur in the value domains from generation to generation.

Workplace issues can arise when the differences in the generations are not understood or recognized by other generations and there are conflicts based on deeply rooted behaviors and characteristics of each generation. Organizational dynamics are affected by potential tensions and conflicts between different generations due to a lack of understanding among cohorts resulting from disparity in values, cognitions, and behaviors (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Perceived differences in what generations value in the workplace tend to revolve around such things as technology, communication, work climate, leadership and feedback, work-life balance, team orientation, and involvement/empowerment (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007); (Twenge & Campbell, 2008). Differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs of several generational cohorts can influence how each generational cohort views leadership, which then manifests itself in the use of different preferred leadership styles (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 1999). In rank ordering of characteristics most admired in leaders, 8 of the 10 characteristics were significantly different among generations (Arsenault, 2003).

One of the possible conflicts among generations in the workplace lies in the area of leadership. Leadership both influences and is influenced by differences among generations in regards to their views of retention, values, motivation, work style preferences, and the perception of what it means to be a leader, as well as the concept of what it takes to be a good leader (Arsenault, 2003; Crainer & Dearlove, 1999). According to Sarver and Miller (2013) when considering the implications generational differences have on leadership, it is important to understand and determine the factors that have an

effect on or predict leadership style. Sarver and Miller further determined these understandings are critical in order to prepare leaders for the future more effectively, to teach them how to keep followers motivated to meet both organizational and community needs and goals, and to keep up with an ever-changing environment.

When discussing generations and generational differences in society, knowledge of the background of generations may be helpful in understanding where the members came from and what experiences may have shaped their views and behaviors. According to Mannheim (1952), a generation is a group of individuals who share similar world views as a result of exposure to common social and historical events occurring within the same times throughout their formative years. A discussion of generational differences often looks at values held by each age cohort. Mannheim said a generation is a social creation rather than a biological necessity. Where novel events are rare and change is slow (such as in traditional tribal community), distinct generations may not appear. Only where events occur in a way that demarcates a cohort can we speak of a generation. Mannheim said while not every member of a generation has necessarily experienced all of the defining events, all members typically have a shared awareness or appreciation for things common to that generation.

According to Wyatt (1993), six characteristics help determine the scope of a generation: (a) a traumatic or formative event such as a war e.g., Korean War, (b) a dramatic shift in demography that influences the distribution of resources in society (e.g., Climate Change, AIDS epidemic), (c) an interval that connects a generation to success or failure (e.g., the Great Depression), (d) the creation of a *sacred space* that sustains a collective memory (e.g., Woodstock), (e) mentors or heroes that give impetus and voice

by their work (e.g., Martin Luther King), and (f) the work of people who know and support each other (e.g., Bill Gates, Steven Jobs) (Wyatt).

While there is considerable disagreement as to beginning and closing years for each generation, the following dates are reflected in the current study. The Traditionalist generation is defined as born prior to 1946 as suggested by Standifer (2012). The Baby Boomer generation is defined as 1946-1964 as suggested by Strauss & Howe (1991). The same sources used 1965-1979 as the years for Generation X. Finally, this study uses the dates 1980-present for Generation Y, per Eisner (2005).

The Baby Boomer generation is reported to begin anywhere from 1940 to 1946 and to end in 1960 or 1964. The generation includes approximately 78 million people (Sessa et al., 2007). Boomers were shaped by the Vietnam era, the civil rights and women's movements, the Kennedys, Watergate, the first walk on the moon and Woodstock (Adams, 2000). Kupperschmidt (2000) summarized that this generation grew up embracing and expecting the best from life. Baby Boomers positive work abilities, or strengths, include consensus building, mentoring, and effecting change. Boomers' are seen as optimistic, ambitious, and workaholics who believe in teamwork and cooperation (Patterson, 2005).

Generation X (Gen-X) birth years are reported to begin in the early 1960s and end between 1975 and 1982. There are 44 million Gen Xers who came of age during the social and economic turmoil, and they had had to strike out on their own during difficult economic times (Mitchell, 1998). This generation was influenced by MTV, AIDS, the Challenger incident, Rodney King, and the fall of communism. Gen Xers grew up with financial, family, and societal insecurity, along with rapid change, great diversity, and a

lack of family traditions. This led to a sense of individualism over collectivism (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). According to Kupperschmidt (2000), Generation X cohort members were greatly influenced by seeing their parents laid off and therefore are cynical and untrusting. Gen Xers want to balance their work and personal life rather than spend all of their time at work. Gen Xers are accustomed to receiving immediate feedback from their personal computers and video games. They are adept at practical approaches to problem solving and are technically competent, comfortable with diversity, change, multitasking and competition (Kupperschmidt).

The final generation looked at in the current study is known as Generation Y or Millennials. The birth years of this generation begin in 1982 or 1983, and there not yet an agreed-on cutoff date. This generation is similar in size to the Baby Boomer generation; there are approximately 70 million Millennials. (Sessa et al., 2007). Generation Y is the first high-tech generation with cell phones, automatic teller machines, laser surgery, and the first to be born in a wired world—meaning they are connected to cell phones, tablets and other electronics 24 hours a day. Racial and ethnic diversity is greatly valued among this generation (Mitchell, 1998). Generation Y is affected by terrorism including the September 11th attacks on the World Trade Center and the Oklahoma City bombings. Generation Y knows that the world they inherited is not just one of new opportunities but of old problems as well, and they remain hopeful and believe they will someday get to where they want to be in life (Mitchell; Patterson, 2005). Millennials see lifelong learning as a priority and the family as the key to happiness (Mitchell).

According to Sessa et al. (2007), business and popular press have a particular interest in the impact of generational cohort differences on leaders and leadership,

specifically that different generations view leaders differently and different generations manifest leadership differently. Differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs of the several generational cohorts are related to how each generational cohort views leadership, which then manifests itself in the use of different preferred leadership styles (Zemke, et al., 1999). Sessa  et al. contended it is important to understand whether there are generational cohort differences in views on leadership and manifestations of leadership. In order to explore the different views, it is necessary to first identify the leadership styles that are predominant in our society. Avery (2013) identified four major leadership paradigms or styles in place across workplaces and organizations. The four major leadership paradigms are classical, transactional, visionary and organic.

Avery (2013) defined classical leadership as dominance by a pre-eminent person or an elite group of people. This individual or group commands or maneuvers others to act towards a goal, which may or may not be explicitly stated. Avery provided examples of classical leadership throughout history, including US slave owners, former Soviet Union, Hitler's Germany, and Saddam Hussein's Iraq. Classical leadership operates successfully when leaders and followers accept the right or duty of the leader to dictate to a population. Avery explained a limitations of classical leadership is when a classical leader steps down, succession can cause a crisis. Will the successor be able to step into the predecessor's shoes, exercising the required degree of control or attracting the necessary respect? Classical leadership is also limited where the leader cannot command and control every action, particularly as situations become more complex and beyond the capacity of one person.

Avery (2013) explained that transactional leaders view followers as individuals, with more focus on their skills, need and motives than is likely under classical leadership. The basic idea behind the transactional paradigm is that it is a process in which one individual uses intentional influence to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam (2003) indicated that transactional leadership is an exchange process based on the fulfillment of contractual obligations and is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes. Avery (2013) wrote that transactional leaders and followers interact and negotiate agreements, that is, they engage in transaction. It is very important for the leader to have the power to reward followers under transactional leadership. Transactional leadership depends heavily on the leader's skills, confidence in his or her chosen direction, and on obtaining some cooperation from the followers. Avolio and Bass (2004) stated that transactional leaders use a system of rewards and punishments as motivation and do not attempt to implement change within the organization or their subordinates. Avery stated the transactional paradigm overcomes some of the limitations of the classical leadership by considering and involving followers. One limitation of transactional leadership is that due to the united group heading in the leaders set direction, the followers of transactional leaders can become complacent and overly dependent on the leader.

Avery (2013) explained visionary leadership as having a leader who inspires followers. Visionary leaders capture the hearts and minds of the organizational members with their images or some desired future state. Avery continued to say that followers of visionary leaders are not expected to be passive by have a responsibility to participate in

the group, work towards the vision and make their voices header in influencing what is accomplished. Avolio and Bass (2004) correlated visionary leadership to transformational leadership because visionary leaders utilize proactive and innovate approaches to make effective changes within an organization. Transformational leaders also influence their subordinates to make changes within themselves. Avolio and Bass also said that transformational leaders help workers create and achieve higher goals, perform above the standards and discover what is important so they may maximize their potential. Fielder and House (1988) found that charismatic and transformational leadership theories suggest that employees who work under the supervision of supportive, as opposed to non-supportive and inflexible leaders, often have positive attitudes about their jobs. The limitations of the visionary leadership, according to Avery, is that followers can place unrealistic expectations on visionary leaders, which can create disappointment if things do not work out. Followers also can become dependent on visionary leaders, believing the leader has everything under control.

Avery (2013) explained the fourth leadership paradigm, organic leadership as blurring or eliminating the formal distinction between leaders and followers. Organic leadership will rely on reciprocal actions where people work together in whatever roles of authority and power they may have, not based on position power. Avery stated that in an organic model there may not be a formal leader and that members of the organization may all be leaders at different times. According to Avery, organic leadership is a radical change of thinking about leadership, followership, and the traditional nature of organizations. Organic leadership involves letting go of conventional notions of control, order and hierarchy, and replacing them with trust and an acceptance of continual change,

chaos and respect for diverse members of the organization. Organic leadership is more easily applied in some cultures and conditions than others. The size of the organization is likely to influence whether organic leadership can be implemented or not.

According to Beito (1999) the predominant leadership style of law enforcement leaders has been an authoritarian style, where leaders do not include subordinates in the decision-making process. However, according to Avolio and Bass (2004) within recent years, there has been a transition toward more of a democratic and mutual/shared relationship style, also referred to a transformational where subordinates are encouraged to make decisions and set their own goals. Denhardt (1993) stated these changes occurred because of the widespread adoption of community policing, because subordinates are no longer responding to an authoritarian style of leadership, and that the democratic and mutual/shared style is preferred and more effective.

Each generation has its' own view of leadership and the type of leader and leadership style they prefer to work for. Zemke et al. (1999) and Conger (2001) explored the differences between generations' preferred leadership styles. They discovered that Veterans tended to prefer a directive style that is simple and clear. The rationale behind this style was that veterans, by virtue of their military background, were organization men who were loyal to the organization. They preferred organizations with a clear, well-defined hierarchy with very formal, military-like relationships. Veterans highly respected authority.

Zemke et al. (1999) and Conger (2001) also studied the Baby Boomer generation whom they said prefer a collegial and consensual style of leadership. Baby Boomer respondents were passionate and concerned about participation and spirit in the

workplace. This generation valued communication, sharing of responsibility, and respect for each other's autonomy. Baby Boomers despised the traditional hierarchy and made every effort to turn the hierarchy upside-down.

Generation X according to Zemke et al. (1999) and Conger (2001) tended to be fair, competent and straightforward. Generation X did not respect authority as did past generations; they preferred egalitarian relationships. This generation liked to be challenged and they thrived on change. Brutal honesty is a trademark of this generation.

Finally, Millennials, according to Zemke et al. (1999) and Conger (2001), preferred a polite relationship with authority and like leaders who pull people together. This generation believed in collective action and a will to get things changed.

Regardless of the generation serving as subordinates or type of organization, all groups face leadership challenges, and the public sector is not exempt. According to, Schrader, Tears & Jordan (2004) public sector organizations such as law enforcement are facing incredible pressures to adjust to the new, evolving demands of their constituencies. These new demands will likely necessitate changes in the cultures of these organizations. A study conducted by Ferguson, Ronayne and Rybacki (2014) for the Center for Creative Leadership asked the question regarding public sector leadership challenges: are they different and do they matter? The authors found that leading in the public sector has some subtle, but noteworthy, additional challenges that require targeted leadership skills and development. The authors further stated leadership is challenging in any environment but with knowledge of how to lead in the public sector, we can all better appreciate and serve those who serve us all.

As leadership within the public sector, specifically law enforcement, evolves and changes we also see how policing is changing across the United States and the world. Eck and Maguire (2000) reported American policing is in the midst of significant changes at multiple levels. Some changes are generic and implemented throughout the nation to improve the responses of police to general classes of problems such as crime, disorder, fear, and quality of life. Others are more specific, focusing instead on a particular geographic area, time, offense type, or some combination of these factors. Along with changes on how the police do their jobs, are the environmental changes of society and how the public view the police and vice-versa.

Clement and Lowery (2017) highlighted Pew Research Center poll results, Behind the Badge written by Morin, Parker, Stepler, and Mercer (2017) consisting of 8,000 police officers' responses; the authors measured police reaction to the debate about officers' treatment of black Americans. The poll followed Michael Brown's shooting in Ferguson, MO, which sparked a national protest movement. The study revealed more than 8 in 10 police officers said the public does not understand the risks and challenges of their jobs, and a similar number of officers reported their police departments are understaffed. Half of the officers surveyed reported concerns about their safety. Two-thirds of the officers surveyed said the deaths of black Americans during encounters with police are isolated incidents and not a sign of broader problems between law enforcement and black citizens. Morin  et al. also found that when Americans were asked overall about black individuals who died during police encounters, 60% said the deaths represent broader problems between police and black citizens.

Rabe-Hemp (as cited in Clement & Lowery, 2017) stated:

If we climb into the mind-set of police officers who are going to keep doing this

job, if they are policing from a defensive stance, then it changes the nature of

police and citizen encounters and not in a positive way. What we're seeing is that

this divisiveness is likely to lead to increased violence rather than the lessening of

violence. (para. 16)

Rabe-Hemp added that Pew's findings underscore a theme she has heard often from

officers: "what you're hearing is the police saying that 'we're already accountable'"

(para. 16).

Following the 2016 ambush killing of five police officers in Dallas, TX, Chappell

(2016) wrote an article about the response of the Dallas Police Chief David Brown who

said "our profession is hurting. Dallas officers are hurting. We are heartbroken. There are

no words to describe the atrocity that occurred in our city. All I know is this must stop,

this divisiveness between our police and our citizens" (para. 2). Also following the

ambush killing in Dallas, Police Chief David Brown was quoted in a press conference

later written in an article by Horwitz (2016), where he explained that cops are expected to

do too much and do things that the government fails to address:

Every societal failure we put it on the cops to solve. Not enough mental health

funding, let the cop handle it. Not enough drug addiction funding, let's give it to

the cops. Here in Dallas we have a loose dog problem. Let's have the cops chase

loose dogs. School fail, give it to the cops. Seventy percent of the African-

American community is being raised by single women, let's give it to the cops to

solve as well. That's too much to ask. Policing was never meant to solve all those

problems. I just ask other parts of our democracy along with the free press to help

us. (para. 3)

Police officers not only have to deal with the pressures of the public and the

media, they also have internal stressors such as how the police department and

management operate along with police cultural issues. Wilson (1968) suggested the focus

of patrol officers is on protecting themselves and fighting crime, whereas the focus of

police administrators is on risk management and protecting the reputation of the agency.

These different orientations often result in conflict between police officer and police

manager. Jaramillo, Nixon, and Sams (2005) found police officers are exposed to acute

stressors that most individuals do not face on the job, at least not with the same intensity

or frequency. Johnson (2012) found that studies of police officer stress have revealed that

perceived lack of support from management is one of the leading job stressors reported

by officers, and therefore fostering feelings of organizational support within law

enforcement agencies appears daunting. Toch (2002) found that officers perceived most

stress as originating within the workplace, specifically citing relationships with

supervisors. Brown and Campbell (1990) surveyed police officers in the United States

and United Kingdom and found officers cited poor and insensitive supervision among the

primary sources of stress. Ganster, Milan, and Duffy (1996) found that supervisor's role

within the organization and officer's autonomy over tasks, decisions, and resources have

direct impact on employees' physical and emotional well-being. Violanti and Aron

(1995) found that gender, age, working experience within the department, rank and

assignment type are the common demographic variables in most studies of police stress.

With stress among police officers high, morale and officer motivation is often low. Gocke (1945) said good morale is vital to police work. The attainment of a high degree of morale is worth the best efforts of all who are necessarily concerned with the problem. According to Fortenbery (2015), administrators and management in law enforcement agencies must remain cognizant of the many factors that can influence individual motivation and productivity of police officers. Mark Twain (as cited in Gove, 2005) said "I can live for two months on a good compliment" (p. 14). Gove stated that wise managers in today's law enforcement agencies will adopt this adage as a means for leading employees. Saunderson (2004) found praise not only promotes physical and mental well-being but also improves motivation. Saunderson's study revealed nearly 100 percent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that giving recognition can make an impact on employee morale. Nelson (1999) contended some managers unfortunately fail to focus on employee motivation until morale sinks, motivation becomes lost, and ultimately employees quit.

Rampton (2017) found that a challenge for supervisors in the workplace is that multiple generations are working side-by-side. Rampton proposed a solution to the issue of bringing a multi-generational team together to achieve a shared goal is to understand how each generation wants to be motivated. Brockbank (2016) proposed that adopting only one approach to motivation is a dangerous game to play and one that may likely result in the exact opposite of that which is desired, a motivated workforce, across some team members. Mayhew (2014) found for organizations who wish to succeed, investment in multigenerational leadership and multigenerational communication is just as important as upgrading a critical piece of machinery. Mayhew stressed the importance of fostering a

multigenerational workforce and said the organization that succeeds helps its employees recognize the value each generation offers and creates thriving, respectable teams. Successful organizations, according to Mahew, understand everyone can, and should, express their unique talents and personal goals as they focus together on shared organizational goals.

Breaking down each generation by their biggest motivators in the workplace, Rampton (2017) said Traditionalists make up only three percent of the workforce and are motivated by job title and money. Baby Boomers prefer monetary rewards but are also motivated by nonmonetary things such as flexible retirement planning and peer recognition. Baby Boomers are goal-oriented and therefore motivated by promotions, professional development, and having their expertise valued and acknowledged.

Rampton (2017) said members of the Gen X cohort are motivated by working independently and with minimal supervision. Gen Xers believe promotions should be based on competence not by age, rank or seniority. Generation X, according to Rampton, can be motivated by flexible schedules, recognition from bosses, and bonuses.

Millennials' motivations are unique, according to Rampton (2017). They are the fastest growing segment in today's workforce and are not as loyal as other generations. Rampton stated that Millennials have no problem jumping from one organization to another. Millennials are often motivated by skills training, mentoring, and feedback. Millennials value culture and want to work in an environment where they can collaborate with others. Brockbank (2016) said it is important to realize that, for most Millennials, there is far more to motivating employees than simply offering financial incentives.

Although he did not examine morale specifically by generation, Gocke (1945) explored six ways in which police departments could improve morale among officers: eliminate unfavorable conditions, settle grievances promptly, gain the respect of subordinates, create an interest in the work, give commendations when deserved, and cultivate proper attitudes towards subordinates. Gove (2005) said police work represents a stressful, difficult, and at most times an unforgiving occupation. Managers need to recognize their officers for commitment to the service as well as show them their value to the agency. Gove proposed that praise delivers this message and costs nothing but compassion to the subordinate by the supervisor. Effective police leaders could benefit from implementing this ideology.

Because the future of law enforcement is continually changing, helping law enforcement leaders learn to work with subordinates in tough times in essential to future success. Officer Gonzalez, a five year veteran police officer, said "it is important for management and rank and file police officers to work together as a team to address and resolve issues that both sides have in order to improve our police agencies and become stronger together" (J. Gonzalez, personal communication, May 3, 2018). Gocke (1945) summed up the keys to a good police department that are still relevant for today's police administration:

> Among those things necessary for the proper functioning of a police department
> are: well selected and properly trained personnel, adequate equipment, and a
> soundly organized structure of administrative command and supervision. If these
> are present, the department has most of the essentials for success. For best results,
> however, the morale of the men also must be kept on a high level. All personnel

should be eager and willing to do a good job; otherwise there is something wrong

with the organization or its leadership. (p. 215)

## Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1.  What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their
    preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (demand
    reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance and freedom,
    consideration, production emphasis, and integration) controlling for gender
    and race?

2.  What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their attitudes
    of trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and
    race?

3.  What is the relationship between police officer organizational commitment
    and intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction controlling for police
    officer age, gender and race?

## Description of Terms

The following definitions provide specificity to the unique terms used in this study:

*Baby Boomer*. Born between 1940 and 1960 (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Generation*. An identifiable group (cohorts) that share birth years, age location,

and significant life events at critical developmental stages (times) divided by 5-7 years

into first wave, core group, and last wave (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Generation X/Gen Xers*. Born between 1960 and 1980 (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Generation Y/Millennial*. Born between 1982/1983 and 1997 (Sessa et al., 2007).

*Generation X/Gen Xers*. Born between 1960 and 1980 (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Generation Y/Millennial*. Born between 1982/1983 and 1997 (Sessa et al., 2007).

*Generational characteristics.* World-view, values, and attitudes commonly shared by or descriptive of cohorts (often referred to a peer or generational personality (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Generational perspective*. Knowledge, recognition, and appreciation of each other's times, and generational characteristics (values, attitudes, and behaviors) (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Times.* Birth years and historical shifts in society wide attitudes, social, economic, and public policy, and major events shared by cohorts (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

*Traditional*. Born before 1940 (Kupperschmidt, 2000).

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study was to understand better the attitudes of police officers from 22 suburban Midwestern police departments about their leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in leadership. The data was examined and parsed by police officer age, gender, and race. The results of the study were used to make recommendations to police department management personnel in regard to recruitment, management, retention and motivation of police officers from different generations. The results of the study shed light on the fact that generational differences should be investigated and understood in order to create a more productive, dedicated workforce of police officers in the future.

Process to Accomplish

The population of this study included police officers of all ages (non-management, non-supervisory level) employed by 22 different police departments in the suburbs of Chicago. The sample was a convenience sampling of police officers. The survey was emailed to police department management from 22 police departments with a request to forward the survey e-mail link to their police officers to fill out. Approximately 300 police officers were asked to complete the survey on a volunteer basis. Those who chose to participate and completed the survey were entered into a drawing to win one of two $50 gift cards. Participation in the drawing was contingent upon the officer providing an email address.

The researcher utilized four existing survey tools, combing them with some demographic items, then using the online survey service SURVS®. The survey was e-mailed to management personnel of suburban Chicago police departments with a cover letter from the researcher that explained the study and asked them to forward the survey link to their police officers. The researcher also requested each police department provide the total number of police officers employed by their police department. Police officers taking the survey were first debriefed about the purpose of the study by the researcher. This introduction was in the form of a letter on the first page of the survey explaining the importance and purpose of the study as well as asking for voluntary participation. The researcher explained that the survey would be anonymous and that participants needed to provide an e-mail address at the end of the survey to be considered for the gift card prize. The researcher conducted a random raffle for two $50 gift cards for participants who completed the survey. The researcher did not use the e-mail addresses as part of the study

except to award the prize and the e-mail addresses were deleted after the winners of the gift cards were chosen.

After learning about the purpose of the study, participants clicked on a consent to participate button and were taken to the next screen, which consisted of a section of questions regarding the demographics of the participants. The demographic questions consisted of the following; age, gender, race, marital status, years of service as police officer, length of time employed with his/her current police department, current position (patrol, detective, other), shift currently assigned (nights, days, afternoons), how many hours each shift lasts (8, 10, 12), and the participants level of education completed.

Participants were then asked to answer questions about their motivation in the workplace. The survey asked questions about job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The second part of the survey posed questions about leadership such as: What qualities does the participant's ideal leader possess? What is their trust level in their current first line supervisor? Finally, the study consisted of two open-ended questions, which gave participants a chance to comment on how to improve police officer morale and job satisfaction in the workplace.

The study utilized the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-SF) (Weiss, Davis, & England, 1967) to assess job satisfaction. This 20-item self-administered instrument consists of the following three scales; Intrinsic Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction, and General Satisfaction. This study utilized the Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire to assess police officer organizational commitment. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire has 15 items, six of which are negatively phrased and reversed scored. The Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire consists of a seven-point Likert response dimension ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. Example items include "I talk this organization up to friends as a great organization to work for" and "It would take very little change in my present circumstance to cause me to leave this organization (reversed scored)" (Porter & Smith, 1970).

In order to assess trust in management, the study utilized five scales from Mayer and Davis (1999) consisting of 29 questions. The scales titled ability, benevolence, integrity, trust and accuracy were assessed using a Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. In order to measure police officer's ideal leadership styles the study utilized the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Due to time constraints the researcher selected several categories of questions from within the LBDQ for a total of 60 items, measured from (A) = *always* to (E) = *never*. The categories include Demand Reconciliation (5 items), Persuasiveness (10 items), Initiation of Structure (10 items), Tolerance and Freedom (10 items), Consideration (10 items), Production Emphasis (10 items), and Integration (5 items). The leadership questions were assessed using a Likert scale ranging from A = *Always* to E = *Never*. (Fisher College of Business, 1962). The four different survey tools were combined to create one survey for respondents to take.

## Summary

In summary, the researcher collected and presented information regarding the need for research on age and generational differences in the workplace, specifically in the public sector workplace. The researcher gathered and presented research on three generations' leadership and workplace preferences, illustrating that there may be

challenges in the workplace resulting from generational differences. The research

suggested that management should take generational differences into consideration in the

workplace in order to effectively recruit, manage and retain employees of different

generations. Chapter II will focus on an in-depth review of the literature in regard to the

challenges of generations in the workplace, specifically law enforcement.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter II will review existing research on the implications and impact of multigenerational workforces on law enforcement agencies, particularly as they pertain to leadership styles and workplace preferences. The researcher examined predominant leadership styles and generational affinities toward each style. The researcher looked at trust in the workplace and how different generations view authority and their relationship with management. The researcher examined job satisfaction and organizational commitment between generations. Finally, various aspects of law enforcement were explored such as recruitment, retention, and technology.

Multigenerational Workforce

Generations and Their Impact

Gibson, Greenwood, and Murphy (2009) asserted that intergenerational conflict in the workplace caused by diversity in values related to the age of employees has been given a lot of attention in recent years. Members of the same generational cohort often relate to one another and get along better than with those of differing generations. According to Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) the tendency of individuals to view their own generation as unique and qualitatively different from other groups is arguably universal. The generational separation each individual perceives, Jurkiewicz and Brown explained,

communicates their significance, adds meaning, and empowers each generation to define itself by its contributions to the greater whole.

Smola and Sutton (2002) argued that it is becoming increasingly important for organizations to have an awareness of the various generations present in today's workforce, along with their corresponding stereotypes. While three generations (Baby Boomer, Generation X, and Generation Y) are present in most workplaces today, Gibson et al. (2009) says that there is an agreed upon group of core values among workers of each generation that is evidenced in popular and academic literature. Kupperschmidt (2000) suggested that employees from different generations respond differently to common life events due to having different value systems and work demands. The values specific to each generational cohort can lead to assumptions about what these workers want occupationally and how to motivate them to be both committed and productive stakeholders in their organizations.

A trend in work values of different generations changing throughout time was evidenced in a study conducted by Smola and Sutton (2002). The results of the study revealed that workers' values do change as they mature. The authors contended that over the last 25 years, employees have become less convinced that work should be seen as an important part of one's life and that working hard makes one a better person. Smola and Sutton suggested their results indicated work values are more influenced by generational experiences than by age or maturity.

The challenge with the generational differences in employees, according to Kupperschmidt (2000), is that we each bring aspects of our generational differences to work with us and we do not understand each other's generational differences, which can

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lead to increased tension and cause a decrease in productivity and job satisfaction. There can also be power struggles among different generations in the workplace. Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) found that internally driven generational differences, where members tend to think of their generation as better than the others, can create a natural order where older generations tend to hold more powerful positions and are naturally reluctant to share that power with coworkers, particularly the younger coworkers who are presumably less experienced. Conflict between generations is also apparent in communication patterns, according to Jurkiewicz and Brown. Older generations view the eagerness and optimism of the younger generations as naïve and potentially dangerous. On the other hand, Gen Xers and Millennials view the rationality and perceived negativity brought on by the experiences and disappointments of older generations such as Boomers as stubbornness and outdated thinking. Dwyer (2008) stated these differences in approaches to work duties, personal values, communication styles, and perceptions of each other make conflict in the workplace likely; therefore, it is increasingly important for organizations to be aware of the generational differences as well as the unique characteristics of each group in order to effectively manage and recruit a multi-aged workforce. Kupperschmidt (2000) believed it was important for managers and coworkers to understand each other's generational differences or risk increasing the tension in the workplace as well as decreasing job satisfaction and productivity.

　　　　Managers who work to understand these generational differences can use them as a tool to create employee learning, productivity, and innovations. Bardwick (1998) said leaders of organizations must become students of generational differences and not only

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seek out but use employee knowledge and input to assure employees that their work contributes to the purpose of the organization.

Baby Boomers

Baby Boomers, called such because of a boom in births during the years 1946-1964, includes 78 million people, according to Sessa et al., (2007). The life-defining events of the Baby Boomer generation, according to Dwyer (2008), included the American civil rights movement, the Cuban missile crisis, the Cold War, and the Quebec crisis. Kupperschmidt (2000) found that this generation witnessed the foibles of political, religious, and business leaders, which resulted in a lack of respect for and loyalty to authority and social institutions. Their attitudes and values include personal growth, ambition, and collaboration-with their goal being "to put their stamp on things" (Kovary & Buahene, 2005, p. 6). Baby Boomers are also seen as optimistic, ambitious, and having workaholic tendencies, according to Patterson (2005). O'Bannon (2001) found that material success and traditional values made a comeback in the Boomers' workplace, rooted in the Reagan administration's conservative policies. The women's rights movement, beginning in 1963 with the publication of *The Feminine Mystique* by Betty Friedan, also impacted the Baby Boomer generation and sparked the concept of equal pay for equal work.

Generation X

Generation X members, according to Foot and Stoffman (1998), were born between 1967 and 1979. Foot and Stoffman agreed this generational cohort is smaller than the others preceding it, because in the 1960s there was a decrease in the annual number of births due to the increased presence of women in the labor force as well as the

commercial introduction of the birth control pill. Foot and Stoffman considered life to be better for Generation X than previous generations because it was easy for them to attend any university of choice or to find a job due to lack of competition. Negatively, according to Smola and Sutton (2002), Generation X members deal with financial, family, and societal insecurity; rapid change; great diversity; and a lack of solid traditions. Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) found that the upbringing experienced by Generation X led to a sense of individualism over collectivism. Due to Generation X growing up in homes with both parents working, or in single parent homes due to increased divorce rates, Kupperschmidt (2000) found these cohort members turned to their friends for support. Generation X craves mentors, values stability, and uses teams to support their individual efforts and relationships, according to Jurkiewicz & Brown.

Many members of Generation X experienced one or both parents being laid off throughout their lifetime and therefore they may be cynical and untrusting, according to Kupperschmidt (2000). Patterson (2005) found that Gen Xers prefer to balance their work and personal life rather than spend all of their time on the job. Kupperschmidt stated that Gen Xers are accustomed to receiving immediate feedback from devices such as video games and personal computers, and that they bring to the workplace well-honed, practical approaches to problem solving. Generation X members are also technically competent and are comfortable with diversity, change, multitasking and competition. Generation X embraces diversity according to O'Bannon (2001), and they believe similarities among people rather than differences should be emphasized.

Generation Y

       Generation Y, or Millennials as they are often referred to, are generally defined as persons born between 1980 and the mid to late 1990s. This generation is of similar size to the Boomer generation and number approximately 70 million, according to Mitchell (1998). Mitchell explained that Millennials make-up the first high-tech generation with significant usage of cell phones, automatic teller machines, and laser surgery. Millennials are the first to be born into a wired world and are connected 24 hours a day. Mitchell said racial and ethnic diversity is great among this generation. Change is valued, according to Patterson (2005). Millennials have experienced the effects of terrorism as no other generation has before, having witnessed both intra-country terrorism (Oklahoma City bombings) and the first attack on American soil since Pearl Harbor (9/11 terrorist attack). This generation, according to Patterson, knows the world they inherit from past generations is not just of new opportunities but of old problems as well. Millennials remain hopeful and believe they will someday get to where they want to be in life. Ryan (2000) found that this young generation has a tremendous appetite for meaningful work, and they see lifelong learning as a priority and family as they key to happiness.

       Because the Millennial generation makes up a large percentage of the modern-day workforce, there have been growing pains and issues within organizations due to the way Millennial's stereotypically are believed to behave in the workplace. According to Thompson and Gregory (2012), the popular press has featured stories about Millennials' approach to work as needy, disloyal, entitled, and having an overall casual work ethic. Thompson and Gregory also reported that organizations are paying more attention to

Millennials and their behavior due to managers from other generations reporting that they are having difficulty managing the younger generation.

Although older managers may complain about having to supervise Generation Y, the young workforce is not going away anytime soon. According to Fry (2018) Millennials are on track to account for over half of the U.S. workforce within the next decade. In order to successfully manage Millennials, Thompson and Gregory (2012) recommended that managers try to gather a deeper understanding of the background of Millennials, including their education, economic, social, and political contexts. Thompson and Gregory maintained that organizations that take context into consideration and set aside judgements based on stereotypes of Millennials will have greater success attracting, engaging, and retaining the younger generation to the workforce.

Researchers agree that older generations commonly engage in judging Generation Y via stereotypes. Arnett (2010) found that older generations, possibly due to their high work expectations, portray younger generations negatively and view them as selfish. Generation Y is commonly thought of as those who want to find the perfect job right away and older generations, according to Arnett, feel that this generation is unwilling to pay their dues. Conversely, Gursoy, Maier, and Chi (2008) expressed that "the biggest problem Millennials are having in the workplace is that they believe no one respects and appreciates them because they are young" (p. 453). The judgmental feelings towards the younger generations are not new contended Trzesniewski and Donnellan (2010), who traced negative perceptions back to the time of Socrates. Another attribute attributed to Millennials is that they are disloyal, as they are known to switch jobs or careers more frequently than older generations. According Fry (2017), 60% of employed Millennials

have changed jobs at least once already in their careers. The same research found that six out of ten Millennials thought it was very unlikely they would remain with the same employer for their entire careers. Thompson and Gregory (2012) purported Millennials feel as though organizations should be grateful to have them as employees and further hypothesized that Millennials are much less likely to stay with employers because they feel it is the *right thing to do*. Instead, they believed these employees will expect organizations to continually re-engage them and remind them of why they should stay.

<div align="center">Leadership</div>

In order to inform Research Question 1, *What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains?,* the researcher examined the classic leadership styles and generational affinity toward each style. According to Kennedy (1998) one of the possible conflicts among generations in the workplace lies in the area of management and leadership. Zemke et al. (1999) found that differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs of generational cohorts are believed to influence how each generational cohort views leadership, which then manifests itself in the use of different preferred leadership styles. For the purposes of the current study, the researcher chose to focus on two extremes on the leadership continuum, transactional and transformational leadership. According to Judge and Piccolo, (2004) during the past 20 years, "a substantial body of research has accumulated on transformational-transactional leadership theory" (p. 755). The two theories were first introduced by Burns (1978) and have gained validity and momentum in the ensuring years.

Transactional

Levinson (1980) explained that a leader is transactional when the follower is
rewarded with a carrot for meeting agreements or standards or beaten with a stick for
failing in what was supposed to be done. Transactional leaders, according to Avolio and
Bass (2004), use a system of rewards and punishments as motivation and they do not
attempt to implement change within their organization or subordinates. Transactional
leaders do not have high standards for their employees and do not try to influence them to
go above and beyond in any capacity (Avolio & Bass). These types of leaders expect
their subordinates to meet the goals that are already established. Transactional leadership,
according to Antonakis  et al. (2003), is an exchange process based on the fulfillment of
contractual obligations and is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring
and controlling outcomes. Bass (2008) elaborated on this and explained that transactional
leadership emphasizes the exchange that occurs between a leader and followers. This
exchange involves direction from the leader or mutual discussion with the followers
about requirements to reach desired objectives. Bass further explained that reaching
objectives is highly rewarding under the transactional leadership model and failure will
bring disappointment, excuses, dissatisfaction, and psychological or material punishment.
When the follower meets the objectives or goals the leader will reinforce the successful
performance given the power to do so.

Transactional leaders, according to Bryant (2003), may be more effective in
exploiting knowledge at the organizational level. But, Bass and Avolio (1999) found if
leaders were only transactional, the organizations they were part of were seen as less
effective than organizations led by other types of leaders. Subordinates in the same study

reported they exerted less effort for a transactional leader than a transformational leader.

While not typically the motivational leaders, transactional leadership can enhance team

members' drive and motivation in three ways, according to Sheppard (1995). First,

leaders make members aware that their contributions are necessary for the team to reach

its goals. Second, leaders arrange to reward individual members' contributions to the

team reaching its goal. Third, leaders arrange for the benefits to outweigh the costs. Free

riding and social loafing by team members should be discouraged under transactional

leadership.

Transformational

The concept of transformational leadership was first introduced by leadership

expert James McGregor Burns (1978) who defined transformational leadership as the

process where leadership and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and

motivation. Bass (1993) opined that transformational leadership represented a seminal

shift in the field of leadership. Bass (1985) later expanded on Burns' concept by

identifying the transformational leader as one who is a model of integrity and fairness,

who sets clear goals and has expectations; this type of leader encourages others and

provides support and recognition when deserved. The transformational leader, according

to Bass, encourages people to look beyond their self-interests, stirs the emotions of their

subordinates, and inspires people to reach for the improbable.

Shepperd (1995) found that while transformational leaders are good at motivating

their followers, they can animate their team members by highlighting the values of their

team's efforts to the members and to others and emphasizing the importance of the

team's overall success to the organization, community, or society. Avolio and Bass

(2004) explained that transformational leaders utilize proactive and innovative approaches to make effective changes within an organization. Goleman, McKee, and Boyatzis (2002) compared transformational leaders to an emotionally intelligent leader in which their emotional intelligence goes beyond cognitive ability. These emotionally intelligent leaders, Goleman et al. continued, should exude confidence, be committed to the organization, be trustworthy, be open to change, optimistic and persuasive, and most importantly be able to lead change effectively.

Transformational leaders can have a meaningful effect on followers and on organizations themselves. Bryant (2003) proposed that transformational leaders may be more effective in creating and sharing knowledge individually and in small groups than transactional leaders. Other effects of transformational leaders on follower performance, according to Kark and Shamir (2002), are that personal identification with the leader is enhanced through the bolstering of self-worth of the follower when they contribute to what needs to be done as well as through the social identification of the follower with the organization. Transformational leaders, according to Bass (2008), were described by their subordinates as more effective overall, and subordinates felt these leaders were able to effectively lead their organization. An experiment conducted by Jung and Avolio (2000) featured 194 business undergraduates who were led by persons trained in either transformational or transactional leadership. The results showed that trust in the leaders and value congruence with them mediated the extent to which the quality of the ideas was significantly augmented by transformational but not transactional leadership. The study found both direct and indirect effects on the participants' subjective satisfaction with the leadership.

Bass (2008) said transformational leaders were also judged to have better relationships with upper-level management and found to make bigger contributions to their organizations. Subordinates work hard for transformational leaders and reported they tended to exert a lot of extra effort for these types of leaders. Transformational leadership was more effective in military studies than civilian studies according to Coleman, Patterson, Fuller (1995) who analyzed commentary and empirical results of political leaders, educators, military leaders, and business leaders.

Charismatic

An extension of a transformational leader identified by Caless (2011) is the charismatic leader. Bass (2008) found that the charismatic leader is likely to be transformational, but it is possible, yet unlikely for them to be transformational without being charismatic. Caless described a charismatic leader as having a fiery personality, being a calculated risk taker, concerned more with results than means, and able to motivate followers by examples and achievements. House (1995) and Hunt (1999) believed that charismatic and transformational leadership are one and the same and use the term *charismatic/transformational leadership*. Behling and McFillen (1996) created a synthesis of the two leadership concepts in which the leader's words and actions both demonstrate empathy, empower followers, project self-assurance, dramatize the mission, and affirm collective efficacy. Charismatic leaders have several personality traits that set them apart from non-charismatic leaders according to a self-reported study by Labak (1973), which included faculty of the University of Northern Colorado. Those teachers found to be charismatic were considered to be more enthusiastic, self-actualized, tolerant of ambiguity, and less defensive then their non-charismatic counterparts.

Charisma was considered by Weber (1924/1947) to be a personal attribute of some leaders whose purposes, powers, and extraordinary determination set them apart from ordinary people. Friedrich Nietzsche's (1883/1974) superman had some of the same characteristics: inner direction, originality, self-determination, sense of duty, and responsibility for the unique self. A charismatic leader depends on the response from their followers. Tritten (1995) explained that follower loyalty is the fundamental determinate of a charismatic leader, along with the perception of charisma. Lipman-Blumen (1996) found that uncertainty and anxiety can be the reason followers seek out heroes or charismatic leaders. These followers according to Bass (2008) want to identify with a mission that a charismatic leader is dedicated to and followers place their trust in the leader to lead them to the promised land. Followers' respect for the leader mediated their trust in and satisfaction with the leader in a study by Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2000), where 252 managers gave higher ratings of charismatic leadership on the Conger-Kanungo questionnaire if they greatly respected the leader they were rating.

Generational Preferences

Arsenault (2003) conducted a study in which the rank ordering of the characteristics most admired in leaders were analyzed by generation. In the study, eight out of ten of the characteristics were statistically different among generations, although some similarities were found. Arsenault cited one example where, although each generation believed honesty to be the most important characteristic for leaders, Baby Boomers and the two earlier generations (WWIIers & Silents) ranked honesty as more important than Gen Xers and Millennials did. Gen Xers and Millennials ranked

determination and ambition as more important than caring, and Baby Boomers and Gen Xers ranked competence more important than the other two groups.

Zemke et al. (1999) proposed the following preferred generational leadership styles for Baby Boomers, Generation Xers, and Millennials: Baby Boomers prefer a collegial and consensual style in which communication is emphasized along with sharing responsibility. Baby Boomers also do not like a traditional hierarchy of rank and order. Generation Xers prefer egalitarian leadership and do not respect authority. Gen Xers value honesty, fairness, competence, and straightforwardness. They embrace change in their workplace and lives. Millennials prefer a polite relationship with authority, and they like collective action and expect their leaders to bring people together.

Sessa et al. (2007) found in their study on generational differences in leader values and leadership behaviors that there are indeed generational differences in the leadership attributes employees value in a leader. Their study of 447 participants resulted in six out of the top twelve rankings being significantly different: *credible, listens well, farsighted, focused*, *dedicated*, and *optimistic*. Sessa et al. found the Millennial generation differed from all other generations by ranking *dedicated* as more important and *credible* as less important. Millennials also differed from the Baby Boomers and early Gen Xer's in ranking *focused* and *optimistic* as more important. Overall, Sessa et al. found that early Boomers (1946-1954) valued attributes that suggested a politically astute leader (persuasive and diplomatic) with experience and a big-picture orientation (farsighted). For this group, trustworthiness was a big factor along with sharing in the decision-making. The late Boomers (1955-1963), valued leadership attributes that suggested a desire for global leadership image and dedication. The late Boomers valued

experience and big-picture orientation but also clear focus. Finally, the late Boomers valued listening and encouraging rather than sharing leadership.

The early Gen-X group reported they valued attributes that suggested an optimistic and persuasive leader with experience. Like the late-Boomers, the early Gen Xers valued big-picture orientation with a clear focus of the future (Sessa et al., 2007). This group valued listening and encouraging but rather than sharing feedback, they desired leaders who are perceptive and who recognize their talents and provide feedback. The late Gen Xers preferred leadership attributes that suggested an optimistic leader with experience. This generational cohort was more interested in leadership activities focused on the short-term, such as being focused and numerically astute. Late Gen Xers ranked listening higher than the other groups and valued a leader who is perceptive, gives feedback, and encourages them. Finally, Sessa  et al. reported the Millennials wanted a dedicated and creative leader who cared about them personally. Millennials did not care about big-picture orientation and wanted focus. Millennials valued trustworthiness yet did not place is as high as other groups. The values of high importance for Millennials in a leader were dedication, focus, and optimism. The lower reported values were found to be credibility and farsightedness.

<div align="center">Trust in Leadership</div>

In order to inform Research Question 2, *What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their attitudes of trust in current leadership in the workplace?* the researcher examined studies exploring what constitutes trust in the workplace and how different generations view authority.

Trust

Trust in a person has been defined by Fairholm (1995) as "reliance on the authenticity of a person in the absence of absolute knowledge or proof of the truth. Trust represents our best guess that a person is as he or she is purported to be" (p.11). Trust in a leader according to McAllister (1995) is a follower's belief and willingness to act on the basis of the leader's words, actions, and decisions. Trust is essential to success in any organization. As Posner and Kouzes (1996) suggested, the credibility of a leader's message rests on the trust in the messenger. One cannot lead successfully without trust, and the trust of followers depends on the belief that the leader or messenger is honest, forward-looking, inspiring, and competent. Bass (2008) suggested that trust in leadership has become a particularly prominent issue in the study of leadership.

Different types of leadership tend to generate more trust from followers as Den Hartog (1997) found in a study of 1,289 subordinates. The respondents rated trust in management as greater with charismatic, inspirational, and individualized considerate leadership (transformational) than with transactional leadership. Leaders who are trusted by subordinates varied in regard to the personality traits they possess. Mayer & Schoorman (1995) found that subordinates trust in their supervisors was linked to the supervisor's integrity and benevolence.

Trust is not immediate in the leader-follower relationship, according to Lewicki, Stevenson, and Bunker (1997). Trust between people is dynamic and is built over time. These authors articulated that leader-follower relationships consist of three stages. The first stage is a matter of calculation; the follower learns under which circumstances the leader rewards performance, and conversely, which circumstances will bring about

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discipline and penalties to the follower. The second stage of the development of trust according to Lewicki  et al. involves the follower learning about the leader's attitudes and behavior in different contexts as well as the leader's reactions in different situations. In the third stage of trust development, the follower identifies with the leader's wants and intentions. The follower then appreciates and understands the leader's needs and can effectively act for the leader. At the conclusion of stage three, the leader can be confident that his or her interests will be protected as the leader has also developed trust for the follower concurrently during the three stages. Day and Sessa (2001) found considerable evidence supporting the expectation that effective teamwork hinges on mutual trust between the team members and the team leader. Dirks (2000) found this relationship in a study of trust in coaches amongst 355 basketball players in a men's college conference. Dirks found that trust had a moderate positive correlation (.57) with future performance as well as a moderate positive correlation (.60) with past performance. The overall talent and experience of the teams added to the prediction but trust in the leader was an antecedent as well as a consequence of successful performance by these teams.

Trust in relationships can be difficult for some leaders to achieve. Hackman and Johnson (1991) suggested five nonverbal ways for a leader to building trust and confidence: 1. maintain eye contact when talking to others and avoid shifting the eyes, looking away, and downcast eyes. 2. Use spontaneous gestures to emphasize points to convey emotional intensity and avoid too many pauses or speaking rapidly. 3. Maintain an open, relaxed posture and avoid keeping hands and arms crossed and close to the body. 4. Maintain a conversational speaking tone with a varied rate, pitch, and volume. 5. Avoid wearing dark glasses, which convey a stereotype of untrustworthiness.

There are differences in how Millennials and older generations such as Baby Boomers have trust in and view supervision and authority. Some may say according to Piper (2011), that Millennials do not respect authority. Piper then argues that Millennials do not disrespect authority but disrespect authoritarianism. Millennials rebuke the attitude from supervisors that says "because I told you so" and instead Millennials desire an explanation for why things are to be done a certain way. Millennials will often test authority but will seek out assistance when they are looking for guidance in the workplace according to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007). Millennials prefer to work with peers in a team-oriented environment and like to work with bosses with whom they can relate and who value employee input.

Millennials, according to Zemke et al. (1999) prefer a polite relationship with authority and like leaders who pull people together. Millennials respond well to leaders who will take them somewhere and not simply authority figures who will keep them where they have been. Arsenault (2003) found Millennials highly ranked the leadership qualities of determination and ambitious. This revealed the generation seeks leaders who will challenge the system and create change such as notable leaders in history: Ronald Reagan, Tiger Woods, and Bill Gates. Zemke et al. found Millennials ultimately believe in collective action and a leader with a will to get things changed. Millennials tend to question everything and will not follow someone or their ideas simply because they are told to do so. Millennials will follow leaders who are not demanding and those who will relate to the generation and their search for answers and better options for the future (Piper, 2011).

While Millennials according to, Cahill and Sedrak (2012) demand constant feedback and interpret silence from their supervisors as a negative, older employees prefer to just do their jobs and are content to receive little feedback. Baby Boomers, according to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) are often viewed as consensus seekers who are competitive micromanagers, possessing a moderate level of disrespect for authority, and approach their jobs with an attitude that they will do whatever it takes to get the job done. Baby Boomers despise the traditional hierarchy and make every effort to turn the hierarchy upside-down, according to Zemke et al. (1999). Baby Boomers also entered the workplace at a time when leadership was synonymous with formal authority, according to Crampton and Hodge (2007). Baby Boomers believed that work was a priority and through loyalty to management and paying one's dues came reward and seniority. Arsenault (2003) found Baby Boomers ranked the leadership qualities of caring, competent, and honest as most important to them. The leadership of Martin Luther King and Gandhi illustrate that Baby Boomers want leaders who are compassionate, honest, competent and spirited to run their organizations (Arsenault).

Although they have striking differences in many aspects of the workplace, Arsenault (2003) found that generational preferences towards leadership all ranked honesty as the most important characteristic of a leader. This study also found that all generations admire leaders that tell the truth and do not mislead them. Another similarity found among all generations surveyed was that competence and loyalty were highly ranked. Each generation, according to Arsenault, felt strongly that a successful leader much be capable, effective and know what he or she is doing, along with promoting high levels of loyalty within the organization.

Workplace Preferences

In order to inform Research Question 3, *What is the relationship between police officer organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction*, the researcher examined multiple studies on how job satisfaction, motivation, work values and organizational commitment are impacted by different generations.

Motivation

The relationship between age and employee motivation is not a new issue and is an issue that has limited, conceptually diverse research according to Kooji, de Lange, Jansen, & Dikkers (2007). Kooji et al. found that age-related factors are important in understanding the motivation of older workers. Chen, Chen, & Meindl (1991) discovered there has been considerable interest in whether the attitudes, behavior, and motivation of managers and employees differ across culture, race and age of followers and the effects those differences have on work group performance. Jurkiewicz & Brown (1998) said comparisons have been made between the public and private sectors which indicated dramatic differences in employee motivation in areas not predicted by stereotypes and that within the public sector there are substantially greater significant differences between hierarchical levels. Based on these comparisons, Jurkiewicz and Brown stated that the possibility of motivational differences existing between generations is another foundation upon which many beliefs exist. Jurkiewicz and Brown further called for an examination of the validity of those beliefs by administrators and public sector personnel specialists. If workplaces want to implement programs towards improving employee motivation, they must make a sharp distinction between job satisfaction and motivation to work hard and effectively. Jurkiewicz and Brown explained that people can be satisfied because their

job does not demand hard work, but they can also be dissatisfied because they want to do a good job and their organization places obstacles in the way of doing so.

Work Values

According to Smola and Sutton (2002), there is no agreed-upon definition for work values found in the literature; the described values as that which defines what people believe to be fundamentally right or wrong. Therefore, work values could apply the right and wrong definition to the workplace setting. Craig and Bennett (1997) stated work values among generations may differ and have an impact on the workplace through their shaping of beliefs, values, goals, work attitudes, world views, and attitudes toward leadership. However, to date, the small amount of empirical research that exists on the topic has not revealed specific differences. George and Jones (1999) said work values are often described narrowly, such as a worker's attitude and about what one should expect from the workplace and how to go about reaching those expectations. Smola and Sutton argued that the workplace today is not as simple as George and Jones stated and the modern worker's job requires decision-making, problem-solving, trouble-shooting, and managing. Solutions may not be clear-cut and require the prioritizing of options to select the best. Smola and Sutton agreed with Dose (1997), who defined work values as evaluative standards relating to work or the work environment by which individuals discern what is *right* or assess the importance of preferences.

It is important to consider whether an individual's work values are influenced more by generational experience or if they change over time with maturity. As times change and generations mature, Smola and Sutton (2002), found that changing values can be seen in many areas of society with many individuals seeking more balanced lifestyles.

The change to a balance lifestyle includes better incorporation of work and personal lives

than was done in past generations. People are seeing that work is not everything and it is

important to have a good work and home life in order to create a happy life. Jurkiewicz

and Brown (1998) found in their study on generational comparisons of public sector

employees that generational differences may not manifest themselves in what employees

want from their jobs. Their study found that generations maybe largely generic in what

they want from their jobs. Jurkiewicz and Brown found that life stages more so than

generational cohort explain employee motivation at work. Smola and Sutton (2002)

found that younger generations are seeking a more balanced lifestyle and are better at

incorporating work and personal lives than past generations. Smola and Sutton's results

suggested that workers' values do change as they mature. Work values may also more

influenced by generational experiences than by age and maturation. Therefore, in order to

effectively manage today's work force managers should develop a knowledge of the

similarities of employees in general, balanced by and understanding of the generational

influences that divide the groups outside of work.

       If generations are changing their work values based on maturation, it is necessary

to research what the differences in work values are according to generations. Focused on

specific work values in his study, Cherrington (1980) found that when compared to the

two older groups (ages 27-39 and 40-65), younger workers (ages 17-26) felt pride in

craftsmanship was less important. The younger workers felt it was more acceptable to do

a poor job, and were less desirous that their work be of service to others. In a similar

study, Smola and Sutton (2002) found the Gen Xers wanted to be promoted more quickly

than their older counterparts the Baby Boomers. Generation X members were also less

likely to feel that work should be an important part of one's life and indicated they would be more likely to quit work if they won a large sum of money then the Baby Boomers would be. Gen Xer's also reported themselves to be hard-working and the study results demonstrated they were more likely to work hard, even if their supervisor was not around.

In order for organizations to respond to the differences in work values of generational cohort members, leaders must, according to Smola and Sutton (2002), adopt practices and policies that are in line with the desires of their employees. Employers need to treat their employees as valued members of the organization and not as a disposable asset. Employees need to feel as though their employer is committed to them and their success in the organization. Companies should also strive to assist employees in their desire to have a better work-life balance. This could be done by making changes to the work environment, allowing for flexible work schedules, on-site day care, and elder care among others. According to Smola and Sutton, "companies that make modifications to benefits and business practices are more likely to attract (and retain) the best and brightest of today's and tomorrow's workforce" (p. 380).

Organizational Commitment

In order to gain true, long-term employee commitment, employees must have positive attitudes about their peers, feel that the organization has met their expectations of it, rely on the organization to carry out its commitments to the employees, and also feel that they are of importance to the organization (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Thompson and Gregory (2012) contended the key to Millennials' job satisfaction and retention is positive relationships in the workplace. Millennials having good relationships with their

immediate managers may be the key to leveraging, motivating, and retaining this generation. Smola and Sutton (2002) found in their study that a major factor that likely influenced their respondents' commitment to hard work was the companies' level of commitment to employees. They found that employees had become disposable and some companies seem to treat employees as only a means to an end.

<center>Law Enforcement</center>

The generational differences explored in the current study (attitudes toward leadership, trust in the workplace, and job satisfaction) are broadly applicable to many generations. The current study focused on law enforcement which brings its own set of unique challenges.

Leadership

The effectiveness of the traditional, authoritarian, and bureaucratic police model adopted by many law enforcement organizations is under challenge, according to Engel (2001), and a call for senior police to accept more modern approaches to leading is becoming louder. Several studies have investigated police leadership using the transformational leadership model developed by Bass (1985) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Singer and Singer (1989) reported that police organizations tend to foster transactional leadership and Densten (2003) found the dominant leadership style of police organizations was management-by-exception.

Sarver and Miller (2013) found that in many studies' additional variables such as age, gender, race, assignment, years of law enforcement experience, years in current position, education, rank, and agency type have also been examined to determine if a relationship exists with leadership styles and outcomes. Jolson, Dubinsky, and

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Yammarina, and Comer (1993) found that until the late 1970s, leadership theory and empirical work were concentrated almost exclusively on the equivalent of transactional leadership. Today, both transformational leadership and transactional leadership have a wide range of applications, from teaching and nursing to police work. Leaders of any organization need to be concerned with how their behaviors influence their followers' decisions to either exert or withdraw effort. Densten (2003) opined that such information should not only assist leaders in their selection of the most effective behaviors but also encourage leaders to further develop their behavioral repertoire or portfolio of leadership behavior. Shim, Jo, & Hoover (2015) found that a general consensus of research on leadership and organizational commitment showed that officers' level of commitment to their organization was significantly affected by their social relations with supervisors, which supported the importance of leadership or organizational atmosphere for police human resource research in the future.

Deluga and Souza (1991) found the subordinates in police departments can play a role in influencing the behavior of supervisor's leadership. Their study showed that transformational leadership was found to be more closely associated with subordinate officer influencing than transactional leadership. Deluga and Souza found that three approaches were all inter-correlated, but the only rational upward influencing was found to be linked with transformational leadership. The findings of their study were not expected and were perceived to be related to police officer personality and the male dominated organizational culture of policing. Deluga and Souza provided support for their findings and cited findings by Topp and Kardash (1986), which showed successful police applicants exhibited a pattern of traits that were adaptive to their tasks and

responsibilities such as dominance, social pressure, self-confidence, autonomous

achievement self-acceptance, and masculinity.

In similar findings, Deal and Kennedy (1982) found the organizational culture of

police officers is considered to be a tough-guy macho stance, where social influence is

encouraged and expected. Research has described two cultures of policing within a

department--the street cops and management according to Reuss-Ianni (1983). The

researcher determined the rank polarization between the two groups brings about two

different cultures. The street cop culture reflects the low-ranked officers' group

cohesiveness and their unique experience-based practices on the street. The management

cop culture is internalized through a system based, cost efficient process. The street cop

culture according to Reuss-Ianni is likely to be more flexible and in contrast the

management cop culture tends to be based on formal control. Being open to the

differences in police culture is important to the organization as Shim  et al. (2015) argued

that understanding the mediating role of organization culture in the transformational

leadership link can ultimately enhance police performance. Overall, Deluga and Souza

(1991) suggested that the transformational leader may appeal to police officers because

they are perceived to be more approachable, less militaristic in manner, and more likely

to be sensitive to subordinate rational influencing attempts.

Swid (2014) argued that transformational leadership significantly predicts police

commitment. Swid contended that the strength of transformational leadership-

commitment correlation is more robust than the effects of the other styles of leadership

on officer commitment. Jackson, Meyer and Wang (2013) found in a meta-analytic test

that a general consensus among publications is that regardless of culture-specificity, an

officers' level of commitment is influenced by his/her transformational leader. Shim et al. (2015) found that extensive fields of research present strong evidence supportive of the transformational leadership-culture link as well as the organizational culture-commitment link. But, Shim et al. did not find that much attention has been given to examining the effects of both organizational correlates on police officer leadership and organizational commitment.

The public sector is not immune to the influence and impact of multi-generations in the workforce. These differences are demonstrated in several key areas including recruitment, retention, job satisfaction, and even use of technology.

Recruitment

August Vollmer stated (as quoted in Bain, 1939),

the citizen expects police officers to have the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of the Good Samaritan, the strategical training of Alexander, the faith of Daniel, the diplomacy of Lincoln, the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth, and finally, an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological, and social sciences. If he had all these, he might be a good policeman! (p. 455)

According to White and Escobar (2008), the effort to achieve Vollmer's goal begins with a thorough recruitment and selection process and continues with effective training that properly prepares new officers for the job. Recruitment, selection and training are all critically important issues for each police department and represent the foundation of a professional and effective agency. White and Escobar stated that professional policing is over 150 years old in the United States, but most agencies did not begin to partake in

formalized police academy training until the 1960s. While recruitment and training are not new issues they have recently come to the forefront of importance in police departments because of the significant changes in the philosophy and nature of policing, higher expectations by constituents, and continuing efforts at making police more professional.

The goal of recruitment, according to White and Escobar (2008), is to find or attract the best candidates for the position of police officer. However, most police departments in the United States are having trouble filling open positions and the number of interested candidates is not getting any larger. As a result of these issues the police departments will have to do a better job of proactive recruiting and try to sell themselves to potential applicants. As most applicants enter policing for practical and altruistic reasons, mainly job security, benefits, and to help others according to Ermer (1978), police departments must be realistic in their presentation of the job and its' duties. If applicants enter the police job with unrealistic expectations of constant danger and excitement their expectations may become disillusioned and they may be more likely to quit their jobs as a result, according to White and Escobar.

Retention

According to Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998) senior personnel managers have expressed widespread concern that traditional human resource mechanisms are ineffective in recruiting and motivating the new public work force. In regard to policing, Jaramillo et al. (2005) found that boosting officers' workplace organizational commitment is an effective means to deter diffused work stress and turnover intentions. Jaramillo et al. stated that there are only limited policing studies that include

organizational correlates such as transformational leadership as well as limited aspects of organizational culture to determine an officers' commitment to their organization. Individual officer characteristics such as age, sex, length of service, and education level have consistently been found to have some effect on officers' levels of organizational commitment, according to Jones, Jones, & Prenzler (2005), but it should be noted that organizational correlates are more likely than individual characteristics to affect officers' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors, Marsden, Kalleberg, and Cook (1993).

Shim  et al. (2015), recognizing the importance of maintaining high level of officers' commitment to the organization and its relationship to police turnover rates, conducted a study of Korean police officers and whether their variation in organizational commitment could be explained by organizational correlates of importance, such as transformational leadership and organizational culture. Shim  et al. found the link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment was fully mediated by group culture, and officers' perceptions of transformational leaders were linked to the presence of group, developmental, and rational cultures. The results of the study also revealed that although transformational culture appeared to be best connected with developmental culture, only officers' perceptions of group culture further influenced their attitudinal commitment to the organization. Shim  et al. concluded that the results showed a relation between transformational leadership and commitment being fully mediated by group culture. Based on their results, Shim  et al. stated that simply providing leadership training would not be an effective means to increase officers' levels of commitment. Instead, policy-makers and practitioners in the field of criminal justice who are responsible for human resources would need to develop more nuanced leadership training

programs. These should be optimized for considerate and supportive leaders who can easily influence group culture.

When looking at retention, turnover is already a concern with the Millennial generation, according to Cahill and Sedrak (2012). Johnson and Lopes (2008) created the term, retention deficit disorder to describe this problem. One potential cause of this problem argued by Cahill and Sedrak is that Millennials like to continually learn and if they find another organization that offers them a better learning experience, they are likely to leave their current organization. Cahill and Sedrak found that when most Millennials depart their current organization for another, they are making lateral, not promotional moves. A key retention strategy for Millennial employees is to provide them with opportunities for lateral moves within their current organization so they do not seek those opportunities elsewhere. Millennials, according to Cahill and Sedrak are attracted to fast-moving, technology-based environments. Cahill and Sedrak found that as new changes in technology related to law enforcement become available, agencies should seek to make these changes in order to maintain Millennial enthusiasm and energy towards the organization. When Millennials see the organization willing to implement new ideas and strategies to make their jobs easier and more efficient, they are more likely to stay with that organization.

Job Satisfaction

Officers' commitment levels to the organization and job satisfaction are strongly connected to overall organization competitiveness, according to Moon and Jonson (2012). Those officers who are not committed to the organization tend to generate widespread negative ramifications for the organization. This negativity in the

organization tends to create work stress, high turnover rates, and even misbehavior among coworkers, according to Jaramillio et al. (2005). Allen and Meyer (1996) articulated three aspects of organizational commitment: first, affective commitment focusing on emotional attachment; second, normative commitment, focusing on one's obligatory loyalty toward the organization; and third, continuance commitment focusing on one's view about the organization as a group sharing a common destiny.

Lim and Teo (1998) conducted a study of 467 police officers in Singapore and analyzed the effects of police officers' individual characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, locus of control, and job tenure on the following work-related attitudes: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, and job plateau. Lim and Teo said police officers play a critical role in maintaining law and order and it is important to examine these attitudes and investigate some of the potential individual and demographic characteristics that may affect such attitudes. In order to measure locus of control, Lim and Teo considered individuals who believed they were masters of their fate as *internals* and those who believed that their lives were dependent on luck or chance, *externals*. The most noteworthy result of their study involved these two groups, internals and externals. The internals consistently reported higher mean scores on job satisfaction and organizational commitment than externals. Internals also reported significantly lower mean scores on intention to quit and career plateau.

Based on these results, Lim and Teo (1998) recommended that police organizations advocate a more internal orientation through career counseling. These counselors could assist the self-reported externals in identifying the causes of negative events and helping them determine what is controllable and what is not. Police officers

with an external orientation could learn to focus their thoughts and energies on the aspects of their jobs in which they have control. Lim and Teo also found that in respect to job tenure, the police officers in more senior groups reported significantly higher mean scores on career plateau and intention to quit. In response to these results, the organization could provide organizational interventions such as more challenging work experiences, lateral moves within the agency, and restructured personnel policies to assist the older officers in coping with the feeling of career plateau.

Technology and Impact

Technology, more than any other phenomena, has been the driving force behind change and advancement in policing, according to White and Escobar (2008). Over the last 75 years two-way radios, telephones, automobiles, fingerprinting, DNA, tool mark identification, geographical information systems (GIS), crime mapping, the Internet, and less lethal weapons have revolutionized policing. These technological advances have helped police departments around the world become more productive and efficient, as a result, departments have been forced to enhance training to insure officers have the skills and knowledge to use the new innovations effectively.

One example of how training is important involves the use of less-than-lethal weapons to supplement traditional police tools (White & Escobar, 2008). Police officers now routinely carry TASER's, expendable batons, mace, and bean-bag shot guns. Police officers must be trained and certified in the proper use of these weapons before they are deployed on the street. If a police officer receives inadequate or no training, the department puts itself at risk of civil litigation should an officer misuse a weapon. As technology changes policing, White and Escobar suggested that police departments must

keep pace by providing proper training to its officers in order to take advantage of the new innovations. Younger generations such as Millennials have never known a time without sophisticated technology, according to Cahill and Sedrak (2012) and as such they are the most technologically-savvy generation. While many older generations use technology as a tool to accomplish a task, Millennials, according to Cahill and Sedrak, view technology as a way of life, a part of who they are.

## Conclusion

The researcher found a moderate correlation in the existing research between transformational leadership values and their impact on police officer job satisfaction, motivation, retention, and organizational commitment. The research demonstrated that there is evidence of generational differences among the different cohorts in all fields, including law enforcement. The generational differences can have an impact on the type of leadership each generation of police officers would most relate and respond to. In turn, the leadership preferences may impact police officer job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall longevity in a police agency. The current study included an examination of age and leadership preference, age and trust in leadership, as well as an analysis of the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of police officers of various generations

## Summary

The researcher examined the existing research on multigenerational workplaces and leadership as they relate to police officers and workplace preferences. The researcher found that in regard to research question 1, among all leadership styles, transformational leadership was reported to be significant in other studies as having a positive impact on

police officers' organizational commitment and workplace satisfaction. In regard to research question 2, the researcher reviewed existing research about trust in leadership and found that trust was also related to how the leaders were respected by subordinates and what their leadership style resembled. The researcher explored the existing literature regarding organizational commitment and job satisfaction and found that the two are closely related and further impact the retention rate of police officers, along with their attitudes and motivation in the workplace. Available research in the area of generational differences and workplace preferences of police officers, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment was minimal. Chapter III will articulate the processes used to conduct the current study, which included an examination of age of police officers and their leadership preferences, along with their trust in leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In order to make recommendations for recruitment, retention and morale improvement to police chiefs and to better serve the emerging future of different generations of law enforcement professionals, the currently study explored a breadth of attitudes and preferences of current police officers in different age groups. In Chapter II the researcher conducted a review of existing research on the implications and impact of multigenerational workforces on law enforcement agencies. The researcher examined predominant leadership styles and generational attitudes pertaining to each style. The researcher also explored trust in the workplace and how members of each generation of employees view authority and their relationship with management personnel. Finally, the researcher examined job satisfaction and how it relates to organizational commitment in the workplace.

Previous research has established a strong connection between transformational leaders in law enforcement, their values and propensities, and their impact on police officer job satisfaction, motivation, retention, and organizational commitment, Deluga and Souza (1991), Swid (2014), and Shim, Jo, & Hoover (2015). An examination of existing literature also revealed that law enforcement is not immune from generational differences across cohorts. Research suggested that generational differences could have

an impact on the type of leadership each generation of police officer subordinate would best relate to and desire to work for, Smola and Sutton (2002), Sarver and Miller (2013), and Jurkiewicz and Brown (1998). Chapter III will articulate the processes used to conduct the current study, which included an examination of age of police officers and their leadership preferences, along with their trust in leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The chapter will include the research design, participants, data collection, analytical methods used as well as the survey limitations.

In order to understand the attitudes and preferences of police officers towards leadership, behaviors, trust in leadership, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the researcher identified three key research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (Reconciliation, Persuasion, Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Integration) controlling for gender and race?

2. What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and race?

3. What is the relationship between police officer organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction, controlling for police officer age, gender, and race.

<div align="center">Research Design</div>

The applied research project involved addressing issues that have immediate relevance to current practices, procedures, and policies. Applied research projects such as this one "can inform human decision making about practical problems" (Leedy &

Omrod, 2016, p. 27). The project used a mixed-methods research design that began by collecting quantitative data from police officers in a suburban county of a large Midwestern city. According to Leedy and Omrod, surveys are demanding in their design requirements, and if a researcher does not address these issues it can place an entire research effort in jeopardy. Survey research captures a moment in time, but by drawing conclusions we are able to generalize about the state of affairs for a longer time period. According to Salkind (2009), survey research using electronic means may lead to more truthful responses, because respondent's anonymity is practically guaranteed. The objectivity of the data collected in surveys also makes it easy to share with other researchers and use for additional analysis in the future.

The researcher compiled a 116-item survey from existing surveys with two open-ended questions. According to Leedy and Omrod (2016), when a survey uses checklists or rating scales, it simplifies and more easily quantifies people's behaviors or attitudes. When people fill out the surveys themselves, it allows the researcher to collect a great deal of data both quickly and efficiently, especially with the use of the Internet for survey distribution. Mitchell and Jolley (2012) discovered Likert-scale questions to be valuable in survey research because most psychologists find them to hold the potential of powerful statistical analysis. Open-ended questions are also valuable in survey research as they increase the opportunity for researchers to discover some of the actual beliefs behind respondent responses to the Likert-scale questions and also help reduce the risk of putting words in the participants' mouths by allowing them to respond freely to a question without restricted, set responses.

In order to answer research question one, the researcher utilized a portion of the Stogdill and Coons (1957) Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The researcher selected five of the leadership behavior domains: reconciliation, persuasion, tolerance of freedom, consideration and integration. The instructions for these 40 Likert-scale questions asked the respondent to read each item and think about how often his or her ideal leader should engage in the behavior. The five possible answer choices ranged from 1 = *always* to 5 = *never.* The researcher also utilized demographic questions for age, gender, and race to answer research question one.

In order to answer research question two, the researcher utilized the 21-question Mayer and Davis (1999) Trust in Management scale. The questions were answered using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = *disagree strongly* to 5 =*agree strongly.* The researcher also utilized responses to demographic questions about age, gender, and race. In order to answer research question three, the researcher utilized the 20 Likert-scale items from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-SF) (Weiss et al., 1967). The responses to the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire were answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *very dissatisfied* to 5 = *very satisfied.* The researcher also used 15 Likert-scale items from the Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire questions were answered on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

At the conclusion of the survey, the researcher asked two open-ended questions, which each participant had the option to answer. The questions were:

- How can law enforcement management better learn and understand the needs and workplace preferences of the rank and file police officers?

- If you were a supervisor in your law enforcement agency what would you do to improve the motivation, morale, and job satisfaction of the rank and file police officers?

The researcher then asked respondents to provide their email addresses if they wished to be entered into a drawing for a $50.00 gift card as a thank you for completing the survey.

Participants

The primary participants in this study were police officers in a suburban county of a large Midwestern city. The survey was sent via email in January 2019 to all police chiefs in the 22 towns located within the county with a cover letter attached that explained who the researcher was and the purpose of the survey. The police chiefs were asked to forward the survey instrument to police officers of non-management level in their organization. Approximately 1,200 police officers are employed in the county where the survey was disseminated via email. The researcher learned that some police chiefs did not forward the survey to their officers and therefore the number of police officers reached by the survey was approximately 800.

The sample in the study was the group of police officer who completed the survey. Purposive sampling was used as the researcher sent the survey to the entire population of police officers in the county, but some police chiefs did not forward the survey on to the officers, therefore $N=800$. Conclusions were extrapolated from the 160 police officers completing the survey, a response rate of 20%. Of the 160 respondents, 16% or 26 were female and 84% or 134 respondents were male. Of the 160 respondents,

91% or 146 described their race/ethnicity as White / Caucasian, 7% or 11 respondents reported themselves to be Hispanic, 1% or 1 was Asian / Pacific Islander, 1% or 1 was Black or African American and 1 or 1% was Other and wrote in Middle Eastern. The age of respondents ranged from 23 years old to 66 years old. The average age of respondent was 39 years old. Eighty-one respondents, or 50% belonged to the Generation Y or Millennial generation (birth year 1982 – 2000). Sixty-eight of the respondents, or 43% belonged to the Generation X generation (birth year 1965-1981). The remaining 9 respondents, or 5% were from the Baby Boomer generation (birth year 1946-1964).

Respondents to the survey were asked what their highest level of education completed was, and 11% or 17 respondents had some college, but no degree received, 16% or 26 held an associate's degree, 57% or 92 held a bachelor's degree, and 13% or 20 respondents held a graduate degree. In response to the question about how many total years the police officer has worked in law enforcement, 3% or 5 respondents indicated less than one year, 21% or 34 indicated 1-5 years, 14% or 22 indicated 6-10 years, 17% or 27 indicated 11-15 years, 21% or 34 indicated 16-20 years, 13% or 20 indicated 21-25 years, 6% or 9 indicated 26-30 years, 5% or 8 respondents indicated 30-40 years, and 1% or 1 indicated more than 40 years in law enforcement.

## Data Collection

The survey was created using SURVS® online survey collection tool. The electronic link to the survey on the SURVS® website was placed in an email which was sent to police chiefs in January 2019 with a request to pass the email and link to survey along to their police officers of non-management level to take. As an incentive to

participate, the respondents were asked to provide their email address at the conclusion of the survey to be entered in a drawing for one of two $50.00 gift cards as a thank you.

## Analytical Methods

Research question one asked: *What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (Reconciliation, Persuasion, Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Integration) controlling for gender and race?* In order to answer question one, the researcher first assessed the reliability of the items on each subscale using Cronbach's alpha. The researcher obtained five composite scores, one for each leadership domain, which were used in the main analysis. Because the research question consisted of two categorical predictors (gender and race), the researcher conducted five separate analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) tests to examine the relationship between each ideal leadership behavior domain and the age of police officer controlling for gender and race as covariates. Leedy and Omrod (2016) explained that researchers can control for confounding variables through statistical techniques, one of which being an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Leedy and Omrod also suggested that an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) be employed to look for differences among means while controlling for the effects of a variable that is correlated with the dependent variable. The ANCOVA technique, according to Leedy and Omrod, is statistically more powerful than ANOVA because it decreases the probability of a type II error occurring.

Research question two asked: *What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and race?* In order to answer question two the research conducted an analysis to estimate the

internal consistency of the twenty-nine-item trust in leadership scale. Next, the researcher

averaged the responses to those items together to create a composite score. The

composite score was used in the main analysis. Because the research question consisted

of two categorical predictors (gender and race), the researcher conducted an analysis of

covariance (ANCOVA) to examine the relationship between police officer age and trust

in leadership, while controlling for gender and race.

Research question three asked: *What is the relationship between police officer*

*organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction,*

*controlling for police officer age, gender, and race?* First, the researcher assessed the

reliability of the items on each subscale using Cronbach's alpha. Once the reliability was

determined, the researcher averaged the responses of those items together to create a

composite score. The researcher created one composite score for organizational

commitment and three composite scores for job satisfaction, extrinsic, intrinsic, and

general satisfaction. These composite scores were used in the main analysis. Because the

research question consisted of two categorical predictors (gender and race) the researcher

conducted an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to examine the relationship between job

satisfaction and organizational commitment, with age, gender, and race as covariates.

Limitations

The researcher identified several possible limitations in this study. First, the

researcher only sought responses from non-supervisory level police officers and did not

include management opinion. Although the cover letter and instructions said the survey

was for non-supervisory level police officers, the survey was sent out to entire police

agencies therefore the researcher does not know if some supervisory level officers took

the survey. A limitation to research question one involved the instructions to the survey. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire can be administered several ways including self-reported and reporting of a specific leaders' behavior. Based on how the survey instructions were provided by the researcher and how the respondents understood the instructions could have impacted the statistical significance of this research question.

Another limitation could potentially be that police officers may not have been honest in their answers because they feared the responses would be sent to their police departments and have a way of getting back to them specifically. Finally, some respondents may have only taken the survey in attempt to win one of the $50.00 gift card prizes and therefore did not answer the questions truthfully and thoroughly.

Summary

In order to obtain the most complete representation of police officer attitudes and preferences towards leadership behaviors, job satisfaction, trust in leadership, and organizational commitment, the researcher followed the recommendation of Leedy & Omrod (2016) and utilized a mixed-methods research design. By utilizing both quantitative and qualitative elements, the researcher obtained "a more complete, comprehensive answer to your research question" (p. 312). Chapter IV will undertake the exploration of the attitudes and preferences of police officers of different generations in the workplace.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The data gathered in this study created an impression of the relationship between police officers and their workplace and leadership preferences with an emphasis on whether the age of police officers had an impact on their desires. In Chapters I and II, the researcher provided the background context, the study's purpose, research questions to be addressed, and the relevant literature that examined leadership and workplace preferences. Additionally, the researcher addressed the relevant variables of interest in the current study. In Chapter III, the researcher discussed the methodology of the current study and explained the analytical processes used to answer the research questions.

In Chapter IV the researcher will present the findings of the current study. The researcher will examine the statistical findings of the study, consider their implications, and suggest possible conclusions based on the data. The purpose of this study was to examine differences among police officers regarding leadership preferences, trust in leadership, job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on age and generation in order to make recommendations to police management about how to better engage, manage, recruit and retain police officers of different generations.

To this end, three research questions were identified:

1. What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (demand reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance and freedom, consideration, production emphasis, and integration) controlling for gender and race?

2. What is the relationship between the age of police officers and their attitudes of trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and race?

3. What is the relationship between police officer organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction controlling for police officer age, gender and race?

## Findings

Research Question 1

Research question one explored the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (Reconciliation, Persuasion, Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Integration) controlling for gender and race. First, an analysis was conducted to estimate the internal consistency of the five-item Leader Behavior Descriptor scale. Coefficient alpha for the scale was .87, indicating a good degree of internal consistency among the items on the scale. The means of the individual items ranged from 1.36 to 4.66, with a mean on the total scale of 96.05 ($SD$=11.8).

Next, the researcher averaged the responses to those items together to create five

composite scores, one for each leadership domain, which were used in the main analysis

(MeanReconciliation), (MeanPersuasion), (MeanTolFreedom), (MeanConsideration), and

(MeanIntegration). Because the research question consisted of two categorical predictors

(gender and race), the researcher conducted five separate ANCOVA tests to examine the

relationship between each ideal leadership behavior domain and the age of police officer

controlling for gender and race as covariates.

The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between age of

police officer and the reconciliation leadership domain controlling for race and gender,

$F(1,130) = 3.96$, $p = .049$, $\omega^2 = .30$, $b = .006$. The reconciliation leadership domain

consists of leadership qualities which have tendencies towards reducing chaos and

bringing order to the system. Leaders who are skilled in the reconciliation domain are

able to handle complex issues, take control of situations, and bring people together for the

common good. Gender did not have a statistically significant relationship with the

reconciliation leadership domain controlling for age of police officer and race, $F(1,90) =$

.202, $p = .654$, $\omega^2 = .002$, $b = .040$. Race also did not have a statistically significant

relationship with the reconciliation leadership domain controlling for gender and age of

police officer, $F(1,83) = .007$, $p = .932$, $\omega^2 = .000$, $b = .008$.

The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between age of

police officer and the persuasion leadership domain controlling for gender and race,

$F(1,132) = 1.62$, $p = .206$, $\omega^2 = .012$, $b = -.006$. Gender did not have a statistically

significant relationship with the persuasion leadership domain controlling for race and

age of police officer, $F(1,92) = 2.01$, $p = .160$, $\omega^2 = .021$, $b = -.174$. Additionally, race did

not have a statistically significant relationship with the persuasion leadership domain controlling for gender and age of police officer, $F(1,85) = .465$, $p = .495$, $\omega^2 = .005$, $b = -.098$.

The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between age of police officer and the tolerance of freedom leadership domain controlling for race and gender, $F(1,132) = .423$, $p = .517$, $\omega^2 = .003$, $b = .002$. Gender was found to have a statistically significant relationship with the tolerance of freedom leadership domain controlling for age of police officer and race, $F(1,92) = 3.77$, $p = .055$, $\omega^2 = .039$, $b = -.168$. Race also did not have a statistically significant relationship with the tolerance of freedom leadership domain controlling for age of police officer and gender, $F(1,85) = 2.5$, $p = .118$, $\omega^2 = .029$, $b = .156$.

The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and the consideration leadership domain controlling for race and gender, $F(1,132) = .084$, $p = .772$, $\omega^2 = .001$, $b = .001$. Gender did not have a statistically significant relationship with the consideration leadership domain controlling for age of police officer and race, $F(1,92) = .000$, $p = .984$, $\omega^2 = .000$, $b = -.002$. Race also did not have a statistically significant relationship with the consideration leadership domain controlling for gender and age of police officer, $F(1,85) = .121$, $p = .729$, $\omega^2 = .001$, $b = .030$.

The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and the integration leadership domain controlling for gender and race, $F(1,131) = .069$, $p = .793$, $\omega^2 = .001$, $b = -.001$. Gender did not have a statistically significant relationship with the integration leadership domain controlling for race and

age of police officer, $F(1,91) = .549$, $p = .461$, $\omega^2 = .006$, $b = -.103$. Race also did not

have a statistically significant relationship with the integration leadership domain,

controlling for gender and age of police officer, $F(1,84) = .066$, $p = .797$, $\omega^2 = .001$, $b =$

.041. Results are found in Table 1.

Table 1

*Relationship Between Police Officer Age and Leadership Domain*

| Source | df | F | $N^2$ | p | $\omega^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reconciliation | 1 | 3.96 | .452 | .049 | .030 |
| Persuasion | 1 | 1.62 | .396 | .206 | .012 |
| Tol. Of Freedom | 1 | .423 | .051 | .517 | .039 |
| Consideration | 1 | .084 | .008 | .772 | .001 |
| Integration | 1 | .069 | .022 | .793 | .001 |

Research Question 2

Research question two explored the relationship between the age of police

officers and their trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and

race. First, an analysis was conducted to estimate the internal consistency of the 21-item

trust in leadership scale. These questions examined respondents' feelings towards

management and performance evaluations by asking questions from the Mayer and Davis

(1999) Trust in Management scale such as "I feel very confident about top management's

skills," "my needs and desires are important to top management," "top management tries

hard to be fair in dealing with others," and "how many "extra" things I do is important to

my performance review."

The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between

Coefficient alpha for the scale was .92, indicating a very high degree of internal

consistency among the items on the scale. The means of the individual items ranged from

2.05 to 3.63, with a mean on the total scale of 91.90 (SD=19.8). Results are found in

Table 2.

Table 2

*Reliability of Trust in Leadership Scale Items*

| N=29 | Cronbach's alpha | Total mean | Standard Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| | .92 | 91.90 | 19.9 |

Next, the researcher averaged the responses to those items together to create a

composite score (MeanTrust). The composite score was used in the main analysis.

Because the research question consisted of two categorical predictors (gender and race),

the researcher conducted an ANCOVA to examine the relationship between police officer

age and trust in leadership, while controlling for gender and race.

The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between the age

of police officer and trust in leadership, controlling for race and gender, $F(1, 111) = 4.46$,

$p = .037$, $\omega^2 = .039$, $b = .014$. Gender did not have a statistically significant relationship

with trust in leadership, $F(1, 111) = 2.30$, $p = .136$, $\omega^2 = .020$. Race also did not have a

statistically significant relationship with trust in leadership, $F(4, 111) = 1.18$, $p = .326$, $\omega^2$

$= .041$. Age and race were found to have moderate effect size, while gender was found to

have a small effect size. Results are highlighted in Table 3.

Table 3

*Trust in Leadership Results*

| Source | df | F | N² | p | ω² |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | 1 | 4.64 | 2.09 | .033 | .039 |
| Gender | 1 | 2.3 | 1.03 | .132 | .020 |
| Race | 4 | 1.2 | 0.54 | .319 | .040 |
| Error | 113 | | .450 | | |
| Total | 121 | | | | |

Research Question 3

Research question three explored the relationship between police officer organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction, controlling for police officer age, gender, and race. First, the researcher conducted analysis to estimate the internal consistency of the twenty-item job satisfaction scale. These questions from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ-SF) (Weiss et al., 1967) examined respondents workplace job satisfaction feelings in response to the statement "On my present job, this is how I feel about…" including such statements as "the chance to be 'somebody' in the community," "the chance to do something that makes use of my abilities," and "the praise I get for doing a good job." The internal consistency analysis revealed Coefficient alpha for the scale was .89, indicating a good degree of internal consistency among the items on the scale. The means of the individual items ranged from 3.18 to 4.61, with a mean on the total scale of 73.63 (*SD*=10.2).

Next, the researcher recoded the negatively scored items on the organizational commitment questionnaire. Then an analysis was conducted to estimate the internal consistency of the fifteen-item Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire. These questions examined respondent's organizational commitment through questions such as "I talk up this organization to friends as a great organization to work for," "this organization really inspires the very best in my in the way of job performance," and six reversed scored questions such as "it would take very little change in my present circumstance to cause me to leave this organization." Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .93, indicating a very high degree of internal consistency among the items on the scale. The means of the individual items ranged from 3.62 to 6.09, with a mean on the total scale of 75.3 ($SD$=19.2).

Once the reliability was determined, the researcher averaged the responses to those items together to create a composite score. The researcher created one composite score for organizational commitment (MeanOrgCommit) and three composite scores for job satisfaction; extrinsic (MeanExtSat), intrinsic (MeanIntSat), and general satisfaction (MeanGenSat). These composite scores were used in the main analysis. Because the research question consisted of two categorical predictors (gender and race) the researcher conducted an ANCOVA to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (extrinsic, intrinsic, and general), with age, gender, and race as covariates.

The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and organizational commitment controlling for age, gender, and race, $F(1,61)$ = 18.93, $p$ = .000, $\omega^2$ = .237, $b$ = .915. The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between intrinsic satisfaction and organizational commitment controlling for age, gender, and race, $F(1,61)$ = 30.21, $p$ = .000, $\omega^2$ = .331, $b$ = 1.44. The researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between general satisfaction and

organizational commitment controlling for age, gender, and race, $F(1,61), = 30.66, p = .000, \omega^2 = .335, b = 1.39$. The results are highlighted in Table 4.

Table 4

*Organizational Commitment Results*

| Source | df | F | N $^2$ | p | $\omega^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Extrinsic Satisfaction | 1 | 18.93 | 21.84 | .000 | .237 |
| Intrinsic Satisfaction | 1 | 30.21 | 30.58 | .000 | .331 |
| General Satisfaction | 1 | 30.66 | 30.85 | .000 | .335 |
| Error | 61 | | | | |
| Total | 121 | | | | |

The researcher further analyzed the relationship between organizational commitment and age of police officer, controlling for gender and race. The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and organizational commitment, $F(1,121) = .000, p = .994, \omega^2 = .000, b = 9.02$. The researcher analyzed the relationship between various job satisfaction categories and age of police officer. The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and general job satisfaction, $F(1,126) = .251, p = .617, \omega^2 = .002, b = -.003$. The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and extrinsic job satisfaction, $F(1,126) = .206, p = .651, \omega^2 = .002, b = .003$. The researcher did not find a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and intrinsic job satisfaction, $F(1, 126) = 1.30, p = .256, \omega^2 = .011, b = -.006$.

Open-Ended Questions

The researcher included two open-ended questions at the end of the electronic survey which participants the option had to answer:

1.  How can law enforcement management better learn and understand the needs and workplace preferences of the rank and file police officers?

2.  If you were a supervisor in your law enforcement agency what would you do to improve the motivation, morale, and job satisfaction of the rank and file police officers?

Findings

Open-Ended Question 1

Open-ended question one examined the following: *how can law enforcement management better learn and understand the needs and workplace preferences of the rank and file police officers?* The researcher analyzed the 86 responses to open-ended question one and found some commonalities emerged in the responses. Twenty-three of the respondents or 27% used the word *listen* in their responses. Fourteen respondents or 16.3% used the word *survey* in their response. Twelve respondents wrote that leaders should *meet* or *have meetings* with subordinates. Ten respondents used the word *ask* in their responses. Eight respondents wrote *communication* or *communicate*. Seven respondents used the word *suggestions* in their responses.

Open-Ended Question 2

Open-ended question two examined the following *If you were a supervisor in your law enforcement agency what would you do to improve the motivation, morale, and job satisfaction of the rank and file police officers?* The researcher analyzed the 88

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responses to open-ended question two and found some common themes emerged in the responses. Thirteen respondents or 15% used the phrases *thank*, *reward*, or *praise* in their responses. Twelve of the respondents or 13% used the word *listen* in their responses. Twelve respondents or 13% used the terms *motivate* and *encourage* in their responses. Seven respondents used the term *personal* or *personally* in their responses. Seven respondents wrote *morale* in their responses. Six respondents used the term *care* in their responses. Five respondents wrote *lead by example*.

## Conclusions

Research Question 1

Research question one examined the relationship between the age of police officers and their preferences towards ideal leadership behaviors in various domains (demand reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance and freedom, consideration, production emphasis, and integration) controlling for gender and race. As discussed in the findings of research question one, the sole leadership domain found to have statistical significance when analyzed with the age of police officer was demand reconciliation ($p = .049$). Demand reconciliation in leadership, according to Stogdill (1963), is the leader's ability to reconcile conflict and reduce disorder in the system. The positive b value related to age of police officer and the demand reconciliation leadership domain analysis ($b = .006$) indicated that the older the police officer was the more they preferred leaders who have strong tendencies toward demand reconciliation.

The current study discovered a difference in the attraction towards the leadership domain of demand reconciliation among police officers of different generations. Zemke et al. (1999) found that differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs of the several

generational cohorts are believed to influence how each generational cohort views leadership, which then manifests itself in the use of different preferred leadership styles. According to Kennedy (1998) one of the possible conflicts among generations in the workplace lies in the area of management and leadership. Gursoy (2008) also argued that since employees from the same generation are likely to share similar norms, it is likely that their values and their attitudes towards leadership and workplace culture are influenced by the generation they belong to.

A leader who has strength in demand reconciliation is someone who can reduce chaos, create unity and take control of situations easily, which are important skills and qualities to have in law enforcement. This type of leader could be akin to a transformational leader, which Bass (1985a) identified as a leader as one who is a model of integrity and fairness, who sets clear goals and has expectations. Avolio and Bass (2004) found that transformational leaders utilize proactive and innovative approaches to make effective changes within an organization. Delgua and Souza (1991) opined that the transformational leader may appeal to police officers because they are perceived to be more approachable, less militaristic in manner, and more likely to be sensitive to subordinate rational influencing attempts. Swid (2014) argued that transformational leadership predicts police commitment. Swid further contended that the strength of transformational leadership-commitment correlation is more robust than the effects of the other styles of leadership on officer commitment.

The results of this study point to the notion that older police officers may prefer transformational leaders who utilize or have stronger tendencies towards creating unity and reducing disorder, which may indicate strong values of communication and

transparency. Zemke  et al. (1999) found that Baby Boomers prefer a collegial and consensual leadership style in which communication is emphasized along with sharing responsibility. Baby Boomers, according to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) are often viewed as consensus seekers who are competitive micromanagers. This may reinforce the results of the current study, which revealed older generations desire leaders who can bring harmony to situations and will reduce chaos in the Baby Boomer's competitive world.

While older generations such as Baby Boomers display loyalty to leaders who can bring coordination to the workplace and resolve disorder, younger generations may be the ones who cause chaos and disruption in the workplace. Millennials, according to Wieck (2008) often lack the life skills such as self-reliance, sharing with others, and conflict resolution that are all essential in the workplace. These younger generations such as Generation Xer's and Millennials are known to be motivated by flexible working environments, according to Rampton (2017). Shaikh (2010) found that Millennials desire flexible work arrangements, telecommuting, meaningful relationships with clients and peers, and flatter organizational structures.

Arsenault (2003) found Millennials are known to question everything and will not follow someone or their ideas simply because they are told to do so. Generation X according to Rampton (2017) can be motivated by flexible schedules, recognition from bosses, and bonuses. A Gen-X or Millennial employee wants a leader who injects as much flexibility as possible into the work process and both generations want balance and perspective in the workplace according to Wieck.

The other leadership domains used in the study, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance and freedom, consideration, production emphasis, and integration were not found to have statistical significance when analyzed with the age of police officer. These results indicate that police officers of all ages and generations value leaders who are persuasive in their arguments and have strong convictions, clearly defines roles and lets followers know what is expected, allows followers freedom in decision making, is considerate of followers and their well-being, appropriately demands productive output from followers, and maintains a closely-knit organization and resolves conflict between members. This is not to say that police officers do not have preferences of these domains, but one limitation of the survey was that it can be administered several ways including self-reported and reporting of a specific leaders' behavior.

Research Question 2

Research question two examined the relationship between the age of police officers and their attitudes of trust in current leadership in the workplace, controlling for gender and race. As discussed in the findings of research question two, the researcher discovered a statistically significant relationship between the age of police officer and trust in leadership, controlling for race and gender ($p = .037$). The positive b value ($b = .014$) related to age indicates that the older the police officer, the more trust they have in leadership. This result shows that older and possibly more experienced officers have trust in leadership while younger officers may be skeptical of leaders as they may have just joined the organization. Leaders in police departments may have to adjust their leadership strategies in order to gain the trust of newly hired police officers faster which in turn may improve the police department as a whole.

The researcher analyzed several individual survey questions with the age of police officer, controlling for gender and race. The first analysis was for "my needs and desires are very important to top management." The researcher found statistical significance between this question and age of police officer, $F(1,118) = 6.12$, $p = .015$, $\omega^2 = .052$, $b = 9.34$. The positive $b$ value of this analysis indicates that older police officers feel their needs and desires are more important to top management than younger police officer. Another question the researcher analyzed individually was "top managements actions and behaviors are not very consistent." The results of this question did not indicate statistical significance with age of police officer, $F(1,118)$, $= .692$, $p = .407$, $\omega^2 = .006$, $b = -.011$. However, the negative $b$ value indicates that younger police officers view top managements actions as inconsistent more frequently than older police officers. The third question analyzed individually was "I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on top management." This question was found to be statistically significant when analyzed with the age of police officer, $F(1,118) = 4.29$, $p = .041$, $\omega^2 = .037$, $b = -.023$. The negative b value of this result demonstrates a lack of trust of top management by younger police officers.

The results of the current study and research question bore out research by Zemke et al. (1999) that younger generations have a different level of trust in leadership than older generations. Piper (2011) found that Millennial employees rebuke supervisors who come to them with a "because I told you so" attitude and desire an explanation for why things need to be done a certain way. Baby Boomers on the other hand according to Crampton and Hodge (2007) believed that work was a priority and through loyalty to management and paying one's dues came reward and sonority. Baby Boomers, according

to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) are viewed as competitive harmony seekers, have a moderate level of disrespect for authority and approach work with a do whatever it takes to get the job done attitude.

As trust in the workplace pertains to police officers, lack of trust has been a cause of serious internal and external conflict in policing for decades according to Trautman (2015), and most police leadership shows indifference to it. Trautman argues that enhancing trust means becoming transparent which costs a police department nothing and will improve the quality of life for every employee. Trautman suggests several tips for police leaders to generate a greater trusting relationship within their organization, including generating a strong sense of mission or purpose and developing informal leaders.

Police leaders who can find a way to give the younger generations of police officers such as Millennials a greater sense of mission and purpose in the organization may earn their trust because according to Zemke et al. (1999) Millennials expect their leader to bring people together for a common purpose. Millennials according to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007) like to work with bosses with whom they can relate and who value employee input. By creating informal leaders in the police organization, top management is showing the younger generation of police officers that they care about their input and want them involved in the organization on a higher level which leads to development of trust. No matter what generation the employee belongs to, all ages were found to value honesty and truth as a leadership value according to Arsenault (2003) who discovered that generational preferences towards leadership all ranked honesty as the

most important characteristic of a leader. This study also found that all generations admire leaders that tell the truth and do not mislead them.

Research Question 3

Research question three examined, what is the relationship between police officer organizational commitment and intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction controlling for police officer age, gender and race? As discussed in the findings of research question three, the researcher discovered statistical significance in the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment when controlling for age, gender, and race. The three types of job satisfaction, intrinsic, extrinsic and general were all found to have statistical significance ($p = .000$ for each respectively). Each type of job satisfaction resulted in a positive $b$ value which indicates that the greater the job satisfaction the more organizational commitment each police officer had with their agency.

When the researcher analyzed the relationship between age of police officer and organizational commitment the researcher did not find statistical significance, however, the positive $b$ value ($b = 9.02$) indicates that older police officers had greater organizational commitment than younger police officers. This is consistent with research conducted by Metcalfe & Dick (2000) that found that organizational commitment shows a slight increase with job tenure. Metcalfe and Dick reported that the lower levels of organizational commitment by younger police officers may indicate that management is weak in encouraging teamwork, supporting personal development, providing feedback as well as in the areas of communication and listening skills. Metcalfe and Dick opined that

problems with openness and honesty between ranks can create a defensive work setting which could lead to lower organizational commitment by younger police officers.

The researcher then analyzed the relationship between the age of police officer and different categories of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, and general) and did not find a statistically significant relationship. When age of police officer was analyzed with intrinsic job satisfaction the researcher found the *b* value was negative ($b$ = -.006) which indicates that younger police officers have greater intrinsic job satisfaction. Age of police officer was analyzed with extrinsic job satisfaction and the *b* value was positive ($b$ = .003), indicating that older police officers have higher levels of extrinsic job satisfaction. When age of police officer was analyzed with general job satisfaction the *b* value was negative ($b$ = -.003) indicating that younger police officers reported greater general job satisfaction.

In order to gain true, long-term employee commitment, employees must have positive attitudes about their peers, feel that the organization has met their expectations of it, rely on the organization to carry out its commitments to the employees, and also feel that they are of importance to the organization (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Paying attention to organizational commitment in a police department is of great importance a Jaramillo et al. (2005) found that boosting officers' workplace organizational commitment is an effective means to deter diffused work stress and turnover intentions.

The results of this study revealed that older police officers reported greater organizational commitment than younger police officers. This result may correlate with the results of research question two of this study, which indicated that older police officers had more trust in management than younger police officers. Having more trust in

management may lead to greater organizational commitment. Older police officers reported greater extrinsic job satisfaction, which entails steady employment, amount of pay for the job being done, and getting along with co-workers. These results are reflective of generational differences as older generations of employees are motivated by job title, steady employment and monetary rewards according to Rampton (2017).

Shim et al. (2015) found that a general consensus of research on leadership and organizational commitment showed that officers' level of commitment to their organization was significantly affected by their social relations with supervisors, which supported the importance of leadership or organizational atmosphere for police human resource research in the future. Shim et al. found the link between transformational leadership and organizational commitment was fully mediated by group culture, and officers' perceptions of transformational leaders were linked to the presence of group, developmental, and rational cultures. The type of leader a police officer works for may also have an impact on their organizational commitment, Swid (2014) argued that transformational leadership significantly predicts police commitment.

Younger police officers reported higher levels of intrinsic job satisfaction than their older peers. The qualities of intrinsic job satisfaction such as working alone, personal advancement, freedom to use judgment, accomplishment, and praise are all characteristic of Generation X and Millennial generational cohort members. Rampton (2017) said members of the Generation X cohort prefer to work independently and with minimal supervision. Millennials are often motivated by skills training, mentoring, and feedback. Street cops are typically made up of younger officers and management personnel are traditionally older and more experienced officers. The street cop culture

according to Reuss-Ianni (1983) is likely to be more flexible in contrast to the management cop culture which tends to be based on formal control. This relates to the results of the current study which showed younger officers have greater job satisfaction when they have freedom to use their judgment and are able to work alone. This finding makes sense for police officers because police work as the researcher is personally familiar with, consists typically of one-officer patrol units and an extremely independent work environment. Officers who are able to be proactive, think outside of the box, and work alone are successful in police work.

Millennial police officers in this study also reported greater intrinsic satisfaction when they receive praise from management. Millennials, according to Ferri-Reed (2010) are used to receiving praise and may become defensive when supervisors offer corrective feedback. Managers of Millennial employees should be cautious to balance corrective feedback with praise, reinforce their value to the organization, and involve them directly in problem solving. Hall (2016) further discovered that Millennials commonly expressed a desire for positive feedback as well as praise for a job well done from their supervisor.

Open-Ended Question 1

Open-ended question one asked: How can law enforcement management better learn and understand the needs and workplace preferences of the rank and file police officers? From the responses provided in this survey the researcher learned that a large number of officers reported they wanted their supervisors to listen to input and suggestions in order to make the workplace better. Officers also found it would be helpful for management to send out surveys or questionnaires to officers asking for feedback. One anonymous respondent wrote "surveys probably work best. But, don't be afraid of

what the answers reveal. And don't be afraid to act on them to improve things, either at the personal or organizational level." Another respondent emphasized the importance of listening by stating "listening, listening, listening to officers. As administrators we need to devote time to communicate with officers. If we took the time to actively listen we could solve many issues affecting most police organizations."

Some officers felt that having meetings between management and officers would be a good way for management to learn what the officers think and work together. For example, one anonymous response to this question was "remember where they (management) came from. Take some time to meet with the rank and file to understand concerns and issues, instead of relying on middle management or union representative to bring the issue to the forefront." These responses are supported by research conducted by Metcalfe and Dick (2000), which found that job commitment of police officers was enhanced when police officers are involved in decision making, feel supported by superiors, and receive adequate feedback. Management effectiveness in police work depends on transparency in the communication processes and practices used by supervisors to inform, clarify and provide feedback to subordinates as well as receive feedback.

Open-Ended Question 2

Open-ended question two asked: If you were a supervisor in your law enforcement agency what would you do to improve the motivation, morale, and job satisfaction of the rank and file police officers? The generally reported responses to open-ended question two indicate that police officers desire more praise and quite simply a thank you from their supervisors and management for a job well done. One anonymous

respondent wrote "create an environment that promotes good work ethic and praises those for the work they have done to contribute to team efforts." This feedback relates to the above research by Metcalfe and Dick (2000) who reported that the lower levels of organizational commitment by younger police officers may indicate that management is weak in encouraging teamwork, supporting personal development, providing feedback as well as in the areas of communication and listening skills.

Corresponding with open-ended question one police officers reported that having their supervisor listen to them and allow them to provide input and feedback would improve the motivation, morale, and job satisfaction of the rank and file. Officers also look for supervisors who will encourage them and spark motivation in them to do better each and every day. One example from an anonymous respondent was "let officers find what interests them and encourage them to pursue those interests. Engage officers daily in roll calls and have them leave roll call in a positive mindset. Empowered and engaged employees hit the streets with a positive attitude, have positive citizen contacts and promote a positive message about the agency."

Finally, officers respect leaders who care about them and leaders who lead by example, not from behind a desk. "Try to touch base with them daily to show them you care personally." "Lead from the front, and not to expect someone to do something that I wouldn't do." "Supervisors should always lead by example." "Lead by example. Always. In everything you do. Personal. Professional."

## Implications and Recommendations

Overall the current study points to three significant implications for leaders in local law enforcement. In this section the researcher will explain the impact that the

results of this study may have on law enforcement agencies and their efforts to lead, recruit, retain, and motivate police officers of different generations.

Implication One

Police officers of all ages and generations seem to agree on some things they want in leadership such as a persuasive leader who has strong convictions, a leader who lets their followers know what is expected, allows followers room to take initiative and make decisions freely, cares about the well-being of their followers, appropriately motivates followers to produce results, and maintains a closely-knit organization taking care to resolve internal conflicts.

What police officers of different generations may disagree on in what they want out of leadership is in the leadership domain of demand reconciliation. The results of the study revealed that older officers may desire a leader who has stronger tendencies towards setting rules, creating unity, and reducing disorder. Older officers who have been employed as police officers for many years may value this type of leader because through their experience they have seen how difficult it is to supervise a police department. They may believe that leaders who possess the qualities of demand reconciliation are worthy of respect. Older officers were found to have more trust in leadership overall, which may also lead to a preference for demand reconciliation as older police officers trust leaders to make tough decisions while younger officers may not.

Younger police officers reported themselves to be less trusting of management and therefore are known to question decisions made by supervisors. These officers may feel as though some of the rules put in place do not have a purpose and therefore they do not think they need to abide by them. Younger generations of police officers may be

comfortable with chaos in the department or on the street when they are working as they are known to be more flexible than the older generations of police officers.

Based on these results, older generations of police officers and their preference towards leaders with strong demand reconciliation may prefer a transformational leadership style. Transformational leadership has been linked to strong organizational commitment, which the older police officers in my study reported having as well. Overall management personnel of law enforcement agencies should train to be transformational leaders who are approachable, less militaristic in manner, yet have high integrity and standards. Transformational leaders are proactive in making effective organizational change and challenge their members by setting clear goals and expectations. Research has shown that transformational leadership over other types of leadership significantly predicts police officer organizational commitment and therefore it is the recommended leadership style. Younger generations of police officers may respond better to transformational leaders, which can lead to greater organizational commitment and potentially result in lower turnover rates in the police agency.

Implication Two

Secondly, this study definitively pointed to an issue with trust in younger police officers pertaining to leaders. This leads to the question of how management can build a stronger rapport and a higher level of trust with younger officers. In order to create trust with younger police officers in the organization, police management should be transparent with them. Police officers like to know what is going on in the organization and if management is reluctant to share information it may lead to lack of trust and rumors being spread. This could be accomplished by inviting patrol officers to the

monthly management meeting or by sharing the notes of the staff meet with employees via email. Younger generations often ask questions of supervisors and if supervisors express a willingness to speak with subordinates without an "I told you so attitude" may lead to a more trusting relationship.

Another way management could improve trust in the agency is through the development of informal leaders. Younger officers are typically those on patrol and older police officers are in supervisory or administrative roles. Some police officers may never be promoted or serve in a role outside of a patrol function. Although newer to the agency younger officers still want to be involved and feel as though they play a role aside from working their beat. Millennial officers want to have tasks and feel accomplished. If management were to assign tasks and goals to younger officers, thereby making them informal leaders it will help younger officers attain a sense of purpose for themselves making them more fulfilled throughout their careers.

Younger police officers also want to feel as though they have a voice in the organization and that management cares about their ideas and input. As evidenced by the responses to my open-ended questions, officers overwhelmingly reported they wanted management to listen to them. By management asking for officer input whether through surveys or meetings they show they care about officer's commitment to the organization and show them that their voice is important which will lead to a greater trusting relationship between officer and management.

Finally, management can create a better rapport and trust level with patrol officers by simply thanking them and giving them praise for a job well-done. Officers have a difficult job to do each day and never know what dangers they may face. Management

who prioritizes gratitude and reward will create a better organization and lead to police officers having respect for them. It does not cost a police department much to thank and praise officers, but it will go a long way for management to show they have respect for patrol officers and the job they do. In turn this may lead to officers having more job satisfaction, greater levels of trust and less feeling of wanting to leave their current organization for another because they feel valued.

Implication Three

Noticeably, research throughout the years has shown that employees with greater job satisfaction have higher levels of organizational commitment. This study also found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. More specifically this study found that older police officers have greater organizational commitment than younger police officers. This could be due to a number of reasons and possibly related to the previous research question regarding trust in management. Older officers reported higher levels of trust in management and also were found to have greater organizational commitment. Younger officers had less trust in management and less organizational commitment.

Older officers may feel as though they are settled into a police department and feel that since they have been employed there for many years, now possibly married with children they do not have a choice to switch police departments like younger officers may. Younger officers may not have any ties and if they sense the police department is not right for them for any reason they may decide to switch police departments or abandon the idea of being a police officer altogether. Management should prioritize organizational commitment and try to get a feel for how committed officers are to the

organization. Organizational commitment is directly related to the officer's social relations with supervisors and therefore it is important that first-line supervisors are being transformational in their role and striving to provide a good work environment for officers of all ages. Turnover rates in a department may be dependent on organizational commitment.

In regard to job satisfaction, younger police officers reported greater general and intrinsic job satisfaction. This indicates that younger police officers are satisfied with themselves and generally overall in their jobs but may not be satisfied with their pay and steady employment related to extrinsic satisfaction. Police departments seeking to remain competitive amongst other similar agencies should ensure their starting pay and step raises are in line with the community they serve and the quality of officers they want to attract. Overall, good organizational commitment and high levels of job satisfaction amongst police officers is a difficult task for management to attain but it can and should be done if they want to have a police force officers not only want to work for but achieve high standards for. Griffith (2019) said police morale is becoming a nationwide crisis, especially in big cities. This crisis has the potential of leaving police agencies with extreme shortages of officers if no action is taken.

The current study discovered many similarities and a few differences in the attitudes of police officers of different generations towards leadership preferences, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and trust in leadership. Future studies could examine the workplace motivation of different generations of police officers and the impact of their work-life balance on job performance to shed additional light on how generations of police officers can learn to work together better to serve their

communities. The job of a police officer is very complex, challenging, and stressful at times. In order to have a quality law enforcement organization that is rooted in service to the community and also service to its' officers, it is important for law enforcement leaders to recognize how all facets of a police officer come together to make an organization.

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Appendix A

Permission to Use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

**From:** Fisher Leadership Initiative <leadership@osu.edu>

**Sent:** Friday, May 4, 2018 8:19 PM

**To:** Abigail Lauer <ahlauer@olivet.edu>

**Subject:** Re: Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

Hi Abigail,

If you are still interested in a copy of the LBDQ Form XII and Manual, please see attached.

For our records, please send us information about the intended use of the instrument, expected

outcomes, and a list of any collaborators.

Thank you,

Sarah

**Sarah Mangia, M.A.**

Senior Director, Fisher Leadership Initiative

Max M. Fisher College of Business

300 Fisher Hall, 2100 Neil Ave., Columbus, OH 4321092-7029 Office

mangia.15@osu.edu fisher.osu.edu/leadership

**From:** Abigail Lauer <ahlauer@olivet.edu>

**Date:** Friday, April 20, 2018 at 10:47 AM

**To:** Sarah <leadership@osu.edu>

**Subject:** Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

Hello,

I am a doctoral student at Olivet Nazarene University. I am seeking permission to use

the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire in my upcoming dissertation project. I

would also like to obtain a copy of the manual.

Thank you,

Abigail Lauer

Appendix B

Permission to Use the Trust in Management Instrument

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TERMS AND CONDITIONS

Jan 29, 2020

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Appendix C

Permission to Use the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

On Sep 25, 2019, at 10:18 PM, Paul Boulian <pboulian@compuserve.com> wrote:

Hi Abigail,

As I was the principal investigator of this study, I am happy to let you use the materials.  Please give credit in your footnotes.
I would like to see it as I might be able to recommend some other surveys that could fit your intentions.

Paul

**From:** Abigail Lauer [mailto:ahlauer@olivet.edu]
**Sent:** Wednesday, September 25, 2019 4:59 PM
**To:** Paul Boulian
**Subject:** Re: Organization Commitment Questionnaire

Dr. Boulian,

Thank you for responding so quickly! I found the questionnaire online as part of another study during my research and thought it to be perfect for what I was looking to study. I will e-mail a copy of it to you. I appreciate you allowing me to use it. I was attempting to contact Dr. Porter regarding the permission to use but learned he passed away in 2015.

Thank you again,

Abigail Lauer

Appendix D

Permission to Use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

## (MSQ) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

VPR no longer sells the MSQ questionnaires. All forms are available under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License.  This license allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent, provided that you acknowledge Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, as the source of the material in your reproduced materials (printed or electronic). This license does not allow commercial use or reproduction for sale. The MSQ may be used without cost, however, for employee surveys provided that the survey is implemented within an organization and that no charges are made for its use.

*VPR and the University of Minnesota do not offer scoring for the MSQ and cannot answer questions about its administration or scoring.*  Directions for scoring the MSQ are in its manual.