LEADERSHIP PRACTICES THAT PROMOTE THE DELIVERY OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION WITH POLICE SERVICES IN A DIVERSE, MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT: A CASE STUDY THROUGH THE PERSPECTIVE OF DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

by

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ABSTRACT

A qualitative case study with the Yonkers (New York) Police Department utilized semi-structured interviews and a review of relevant documents and media. Yonkers is one of the most diverse cities in the state and the region, with 31% of residents foreign-born, 46% of households speaking a foreign language, and a school district comprised of students from 100 different cultures and nationalities. Theoretical thematic analysis identified interactions between leaders, followers, and situation that contributed to delivering customer satisfaction and procedural justice. Themes determined through data analysis are: (a) A positive tone and supportive environment from police and city leaders promotes the delivery of customer satisfaction by police officers, (b) Peer officer interaction is by far the strongest influence in promoting the delivery of customer satisfaction by police officers, (c) Police and city leaders are conduits for gathering information from customers and disseminating it to the police officers who deliver service to the customers, (d) A synthesis of departmental activities, policies, and tools (technology) promotes the delivery of customer satisfaction by police officers and (e) A variety of departmental performance measures ensure (or promote) the delivery of customer satisfaction by police officers.

In addition to identifying interactions within the leader-follower-situation framework, the study led to the creation of a revised model of distributed leadership, which more accurately represents the structure of police agencies. While the study is limited by a relatively small sample size, it demonstrates the viability of the distributed leadership model in understanding how leadership practices evolve within police agencies. The distributed leadership framework provides police leaders with a new way of looking at departmental dynamics, and allows them to

better understand how and why police officers perform in accomplishing department goals and objectives, so that productive interactions can be fostered, expanded upon, and rewarded.

Keywords: distributed leadership, leadership practice, situation, interactions, peer influence, customer satisfaction, procedural justice, case study, theoretical thematic analysis

DEDICATION

This paper is dedicated to:

(1) First, my wife, Michele, who has been with me throughout my work on a second Master's degree as well as my PhD. She has endured my long hours of schoolwork, as well as the periodic loss of both the kitchen table and dining room table to my books and papers. Through it all, she has remained supportive and encouraging.

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'And would you recommend this police force to any of your accomplices?'

Credit: Matthew Pritchett
The Daily Telegraph, London
2004

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Governments provide public services to their residents, and must be accountable for the quality of those services. In many countries, customer satisfaction is considered a main criterion for assessing state-run organizations (Ziaee Azimi & Saidi-Mehrabad, 2016). Public services must make concerted and strenuous efforts to meet the needs of their citizens, with increasing pressure placed on public managers to be more accountable to their constituents (Badri et al., 2015). Measuring service performance is an essential part of management concepts, which include ways to measure an enterprise's achievements (Min Chen et al., 2014). While management can be defined in many different ways, a recurring concept is the achievement of results or goals (Kaehler & Grundei, 2019), in this case, customer satisfaction.

Research Gap—Need for the Study

A great deal of extant literature details what causes police customers (both voluntary and involuntary) to be satisfied or dissatisfied with the services police deliver. The bulk of this information comes from survey research conducted by both academics and practitioners. However, the literature does not discuss what promotes police to deliver the type of service that satisfies their customers—that is, what promotes police to deliver a certain type of service that meets or fails to meet customers' expectations. Put another way, police leaders lack information on what their agency's employees do in encounters with customers to satisfy or dissatisfy customers, or what promotes or motivates the behavior of officers to satisfy customers.

Researchers also have not given as much attention to factors related to creating a professional, democratic, and fair police force (Rosenbaum et al., 2015), such as embodying procedural justice and police legitimacy, as they have focused on analyzing other police initiatives, such as crime control. This paper details how procedural justice is a fundamental

precursor to police legitimacy and ultimately customer satisfaction, though Sun et al. (2018) noted that research on the factors that encourage or cause police officers to act in a procedurally just way is relatively scarce. Without information on what promotes officers to act in a way that delivers customer satisfaction and procedural justice, police agencies cannot correct or change practices that generate customer dissatisfaction, or foster, exploit, and expand practices that generate customer satisfaction.

Background

Of all the public services, policing may be the most critical in terms of accountability and a need to satisfy the customer. Police officers are tasked with an often-herculean mission. Criminologist and former Chicago police superintendent O.W. Wilson (1963) described the dilemma of the police in preserving the individual liberty of law-abiding citizens, while at the same time protecting the law-abiding citizen against serious criminals and societal malefactors. In more modern thinking, this dilemma leads to an awkward realization that the law-abiding citizen and malefactors both represent customers of the police. Scholars have also described the police as having an impossible mandate, as they are unable to satisfy everyone (Chenane Nkogo, 2021).

Police Customers

Some definitions of police customers are quite broad and non-specific, such as the general community (Baker & Hyde, 2011), local community (Bland, 1997), citizens (Jamaica Cabinet Office, 2003; Madan & Nalla, 2015; Witte, 2004), taxpayers (Hulpus et al., 2015; Witte, 2004), or the public (IntelliPulse, 2013). One definition considers that "*all* [emphasis added] the people and individuals are perceived as customers" (Ziaee Azimi & Saidi-Mehrabad, 2016, p. 1471) of government services. But measuring service performance must take into account the

actual experiences of the citizens who are receiving the services. Simply being a resident is not sufficient for gauging satisfaction with the service delivered by the police, as an average person having no direct contact with law enforcement has no knowledge about the quality of police services (McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015).

Actual customers of police (i.e., those who have direct contact with law enforcement) include both voluntary customers and coercive customers (Baker & Hyde, 2011), through citizen-initiated contact and police-initiated contact (Dai & Jiang, 2016). The clients (customers) of the police include persons who request assistance from them, along with those who are involuntarily subjected to police authority (Maguire & Johnson, 2010; Worden & McLean, 2017). An example of the former is a person who voluntarily calls the police to file a crime report, while an example of the latter would be a person detained on a traffic stop (McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015).

Satisfaction of voluntary customers is important because one study of three major metropolitan police departments found that officers spent over 40% of their time responding to noncriminal calls (including medical assists), and an average of 26% of their time dealing with property crime or other non-violent crime (Asher & Horwitz, 2020). In the United Kingdom, about 44% of the public contact the police each year about a range of issues, from being a victim of crime to reporting nuisance behavior (Cowan, 2004). Of over 5,400 people who reported contact or interaction with police during a 12-month period in England and Wales, the majority—72%—were voluntary customers, including those who were the victim or witness to a crime, disturbance, or anti-social behavior; provided information to the police; asked the police for information or advice; or were concerned for their safety. Only 7% were involuntary customers who had been stopped and searched or detained or arrested by the police, and 5%

declined to state the nature of their contact (BMG Research, 2018). Most of police patrol work is concerned with diverse matters that do not include law enforcement, such as searching for missing people, dealing with mentally ill persons in crisis, handling traffic accidents, and addressing similar emergencies (Bowling et al., 2016). Only a handful of calls to the police are for law enforcement issues, and the bulk of police activity falls under the umbrella of service delivery (Chenane Nkogo, 2021).

Because police have a monopoly on the legitimate governmental use of physical force or violence (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014), they must be critically attentive to satisfying their customers, particularly involuntary customers—those against whom force is likely to be used. Police, as an occupation, possess enormous amounts of power, including the ability to deprive citizens of their freedom, to search them (along with their dwelling or vehicle), seize their property, and to use force against them (McCartney & Parent, 2015). In fact, in order to perform their jobs, the police require the power to use non-negotiable force, as well as the power to intrude into privacy (Bowling et al., 2016). The police are also the most visible members of the criminal justice system (Chenane Nkogo, 2021).

Another compelling reason for police agencies to ensure satisfaction of their customers is that they are monopolies; they are providers of a service that does not have any competing providers in a particular jurisdiction. For example, if a person lives in Detroit and needs the assistance of the police, but do not like the quality provided, they have no other option. They must call the Detroit police or go without the service (Brandl, 2018).

Customer Satisfaction

The concept of satisfaction with police service is based upon the expectations of the customer. Citizens' expectations influence their perceptions of the quality of service, and

therefore their overall satisfaction (Badri et al., 2015). Quality is considered the conformance of a service or product to customer specifications or expectations (Berry et al., 1988). Satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a result of the difference between customers' expectations and the quality of the actual service they received (Ziaee Azimi & Saidi-Mehrabad, 2016).

The quality of service and resultant satisfaction should be defined by the customer, not the service provider; customers make a judgement on the quality of service received by comparing it to the service they expected (Bland, 1997). The comparison of services received versus expectations is called a gap analysis because it focuses on identifying and measuring the size and direction of gaps between customers' expectations of service and their perceptions of the actual service received (Bland, 1997).

Satisfaction can also be viewed as the culmination of a series of customer experiences—the net result of good experiences minus bad experiences—when the gap between expectations and actual experiences has been closed (Meyer & Schwager, 2007). Government agencies in Abu Dhabi recognized the importance of narrowing the gaps between citizens' expectations and the service they are provided (Badri et al., 2015). Ngobese et al. (2017) found a significant negative quality gap in five dimensions of service by the South African Police Service in Durban, South Africa, demonstrating that service received is below what is expected by customers.

Similar to a gap analysis, expectancy disconfirmation theory focuses on the customer's determination of how well the service delivered measures up to their expectations (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001). A well-documented link exists between police performance and citizen satisfaction; citizens who come into contact with police possess expectations, much like those held by private sector or product consumers (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001). Citizens possess certain

expectations regarding what will happen, or what they believe should happen, during police encounters, including involuntary encounters (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001).

Customer expectations provide a baseline for comparison, which then allows the customer to judge how well actual service performance matches their expectations as better than, worse than, or equal to what they expected (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001). Reisig and Stroshine (2001) found that an increased disparity between expectations of police performance (service) and actual service delivered inversely affects citizen satisfaction with how police handled the encounter. This finding held for both voluntary customers, such as victims of a breaking and entering, and involuntary encounters such as being stopped and issued a traffic citation (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001).

Procedural Justice and Police Legitimacy

A primary component of customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service is procedural justice. Procedural justice has to do with how police authority is exercised, and how customers experience it. The concept of procedural justice is not limited to police contacts but is also used by people to judge their interactions with authorities of many types, including supervisors at work (Worden & McLean, 2017). Procedural justice takes on a higher level of importance, though, in light of the power of the police to use force and deprive persons of their rights (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014; McCartney & Parent, 2015).

Procedural justice is linked to police legitimacy—the idea that police have a legitimate right to exercise their power over citizens. For police to be effective in performing their duties, they must have the trust and confidence of the communities they serve, a concept long recognized by police executives (Rosenbaum et al., 2015). A large body of research has demonstrated the importance of procedural justice by the police in shaping the public’s view of

their legitimacy (Skogan et al., 2015). Procedural justice aspects of police encounters, and police legitimacy, are important to the public (McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015). Procedural justice aspects of police-citizen encounters include: (a) decisions being made fairly and evenhandedly by the police, (b) citizens being treated respectfully by the police and given a chance to voice their views, and (c) officers appearing to abide by the rules that govern their behavior (Skogan et al., 2015). The United Kingdom's policing model is dependent on the consent and trust of the public. The public's trust and consent is based not solely on the ability of the police to control crime and maintain order, but—just as importantly—on how the public perceive they are treated by the police (Mynenko & Ditcham, 2022).

Procedural justice and the subsequent legitimacy and trustworthiness in the eyes of the public encourages citizens' constructive participation in the criminal justice system, including cooperating with the police during encounters, providing crime related information, and serving as jurors in trials (Dai & Jiang, 2016). Failure of the police to satisfy the public by engaging in real or perceived procedural injustice causes a failure to generate police legitimacy, which can have serious, adverse consequences for both the police and communities. The police lose their authority when they lose the consent of the public they are intended to serve (Brown, 2021). "The actions of a minority of bad police officers disproportionately affect the wider public perception of the police force and can deeply rupture the trust the public place in them" (Mynenko & Ditcham, 2022, para. 12). A feminist action group in the United Kingdom even 'withdrew' their consent from policing by the Metropolitan Police Service, encouraging the general public to also do so, claiming that "policing is unaccountable, aggressive and violent" (Sisters Uncut, 2022, para. 7).

Situations with adverse police and community consequences resulting from a lack of procedural justice and police legitimacy are not new. Brandl et al. (1994) pointed to efforts to measure and analyze citizens' attitudes towards the police as early as the "turbulent and riotous 1960s" (p. 119). From the 1990s into the first two decades of the 21st century, a number of significant incidents, especially in the United States, have reignited concerns about procedural justice and police legitimacy.

Demands for police reform are heightened when police bias towards minorities are exposed in what some consider shocking incidents, or when events may suggest that police did not have the capacity to deal with the social tensions of a multicultural society (Ben-Porat, 2008). In such extreme instances, citizens can demonstrate their dissatisfaction with poor performance of the police by protesting or rioting (Brandl, 2018). Just such results were seen in the United States, following the in-custody deaths of: (a) Michael Brown in Ferguson, Missouri in 2014; (b) Eric Garner in New York City in 2014; (c) Breonna Taylor in Lousiville, KY in March 2020; (d) George Floyd in Minneapolis, Minnesota in May 2020, and (e) Tyre Nichols in Memphis, Tennessee in January 2023 (among many others).

The death of Brown sparked protests and massive rioting in the Ferguson area, while the death of Floyd—viewed widely due to cell phone video captured by bystanders—sparked massive protests and rioting across the United States. Decades earlier, the use of force against Rodney King by Los Angeles police officers in 1991 was one of the first widely viewed incidents also videotaped by a civilian, and the situation ultimately led to massive rioting in Los Angeles. The beating of Tyre Nichols by Memphis police officers was captured by police body cameras and a surveillance camera mounted on a utility pole, with video quickly released by Memphis police in the interest of transparency. While these high-profile incidents occurred in the

United States, events happening in one jurisdiction play a growing role in the public perception of the police in other jurisdictions around the world (Cohen, 2021), due to social media, the Internet, and rapid dissemination of broadcast news. Although the Black Lives Matter movement (BLM) started in the U.S., it has shaken confidence with the police in many countries, highlighted existing issues with policing in the United Kingdom, and resonating throughout the U.K. (Mynenko & Ditcham, 2022).

In studying customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service, researchers and practitioners must understand the prominent place of procedural justice in satisfying both voluntary and involuntary customers, the link between procedural justice and police legitimacy, and the potential consequences, especially in high profile incidents. Instead of being the result of factors like crime rates, police organizations most often experience a public crisis because of interactions with the public that contribute to a loss of public trust (Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Just a single incident can have disastrous and long-lasting effects on a police agency, as well as its leadership (Field, 1990), and impact public perception of the entire police profession.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify leadership practices that promote police officers to deliver service that is satisfactory to their customers in a diverse, multicultural, and changing or evolving environment. The purpose includes identifying interactions between leaders, followers, and situations that form those practices (i.e., distributed leadership). The goal is to better understand why and how officers deliver satisfactory service, and to increase the application of procedural justice and facilitate the achievement of police legitimacy. The study has a secondary purpose of expanding the use of the distributed leadership model outside its predominant use in the field of education and applying it to the field of policing and police leadership.

Statement of the Problem

Police service is a high-profile government activity, which is concerning to both public managers and citizens (Larsen & Blair, 2009). Police officials, policy makers, and researchers are interested in evaluating and analyzing the services and performance of the police, frequently using customer satisfaction surveys, with the aim of increasing efficiency and effectiveness (Rogge & Verschelde, 2012). Police service also accounts for a large percentage of public budgets (Larsen & Blair, 2009), and owes the public fiduciary responsibility and accountability (Witte, 2004).

Within a rapidly changing society, police should continuingly seek to redefine their role in the community and their relationship with the community's residents (Rogge & Verschelde, 2012). Redefining their role is especially important for the police in diverse, multicultural societies. A number of globalization trends at the end of the 20th century and into the 21st century have changed the cultural diversity and the ethnic composition in many areas, often transforming longstanding homogeneity. Profound global shifts have altered features, expectations, and demands on a number of societal institutions, including the police (Erez et al., 2003).

Public satisfaction with the police stems, in large part, from perceptions of the use of procedural justice on the part of the officer (Rosenbaum et al., 2011), and from meeting the expectations of the public in terms of the performance of the police during police-citizen contacts. Perhaps the best way to improve public satisfaction with the police is to improve the quality of daily interaction between patrol officers and citizens (Reisig & Parks, 2002).

Significant problems may exist, though, with the relationship between the police and the communities they serve, especially minority communities. Police use of force, exercised under

the command and control model of American policing, has come under increased public attention and scrutiny (Wood et al., 2020). In the United States, since 2014, the Black Lives Matter movement (BLM) and other activist groups have protested against police actions, particularly use-of-force incidents (mainly shootings) against minorities. Activists have been advocating for a re-evaluation of the role of police in society, demanding reform, and calling for the defunding or abolition of police departments (McLaughlin, 2020). High-profile incidents have led to days of protests and civil unrest, including additional violence and destruction—even death—resulting in further erosion of the relationship between police agencies and their communities (Cunningham, 2021).

Police face ongoing problems with satisfying individual customers during encounters, as well as satisfying the public at large through procedural justice, police legitimacy, and high-profile use of force incidents. To reduce further friction between the police and community, police must actively work to satisfy their customers, both voluntary and involuntary. One way to increase the ability of the police to satisfy their customers is to identify the leadership practices that promote police to deliver satisfactory customer service. Leadership practices are created and continuously evolve over time by interactions between leaders, followers, and the situation (Spillane, 2005, 2006). Understanding leadership practices can help police organizations focus on positive interactions and practices, and avoid negative interactions and practices, to facilitate delivering satisfactory service and helping to alleviate friction and problems between police and community.

Significance of the Study—Global Significance

The significance of this study is the application of a theoretical framework new to policing—distributed leadership, predominantly used in education—to identify leadership

practices that promote police officers to deliver satisfactory customer service or cause them to deliver unsatisfactory customer service in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society. For both scholars and practitioners, the theoretical framework of the study will help to expand the use and understanding of the distributed leadership model and the concept of leadership practices. The results of the study will also help police agencies identify leadership practices that promote service delivery, so that practices resulting in dissatisfaction can be corrected, and those resulting in satisfaction can be built upon.

The study has significance to both global leadership scholarship and practice. The police exist, in one form or another, in every country, raising important questions to study about how the quality of policing can be improved and police can be made accountable to the people they serve (Bowling et al., 2016). Police and policing are relatively neglected topics in the main political and public policy literature, which is surprising based upon the impact they have on so many aspects of citizens' lives (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014). For example, although Indonesia has the fifth largest police force in the world (almost 600,000 strong), lack of scholarly research (especially qualitative research) and knowledge on policing in the country are ongoing issues (Graham Davies, 2021). Sanjurjo et al. (2021) also noted that literature on policing in Uruguay is fairly limited.

Research is emerging in the area of customer satisfaction, particularly procedural justice, including on an international or global scale, mainly based on increasingly diverse populations. Police must remain in touch with their operating environment, including evolving and diverse populations, to continue making sense of a changing world (Baker & Hyde, 2011). The changing world is part of the fluid environment in which police agencies and leaders operate, and forces to which they must adapt and evolve—including new patterns of immigration (Batts et al., 2012).

Global revolutions in communication, transport, trade, capital flows, and social mobility have meant that the majority of societies are multicultural, made up of different ethnic and cultural groups (Srinivasan & Hearn, 2001). Policing multicultural communities creates important contemporary challenges for police, and culturally diversified environments raise social and organizational issues around community relationships, problem-solving, and ensuring safety and security (Lobnikar et al., 2016), as well as significant issues in delivering customer satisfaction. To better serve the different values and needs of various groups, government bodies (including the police) must improve their ability to understand the intricate relations arising within a multicultural society (Srinivasan & Hearn, 2001).

Controversies surrounding police and policing become especially noticeable in diverse societies where trust in police differs among ethnic and religious groups (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014). Evidence shows that powers exercised by the police have differential effects for different groups, based on factors such as age, gender, economic status, and ethnicity; this holds true not only in involuntary encounters such as being stopped, searched, and arrested, but different groups are also less likely to feel properly protected by the police (Bowling et al., 2016).

Police legitimacy, which is generally a result of procedural justice, is a growing concern in diverse societies with cultures, religions, and competing national identities that challenge the existing order (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014). While a single global model or standard does not exist for customer satisfaction with policing, research is being conducted in a number of countries, as well as research involving two or more countries in a single research project. For example, Dai and Jiang (2016) analyzed common determinants of citizen satisfaction in two international samples (one in Cincinnati, Ohio [United States] and one in Queensland, Australia), and found

that a basic framework of satisfaction with police could be generalized to other international contexts.

Policing is challenged by the reality that states, regions, and localities are not comprised of homogenous populations, but a mixture of social, economic, political, and ethnic groups (Baker & Hyde, 2011). Complaints about police issues such as excessive force, unwarranted intrusions, abusive encounters, and biased enforcement that have persisted for decades are often linked to issues of racial and social inequality (Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Peach and Clare (2017) related the policing profession to the concept of global citizenship. In support of this claim, they cited concerns, such as: (a) a necessary emphasis on respect for diversity, (b) protecting the vulnerable in society, (c) a fundamental awareness of the importance of human rights, (d) protecting victims of modern slavery (human trafficking), (e) the need for police to engage and communicate effectively with all communities and cultures, and (f) the need for a high degree of emotional intelligence and social consciousness.

Peach and Clare (2017) claimed police practitioners must develop qualities associated with concepts of global citizenship, including being socially and inter-culturally aware, responsible, capable, and compassionate. Global citizenship, intercultural awareness, emotional intelligence, and social consciousness are certainly critical precepts of global leadership. As globalization becomes more commonplace, local or regional police must serve cultures which are not their own, creating global issues in policing, all the way down to the local level. Such an imperative includes being able to deliver equal services to an unequal society (Srinivasan & Hearn, 2001).

This study has significance to global leadership in addressing the identified literature gap. Research has shown a great deal about what satisfies police customers—using procedural justice

and meeting their expectations—but not what truly promotes police officers to do the things that accomplish that.

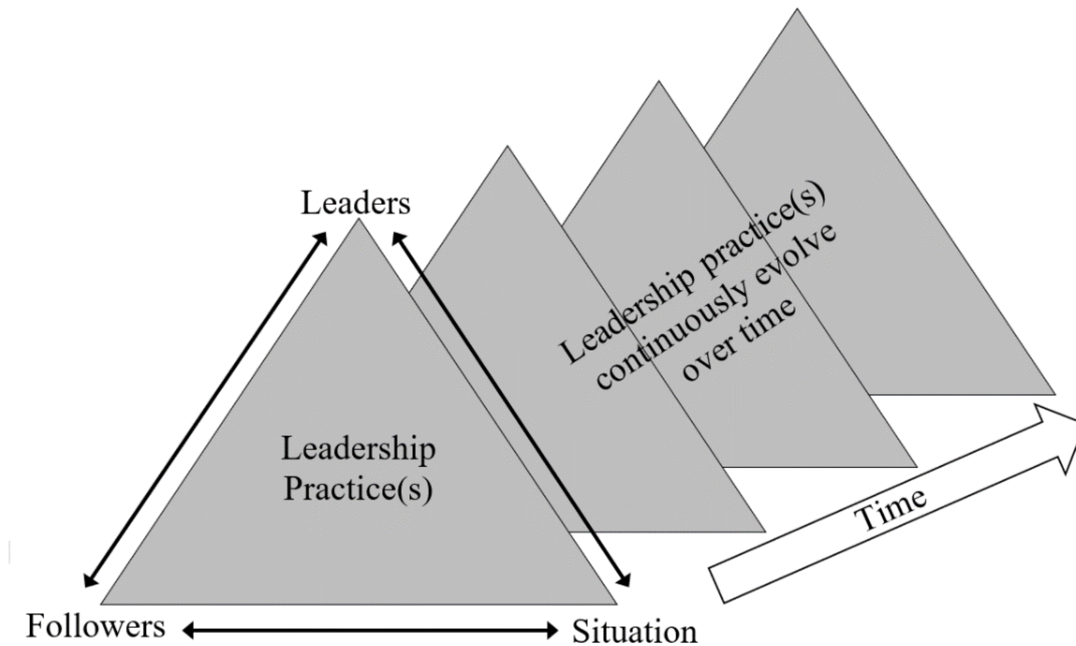
Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this research is distributed leadership, as described by Spillane (2005, 2006; Spillane et al., 2004) and shown in Figure 1. Distributed leadership is most commonly associated with educational leadership, so much of the literature is from that context. However, nothing in distributed leadership makes it exclusive to educational environments, and it appears to be a suitable model to examine practices that promote police personnel to deliver satisfactory service to their customers. Outside of the realm of education, some state and local governments have begun promoting a distributed approach to leadership (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b).

Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical framework of distributed leadership. Leadership practices center not only on what people do, but how and why they do it, and are the product of interactions between leaders, followers, and their situation (Spillane, 2005). Leadership practices continuously evolve over time through the leader-follower-situation interactions.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework



Note. © Spillane, 2006; Used with permission.

Conceptual Framework

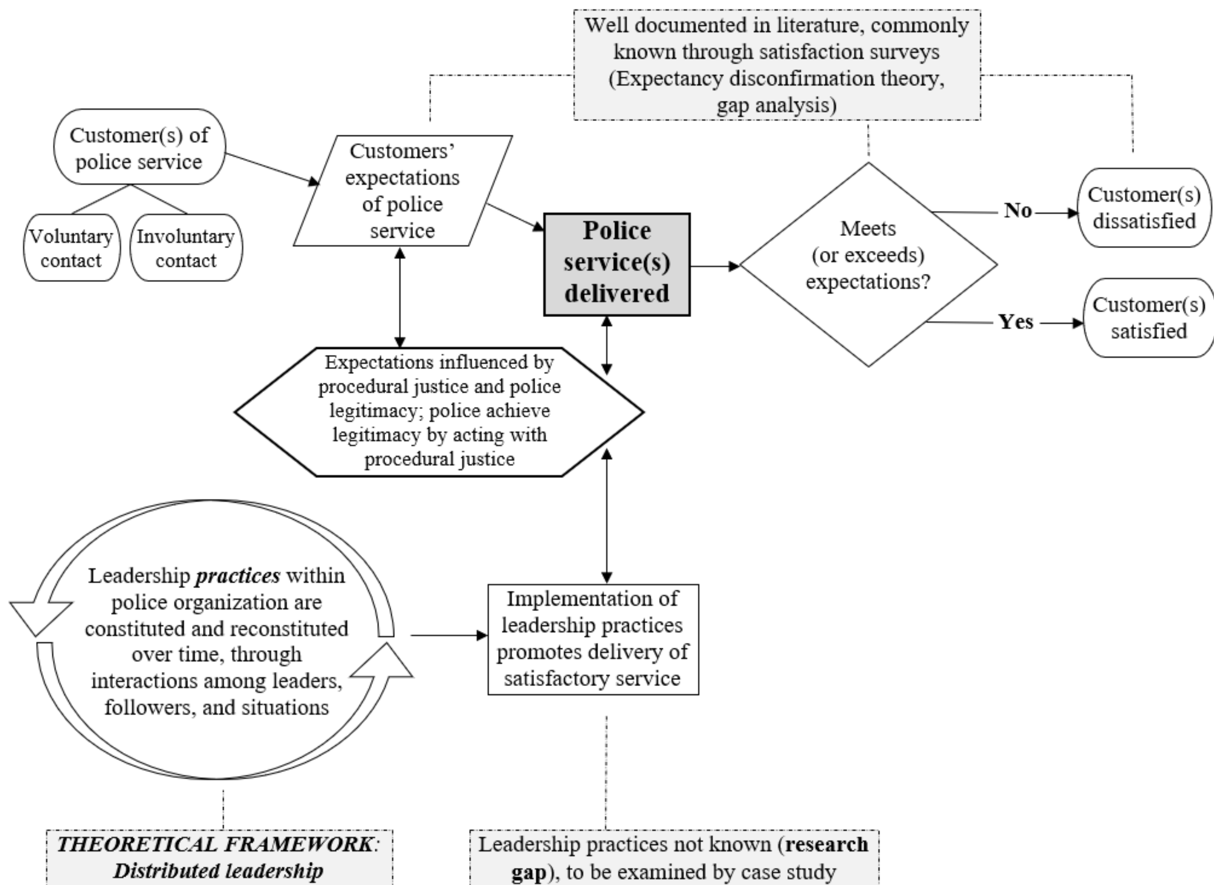
Figure 2 illustrates the conceptual framework for this research. The top left of the diagram starts with customers of police service, both voluntary and involuntary. Moving to the right, customers have expectations of how they should be treated in their encounter with the police. Customers' expectations are influenced by procedural justice and the accompanying police legitimacy. Once police service is delivered, if it meets or exceeds the customer's expectations, the customer has been satisfied. If service did not meet or exceed expectations, the customer is not satisfied.

At the lower left is the theoretical framework of distributed leadership, with leadership practices developed (and redeveloped over time) through interactions between leaders, followers, and situations. The implementation of leadership practices promotes the delivery of satisfactory

police service, dependent in great measure upon the police achieving legitimacy by acting with procedural justice in their contacts with customers. The research gap is that the particular leadership practices are not known. The practices will be examined through a case study.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework



Research Questions

Based on the theoretical and conceptual frameworks (Figure 1 and Figure 2), the primary research question is:

RQ: What identifiable leadership practices within the Yonkers Police Department promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary

customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

Sub-questions are:

SQ1: What identifiable interactions between police leaders (including intermediate leaders) and police followers in the Yonkers Police Department create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ2: What identifiable interactions between police peers (especially at the follower level) in the Yonkers Police Department create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ3: What identifiable interactions between police leaders and the situation, in the Yonkers Police Department, create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ4: What identifiable interactions between police followers and the situation, in the Yonkers Police Department, create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ5: What mechanisms are in place, in the Yonkers Police Department, to determine that these leadership practices are producing the delivery of police service that satisfies

the police customer (both voluntarily or involuntarily), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

Methodology—General Plan of the Study

New theoretical lenses call for qualitative research designs (Ospina, 2004). New theoretical approaches include viewing leadership as a meaning-making process in communities of practice (Drath, 2001; Ospina, 2004) or as distributed relationships rather than those concentrated around a single individual (Ospina, 2004; Pearse & Conger, 2002). Because the theoretical framework used here is distributed leadership—one of the new lenses referenced by Ospina (2004)—the appropriate method is qualitative, and the design will be a case study. In a qualitative study, the researcher allows the data to speak, and in a case study, data may come from semi-structured interviewing and document analysis (Ospina, 2004).

Purposeful sampling was used to select a police department serving a jurisdiction with an evolving diverse, multicultural, multinational, multi-ethnic population, based on official demographics. For this study, the Yonkers (New York, U.S.) Police Department was selected, based on the city's self-description as having a population that is one of the most diverse in the region, including 31% of residents foreign-born, 46% of households speaking a foreign language, and a school district with students from 100 different cultures and nationalities (Yonkers, NY, 2022).

Convenience sampling was used to select individual members of the department to participate, with a department liaison soliciting volunteers and arranging interview dates and times. Semi-structured interviews were conducted remotely, using the Zoom™ (Zoom Video Communications, Inc., 2021) platform. Interviews were transcribed using Rev™ automated transcription (Rev, n.d.). Transcribed data was examined through coding and thematic analysis to

identify leadership practices involved in the delivery of customer service. The case study also involved examining department documents, web pages, social media, and news media available to the public via the Internet, including those that contained information about customer satisfaction (including the results of public opinion surveys), procedural justice, and related policies and procedures.

Researcher's Perspective

I am a 'pracademic' in the field of policing and leadership. I am a retired 35-year police veteran, including service as (among others) a police officer, first line supervisor, chief, undergraduate faculty, academy instructor, and researcher/author. My experience in policing has been with a variety of populations, including as a police supervisor in a major university with a large international student population, and as chief in a small municipality with a 67% African American population. I hold graduate degrees in criminal justice/police management and educational leadership, and I also have experience working in public elementary schools.

Relative to this study, I have previously published on the topic of customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service (Witte, 2004). Like the other literature, however, that research was from the perspective of the customer, not the police. That experience piqued my interest in the topic of customer satisfaction and how police deliver it, although it may also introduce unconscious bias in collecting data, especially since data will be collected using semi-structured interviews, and analyzing findings.

I am interested in new and evolving theories of leadership, and my perspective is that interactions between leaders, followers, and situations (distributed leadership) create identifiable leadership practices which promote the delivery of customer service. My 2004 research involved thematic analysis of survey responses from city residents who had direct contact with the police

(*N* = 148), either by calling the police within the previous year, or reporting crime victimization in the city within the last five years. Manual inductive thematic analysis of the data was used for coding and theme development, resulting in the identification of four primary elements of customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service. My experience with manual coding and analysis provided the basis for data analysis in this research project, using manual coding and theme development instead of the application of software. While the number of respondents is significantly less (*N* = 7), more themes were developed.

Since my work has been in the United States, my perspective is weighted toward U.S. experiences and research. In addition, a great deal of research and literature on policing and leadership tends to be from western nations. However, I did have the opportunity to attend the Third International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) Sub-Saharan Africa Executive Policing Conference, held in Kigali, Rwanda, as a United States delegate. The focus of the conference was enhancing international police cooperation against emerging transnational crime. Attending the conference provided me with exposure not only to policing in Rwanda and other African nations, but to strategies and partnerships being used there to combat crime that transcends national boundaries. My experience with Rwanda National Police provided me with other resources that I will use in this paper. After returning, I wrote an article about the conference (Witte, 2014). I also had an international training experience in Manly, New South Wales, Australia, completing the Evolve: Leading in Complex Environments class at the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Scope of the Study

First and foremost, it is assumed that that the proposed theoretical framework, which comes primarily from the field of education, and conceptual framework are appropriate for examining the topic. It is assumed that respondents will be able to provide data of sufficient depth and clarity to allow the researcher to draw conclusions about leadership practices as the interactions between leader-follower-situation related to customer service and procedural justice in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society. The researcher assumes that the research site will have enough of a multicultural, multi-ethnic, and multinational population segments to sufficiently represent the global component of local or regional policing in a modern, evolving society. Lastly, it is assumed that the researcher will be able to extract adequate inferences from the raw data through interview transcripts and available documents or media from the case study site to answer the research questions.

The study is limited by the sample size, consisting of a small number of respondents from a single case study, and by the multicultural demographics of the population served by that jurisdiction. The study may be limited by the ability of the respondents to provide data of depth and clarity, as well as the researcher's ability to conduct a thorough and competent thematic analysis of the data. The study is further limited by whatever documents or media were available to the researcher (or which the researcher located) on the Internet. As a qualitative study, it is also limited by any conscious or unconscious biases or interpretation on the part of the researcher. The results of the current study will not be generalizable to other cases, but may provide a basis for additional research in other settings.

Definitions

As used in this study, these terms (in alphabetical order) are defined as follows:

Customer Satisfaction: Customer satisfaction occurs when the actual service delivered by the police to a customer meets or exceeds the customer's expectations (expectancy disconfirmation theory) (Reisig & Stroshine, 2001) or no gap exists between the customer's expectations and the service received (gap analysis) (Bland, 1997).

Distributed Leadership: Distributed leadership is a model in which leadership practices are created through interactions between leaders, followers, and the situation, and evolve over time (Spillane, 2005, 2006; Spillane et al., 2004).

Leadership Practice: Practice is a coordinative effort among participants who choose, through their own rules, to achieve a distinctive outcome; practice is based more on what people accomplish together than what one person thinks or does (Raelin, 2020). It can also be considered as an embodied collective set of practical accomplishments among people and their artifacts (Schatzki et al., 2001, cited in Raelin, 2022). Practice is a co-production, generated in or defined by the interactions of leaders, followers, and their situation, rather than a function of what leaders know and can do.

Police Customer: Clients or customers of the police are persons who voluntarily request assistance from the police and those who are involuntary subjected to police authority (Maquire & Johnson, 2010).

Police Followers: Based on the organizational chart (Figure 3), police followers are line level employees. However, those of any rank below the chief/commissioner can also be considered followers to the ranks above them.

Police Leaders: Officials of higher ranks in the police organization (Figure 3), with the chief or commissioner being the highest rank, down to mid-level or first line supervisors. However, due to the exercise of discretion, and the performance of duties outside of the direct

view and immediate control of supervision, line level officers may sometimes be considered in a leadership role.

Police Legitimacy: Police are viewed as legitimate when the community trusts them to do what is right, and the community consents to the exercise of police power (Beetham,1991; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). People defer to and obey official directives or commands by institutions they view as legitimate, because people respect and accept the institution's authority to make decisions, and not because of threat of sanction (Hinds & Murphy, 2007).

Procedural Justice: Procedural justice is the view of citizens that they are allowed to actively participate in discussions with police before the police make decisions, that police decision making is neutral and objective, and citizens are treated with dignity and respect (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Tyler, 2004).

Situation: The situation in the distributed leadership model includes structures, routines, tools, procedures, and artifacts, among other elements (Figure 4, Table 4).

Summary

Police have both voluntary and involuntary customers—those who call the police, and those who are stopped by the police. A great deal is known about what satisfies customers with the service police deliver: primarily meeting their expectations and acting with procedural justice. Satisfying customers through the use of procedural justice is especially crucial in diverse, multicultural, and evolving societies, however, friction often exists between police and the communities they serve. Little is known about what promotes police to act in ways that deliver satisfactory service. This project is a qualitative case study, using a theoretical framework of distributed leadership, to identify leadership practices which promote police to deliver satisfactory service. Leadership practices center not only on what people do, but how and why

they do it, and are the product of interactions between leaders, followers, and their situation (Spillane, 2005).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

To best frame the research project, the literature review will include eight components: (a) global leadership and police leadership, (b) policing multicultural societies, (c) what satisfies police customers, (d) police structure and its relationship to leaders and followers, (e) organizational justice, (f) distributed leadership, (g) professional development and procedural justice, and (h) a detailed theoretical framework.

Global Leadership and Police Leadership

According to the International Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) (n.d.), law enforcement faces universal challenges that transcend national boundaries, and identifying best practices that also transcend boundaries has become a growing need. Because crimes have no boundaries (Rwanda National Police, 2012c), the IACP espouses focusing on international police cooperation against emerging transnational crime (Witte, 2014).

Transnational cooperation is a must in the current globalization era, which includes increasing world population and increasing global poverty levels (Rwanda National Police, 2012b). Police organizations must reflect changes in society if they are to be relevant and effective (Baker, 2021). These changes are especially true in a society that is becoming more international, with an increasingly mobile population, and a growing use of technology (Glomseth, 2021a). Police leaders must be prepared for global leadership challenges.

International and multinational police organizations with wide scope exist, such as International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL) and the European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Cooperation (Europol). INTERPOL has 195 member countries and uses the sharing and access of data on crimes and criminals, along with a wide range of technical and

operational support, with a mission to help police work together to create a safer world (INTERPOL, 2022).

Europol (2022) is a law enforcement agency of the European Union (EU), with the goal of achieving a safer Europe for the benefit of all citizens (Europol, 2022). Europol supports the 27 EU member states, and also works with many non-EU countries and international organizations (Europol, 2022). Europol's transnational crime fighting priorities include illegal immigration, trafficking in human beings, artifact trafficking, harmful counterfeit goods, synthetic drugs, cocaine and heroin, money laundering, excise tax fraud, organized value-added-tax (VAT) fraud, cybercrime, firearms trafficking, and organized property crime (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2021; Witte, 2014).

Countries and organizations in Africa (as an example) are engaged in transborder crime fighting. Rwandan President Paul Kagame has called on police forces to strengthen cooperation to deal with global security challenges, noting that criminal and security threats in one country, region, or continent have far reaching consequences beyond both national and natural borders (Rwanda National Police, 2014b). The country's Minister for Internal Security echoed that transnational crimes, in addition to not being exclusive to a single nation, are modern, organized, and sophisticated (Rwanda National Police, 2014a). Experts in crime investigation and prevention note that these factors require countries to continually coordinate and update strategies (Rwanda National Police, 2012a).

Criminals take advantage of modern technology (Rwanda National Police, 2012b), porous borders (Rwanda National Police, 2012c), and the weakness of some states to counter criminal threats (Rwanda National Police, 2012b). The modern framework of laws and law enforcement must be able to cope with the reality of globalization (Rwanda National Police,

2014b). While Ghana has been a member nation of INTERPOL since 1958 (Appiahene-Gyamfi, 2021), newer organizations within Africa also facilitate police cooperation.

The African Union Mechanism for Police Cooperation (AFRIPOL) was established as a technical institution of the African Union (AU) for police cooperation among Member States (AFRIPOL, 2020). Regional groups also exist, such as Eastern Africa Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (EAPCCO). EAPCCO has crime-fighting priorities similar to Europol, along with a few more specific to Africa, including terrorism, drug trafficking, human trafficking, migrant smuggling, wildlife crime, environmental crime, maritime piracy, motor vehicle theft, and counterfeiting of pharmaceuticals and electronics (Rwanda National Police, 2012a; Witte, 2014).

Transnational crime also has significant economic ramifications. Crime and violence can lead to an outflow of capital and lack of new investment, and security is an indicator for attracting investment to a region (Witte, 2014). Rwandan President Paul Kagame said that global security challenges pose threats to the socioeconomic transformation of communities and states (Rwanda National Police, 2014b). The Secretary General of the East African Community (EAC) similarly noted that emerging security threats must be suppressed for the success and stability of the bloc's integration process (Rwanda National Police, 2012d). The EAC envisions a prosperous, competitive, and secure East Africa, with deeper economic integration and improved quality of life through increased competitiveness, value added production, trade, and investments (East African Community, 2022).

Failure to better manage the evolving global, transnational, and regional security threats, like terrorism, trafficking in persons, and trafficking in narcotics, endangers the implementation of the freedoms and rights enshrined in the EAC's Common Market Protocol (Rwanda National Police, 2012d, para. 1-4). In India, high crime rates pose a serious challenge to national growth

and may tarnish the image of the country in the international community. Due to its growing economy, India cannot afford unchecked, uncontrolled crime (Misra, 2021).

The multitude of new functions required of police agencies and police leadership require new collaborations and partnerships, including with other countries' police organizations (Baker, 2021). As Baker (2021) described the environment of new demands placed on police agencies, "The days of local police forces working largely autonomously or even of national agencies ignoring international developments are fading fast" (p. 4). Myriad examples exist of police organizations in one country partnering with agencies in other countries.

Chicago (Illinois, United States) has a long history of collaborating in different ways with agencies from around the world, including the United Kingdom, China, Israel, and Canada (Rosenbaum, 2021). In investigating and prosecuting economic crimes, Norway looks at models from England, Sweden, and Denmark (Glomseth, 2021a). In a globalized society, many commonalities exist between Nordic and European countries, so Norway looks as much at trends outside of their country as they do within their own country, and they receive regular inquiries from other countries (Glomseth, 2021a).

As in fields other than policing and law enforcement, much can be learned from other countries' law enforcement and policing solutions (Glomseth, 2021a). The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) maintains liaison officers in a number of countries in Europe, the Americas, and the Asia-Pacific region, to provide a bridge between the RCMP and foreign police forces and to assist in cross-national investigations (Griffiths, 2021).

Procedural justice and police legitimacy are concerns in countries across the globe. According to the Chief Information Officer (CIO) of the Chicago (Illinois, United States) Police Department, police across the United States are experiencing a national crisis of legitimacy

(Rosenbaum, 2021). Once considered an issue of developing nations, legitimacy is also a problem of developed countries (Baker, 2021).

In some countries, elements of procedural justice are organizationally mandated. For example, an Order of the Police Commander in Poland lists attributes that each police officer must have while performing their duties, including “kindness and impartiality in racial, national, religious, political, and worldviews or other forms of prejudice” (Baylis, 2021, p. 139). In Serbia, the Sector for Internal Control of Police exercises internal control over the work of police officers, particularly regarding the respect and protection of human rights, minority rights, and freedoms while exercising police powers and performing official tasks (Kekíc et al., 2021).

There are countries in which a lack of procedural justice and police legitimacy remain a lingering problem. Dai and Yang (2021) cited police brutality in China, including verbal aggression and abuse, excessive or unlawful physical force—some leading to in-custody deaths, and the use of torture to obtain confessions. In Brazil, racial bias in police violence is a critical issue, with Black residents more likely to suffer a violent death from police action, as well as to be incarcerated at a higher rate (Carneiro, 2021). The National Police of Nicaragua do not enjoy a high level of social legitimacy due to a prevalence of persistent human rights violations, as well as corruption (Martínez Prado, 2021). In Indonesia, where trust in police is low, police are in need of reforms to include an increase in sensitivity in interacting with the public, the introduction of procedural justice in policing, and quality treatment which includes fair decision making and reflection of social values (Graham Davies, 2021).

Across the globe, many examples exist of police agencies being attentive to customer input, expectations, and satisfaction. The Chicago (Illinois, United States) Police Department describes itself as a learning organization seeking to be more responsive to external input

(Rosenbaum, 2021). The Louisville Metro (Kentucky, United States) Police Department uses the University of Louisville to annually measure citizens' attitudes towards the police (Stickle, 2021). Annual user surveys of the police are conducted in Norway (Glomseth, 2021a). Various polls in Denmark show that the police have a high level of credibility with the public (Moeller & Kiis, 2021).

Unfortunately, some surveys do not bring good news. Surveys in Indonesia have shown low public trust in the police, mainly due to abuse of power, poor performance, and extralegal violence (Graham Davies, 2021). Norway's National Police Commissioner, Benedicte Bjørnland, sees public confidence in the police service as crucial, and the services delivered should meet citizens' needs and expectation (Glomseth, 2021b). In Serbia, public opinion has a great influence the activities of the police, and police executives are cautioned to respond in a timely manner to prevent public dissatisfaction and avoid public outcry (Kekić et al., 2021).

Policing Multicultural Societies

Populations served by police are changing across the globe. Instead of remaining static and homogenous, populations evolve to become more diverse and multicultural. In the United States, the 2020 census showed that the overall racial and ethnic diversity of the country has increased since the 2010 census (Jensen et al., 2021). While the last several censuses have shown increased racial and ethnic diversity, the 2020 census data indicated a noticeably more diverse nation than was previously expected for that census year (Frey, 2020). Increased diversity was especially true for the younger portion of the population, with more than half of the nation's population in 2019 identifying as a racial or ethnic minority. With an unanticipated decline in White population, other racial and ethnic groups generated overall growth in the country's population (Frey, 2020).

Like the United States, the United Kingdom is also becoming more diverse and multicultural. According to The Economist (“Britain, a diverse country”, 2021), detailed 2021 census results for the United Kingdom are expected to show not only larger numbers of immigrants but also extremely varied ones, with a diversified immigration population.

Canada no longer has the racial, ethnic, and cultural heterogeneity that it did in the mid 20th century; its racial, ethnic, cultural and religious makeup, especially in its largest cities, has undergone significant change (Stenning, 2003, 2004). Between 1961 and 1991, those of European extraction dropped from 97% of the population to 60%. Waves of immigrants have created major challenges for police, not just linguistic but also cultural and attitudinal. Cultural and attitudinal differences cause difficulties between and within the various racial, ethnic, cultural, and religious communities, along with the Aboriginal population, as well as between members of these communities and the police (Stenning, 2003, 2004).

Some countries have always had diverse and complex populations. Misra (2021) believed peace is the ultimate aim of any human society, and in India, the role of the police becomes especially crucial due to the “peculiar social, economic, and political circumstances and diverse populations consisting of different casts [sic], languages, religions, and creeds” (p.182). In a diverse society such as Kenya, police misconduct has often been manifested in discrimination, with differential treatment based on race, often along tribal lines, and socioeconomic status. Kenya has more than 40 tribes and subtribes, many with distinct communities, cultures, and languages (Mbuba, 2021).

Globally, police leaders must cope with cultural differences in positive ways, all of which require emotional intelligence, including: (a) respect towards different cultures, (b) willingness to learn and adapt to new cultures, (c) acknowledgement of the significance of cultural diversity,

(d) readiness to embrace initiatives and opinions regardless of the culture from which they come, and (e) and the flexibility to move about in culturally prolific environments (Pūraitė & Prokofjeva, 2019). Being able to cope with cultural differences in positive ways is crucial because the police serve two primary objectives: upholding the rule of law and safeguarding human rights (Legrand & Bronnitt, 2012), and must be able to accomplish them simultaneously. Safeguarding human rights while engaged in policing is intrinsically tied to procedural justice and police legitimacy, which are important precursors to customer satisfaction.

Legrand and Bronnit (2012) considered it paramount to refine and improve police service delivery in terms of effectiveness in upholding the rule of law and safeguarding human rights. Several deaths or beatings at the hands of police in the United States were named in Chapter 1, including Rodney King, Michael Brown, Eric Garner, Breonna Taylor, George Floyd, and Tyre Nichols. These violent incidents were questioned and criticized by members of the public as unreasonable or racially motivated, and resulted in protests and riots.

Incidents involving deaths or beatings at the hands of police are not limited to the United States. In the United Kingdom, a former project development officer for the Black Training & Enterprise Group spoke of families who have had loved ones killed by the police, in what they claim were seemingly avoidable circumstances (Blake, 2014). One such case is Mark Duggan, a Black man shot and killed in North London by police in August 2011. Duggan was shot by a member of a task force fighting gun crime in African and Caribbean neighborhoods (“Mark Duggan death”, 2015). While the undercover police officer who shot Duggan claimed he saw a gun in his hand, witnesses contend that they saw Duggan with both hands raised (Mureithi, 2021; Weizman & Najafi, 2021).

A protest two days after the Duggan shooting became confrontational, and grew into widespread social unrest, some of the largest seen in the United Kingdom in decades. What became known as The London Riots (though it spread to towns and cities across the country) resulted in five deaths and over three thousand arrests (Weizman & Najafi, 2021).
Over 200 people were injured, dozens were left homeless, and many businesses suffered, including some that went up in flames (Mureithi, 2021).

Mureithi (2021) suggested that Duggan's killing should have been the United Kingdom's George Floyd, drawing an obvious parallel to the famous case in the United States, but that it wasn't in part because of the less ubiquitous use of cell phones in 2011; under more recent conditions of social media, the government inquiry might have been significantly different. A case in Australia has also drawn parallels to the case of George Floyd (Mao, 2021). An Aboriginal man died in his prison cell after being restrained, pinned down, and sedated by guards, repeatedly yelling that he couldn't breathe (Mao, 2021), as Floyd had while being pinned to the pavement by several Minneapolis police officers. Eric Garner also repeated "I can't breathe" while being restrained by police in New York City, and 70 similar cases allegedly exist in the United States (Baker et al., 2020). The number and ratio of Aboriginal minorities dying while in custody in Australia have raised questions (Mao, 2021). In at least one case, a policeman has been charged with murder in the shooting death of an Aboriginal teenager ("Yuendumu: Policeman charged", 2019). The number and ratio of minority persons dying in police custody or following police contact in the United Kingdom has also been questioned. An unarmed Black male, Chris Kaba, was shot and killed by a Metropolitan Police officer in September 2022, and the Independent Office for Police Conduct (IOPC) opened a homicide investigation (Singh, 2022). According to INQUEST, a charity providing expertise on state-

related deaths, over 1,800 people have died in police custody or following police contact in the U.K. since 1990, and 16% of those deaths have been people of Black, Asian, and Minoritized Ethnicities (BAME) (Singh, 2022). Figures from the IOPC show that between 2020 and 2021, 10% of the people who died during or following police contact were Black people, although Black people represent only around 3% of the U.K.'s population (Singh, 2022).

Africa provides further examples of extrajudicial killings, which are the ultimate violation of procedural justice and police legitimacy. Kenya has patterns of excessive force and unlawful killings by the police, mainly in low-income neighborhoods, in total disregard of the rules for the use of force (Human Rights Watch, 2020). While it appears that police have been given a free hand to use deadly force in fighting crime, levels of crime in Kenya—particularly violent crime—remain high (Joshi et al., 2003). Then-Police Superintendent Kibunja Mwangi acknowledged that citizens complain of such serious violations by police as "police brutality, torture, assault, rape, trigger-happiness, illegitimate arrest, harassment, incivility, disregard of human rights, disregard of political freedoms, corruption, and extortion, among other things" (Joshi et al., 2003, p.34). Each of these police actions run counter to procedural justice and police legitimacy, precursors to any level of customer satisfaction.

In Nigeria, a rising level of lawlessness has been caused by extrajudicial killings, especially by the police, with many lives lost (Odunaike & Lalude, 2021). The former Police Force Order 237 allowed police wide latitude to shoot any suspect or detainee who attempted to escape or who resist arrest (Odunaike & Lalude, 2021). Such a directive negated any presumption of innocence, removing procedural justice and destroying police legitimacy (Odunaike & Lalude, 2021). However, that order was reviewed and reissued in late 2019, and the Inspector General of Police, Mohammed Abubakar Adamu, claimed the police were "ready to

tackle the menace [of extrajudicial killings by police] with a view to the safety and security of the citizenry" (Ige, 2019, para. 1). He further promised, consistent with the concepts of procedural justice and police legitimacy:

> The Nigeria Police under our watch, will not only continually emplace strategies that are potent enough to deal with the emerging trends of crime, we are determined to attain this mandate within the dictates of rule of law, uncompromising respect for human rights, and best global policing practices. In this regard, it will be recalled that I have at various fora confirmed our determination to adopt less-lethal approaches and equipment in our policing duties. [These measures are] with the intention of ensuring that the sacred lives of the citizens whom we swore to serve and protect are not endangered in the line of our duties. (Nigeria Police Force, 2019, para. 8)

Although that change to Police Force Order 237 (along with the Inspector General's promises) came in 2019, Odunaike and Lalude's (2021) article on extrajudicial killings in Nigeria was published two years later, bringing into question the Inspector General's determination or effectiveness to end extrajudicial killings.

Professional and effective police are crucial to the domestic security of a country (Odunaike & Lalude, 2021). While domestic security is necessary for individual nations, across the world professional and effective police forces must also operate in a global environment. Globalization is an inevitable and unstoppable force driving changes in crime, and reshaping the environment, including social and demographic changes, so police leaders need to be able to think and act globally (Outram et al, 2014).

Globally, police face increasing community expectations and higher levels of accountability for outcomes and performance (Outram et al., 2014), including procedural justice,

police legitimacy, and customer satisfaction with the service they deliver. Developing a culturally competent police service is important to meet the needs of a diverse community, with knowledge and sensitivity to cultural differences, but further research is needed on effective policing strategies in ethnic minority communities (Chui & Ip, 2005).

Police Customer Satisfaction

Satisfaction is meeting or fulfilling the expectations, needs, or desires of a customer (Hinds, 2009), or a customer's feelings of pleasure resulting from comparing the perceived performance of a service to his or her expectations (Kotler, 2000). While pleasure may not be the first word that comes to mind when satisfying a police customer (especially an involuntary customer), meeting customer expectations is important when police "speak of consumer satisfaction among [their] core values" (Bourne, 2016, p. 4).

Understanding what satisfies police customers is foundational to understanding what the police do to accomplish the delivery of that satisfaction. Based on the theoretical framework of distributed leadership, leadership practices, created through interactions between leaders, followers, and situations and evolving over time, promote police to accomplish the mission of delivering satisfactory customer service. Knowing what satisfies the customer allows examination of what police do to deliver that service, and the leadership practices that promote them.

A great deal of information informs practitioners and academics on what makes customers satisfied with police service, most of it gathered through surveys. Customer orientation in public services is reflected by the rise of various tools to help with the delivery of better services, including the widespread introduction of citizen surveys (Van de Walle, 2018). The most common approach to understanding and measuring customer satisfaction is the use of

general satisfaction surveys (Hulpus et al., 2015). Using surveys is important to policing, because other than citizen complaints, police organizations have very little data at their disposal to judge the quality of their performance on the streets (Rosenbaum et al., 2011) where line-level officers deliver services to voluntary and involuntary customers.

Surveys can be conducted by the agency itself (Witte, 2004), another government agency (Cheshire Constabulary, 2021), a university (Lum et al., 2016), or a third party (Enventure Research, 2021). Surveys can be administered in person (Mohammad & Azman, 2015; Witte, 2004), individually or by using focus groups (Enventure Research, 2021); by phone (Capps, 2015; Mohammad & Azman, 2015); by mail (Enventure Research, 2021; Lum et al., 2016); or (increasingly) online. A September 2021 Google™ search of the term “police customer satisfaction survey” yielded the following in the first 7 pages of results: (a) 26 links to complete surveys for various police agencies, (b) 17 links to results from surveys previously compiled by various police agencies, (c) 12 links to government publications on police customer satisfaction surveys in general, and (d) five other links such as news articles or links to social media regarding police customer satisfaction surveys. In addition, there were 21 advertisements for survey consultants or companies, four bad links, and two links to unrelated sites.

Surveys can also be administered by a combination of the above methods, including a mailed request with a link to complete the survey online (Sheridan Police, n.d.) or a mailed request to complete online or by calling a toll-free number (McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015). Survey participants can be selected: (a) at random from residents (Lum et al., 2016); (b) selected from those who have had a voluntary contact with the police, such as reporting a crime (McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015); or (c) selected from those who have had an involuntary contact with the police, such as being stopped by the police for a traffic violation (McCarthy &

Rosenbaum, 2015). In addition, some departments survey people who have been arrested (Capps, 2015).

Globally, studies on satisfaction with, confidence in, or service quality from police have been conducted in the United States (Lum et al., 2016; Witte, 2004), Jamaica (Bourne, 2016), Canada (Ben-Porat, 2008; Cao, 2014), Taiwan (Min Chen et al., 2014), Hong Kong (Li & Sun, 2015), Malaysia (Mohammad & Azman, 2015), South Africa (Mofomme & Barnes, 2004), Slovenia and Croatia (Lobnikar et al., 2016), Iran (Ziaee Azimi & Saidi-Mehrabad, 2016), Belgium (Rogge & Verschelde, 2012), and Northern Ireland (Northern Ireland Policing Board, 2016).

Some satisfaction studies focused on cultural differences or dealt specifically with populations that may be marginalized. Lobnikar et al. (2016) examined the quality of policing in two municipalities (Lendava municipality in Slovenia and Čakovec municipality in Croatia, divided by national borders) but involving different cultural groups, such as Roma, Slovenian, Hungarian, and Croatian residents. In Canada, Cao (2014) examined confidence in the police between aboriginal persons and visible minorities compared to non-aboriginal persons. In South Africa, Mofomme and Barnes (2004) investigated the level and quality of service using uniquely African constructs, measuring quality in terms of the principles of *batho pele*, and introducing the concept of *Ubuntu* to see if it could be used to enhance those principles. In the north of England, Barrett et al. (2014) examined the satisfaction of Black minority ethnic groups with police.

In surveying customers of public services, subjective assessments of satisfaction are presented as aggregate judgments of both the experienced service process (i.e., was the public servant accommodating, courteous etc.) and the service outcome (i.e., did the customer get what

they wanted, or what they felt they were entitled to) (Van de Walle, 2018). Research indicates that police tend to be judged by how much effort they appear to put into an encounter with a customer (Skogan, 2005). Research also consistently finds that people are less outcome oriented and more process oriented, as Skogan (2005) stated:

> Police are judged more by what physicians might call their "bedside manner." Factors such as how willing they are to listen to people's stories and show concern for their plight are very important, as are their politeness, helpfulness, and fairness. Information sharing is also very important; police willingness to give advice and to notify victims of progress in their case has a great effect on victim satisfaction, for example. (p. 310)

Min Chen et al. (2014) saw satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the police service as a kind of human reaction, based on expectations by citizens and how they are satisfied. Quality of service is experienced when the perception of service provided meets or exceeds the expectations of the customer (Hulpus et al., 2015). A service quality gap exists when a customer thinks the service they have received from a public service (the police) does not match what the customer expects from the police (Hulpus et al., 2015). The expectancy-disconfirmation model of satisfaction involves the customer evaluating perceived service performance against their expectations, leading to either confirmation or disconfirmation of the expectations, which then determines their satisfaction (Van de Walle, 2018).

Gap analysis is based on measuring customer expectations against perceptions of service (Bland, 1997). If a perceived service meets or exceeds expectations (positive), the customer experiences satisfaction. If the perceived service does not meet (falls short of) expectations (negative), the customer experiences dissatisfaction. Worden and McLean (2017) identified 10

categories from which customer dissatisfaction stems in the delivery of police services. Table 1 details the categories, in descending order, along with examples.

Table 1

Worden and McLean's (2017) Categories of Customer Dissatisfaction with Police Service

Categories (in descending order)	**Examples**
1. Contact outcome	a. Officer perceived not to have done enough
	b. Resolution believed not appropriate
2. Perceived disrespect	a. Perceived loss of dignity
	b. Officer viewed as belittling, rude, or failing to show respect
3. Perceived lack of concern	a. Officer did not seem to care about the problem
	b. Officer minimized the seriousness of the customer's views
4. Inability for voice to be heard	a. Customer did not think they had sufficient time to explain themselves or tell their side of the story
	b. Customer felt other parties were given too much time—resulting in officer's neutrality being questioned
5. Perceived disparity	a. In treatment or decision making
	b. Customer does not believe they were treated fairly or shown neutrality
6. Failure to provide information	a. Officer failed to explain decisions or actions
	b. Failure to provide information after the immediate incident
	c. Officer provided incorrect information
7. Failure to respond to the call	Belief (correct or incorrect) that no one ever responded to the call for service
8. Failure to respect rights	a. Use of force
	b. Failing to read an individual their rights
	c. Perceived improper searches
9. General negative image of police	Supports research that shows citizens enter an encounter with preconceived notions of the police
10. External forces	a. Customer's initial experience during contact with dispatch
	b. If arrested, subsequent treatment at the jail

Note. Content © Worden and McLean (2017). Table adapted from text in pp. 89-100.

Interestingly, regarding the initial contact with dispatch, Stafford (2014) did a qualitative study of what matters to customers when they contact a police call center. Much like the "bedside manner" described by Skogan (2005, p. 310), Stafford (2014) found that callers were mainly concerned with how they were treated, for example, if call handlers were empathetic, understanding, interested, sensitive, and polite. However, customers are greatly dissatisfied when they cannot get through on the phone, in this instance, for non-emergency calls, and do not feel they are being treated politely (Cowan, 2004). A 2004 initiative by Home Secretary David Blunkett, referred to as the *Coppers' Contract*, sought to provide dramatic improvements in the customer service delivered by police in England and Wales ("Police to step up," 2004). Service improvements included having telephone calls answered promptly and politely, and ensuring everyone contacting the police receives a good level of service, as an impression of police service as poor results from an initial contact which is disappointing ("Police to step up," 2004).

Customer satisfaction is not related strictly to serious or criminal cases. In India, many complaints and calls for help from citizens to the police are related to interpersonal disputes, nuisances, harassment, domestics, and antisocial or unwanted behavior, rather than serious criminal offenses requiring significant police investigation. Public satisfaction with the local police depends to a great degree on how these calls are handled, and leaving them unattended causes dissatisfaction (Pandey, 2012).

Police performance also depends more on the quality of handling a grievance rather than final resolution, as some complaints are not easily resolved. The quality of handling complaints includes whether the officer made sufficient effort, or at least gave the complainant a patient and fair hearing, and whether their behavior was sympathetic instead of remote or distant (Pandey, 2012). Witte (2004) found that problem resolution was only one element of customer

satisfaction, and not all problems can be resolved—not quickly, not by the officer at the initial scene, or not at all in some cases. Other elements of customer satisfaction included officer attributes, such as whether the officer was courteous, respectful, patient, and supportive, and process-related elements, such as how much effort the officer put into handling the complaint (Witte, 2004). Witte's (2004) four elements of customer satisfaction, along with examples, are detailed in Table 2.

Table 2

Witte's (2004) Elements of Customer Satisfaction (or Dissatisfaction) with Police Service

Elements	Examples
1. Officer attributes	a. Positive: polite, courteous, professional, respectful, responsive, caring, supportive, patient, honest, attentive to caller's needs, calming influence, agreed the problem was important; firm and forceful (when dealing with a suspect on a complaint)
	b. Negative: rude or disrespectful; need to be more compassionate, friendly, and understanding
2. Process-related elements	a. Customers' perception of how police performed their job or responded to the call for service
	b. Communication and follow-up, between police, complainant, clerk/dispatcher, other parties
	c. Explaining or failing to explain available options, court process, provide feedback, or ask proper questions
	d. Conducting a thorough follow-up investigation (taking fingerprints, canvassing the neighborhood, etc.)
3. Problem resolution	a. Whether or not, in the eyes of the customer, the police were able to resolve their issue
	b. Some situations may be extremely difficult to bring to a permanent or successful resolution, resulting in frustration for the customer
4. Response time	a. Relative importance has long been debated, since a small percentage of calls involve serious crimes in progress, and many are reported long after offenders are gone
	b. Prompt response is still important to callers, with a rapid response cited for satisfaction, and a slow response cited for dissatisfaction

Note. Content © Witte (2004). Table adapted from original text.

The first five points of Worden and McLean's (2017) list in Table 1 are directly related to procedural justice. Research shows that citizens' perceptions of procedural justice during interactions with the police positively affects satisfaction with police services, satisfaction with

interaction disposition, trust and confidence in the police, and (ultimately) police legitimacy (Donner et al., 2015).

Procedural justice is comprised of four key values:

1. Trustworthiness: conveying motivation to be sincerely helpful and caring, prioritizing the best interests and well-being of the community.
2. Respectful treatment: treating citizens with dignity and protecting their rights.
3. Neutrality: demonstrating freedom from bias, principled in conduct, and transparency in decision making.
4. Voice: listening to those with whom they have contact, and allowing them to express their viewpoint. (Goodman-Delahunty, 2010; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015; Skogan, 2005)

Worden and McLean (2016) specifically note that, "People are more satisfied" when they are able to explain themselves to police, believe the police make their decisions based on facts, they are treated with dignity and respect, and they trust the motives of the police (enhanced by the police explaining their actions to show they have accounted for the person's needs and concerns) (pp. 2-3).

People who call, flag down, or (voluntarily) approach the police tend to be more satisfied with what happened (and policing in general) than those who are pulled over or stopped on foot by police (Hinds, 2009; Skogan, 2005). For those stopped by police, fairness and politeness were the most important aspects of police behavior, as was carefully explaining what actions they would take (Skogan, 2005), elements of procedural justice. People's views of police performance, police use of procedural justice, and police legitimacy are more influential than police contact in shaping public satisfaction with police (Hinds, 2009).

From the standpoint of dealing with diverse communities, Ben-Porat (2008) notes that surveys, an important measure of police reforms, should be designed to reflect not only overall satisfaction, but also the perceptions of different communities (i.e., multicultural communities) and their expectations from the police. Understanding the importance of how people are treated during police encounters allows an opportunity for police to improve practices and procedures to enhance legitimacy and customer satisfaction (Hinds, 2009). The police have the capacity to improve satisfaction by adopting practices the public perceives to be fair, as well as to change practices that lead to dissatisfaction during encounters (Hinds, 2009). The use of procedural justice is a precursor to police legitimacy, which in turn helps lead to customer satisfaction. Strong positive associations have been found between perceptions of procedural justice exercised by police, police legitimacy, and the level of satisfaction with police services (Hinds & Murphy, 2007; Roberts & Herrington, 2013; Tyler, 2006).

Police Structure and its Relationship to Leaders and Followers

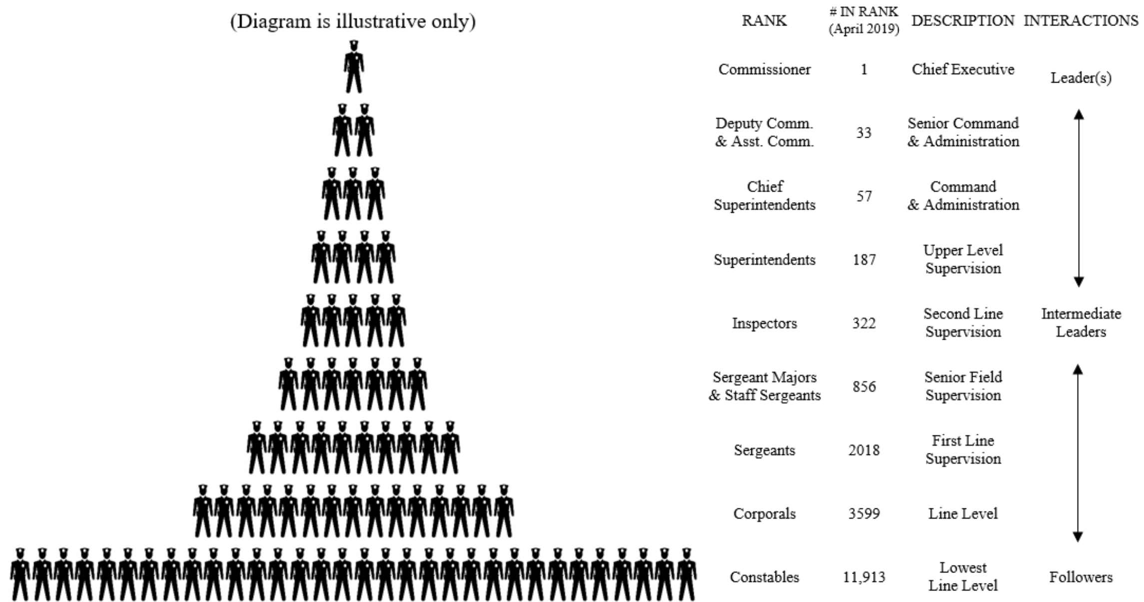
Policing is a service industry (Maguire & Johnson, 2010). Businesses who produce goods sell things, while service businesses sell performance. Performances can often be labor intensive, and the service provider is, in effect, a part of the service itself (Berry, 1986). Policing is a labor-intensive service, and since in a service company, everyone is responsible for the customer (Berry, 1986), the structure of police organizations must be examined relative to providing customer satisfaction.

In structure, police organizations are bureaucracies and quasi-military organizations, with a hierarchy of authority and chain of command (Brandl, 2018). Figure 3 illustrates the relative distribution of personnel among ranks, with the largest number of employees at the lowest level.

Employees at the lowest level also have the most frequent and most direct contact with customers, and therefore the greatest impact on customer satisfaction. Police organizations have a command-and-control orientation: supervisors give orders and subordinates carry them out (Brandl, 2018).

Figure 3

Sample Hierarchy Chart – Royal Canadian Mounted Police



Note. Ranks and numbers are from Royal Canadian Mounted Police (2020).

While the concept of command-and-control sounds straightforward, implementation is not so simple in daily operations. According to Schafer (2009), in policing, leaders experience challenges not seen in many other occupations for exerting a positive influence on personnel. One of these challenges is an element in the hierarchical structure that is unique to policing. While policies and procedures are promulgated at the top, and orders flow downward through the hierarchy, that does not necessarily mean that they will be carried out at the lowest line level of the organization.

In police work, the lowest member of the organizational hierarchy, the worker on the line, has the greatest discretionary power (Haas et al., 2015; Kingshott, 2006; Walsh, 1984; Wilson, 1978). Not only do front line personnel have the greatest discretionary power, but they deliver the bulk of police services working alone or with a peer, and not in the actual physical presence of a supervisor (Mark, 1976). So, the accomplishment of a police organization's goals and objectives ultimately depends on the willingness of line level patrol personnel to carry out those goals and objectives (Walsh, 1983).

Skogan et al. (2015) noted that "everything about policing makes officers' action on the street hard to penetrate, and police organizations have always struggled to maintain control of their field force" (p.333). In a similar vein, using an example in the field of education from distributed leadership, the process of school improvement cannot be controlled fully, since most of the knowledge required resides in the people who deliver instruction—teachers, line level employees—not in the people who manage them (Elmore, 2000; van Dartel, 2013). Leadership is not necessarily inherent in organizational positions; simply because a person holds a senior leadership position does not mean that those at the bottom of the organization will follow them, and because someone is at the lowest level of an organization does not mean that they cannot be a leader (Hallett, 2007).

Followers like teachers and police officers listen to leaders, but decide for themselves which leaders and leadership messages should be heeded and which should not without regard to leaders' official positions (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b). Remember that in comparing educational settings in distributed leadership to police settings, teachers (i.e., those who deliver instruction) are analogous to line level police officers who are the lowest level of the organizational hierarchy, the ones closest to the recipients of their services, and exercising the

greatest discretion. Both environments show the importance of recognizing the contributions of line level personnel.

Followers and followership are significant issues in examining police organizations and their delivery of service. The qualities of an effective police follower are intelligence, independent thinking, self-reliance, and dependability (Martin, 2008), qualities which are consistent with the discretion exercised by front line police personnel. The organizational climate must recognize the importance of proficient front-line work (Martin, 2008). While leaders make decisions on policy and oversee the development of plans for how an organization will achieve its mission, followers are the ones who implement these plans (Martin, 2008), and with great discretion in policing.

If leaders demean or devalue the importance of front-line workers, they will undermine the morale of those employees who determine, in large part, whether or not the organization succeeds in its mission (Martin, 2008). The importance of followers in achieving customer satisfaction cannot be overstated. The things that police officers do on the spot during police-citizen encounters (experiential factors) dominate in determining satisfaction (Skogan, 2005). In a diverse community, though, personal characteristics of residents played an important role in shaping how different groups were treated, and affected satisfaction primarily through on-scene actions by police (Skogan, 2005).

Another factor to consider with police followers is the influence of the “police culture,” a strong subculture that permeates most police agencies (McCartney & Parent, 2015). The police subculture is often blamed for negative factors, such as cynicism and an us-versus-them mentality (McCartney & Parent, 2015). However, positive factors and shared values in the

subculture build support and teamwork, such as supportiveness, perseverance, and camaraderie (McCartney & Parent, 2015). Table 3 lists some of the positive and negative attributes of the police subculture.

Table 3

Police Culture

Positive attributes (examples)	**Negative attributes** (examples)
Safety	Cynicism
Camaraderie	Close-mindedness
Empathy	Biases
Support	Prejudice
Caring	Non-scientific tactics
Teamwork	Overly conservative
Loyalty	Loyalty
Sacrifice	Alienated
	Suspicion
	Authoritarianism

Note. © McCartney and Parent (2015). Used under a CC BY 4.0 License. Download for free from the B.C. Open Textbook Collection.

The subculture of policing, along with the fact that police officers perform their duties much more frequently in the presence of a peer than of a supervisor, leads to a conclusion that peer-to-peer interactions, or intra-follower interactions, might be an appropriate addition to the follower vertex of Spillane's (2006) distributed leadership model. A particular police culture may develop as early as the police academy. Research by Haarr (2001) suggests that recruits who train together for the weeks or months required to complete academy training might develop a unique class culture that influences their attitudes, continuing after their time spent in the academy.

Peer-to-peer interactions in policing are especially critical when it comes to procedural justice, which is a precursor to police legitimacy and customer satisfaction. In the case of a police officer acting under color of law, the United States Code provides both criminal penalties (Deprivation of rights under color of law, 18 U.S.C. § 242) and civil sanctions (Civil action for deprivation of rights, 42 U.S.C. § 1983) for civil rights violations. Such violations could occur in situations where an officer does not follow procedural justice, and engages in an improper search, unjust arrest, use of excessive force, or punitive actions against a suspect or citizen. However, responsibility in such overreaches goes beyond the officer committing the violation and places a burden on peer officers also at the scene.

An established duty exists under law for witness officers to intervene and stop the violating officer. If an officer exceeds their legal authority and privileges in carrying out their duties, other officers on the scene have a duty to intervene and restrain the misfeasor officer, whether it involves a case of excessive force or other prohibited conduct by a fellow officer (Ferrell, 1988). Failure-to-intervene is a major criticism of officers in the George Floyd death and the Tyre Nichols death. Bystander officers can be liable under the same statutes as the offending officer. Jury instructions from the federal Seventh Circuit encompassing Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin outline the jury instructions for determining a failure to intervene:

> 7.22 Claim For Failure Of “Bystander” Officer To Intervene – Elements
>
> To succeed on his failure to intervene claim against Defendant, Plaintiff must prove each of the following elements by a preponderance of the evidence:
>
> 1. [Name of Officer alleged to have committed primary violation] [describe constitutional violation claimed, e.g., “falsely arrested Plaintiff,” “used excessive force on Plaintiff”].

2. Defendant knew that [Officer] was/was about to [describe constitutional violation claimed, e.g., “falsely arrest Plaintiff” “use excessive force on Plaintiff”].
3. Defendant had a realistic opportunity to do something to prevent harm from occurring.
4. Defendant failed to take reasonable steps to prevent harm from occurring.
5. Defendant’s failure to act caused Plaintiff to suffer harm.
6. Defendant acted under color of law. (Committee on Pattern Civil Jury Instructions of the Seventh Circuit, 2017, p.185)

The duty placed on officers to intervene against other officers reinforces the incredible discretion wielded by front line personnel (when outside the presence of supervisors), and also the importance of peer-to-peer interactions in how officers carry out their duties, especially with regard to procedural justice, police legitimacy, and customer satisfaction.

The duty to intervene also provides an illustration of why Spillane’s (2006) distributed leadership model (Figure 1) uses a bidirectional arrow between leaders and followers. A 2021 law in Florida requires training for officers on their duty to intervene, including situations involving excessive use of force or officers merely attempting to engage in excessive use of force (“Florida Gov. DeSantis signs”, 2021; Florida House Bill 7051, 2021). The law also covers alternatives to the use of force, and de-escalation techniques (Florida House Bill 7051, 2021). In a case in Sunrise, Florida, officers were placing an arrested person into the back of a cruiser when a sergeant approached and escalated the situation through verbal remarks and may have been attempting to use excessive force by holding his pepper spray in his hand (Hensel & Cohen, 2021). The sergeant was restrained by an officer at the scene, fulfilling her duty to intervene, and earning praise from the police chief (Hensel & Cohen, 2021). In spite of the strict rank hierarchy

of a police agency (Figure 3), interactions between leaders and followers are bidirectional, not just leader to follower, but also follower to leader, to accomplish leadership practices.

Organizational Justice

An additional element of the police culture and structure that can impact police officers' use of procedural justice as a precursor to police legitimacy and customer satisfaction is organizational justice within the police agency. Organizational justice is the extent to which employees view workplace (i.e., departmental) procedures, interactions, and outcomes to be fair (Baldwin, 2006). Organizational justice consists of three overlapping constructs: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Baldwin, 2006; Cropanzano et al., 2007), or sometimes considered as four overlapping constructs: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice (Roberts & Herrington, 2013). However, the discussion here discussion will focus on procedural justice and the relationship between internal procedural justice (within the police agency) and external procedural justice (between the police and their customers).

According to Van Craen and Skogan (2017), perceived internal procedural justice is directly related to support for external procedural justice. An organizational culture that demonstrates procedural justice values creates an environment in which employees are more likely to incorporate such values into their own interactions with the public (COPS, 2013). Procedural justice must be embedded in the organization's entire cultural fabric, from the chief down through all of the ranks (Figure 3) (COPS, 2013). Talk about external procedural justice and fairness to citizens will be dismissed as hypocritical if officers believe their leaders do not mean it or practice it, or if departmental policies are not aligned with it (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). Just as external procedural justice is tied to police legitimacy, internal procedural justice

seems essential to maintaining organizational legitimacy (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Internal procedural justice has application in performance appraisal, disciplinary procedures, conflict resolution, and organizational change, and can contribute to improving performance and enhancing commitment (Baldwin, 2006). Research has shown that just procedures (internal procedural justice) can mitigate the effects of unfavorable outcomes to employees (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Internal procedural justice shares similar components to external procedural justice, such as neutrality (lack of bias), voice (representation), morality and ethics, consistency, and respect (Baldwin, 2006; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). Advantages of internal procedural justice include the facilitation of policy implementation, compliance with policies, and compliance with supervisors, all of which will produce benefits for the department as well as the public (Haas et al., 2015). Another advantage is prevention of police violence through officer endorsement of regulations on the use of force (Haas et al., 2015), a major source of friction between police and communities, especially minority communities. Organizational justice also has the potential to: (a) improve job performance or productivity, (b) foster greater trust and commitment, (c) diminish conflict and create positive workplace relations, (d) instill organizational citizenship behaviors or extra-role behaviors, (e) reduce absenteeism, (f) reduce negative behaviors, and (g) as is the focus of the current research, improve customer satisfaction (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Roberts & Herrington, 2013).

Police management should attempt to implement elements of internal procedural justice throughout the organization (Haas et al., 2015). A significant way to motivate officers to behave in procedurally just ways is through supervisor modeling, since people learn how to behave by observing and imitating other peoples’ behavior. When officers watch their supervisors engage

in behaviors which are procedurally fair, they learn how they can behave in similar ways and engage in similar behaviors, and feel that those behaviors are expected, valued, rewarded, and effective (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017).

Supervisors' exemplary practice of internal procedural justice can significantly and positively affect line officers' attitudes toward citizens, as well as their behavioral intentions (Sun et al., 2018). However, modeling can also work in reverse; if supervisors act unfairly or aggressively, officers may tend to believe such conduct is an appropriate way to exercise authority or solve problems, and engage in similar behavior (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). If supervisors cannot be trusted by officers, they send a signal that no one can be trusted (like the public) (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017), further deteriorating police-community relations, police legitimacy, and customer satisfaction.

The role of supervisors is critical in exercising organizational justice and modeling procedural justice, consistent with their position as intermediate leaders. When officers believe their supervisor does not consider procedural justice a priority, those officers were more likely to negatively change their attitudes about procedural justice over time (Dai et al., 2020). Just as procedural justice training has been directed at field police officers, supervisors and managers should receive at least as much training in procedural justice, but with the additional aim of delivering organizational justice/internal procedural justice (Skogan et al., 2015; Van Craen & Skogan, 2017). Dai et al. (2020) found that officers' perceptions about their immediate supervisor's (intermediate leader's) attitudes towards procedural justice affected their own changes in attitude about procedural justice.

Distributed Leadership

Understanding the role of line-level employees in the delivery of police services helps clarify why a theoretical framework based on practice theories of leadership is appropriate. A practice theory does not focus on individual styles, traits, and behaviors of leaders (Lindberg et al., 2015). Practice theory attempts to redefine leadership in terms of processes and practices organized by people in interaction, and study that interaction without becoming preoccupied with what formal leaders do and think; leadership is studied as interactions and practices, and is open to the idea that all interactions are potential instances of leadership (Crevani et al., 2010). Practice theory is a perspective within leadership research with an analytical focus on leadership as it is practiced in daily interaction, rather than a focus on individual leaders, emphasizing leadership as processes, practices, and interactions (Carroll et al., 2008; Crevani et al., 2010).

A single, unified practice approach or practice theory does not exist (Corradi et al., 2010; Nicolini, 2012; Schatzki, 2001). However, Spillane (2005, 2006; Spillane & Diamond, 2007b; Spillane et al., 2004; Spillane & Timperley, n.d.) believed that "taking a distributed perspective," as he writes about it, is "fundamentally a practice theory" (personal communication, March 1, 2021). The term *practice* refers to the comprehensive enactment of the profession, a set of specific skills or behavior—the actual *doing* of leadership in particular times and places (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b).

Practice involves human activity, in an interdependence of individuals and the environment, distributed in an interactive web of actors, artifacts, and the situation; practice focuses on the immediacy of interactions to which organizational actors must be sensitive and responsive (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b). Spillane's (2005, 2006) model of distributed leadership is used as the theoretical framework for the current research. Spillane's work is based

on leadership in education, as is most research on distributed leadership, but no reason keeps the same model or perspective from being applied to other fields like police leadership.

Distributed leadership is a post-heroic view of leadership (Lindberg et al., 2015). Heroic views chiefly equate leadership with a single individual—typically the school principal in K-12 education (Spillane, 2005) or the police chief (sometimes referred to as the “top cop”) in policing. A single-individual model is inaccurate, though, because leaders do not singlehandedly lead organizations to greatness. Rather, leadership involves an array of individuals, tools, and structures (Spillane, 2005).

According to Spillane (2005), the heroics-of-leadership genre, equating leadership simply with the actions of a single person (a superhuman, so to speak) or only those in leadership positions, is inadequate for three reasons:

1. Leadership typically involves multiple leaders, including some without formal leadership positions;
2. Leadership is not something “done” to followers, but followers are one constituting element of practice;
3. Interactions among individuals, not the actions of individuals, are critical in leadership practice. (p.145)

Distributed leadership reflects the entirety of human resources in organizations as leaders, with a basic philosophy of mobilizing shared wisdom and common sense by creating synergy among the complete membership of the organization (Göksoy, 2015). Recognizing that the management and operations of organizations in general are complex and complicated processes, leadership cannot be left to a single leader or leadership approach (Göksoy, 2015). Investigations of leadership practice that focus exclusively on the work of individual positional leaders are

unlikely to generate comprehensive understandings of the practice of organizational leadership (Spillane et al., 2004). Leadership practices are the result of interactions between leaders, followers, and situation (Spillane, 2005, 2006; Spillane & Diamond, 2007b; Spillane et al., 2004).

In addition to leaders and followers, the distributed leadership model (Figure 1) includes situation. Aspects of the situation define and are defined by leadership practice in interaction with leaders and followers (Spillane, 2005); they are a defining or constituting element of practice (Spillane & Diamond, 2007c). Situation can be considered both a medium for practice and an outcome of practice (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b). As a medium for practice, aspects of the situation offer both components and constraints in leadership practice. Practice can also transform aspects of the situation over time, as new routines and tools are designed and implemented (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b).

Aspects of situation should be treated not merely as aids to (or accessories for) practice, but as core constituting elements of practice (Spillane & Diamond, 2007c). Spillane (2005, 2006) described the situation as a variety of structures, routines, and tools. Tools can include assessment instruments and evaluation protocols, routines can be evaluation periods, and structures can be work-unit meetings and work preparation. Situation also includes artifacts, which can be programs, policies, and procedures that influence practice (Halverson, 2007). Perhaps the most comprehensive list of situation elements is provided by Spillane et al. (2004). Table 4 provides a collection of common situation elements from research in the field of education.

Table 4

Sample Situation Elements

Elements	Examples
1. Structures	a. Work unit meetings b. Work preparation
2. Routines	Evaluation periods
3. Tools	a. Assessment instruments b. Evaluation protocols
	(Spillane, 2005)
4. Artifacts	a. Programs b. Policies c. Procedures
	(Halverson, 2007)
5. Professional development	
	(Burch, 2007; Diamond, 2007; Sherer, 2007)
6. Designed artifacts	a. Forms b. Formal and informal memos c. Meetings and meeting agendas d. Evaluation systems e. Policies f. Physical plant
7. Tools	a. Routines, schedules b. Monitoring c. Technologies
8. Symbols	a. Language b. Rhetoric c. Vocabularies
9. Support	a. Providing resources b. Providing assistance
10. Structure	a. Organizational structure b. Staff composition c. Societal composition/structure d. Social and community context, sociocultural context e. Cultural, historical, and institutional settings
11. Complexity	a. Environmental complexity b. Task complexity
12. Day-to-day activities	
	(Spillane et al., 2004)

Some of the more relevant elements mentioned in Table 4, concerning the environment in which the leaders and followers operate, are social or community context, societal structure, and sociocultural context. Social and cultural factors apply not only to the staff of the school, but also to the community at large, including the students, their families, and a variety of demographic factors. Inclusion of social and cultural factors mirrors considerations of the proposed research project being conducted in a diverse, multicultural environment.

Another situation element that is foundational to the current study is professional development (Table 4). Literature on distributed leadership in education includes numerous examples of professional development as a part of situation. Professional development sessions can be a key organizational routine (Diamond, 2007). Examples of professional development include: (a) very informal settings, such as teacher meetings that allow participants to exchange ideas and information (Sherer, 2007); (b) in-service training organized and conducted in-house, including by those with no formal leadership positions (Burch, 2007); (c) external resources (Burch, 2007); and (d) formal sources of expertise, including prepared curricula and formal training (Burch, 2007). Professional development also has implications for procedural justice training in policing.

Leadership practice deals not only with *what* people do as leaders and followers, but also *how* and *why* they do it (Spillane, 2005). Examining the day-to-day practice of leadership is an important line of inquiry that has been mostly neglected in administrative studies in general, but a rich understanding of not just what leaders and followers do, but how, why, and when they do organizational behaviors and activities, is essential for research to contribute to improving the day-to day-practice of leading and managing (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b). The current project seeks to find not only what police officers do to deliver satisfactory customer service, but how

and why they do it, along with the interactions and situation elements that create the leadership practices driving them, analyzed through the distributed leadership model.

Professional Development, Customer Satisfaction, and Procedural Justice

Professional development—training in various forms—is an element of situation in the distributed leadership model. Professional development can be used to help enhance police officers' understanding of, and skills in, customer satisfaction. Rwanda National Police conduct a 5-day course in customer care, designed to help officers deliver better services in their daily operations (Rwanda National Police, 2015). In addition to providing the best quality of service, other aims of the training include officers conducting themselves responsibly by being accountable and transparent, and facilitating relationships between the public and police (Rwanda National Police, 2015).

Although not using the term procedural justice, an Assistant Commissioner of Police reminded officers in the training course to treat people in a way consistent with the basic tenets of customer satisfaction and procedural justice (Rwanda National Police, 2019), including concepts similar to those listed by Worden and McLean (2017). Officers should:

- "Receive and treat well those seeking police service and always ensure their concerns and problems are resolved."
- "Always listen to people to better understand their concerns."
- "Avoid checking or using the phone, watch and other habits that may make someone feel neglected."
- "Always feel sorry for those that had bad experiences or situations."
- "Solve the problem and if you are not in a position, refer the person to your superior."

- "Thank and appreciate them, it is important to end on a friendly note" (Rwanda National Police, 2019, para. 7-9).

The Assistant Commissioner also emphasized how customer care is important in building trust between the police and the people they are mandated to serve and protect (Rwanda National Police, 2019), an element of both procedural justice and police legitimacy.

Professional development in customer satisfaction can also be tailored to specific needs, environments, populations, or priorities. For example, in the eastern Caribbean island nation of Saint Lucia, tourism is the largest source of foreign exchange, creating both a substantial direct and indirect impact on their economic activity (Hutchinson, n.d.). The Royal Saint Lucia Police Force sought assistance in strengthening the human relations competencies of its officers (Saint Lucia Hospitality & Tourism Association, 2014). An agency outside the police, Saint Lucia Hospitality & Tourism Association (2014), began conducting a series of customer service training workshops, designed to expose police officers to greater awareness of the tourism industry and higher competencies in customer service. The training included the following topics:

- Excellence in customer service;
- Public sector customer service;
- Face-to-face customer service;
- Telephone customer service;
- Dealing with difficult customers and situations;
- Expert handling of complaints; and
- Customer service management (Saint Lucia Hospitality & Tourism Association, 2014, para. 4).

While a goal of the training was to create a safer and more secure environment, it was also tied to raising business and consumer confidence (Saint Lucia Hospitality & Tourism Association, 2014). Confidence is synonymous to trust, and therefore related to procedural justice and police legitimacy. The relationship to business and consumer confidence reinforces the connections between crime, procedural justice, satisfaction, and economic growth.

While the training described above seems relatively straightforward (albeit rudimentary), the process and effects of police training are much more problematic. Little systematic research has been carried out on police training (Dai et al., 2020) or its impact (Mitchell, 2016; Skogan et al., 2015). Policing has done a poor job of evaluating its training methods including academy training, in-service training, and specialized training (Mitchell, 2016), and almost nothing is known about the short or long term effects of police training of any type (Skogan et al., 2015).

Lack of knowledge about the effects of training is true of training in procedural justice. Interest has been growing in including the lessons of procedural justice theory into policing training and practice (Fildes & Thompson, 2016). Substantial gaps exist in policing's knowledge of how to best train officers to demonstrate procedural justice (Fildes & Thompson, 2016), and research on what encourages officers to engage in procedurally fair behavior (Sun et al., 2018). Little research has been conducted on procedural justice training, despite the fact that training is critical in turning the theory into practice (Skogan et al., 2015), and yet evidence does not yet show that such training changes officer behavior towards the public (Mitchell, 2016).

Too often, decisions about investing in police training are guided by the latest trends, and premised on an assumption that the training will be effective (CCJ Task Force on Policing, 2021). The United States has a police legitimacy crisis, and some see procedural justice as a panacea to the problem (Mitchell, 2016). Agencies are spending a significant amount of money

on training without fully understanding whether it truly improves police behavior, improves public perception, or—conversely—could potentially reduce the morale and proactivity of police officers (Mitchell, 2016). An executive of the American Society of Evidence cautions of a lack empirical research when teaching new policies, and equating best practice with common practice, while the California-based Institute on Criminal Justice Training Reform warns that police training programs often rely on assumptions, anecdotal information, and unverified information over scientific research (McLaughlin, 2020).

The effects of training can also change over time. A study by Haarr (2001) followed police recruits receiving training in community policing, problem-solving policing, and police public relations, using a pre-test/post-test design, and surveying them at four points over 16 weeks. While recruits grew more positive about community policing and problem solving during the academy, support dissipated during their field training period, and more so during their probationary period (Skogan et al., 2015). Field training processes and organizational environment had a negative effect, and tended to reinforce only support for traditional policing and perceptions of police/public relations (Haarr, 2001).

Training incumbent personnel on procedural justice may be more troublesome. Training to change basic beliefs and attitudes is considered “reform” training, which is more challenging than basic skills training. Since attitudes and beliefs about the nature of policing are already relatively stable cognitive states in incumbent personnel, they are difficult, although not impossible, to change (Haarr, 2001).

Training remains, however, an attractive mechanism for encouraging the practice of procedural justice, because training is a traditional, accepted organizational routine (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017), in spite of a lack of evidence yet that procedural justice training changes

officer behavior towards the public (Mitchell, 2016) particularly in the long term. Dai (2021) cited limited empirical work on officers' attitudes and behavior involving procedural justice, including limited evidence about officers retaining (post-training) attitudes about procedural justice in the long term, and whether they would perform patrol duties in accordance with procedural justice training.

Some encouraging research is emerging, though on the practice and effects of procedural justice training. In an effort to reshape its relationship with the community, the Chicago (Illinois, United States) Police Department pioneered training in procedural justice, with day-long (8 hour) training sessions given to roughly 9,000 employees in 2012 and 2013 (Dai, 2021; Skogan et al., 2015). Training focused on four tenets of procedural justice:

(1) Participation (also called voice): "giving citizens an opportunity to describe their situation and express their opinions about a problem (to 'tell their side of the story') while officers are deciding what to do" (Skogan, n.d., p. 2; Skogan et al., 2015, p. 324).

(2) Neutrality: "consistency and even-handedness in decision-making across persons (equal treatment for all) and across time (the same procedures are followed every time). Neutral decisions are reasoned, objective, factually driven and respect rules and legal principles" (Skogan, n.d., p. 2; Skogan et al., 2015, p. 324).

(3) Respect: "treating citizens with dignity and respect, evidencing concern about respecting their rights, and politeness and other routine interactional signs of respect" (Skogan, n.d., p. 2; Skogan et al., 2015, p. 325).

(4) Trust: "evidenced when officers treat citizens as if they can be trusted 'to do the right thing' and demonstrate that they are acting on behalf of the best interests of the people they are dealing with" (Skogan, n.d., p. 2; Skogan et al., 2015, p. 325).

Short term effects of the training were measured through a survey, administered to trainees either before (control group) or after (treatment group) the training, selected by simple randomization of training days (Skogan, n.d.; Skogan et al., 2015). Results between the two groups were positive and statistically significant for all four concepts. Trainees supported all four categories, with participation (i.e., voice) highest, followed by neutrality and respect, and trust lower. Longer term effects were examined in a second survey, administered to police officers (line level officers) and sergeants (intermediate leaders, as discussed above, shown in Figure 4) with district-level (patrol) assignments (Skogan, et al., 2015). Because of the timing of the surveys, participants could have received the procedural justice training as recently as a week before or as long as six to ten months before the survey (Skogan, n.d.; Skogan, et al., 2015).

The training was found to have had a relatively enduring impact on three of the four dimensions of procedural justice; the biggest effect was on respect, followed by voice (participation), then closely by neutrality. A statistically reliable long-term impact on trust was not found, although there was some impact in a positive direction (Skogan, n.d.; Skogan, et al., 2015). Wood et al. (2020) found the effect of the Chicago PD procedural justice training to be durable, reducing complaints by 10% and use of force by 6.4% throughout a 24-month period following the training. Dai (2021) cautioned that while a small body of research supports that officers respond positively to the concepts of procedural justice after training, very limited evidence shows that they will retain the same attitudes in the long term or perform daily duties on patrol and in citizen interactions in accordance with the same principles.

Procedural justice training in Norfolk (Virginia, United States) was based on the Chicago model, with two major changes: (a) it was delivered at a more theoretical level than most standard police lesson plans, to challenge officers to expand their way of thinking; and (b) a section was devoted specifically to the history of race relations in Norfolk (Dai, 2021; Dai et al., 2020). Impact of the training was evaluated in three different ways: (a) officer surveys, (b) systematic social observation (by reviewing body-worn camera video), and (c) a citizen survey (Dai, 2021).

Officer surveys were in the form of pre-test and post-test at the time of training, and a follow-up post-test at 18 months. Results from pre-test to post-test showed significantly higher attitudinal scores on all four elements of procedural justice. The second post-test continued to show scores higher than the pre-test in all four areas, but slightly lower than the first pre-test. Systematic social observations involved trained observers viewing and coding body-worn camera video from nearly 3,000 officer-citizen encounters, and showed, in general, a noticeable level of procedural justice and a relatively low level of procedural injustice (Dai, 2021). The citizen survey was designed to correspond with the systematic social observations, so the interacting citizens could assess the officers' demonstrated level of procedural justice.

Since the current research focuses on customer satisfaction, as often measured by surveys, Norfolk's citizen surveys are of particular interest. While there was only a 37% response rate, participants were generally positive about their experiences, with only 6 out of 221 reporting they were dissatisfied. Further results from citizens included:

- 94.5% were confident the Norfolk police could do their job well;
- 90% were proud of the work the Norfolk police did;

- The majority agreed the officer(s) with whom they interacted demonstrated procedural justice;
- 94.4% agreed they were treated with dignity and respect;
- 87% agreed they were treated the same way others would be in a similar situation;
- 92.5% believed the police made their decision based on facts;
- 92.1% believed the police considered their views;
- 93.9% believed the police tried to do the right thing;
- 96.3% believed the police respected their rights
- 96.7% said they willingly accepted the decision made by the police; and
- Only 19.6% believed that the officer(s) could have handled the situation better (Dai, 2021).

According to Dai (2021), the comprehensive data from Norfolk suggests that the procedural justice training was effective both short term (immediately after training) and long term (at least 18 months after training).

Studies in Queensland (Australia) also dealt with procedural justice training. The Queensland Community Engagement Trial (QCET) examined citizen satisfaction with police using short, high-volume police citizen encounters—routine, roadside Random Breath Testing (RBT) (Mazerolle et al., 2012). Sixty RBT sites were utilized, with a control group and an experimental group randomly assigned. Random Breath Testing encounters are generally quick, abrupt, and often lacking anything but compulsory communication for the purpose of obtaining a breath sample. The control group performed in the usual manner. While training was intentionally not extensive, a longer script was developed for the experimental group. The new, extended script focused on developing a longer, procedurally just encounter, and highlighted

elements of procedural justice: citizen participation, dignity and respect, neutrality, and trustworthy motives (Mazerolle et al., 2012).

Over 20,000 surveys were distributed to drivers encountered in the 60 RBTs, with almost 2,800 returned. Results showed that just a small amount of procedural justice during a brief, routine encounter can have an important influence on the outcome of a police-citizen encounter (Mazerolle et al., 2012). Drivers who encountered the experimental group of officers reported significantly stronger perceptions of procedural justice, enhanced perceptions of police, higher satisfaction with police, and altered attitudes to drinking and driving (Mazerolle et al., 2012). While a large number of citizens were surveyed regarding a procedural justice approach (control group versus experimental group), the experiment only examined one type of police-citizen encounter, only about 14% of surveys distributed were returned, and the experiment was not a longitudinal study.

Another study in Queensland utilized police recruits, academy training, self-surveys, and evaluations by FTOs (Field Training Officers) (Antrobus et al., 2019). Fifty-six recruits still in the police academy were selected for the study. During the last two weeks of the academy, 28 received one and a half days of training in procedural justice (treatment group) and the others did not (control group). All recruits (control group and treatment group) were invited to participate in a survey on (among other factors) their perceptions of the importance of procedural justice, attitudes towards the public, and organizational legitimacy (see discussion of organizational justice, above).

Surveys were administered pre-training, post-training, and post-deployment (Antrobus et al., 2019). After the academy, when new officers were assigned to field training, their FTO used a tool to rate them on scales measuring procedural justice during encounters with members of the

public (Antrobus et al., 2019). Antrobus et al. (2019) claimed the results suggest limited positive effects of the training on officer attitudes and on-the-job behavior, with FTO ratings of procedurally just behaviors in public interactions generally higher for experimental than control recruits. Recruits' perceptions of the effectiveness of procedural justice increased immediately after the training, but not their perceived use of procedural justice skills, and these effects were not always statistically significant. The study did not examine public perceptions of police treatment (Antrobus et al., 2019), and was not a longitudinal study on the long-term effects of the training for the treatment group.

Detailed Theoretical Framework

Based on the literature review, a detailed framework is created to illustrate the distributed leadership model for use in the current research project (Figure 4).

The definitions of leaders and followers may, at first, seem fairly straightforward. Spillane (2006) labels two vertices of his distributed leadership model as leaders and followers (Figure 1). The distinction, though, is not necessarily simple, as people in schools move in and out of leader and follower roles, depending on the situation, and those important shifts must be acknowledged and documented (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b). Organizations have both positional and *de facto* leaders (Portin et al., 2003). *De facto* leaders are those who, despite not being in a formal (positional) leadership position, help identify issues, bring resources to bear on those issues, and exercise discretion and influence over the direction of the organization (Portin et al., 2003). Also, separate leadership practices may need to be spread over the actions of two or more leaders (Spillane, 2005).

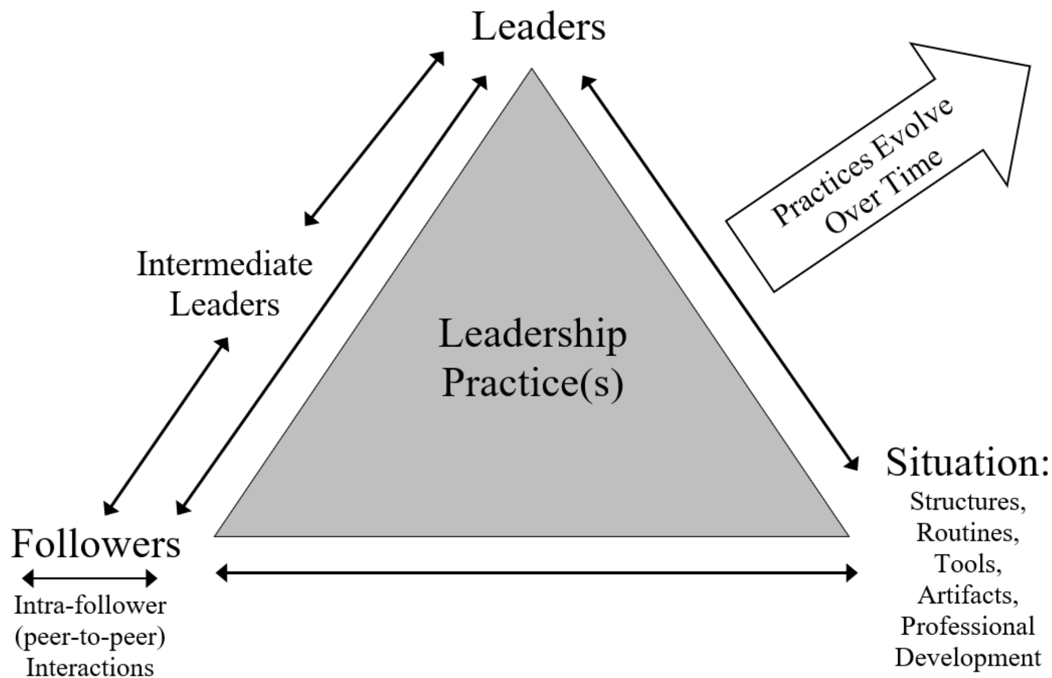
Spillane et al. (2004) provide an example involving an assistant principal, mathematics co-coordinator, and lead teacher, along with classroom teachers. The first three are referred to as

leaders (with the classroom teachers clearly considered followers). While those three may be classified as being in leadership positions—particularly in this situation—they do not possess the same status or power within the organization, and all are ultimately responsible to the principal. Spillane (2005) provides examples involving a literacy coordinator, the African American Heritage coordinator, classroom teachers, and the principal, with the literacy coordinator, curriculum specialist, and heritage coordinator (and obviously, the principal) taking leadership positions.

While a school may not have the same rigid hierarchical structure as a police department (Figure 3), it still has reporting and accountability mechanisms. The two vertices of Spillane's (2006) triangular model may not discretely represent leaders and followers. Something of a continuum along the leader-follower side of the triangle can be a more appropriate representation—for both school settings and police departments. Figure 4 presents such a model of the theoretical framework, based on Spillane's (2006) model, but including intermediate leaders along the left side of the triangle. In a school setting, using the examples of Spillane et al. (2004) and Spillane (2005), intermediate leaders would include the math co-coordinator, lead teacher, literacy coordinator, curriculum specialist, and heritage coordinator.

Figure 4

Detailed Theoretical Framework



Note. Table 4 lists additional Situation elements, with citations.

In police organizations, supervisors (especially field supervisors) would fill the role of intermediate leaders, as well as training officers (especially Field Training Officers). In Figure 3, intermediate leaders would generally be the ranks of sergeant, staff sergeant, sergeant major, and inspector. Figure 3 also shows interactions between leaders and intermediate leaders, and intermediate leaders and followers. While people can move in and out of leadership roles depending on the situation (perhaps more so in schools than police organizations), a continuum of leadership roles must be accommodated, especially since followers tend to be influenced more by some leaders than others (e.g., intermediate leaders), as well as informal leaders (including peers). Much like the discretion wielded by police officers, acting outside the presence of a

supervisor, followers in a school setting choose which leaders and messages to listen to, and which should be heeded and which should not (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b).

At the followers vertex (Figure 4), intra-follower (peer-to-peer) interactions are added, to account for officers performing the majority of their work alone or in the presence of peers and outside the view of supervisors, as well as the police subculture and the power of peer influence. The situation vertex is annotated to include major elements from Burch (2007), Diamond (2007), Halverson (2007), Sherer (2007), and Spillane (2005), along with reference to Table 4, which lists additional situation elements from Spillane et al. (2004). The detailed theoretical framework will be used to guide the remainder of the research project, including data gathering and analysis.

Summary

Literature demonstrates that policing and police leadership are global concerns, and customer satisfaction with police service is especially crucial in diverse, multicultural, evolving societies. Customers are primarily satisfied when police practice procedural justice and when encounters with police meet the customers' expectations. Extant literature does not, however, explain what, how, or why officers act in ways that deliver service satisfactory to their customers. Literature shows that police officers, the lowest level of the organizational hierarchy, exercise the greatest discretion in carrying out their duties, and generally operate alone or alongside peers and outside of direct supervision. The structure and culture of police organizations requires a theoretical framework that accounts for the tremendous freedom afforded police officers. Distributed leadership, generally used in the field of education, is appropriate as a framework, as it focuses on leadership practices which are created (and constantly evolving) through interactions between leaders, followers, and situation. Two major situation elements applicable to the current study include organizational justice and professional

development. Literature shows that organizational justice within the police agency can foster officers to exercise procedural justice in their contacts with customers, although literature is not conclusive on whether or not training (professional development) in procedural justice changes officer behavior, especially long term. Based on the literature related to police structure, culture, and discretion, Spillane's (2005, 2006) distributed leadership model is expanded for the study from interactions between leaders, followers, and situation to also include interactions with intermediate leaders and peer-to-peer interactions of followers.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study is to identify leadership practices that promote police officers to deliver service that is satisfactory to their customers in a diverse, multicultural, and changing or evolving environment. The study seeks to identify interactions between leaders, followers, and situations that form those practices, using an adaptation of Spillane's (2006) model of distributed leadership.

Restatement of Research Questions

The primary research question is:

RQ: What identifiable leadership practices within the Yonkers Police Department promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

Sub-questions are:

SQ1: What identifiable interactions between police leaders (including intermediate leaders) and police followers in the Yonkers Police Department create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ2: What identifiable interactions between police peers (especially at the follower level) in the Yonkers Police Department create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ3: What identifiable interactions between police leaders and the situation, in the Yonkers Police Department, create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ4: What identifiable interactions between police followers and the situation, in the Yonkers Police Department, create leadership practices that promote the delivery of service that satisfies police customers (both voluntary customers and involuntary customers), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

SQ5: What mechanisms are in place, in the Yonkers Police Department, to determine that these leadership practices are producing the delivery of police service that satisfies the police customer (both voluntarily or involuntarily), in a diverse, multicultural, and evolving society?

Qualitative Paradigm

Qualitative research strives for understanding—a deep structure of knowledge that comes from the researcher visiting personally with participants and probing to obtain detailed descriptions and meanings (Creswell, 2013). More than standard quantitative techniques are needed to fully explore rich human experience (Coyle & Tickoo, 2007). In contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research is inductive, with flexible methods, developing theories, and small samples, using words as the data rather than numbers (Coyle & Tickoo, 2007).

While qualitative research is as old as quantitative research, it experienced renewed interest, attention, and momentum starting in the late 1970s; the 1980s saw widespread acceptance of qualitative methods (Morgan, 2007). Qualitative research is used when the

researcher needs to learn more from participants through exploration; a central phenomenon is the key concept, idea, or process to be studied (Creswell, 2008).

Distributed leadership can be studied using quantitative and mixed methods, not strictly qualitative methods. Aypay and Akyürek (2021) conducted a systematic review of 117 journal articles on distributed leadership published from 2000 through 2020. Distributed leadership articles used mainly qualitative and conceptual methods, with only 23% using quantitative methods and 9.4% using mixed methods, and advanced analyses were not frequently used in quantitative articles. Spillane and colleagues were the most cited journal article authors (Aypay & Akyürek, 2021). Some interview questions for the project (Appendix A) could potentially be developed for quantitative responses in future research. However, the research project is based on Spillane's (2005, 2006) distributive leadership model. Since articles and books by Spillane (2005, 2006; Spillane & Diamond, 2007a) are exclusively qualitative studies, this project also used a qualitative method. Results from this project may suggest future research using a mixed methods or quantitative approach.

Paradigms have become a central concept in social science research methodology (Morgan, 2007). A paradigm is a conceptual lens the researcher uses to examine the methodological aspects of their research project, to determine the research methods they will use, and how the data will be analyzed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). A research paradigm is a basic belief system and theoretical framework comprised of four elements: epistemology, ontology, axiology, and methodology (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

Ontology is the nature of reality and its characteristics. Researchers have assumptions about reality, or what makes sense, leading them to inquire what reality exists, including the

concept of socially constructed multiple realties (Creswell, 2013; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharti, 2016).

Epistemology is what counts as knowledge, how we come to know something (how we gain knowledge of reality), and how knowledge claims are justified (Creswell, 2013; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Maxwell, 2013; Rehman & Alharti, 2016). Axiology is the role of values in research and the ethical issues that must be considered in planning and carrying out the research (Creswell, 2013; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharti, 2016).

Methodology is the process of research, including research design, methods, and procedures used in an investigation, such as how data is collected and analyzed (Creswell, 2013; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharti, 2016). The methodological question “leads the researcher to ask how the world should be studied” (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016, p. 52).

The quantitative paradigm is based on positivism, science characterized by empirical research in which phenomena can be reduced to empirical indicators representing the truth; quantitative ontology believes in only one truth, an objective reality that exists independent of human perception (Sale et al., 2002). The qualitative paradigm, on the other hand, is based on interpretivism and constructivism; qualitative ontology says there are multiple realities or multiple truths, based on one’s construction of reality, and reality is socially constructed and constantly changing (Sale et al., 2002).

This research project used the paradigm of interpretivism. Interpretivism is closely related to, and sometimes interchangeably referred to as, constructivism, since reality is socially constructed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Schwandt, 1998). Interpretivism is chosen as the most suitable for investigating the phenomenon to be studied (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Interpretivism seeks to understand the subjective world of human experience by understanding

and interpreting what the research subjects are thinking, or the meaning they are making of the concept, through the viewpoints of the subject and not the researcher; emphasis is placed on understanding the individual and their interpretation of the world around them (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Schwandt, 1998).

Interpretivism rejects the notion of a single, verifiable reality existing independent of our senses, but endorses socially constructed multiple realities (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Using a subjectivist epistemology, the researcher makes meaning of their data through cognitive data processing informed by their interactions with the participants (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). To understand a world of meaning, it must be interpreted (Schwandt, 1998). Interpretivist ontology does not adopt any foundational standards to know universal truths; truth and reality are created, not discovered (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

Interpretive epistemology is subjective, with individuals interacting with other individuals and society, to ascribe meaning to different social phenomenon. Researchers are inextricably a part of the social reality they are examining, and—as observers—contaminate it with their worldviews, concepts, and backgrounds. Interpretive methodology requires social phenomena to be understood through the eyes, words, and context of the participants, rather than the researcher (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

A variety of methods can be used to attend to the details, complexities, and situated meanings of everyday life, however, all of those methods or activities involve the researcher listening, asking, recording, examining, and watching (Schwandt, 1998). One of those methods to collect qualitative data through a naturalist methodology include interviews of varying degree of structure (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Although focusing on the participants' words and experiences, interpretivism employs a balanced axiology, assuming that

the outcomes of the research will also reflect the values of the researcher, while attempting to present a balanced report of the findings (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Some characteristics of research conducted using the interpretivist paradigm include: (a) a belief that realities are multiple and socially constructed; (b) an understanding of individual laws, not universal laws; (c) understanding that context is vital for knowing/knowledge; (d) acceptance of an inevitable interaction between the researcher and the participants; and (e) knowledge is created by the findings, they can be value laden, and those values need to be made explicit (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morgan, 2007, as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Analysis of data can be inductive, meaning the researcher tries to discover patterns in the data under broad themes, to understand a situation and generate theory. Analysis of data can also be deductive, in which researchers identify themes and patterns before starting the data collection process (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016). Connecting categories and themes in the analysis of data is necessary for building theory, which is a primary goal of analysis (Maxwell, 2013).

Qualitative Case Study Research Design

The research design for this project is a case study, using a paradigm of interpretivism. Case studies are a major qualitative research design for social research, offering a flexible approach that can be turned into an extensive variety of particular designs (de Vaus, 2001). The case study design is familiar to social scientists because of its popularity in many fields, and case study research has a long, distinguished history across many disciplines (Creswell et al., 2007). Qualitative designs like case studies provide an ability to examine situations in-depth, using open-ended questions to explore complex questions (Coyle & Tickoo, 2007).

Case studies occur in a bounded system; they can be bounded by time and place, activity, event, process, or individuals (Creswell, 2008, 2013). This case study will be bounded by the

organization being studied, the individuals participating in the interviews, and the relevant documents (or media sources, including social media) available related to the topic being examined.

Data Sources/Sample

The case study was conducted with the Yonkers, New York (United States) Police Department, with the permission of the Police Commissioner (Appendix C). The Yonkers Police Department is an agency serving a city with a diverse, multicultural population. Yonkers is described as one of the most diverse cities in the state and the region, with 31% of residents foreign-born, 46% of households speaking a foreign language, and a school district comprised of students hailing from 100 different cultures and nationalities (Yonkers, NY, 2022).

According to the U.S. Census, July 2021 estimates (United States Census Bureau, n.d.), the population of Yonkers is:

- 47.2% White alone;
- 19.4% Black or African American alone;
- 6.3% Asian alone;
- 7.3% two or more races;
- 39.7% Hispanic or Latino;
- 34.9% White alone, not Hispanic or Latino;
- 30.7% foreign born persons.

The Yonkers school district describes itself as serving students from 100 cultures, backgrounds, and nationalities (Yonkers Public Schools, 2022). The student population includes:

- 77% economically disadvantaged;
- 19% with disabilities;

- 13% multi-lingual learners/English language learners;
- 60% Hispanic;
- 17% Black;
- 16% White;
- 6% Asian/Pacific Islander;
- 1% multi-racial.

The police department's website has a page for each of Yonkers' four police precincts. The page for the 3rd precinct (Yonkers Police Department, 2023c) provides a detailed description of the diverse, multicultural, and evolving nature of the population for that area:

> The population of the precinct represents a cross section of various races, cultures, ethnicities, and languages from all over the world, and every level of the socio-economic spectrum. The predominant culture is Latino, with most residents from Mexico and Central America. There has also been a long-standing Arabic Community in our precinct that consisted primarily of Jordanian Christians, although the last decade has seen a significant influx of people of Palestinian, Syrian, and Egyptian descent, mostly Islamic. More recent immigrants include a large segment from the countries of western Africa and south central Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh). (para. 1-2)

Unfortunately, the pages for the other three precincts do not provide similar descriptions. However, the page for the 2nd precinct (Yonkers Police Department, 2023b) notes that it is staffed by 74 sworn officers, including a captain, three lieutenants, eight sergeants, and 62 patrol officers. Such a distribution among the ranks is consistent with the sample hierarchy already shown in Figure 3, and reinforces the fact that patrol officers do most of their work alone or in the presence of another (peer) officer, and outside the presence of a supervisor.

Qualitative research often studies a sample with a limited number of participants (Creswell, 2008; Maxwell, 2013). While these participants may allow a researcher to collect extensive detail about a single research site (Creswell, 2013), they may be of uncertain representativeness for an entire population, so they can only provide suggestive answers to general questions, without offering generalizability to a larger population (Maxwell, 2013).

Up to a point, the larger the sample the better, but eventually, increases in sample size have smaller and more marginal benefits in data collection (de Vaus, 2001), a point known as saturation. However, saturation is an elastic concept, and often a difficult point to identify (Mason, 2010). Sample size may depend on practical factors like the researcher's time, funding, resources, and access to potential participants (de Vaus, 2001; Marczyk et al., 2005). For some studies, there may be only a limited number of participants conveniently available to provide data (Creswell, 2008).

While the Yonkers Police Department meets the criteria for this research project as an agency serving a highly diverse, multicultural population, only seven respondents ultimately participated in semi-structured interviews, including five police officers (line level personnel) and two sergeants (first line supervisors/intermediate leaders). This sample size should be sufficient for this project. Based on data from 60 in-depth interviews in a qualitative study, Guest et al. (2006) found that saturation in thematic analysis occurred within the first 12 interviews, with 70% of themes uncovered as early as six interviews, sufficient to identify basic elements for major themes.

Police officers represent followers in the distributed leadership model (Figure 1), as well as intra-follower (peer-to-peer) interactions in the detailed theoretical framework (Figure 4). While first line supervisors might be considered leaders in the distributed leadership model, they

represent intermediate leaders in the detailed theoretical framework (Figure 4). The number of interviewees from the research site was based upon scheduling and availability of personnel, primarily during day shift. Individual participants were recruited by a department liaison, who also facilitated scheduling of the personnel with the administrative officer for their precinct(s). Participation was strictly voluntary. This information was emailed to the department liaison prior to recruiting, and each participant was emailed an individual informed consent notice (Appendix D) at the time their interview was scheduled.

From the researcher's perspective, the only criterion for selection of participants was their rank, representing followers and intermediate leaders. Based on the distributed leadership model (Figure 1) and detailed theoretical framework (Figure 4), analysis of qualitative data from the interviews was based on interactions between leaders/intermediate leaders, followers, follower peers, and situation. Additional variables such as age, length of service, gender, race, ethnicity, etc., were not a consideration for this project, though they may suggest areas to study for future research.

Minimizing qualifications for the selection of participants, as well as ensuring anonymity, was aimed at securing the participation of interviewees and their willingness to provide qualitative data. Certain elements of police culture may make police officers leery of participating in a research project, especially since customer satisfaction is related to procedural justice and police legitimacy, which are in turn linked to sensitive issues like the high-profile use-of-force situations and volatile social reactions already discussed. Police have a protective organizational culture, which is insular and closed, resistant to outside influence, suspicious of change, and protective of its autonomy (Murphy & McKenna, 2007). The culture has a deep suspicion of non-police outsiders, and a cynicism that tends to regard all of those outside of the

police as potentially unreliable, unsympathetic, and critical of police (Murphy & McKenna, 2007).

Although the researcher is a retired career police officer, he may still be viewed as an outsider to a police department with which he has no personal connection or professional history, and acting in a role as an academic and not a fellow police officer. While no specific reasons exist to believe that the researcher might be viewed with caution at the research site, participants may be reluctant to speak openly because police culture may contribute to, facilitate, or justify negative police behaviors, with studies of excessive force and racism, for example, indicating that the police culture may have a role in rationalizing such behaviors, as well as preventing them from being discovered and dealt with (Murphy & McKenna, 2007).

Data Collection Methods

Data collection methods are a means to answering research questions, not a logical transformation of the research questions. The selection of methods depends not only on the research questions, but also on the actual research situation and what will work most effectively in that situation to provide the necessary data (Maxwell, 2013). The case study design selected as most appropriate for this project is implemented with the use of semi-structured interviews for primary data collection, along with a review of relevant documents and other sources such as news media and social media for secondary data collection.

Semi-structured interviews allow exploration of views, experiences, beliefs, or motivations of participants, including the discovery and elaboration of information that are important to participants but may not have been thought of, or believed significant, by the researcher, providing a deeper understanding of social phenomena (Gill et al., 2008). Semi-

structured interviews are best used when the researcher will have only one opportunity to interview the participants (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Williams, 2018).

Though called a semi-structured interview, the researcher and participants engage in a formal interview (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Williams, 2018). The researcher uses a guide of several key questions that define the topics to be explored, but which also allow the interviewer and/or participant to digress to another idea or to provide additional detail (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Gill et al., 2008; Williams, 2018). Questions should be open-ended, general, and focused on understanding the central phenomenon in the study (Creswell, 2013). In addition to being open-ended, good interview questions should be neutral, sensitive, and understandable (Gill, et al., 2008). The researcher starts with questions that participants can answer easily, then proceeds to more difficult or sensitive topics. Interview questions should be worded to engineer the type—but not the content—of responses the researcher is seeking (Williams, 2018).

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the seven participants using the questions in Appendix A as a starting point. Participants were five police officers (line level personnel) and two sergeants (first line supervisors/intermediate leaders). During the solicitation of participants, several potential volunteers asked the department liaison if they could get an advance copy of the questions, and also if they could be interviewed by audio only, with no video recording, to further protect their identity. The researcher granted both requests, however only one of the seven respondents participated without video recording, and only one respondent received an advance copy of the questions, but was not able to review them in depth before the interview due to just returning from vacation.

Interviews were conducted over the Internet using the Zoom™ platform (Zoom Video Communications, Inc., 2021). Interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis (Cohen &

Crabtree, 2006). Audio-video recording was done within Zoom™, but transcription was done through automated transcription by Rev™ (Rev, n.d.). Rev™ allows account holders to link their Rev™ account to their Zoom™ account, resulting in an automatic download of the Zoom™ audio for automated transcription by Rev™. Using speech recognition artificial intelligence (AI) similar to Siri™ or Alexa™, Rev™ claims "90%+- accurate auto transcripts," with their speech engine trained "on 50,000+ hours of human-transcribed content from a wide variety of topics, industries, and accents" (Rev, n.d., para. 4). Prior to respondent interviews, the researcher conducted several test interviews on Zoom™ with a relative who works remotely, followed by Rev™ transcription. Transcription accuracy was judged to be closer to 95% or more, with relatively minor corrections required. Rev™ provides transcripts in Word™ format, making them easy to read, edit, save, and email.

A total of five interviews were conducted with the seven participants, because there were two sets of partners involved. Although separate interviews had originally been scheduled for each participant, last minute obligations on the part of two respondents caused them to miss their scheduled time, but they decided to participate with their partner in a second scheduled time slot. While this was a change in the original plan, it was actually beneficial in obtaining narrative information and descriptions from the respondents, as they could affirm, clarify, or add to answers provided by their partner. Participation of partners together also reinforced the power of peer influence. Interviews ranged from 30 to 65 minutes, with a mean of 47 minutes. Once Rev™ transcripts were received, the researcher printed copies and reviewed the transcripts while watching and listening to the Zoom™ recordings. Any necessary corrections were made to the transcribed text. Watching the videos helped to ensure that responses were attributed to the

correct participant when two partners were being interviewed together. The five interviews yielded a total of 80 pages of transcripts.

To protect participant anonymity, each respondent was randomly assigned a code, with PO1 through PO5 representing the five police officers (first line personnel) and SGT1 and SGT2 representing the two sergeants (first line supervisors/intermediate leaders). These codes were used in the transcripts, as well as the analysis of data and reporting of findings. Transcribed interviews were emailed back to each participant, to give them an opportunity to: (a) check for accuracy and make any corrections; (b) add, clarify, or explain any information they believed may be helpful to the researcher in understanding their input and analyzing the data; and (c) request a follow-up interview by Zoom™ or telephone. However, none of the participants contacted the researcher after receiving the transcripts and having at least a week to review them. Completed transcripts were already de-identified through the use of respondent codes, and participant anonymity was further protected by the deletion of all email correspondence from the researcher's account involving the department liaison or the participants, and deletion of the Zoom™ videos from the researcher's Zoom™ account. Rev™ transcripts never had any participant names, only speaker numbers (e.g., Speaker 1, Speaker 2, Speaker 3 as differentiated by the AI). The researcher also destroyed any documents or notes correlating participant names with their code numbers.

Documents and other sources examined as secondary data included those available to the public on the Internet which contained information about customer satisfaction with the Yonkers Police Department. Examples include: (a) the results of public opinion surveys, (b) documents related to procedural justice such as training records and policies or procedures, (c) newspaper accounts and other news media, (d) city and police department web pages, and (e) social media.

Documents represent a good source of data because they are already in the words of people connected with the case study site, but they may be difficult to locate and obtain (Creswell, 2008). Multiple data collection techniques—"triangulation"—are useful for increasing the accuracy of information, collecting information from different sources to help validate a particular finding (DePoy & Gitlin, 2011) such as a code or a theme used in analysis.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data is dependent on interpretation (Alhojailan, 2012) and the analysis of qualitative data is challenging and often frustrating (Linnenberg & Korsgaard, 2019). Analysis of qualitative data is a process of organizing, eliciting meaning, and presenting conclusions from the collected data, which is generally narrative text generated from interviews or documents (Jnanathapaswi, 2021). The analysis of data is central to credible qualitative research, as the researcher must be able to understand, interpret, and describe experiences, and then uncover and report meaning (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017).

A valuable tool in the process of turning raw qualitative data into a communicative and trustworthy story is coding (Linnenberg & Korsgaard, 2019). Coding involves aggregating text or data into small categories of information, seeking evidence for the codes from different databases used in the study (in this case, the transcribed interviews plus the documents and media) then assigning a label to the code (Creswell, 2013). The coding process enables collected data to be assembled, categorized, and thematically sorted, providing an organized platform for constructing meaning (Williams & Moser, 2019). Coding involves examining a coherent portion of the empirical material—a word, paragraph, page—and labelling it with a word or short phrase that summarizes its content; coding reduces large amounts of empirical data and makes data

readily accessible for analysis, simultaneously increasing the quality of the analysis and findings (Linnenberg & Korsgaard, 2019).

Coding leads to the creation of themes. Themes, also called categories, are broad units of information consisting of several codes, aggregated into a common idea (Creswell, 2013). The construction of themes frames, interprets, and connects elements of the data (Kiger & Varpio, 2020). Themes are composed of multiple codes that provide evidence for the theme, drawing on the views of multiple participants and supported by illustrative, realistic quotations directly from the respondents (Creswell, 2016).

Thematic analysis was used to analyze and interpret the data in this study. Thematic analysis is a way to systematically identify, organize, and offer insight into patterns of meaning (themes or categories) across qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012) to address the research questions (Kiger & Varpio, 2020; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). Coding can be done by hand, or by computer (Creswell, 2008, 2014; Kiger & Varpio, 2020). Saldaña (2016) warned that learning the complex instructions of coding software can be overwhelming, diverting attention from the data itself. For small scale studies, he recommends starting with coding on paper hard copies, believing that manipulating data on paper with hand written codes can provide greater ownership and control over the work (Saldaña, 2016). Creswell (2008) also noted that hand analysis may be preferable with small databases (for example, less than a few hundred pages of transcripts) and for researchers who want to use a hands-on approach to remain close to the data. Coding and thematic analysis was done manually, based on the small sample size and my previous experience.

Themes can be identified through either an inductive or deductive approach. An inductive approach derives themes from the researcher's data (Kiger & Varpio, 2020, Varpio et al., 2020).

Inductive analysis is a bottom-up approach, starting with data and working up to abstract conceptualizations of a phenomenon; the researcher collects data and searches for patterns (i.e., themes) in the data to generate understanding of the phenomenon (Varpio et al., 2020). An inductive approach provides a broader, more expansive analysis across the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012; Kiger & Varpio, 2020). Inductive analysis involves coding without trying to fit data into a pre-existing framework or the researcher's preconceptions (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

A deductive approach uses a pre-existing theory, framework, or researcher-driven focus to identify themes or hone in on particular aspects of the data (Kiger & Varpio, 2020; Varpio et al., 2020) and involves theory-driven coding and analysis of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). The researcher's theories, along with constructs from existing research, are brought into play (Jnanathapaswi, 2021). Data analysis in this study was performed using a deductive approach, specifically a *theoretical thematic analysis*. A theoretical thematic analysis approach tends to be "driven by the researcher's theoretical or analytic interest in the area, and is thus more explicitly analyst-driven" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). While this may provide a less rich description of the overall data, coding is done for specific research questions and results in a more detailed analysis of some aspects of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Either an inductive or deductive (e.g., theoretical thematic analysis) approach is an acceptable method of thematic analysis, but it is important to specify which approach is used, so that readers may properly interpret and conceptualize the findings (Kiger & Varpio, 2020). When a researcher is concerned with addressing specific research questions, data is analyzed with those questions in mind (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). A theoretical thematic analysis was the appropriate approach because this study used an established theoretical framework (Figure 1,

Figure 4), with a related conceptual framework (Figure 2), and the researcher used specific interview questions (Appendix A) to attempt to address the research question and sub-questions.

A common model of thematic analysis involves six steps (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012; Gallardo-Echenique, 2014; Kiger & Varpio, 2020; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The steps are:

1. The researcher familiarizes themselves with the data, immersing themselves by transcribing, reading, and re-reading textual data.
2. The researcher begins systematic analysis of the data by generating initial codes. Codes provide an identifying label for data elements that are potentially relevant to the research questions.
3. The researcher begins searching for themes, which represent some level of patterned response or meaning within the data.
4. The researcher reviews each potential theme for relevance and quality, looking at (for example) whether it is truly a theme or just a code, if it is informative about the data set, if it is useful to a research question, what its boundaries are, whether there is sufficient meaningful data to support the theme (i.e., if it is thick or thin), and if the theme is coherent.
5. The researcher defines and names themes, clearly stating what is unique and specific about each. A good analysis will have themes which each have a singular focus, are related but don't overlap or repeat, and directly address the research questions.
6. The researcher produces a report as the final phase of analysis. Writing and analysis are co-created throughout the qualitative research, not just at the end of data analysis. The report should provide a compelling story about the data, be convincing and clear, but also be complex and embedded in the scholarly field.

Multiple levels of coding were used in the thematic analysis for this project. According to Jnanathapaswi (2021), first cycle coding involves coding relevant texts connected to the research questions. Because thematic analysis offers flexibility to begin data analysis at any time during the research project (Alhojailan, 2012), the coding process actually started during the collection and formatting of data. It did not wait until after all interviews and other data collection were completed, as preliminary analytic considerations should be recorded as the study progresses (Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) noted that most qualitative researchers code their data both during *and* after collection, claiming "coding *is* analysis" (p. 7). First cycle coding continued through the first stage of the six stage thematic analysis process, while the researcher continued to be immersed in the data. Gallardo-Echenique (2014) referred to this as noting initial ideas.

Second cycle coding further analyzes, filters, highlights, rearranges, and focuses data already coded in the first cycle, based on the discovery of new or deeper themes to better develop a sense of thematical and categorical organization (Jnanathapaswi, 2021; Saldaña, 2016). Second cycle coding took place during the second and third stages of the six stage thematic analysis process, as codes were systematically analyzed and themes began to emerge. In the fourth stage of the six stage thematic analysis process, after initial codes and themes were generated, additional codes from other portions of the transcripts were incorporated into themes or sub-themes (Kiger & Varpio, 2020), along with information from secondary sources (documents and news media/social media). Since documents form textual data for qualitative studies (Creswell, 2008), they can also be analyzed using coding, adding codes to the results or confirming codes from analysis of interviews in the study.

While Jnanathapaswi (2021) and Saldaña (2016) refer to first and second cycle coding, Saldaña (2009) also considers coding to be a cyclical act. Recoding in the "second cycle (and

possibly the third and forth, and so on)" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 8) further refines data analysis, occurring in multiple iterations, not simply one or two discrete cycles.

My data analysis and manual coding began with the first interview, and continued as a repetitive process throughout each successive interview, finally including coding of text from the documents and media used as secondary data sources for triangulation. Coding requires the researcher to wear an analytic lens and filters, and to consider the angle from which the phenomenon is being viewed (Saldaña, 2016). Since I was using theoretical thematic analysis, I began looking for words, phrases, and concepts that were consistent with existing research on customer satisfaction and procedural justice, and that fit with the distributed leadership model of leader-follower-situation interactions. Once I began generating codes, as I read each successive interview and document or media source and identified additional potentially relevant excerpts, I decided whether they fit with an existing code or whether a new code was needed; this was repeated for each item in the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

Manual coding and qualitative data analysis can be performed with hard copies of data entered and formatted with basic word processing software only (Saldaña, 2016). This was facilitated by the Rev™ transcripts being in Microsoft Word™ format, with Word™ also being the word processing program I used for making notes during data analysis as well as completing tables and the final report for the study. Text from PDF documents, social media, and other Internet sources could also be cut-and-pasted into Word™ documents for note taking and for the final report.

My initial review of transcripts involved making notes in the margins and underlining key phrases. Color-coded highlighting was then used to match related concepts across multiple transcripts. Word™ documents were then created to list codes and group supporting quotations

or text with the respective codes. Braun and Clarke (2012) advised that once an extract of data is identified to code, the code should be recorded along with the text associated with it. Williams and Moser (2019) said words, phrases, or sentence fragments can be listed on separate pages, but I found it sufficient to simply group codes and supporting text in paragraph form. Use of Word™ allowed words or text to easily be moved, regrouped, reordered, or even deleted as necessary.

I sifted, refined, and organized data by engaging in *constant comparison*, continually comparing data collected in the interview transcripts (Williams & Moser, 2019). Repeatedly reading transcripts, media, and documents line-by-line, I was fully immersed in the text and was able to recognize and codify nuances and discrete connectivity (Williams & Moser, 2019). Reflection on emerging patterns and an attuned perspective from constant comparison allowed me to continually recode as needed, even reusing first cycle coding methods (Saldaña, 2016). Familiarity with the data set allowed me to easily recall related quotes or passages from different sources, and to combine them into codes (and ultimately themes). It is critical to search across the entire data set to find repeated patterns of meaning or collective experiences, as codes and themes must accurately reflect the content of the *entire* data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012). My familiarity with the data allowed me to continually make revisions to Chapters 4 and 5 as I was writing them, until I was convinced I had included all relevant codes and supporting text. The use of Word™ allowed flexibility in creating and editing tables, as well as additional supporting text in each chapter.

Since semi-structured interview questions were based on the research questions, codes ended up roughly grouped around each research question, although some codes and supporting text were applied to more than one research question. After completing data analysis and coding, themes were developed to answer the research questions. A theme is an *outcome* of coding, not

something that is coded itself (Saldaña, 2016). Searching for themes is an *active* process—the researcher generates or constructs themes rather than simply *discovering* them (Braun & Clarke, 2012). A theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). Themes were generated using multiple codes to provide evidence for them, quotations that added realism by offering the voices of participants, and views from multiple participants or other data sources (Creswell, 2016). It is crucial to provide examples and analysis of sufficient data to convince the reader that the pattern or theme claimed is actually evident (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

I did not feel at all handicapped by using manual (hand) coding and thematic analysis in lieu of software. Instead, I felt I gained truly intimate knowledge of my data, participants, and sources, allowing me to be fully confident in my analysis and final report.

Verification/Validation

In qualitative research, Creswell (2013) used the term validation instead of verification, viewing validation as a process and verification as having quantitative overtones. However, for the purpose of the discussion here, drawing on several authors with somewhat differing interpretations, the terms validation and verification will be used interchangeably. Validity is a key issue in research design, as it represents the credibility or correctness of descriptions, conclusions, explanations, interpretations, or other accounts involved in the research (Maxwell, 2013). Verification is a process which involves checking, confirming, and making certain; it includes the mechanisms in the process of research that contribute to reliability, validity, and rigor, finding and correcting errors before they subvert the development of a model analysis of data (Morse et al., 2002).

Creswell (2013) believed validation is a strength of qualitative research, through factors like time spent in the field by the researcher, detailed thick descriptions, and the closeness of the researcher to the participants. Qualitative validity means the researcher uses certain procedures to check for the accuracy of findings (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative reliability, on the other hand, indicates that the approach used by the researcher is consistent with different researchers and projects (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative reliability is explained through the description of the qualitative paradigm and research design discussed above.

Common procedures used to check qualitative internal validity, employed in this project, include: (a) rich, thick description (from the interviews); (b) member checking; (c) triangulation from documents and news media/social media, as their own source and compared/contrasted with the interviews; and (d) presenting negative or discrepant information. Rich, thick descriptions (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013) came from semi-structured interviews that allowed the researcher to collect detailed and varied information from participants, providing a full, revealing picture of what is being studied.

Triangulation involves collecting data from different sources, or by different methods, and using it to create a cogent justification for themes (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013). While the primary data collection came from interviews, additional data came from documents available from the case study site, as well as media researched online (including news media and social media). Information from documents can contribute supporting data providing background or context to the attitudes and behaviors of the participants, or to clarify information they have provided (Shenton, 2004). Examination of documents focused on those available to the public, through the Internet, including: (a) those containing information about customer satisfaction, including the results of public opinion surveys; (b) departmental policies, procedures, and

training related to customer satisfaction and procedural justice; and (c) web pages, newspaper accounts, and social media posts related to customer satisfaction or procedural justice.

Member checking or respondent validation involves soliciting feedback from the people involved in the study about the data and conclusions (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013). Creswell (2014) cautioned that member checking is not simply reviewing raw transcripts for accuracy, and Maxwell (2013) warned that respondents' feedback is no more inherently valid than their initial interview answers. Member checking may involve a follow-up interview (Creswell, 2014). At a very minimum, member checking was used to ensure the accuracy of interview transcripts, allowing participants to consider if their words matched what they intended (Shenton, 2004), giving participants a chance to clarify their responses, add to their responses, provide new information since the initial interview, or request a follow-up interview by Zoom™, phone, or email.

Presenting negative or discrepant information means information which runs counter to the themes (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013). Identifying and analyzing negative findings is important, to locate any defects in the account or in the themes and interpretations. Presenting contrary evidence can allow the reader to decide its merits, and perhaps increase the realism of the overall interpretation. For full transparency, the researcher must consider how their results and conclusions might be wrong, and what are plausible alternative interpretations. In the final analysis, though, threats to validity are made implausible by evidence in the research, not research methods (Maxwell, 2013).

Another model for validating qualitative research conducted using the interpretivist paradigm (naturalistic inquiry) involves four criteria: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability. Credibility takes the place of internal validity, dependability takes the place

of reliability, confirmability takes the place of objectivity, and transferability takes the place of external validity (Guba, 1981; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Rehman & Alharthi, 2016; Shenton, 2004).

Credibility involves the extent to which data and data analysis are believable, trustworthy, or authentic (Guba, 1981; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Credibility can be accomplished through: (a) adopting research methods that are well established in both qualitative research and the particular field being studied; (b) developing familiarity with the culture of the participating organization; (c) tactics to ensure honesty from respondents, including giving them the opportunity to refuse participation so only those genuinely willing take part in the data collection, establishing a rapport by emphasizing the independence of the researcher, and encouraging frankness; and (d) using thick, detailed description of the phenomenon being studied, to convey the situation being investigated, as well as the context surrounding it (Shenton, 2004).

Dependability refers to the ability of observing the same outcome or findings under similar circumstances (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Dependability is problematic in qualitative studies because an interpretivist researcher deals with human behavior that is continuously variable, contextual, and subject to multiple interpretations of reality (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). To address dependability, researchers must make detailed reports of the processes used in the study, including the research design and its implementation, operational details of data gathering, and reflective appraisal of the project, so that future researchers may repeat the work (if not necessarily to gain the same result) (Shenton, 2004).

Confirmability is the extent to which research findings can be confirmed by others in the field, with an overriding goal of ensuring that the initial researcher's biases are minimized, and

preferably eliminated, from contaminating the results of the data analysis (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Steps must be taken to ensure the findings are the results of the ideas and experiences of the participants, rather than characteristics or preferences of the researcher (Shenton, 2004). Avoiding the influence of the researcher can be dealt with through detailed methodological descriptions and audit trails (Shenton, 2004) as well as the researcher revealing their underlying epistemological assumptions (Guba, 1981).

Transferability involves demonstrating that the results of the current work can be applied to a wider population (Shenton, 2004). Researchers must make an effort to ensure they provide enough contextual data about their research and findings, so that readers can relate the findings to their own contexts (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Transferability is different than external validity or generalization. Naturalistic researchers use theoretical or purposive sampling, which is not intended to be representative or typical, but is intended to maximize the range of information uncovered for the individual phenomenon being studied (Guba, 1981). Naturalists avoid generalizations, believing that virtually all social/behavioral phenomenon are context-bound (Guba, 1981; Shenton, 2004).

According to de Vaus (2001), case studies may achieve excellent credibility (internal validity) by providing a profound understanding of a case. However, they are widely criticized as lacking transferability (external validity) because a profound understanding of one case provides no basis for generalizing to a wider population or a larger universe of cases.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical concerns are involved in every aspect or phase of the research project (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013). Some of the most important ethical issues involve obtaining permission to undertake the study, informed consent and voluntary participation, and protecting participants

from harm (de Vaus, 2001). Permission to conduct the study was obtained from two different entities, the first being the university. Permission from the university was obtained from Indiana Tech's Institutional Review Board (IRB), following completion of the prescribed application and the board's acceptance through a full or expedited review (Appendix B). Approval by the IRB is required for any research project involving human participants—including those being interviewed in a case study—to ensure protection of those subjects.

The IRB process requires that the researcher complete certification in the Social-Behavioral-Educational Researchers Basic Course through the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) program. The researcher has completed this certification, as well as certification in Protecting Human Research Participants through the National Institutes of Health, Office of Extramural Research training course.

In addition to IRB approval, permission was obtained from the site used for the case study. A full description of the proposed project was provided to the chief executive of the research site (Police Commissioner), and his written permission was obtained (Appendix C).

Ethical issues include assurances about anonymity and confidentiality (de Vaus, 2001; Gill et al., 2008). Participants were provided with an informed consent notification (Appendix D) via email when the researcher sent them notice of the day, date, and time of their interview using Zoom™ meeting. The individual informed consent notice provided information to participants on how they will remain anonymous in the data analysis and reporting. During the interview, participants were reminded that they will remain anonymous, and were given the opportunity to provide an email address other than their work email for their transcript to be sent.

Bias on the part of the researcher is a major ethical concern. In qualitative research, the researcher is considered the research instrument (Coyle & Tickoo, 2007; Maxwell, 2013). Bias

on the part of the researcher can appear in any part of the project, from the problem statement, purpose and significance of the study, formulation of the research and interview questions, selection of sources for the literature review, data collection, and data analysis. The researcher's bias, subjectivity, theories, beliefs, and perceptual lenses can never be completely eliminated (Maxwell, 2013). However, the negative influences of the researcher's bias in qualitative research can be avoided by understanding *how* those values and expectations may have influenced the conduct and conclusions of the study (Maxwell, 2013).

Summary

The project used a qualitative method to examine the research questions, with the goal of identifying leadership practices that promote police officers to deliver service satisfactory to their customers. The research design was a case study, using a paradigm of interpretivism. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews and examination of documents and media from or about the research site. Interviews were conducted with police officers (followers) and first line supervisors (intermediate leaders) from the Yonkers Police Department, serving a diverse, multicultural, and evolving population. Interviews were conducted and recorded using Zoom™, and transcribed using Rev™. Manual coding and thematic analysis, using theoretical thematic analysis, was used to analyze the data and develop codes and themes to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter presents and explains findings from the study. It describes how codes and themes were developed, the five themes that answer the research questions, and how respondents view customers and customer satisfaction. The discussion includes detailed textual quotes from the interview transcripts—rich descriptions in the participants' own words—along with the documents and media examined in the study. Codes, themes, and basic supporting quotes are also presented in table form for easy reference. The chapter ends with an operational model diagram and thematic map.

Developing Themes

As described in Chapter 3, data was analyzed through theoretical thematic analysis. Data was examined based upon the study's theoretical framework—distributed leadership—in which leadership practices evolve from the interaction of leaders, followers, and situation (Spillane, 2005, 2006; Spillane et al., 2004). According to Spillane and Diamond (2007b), "The interdependence of the individual and the environment shows how human activity, as distributed in the interactive web of actors, artifacts, and the situation, is the appropriate unit of analysis for studying practice" (p. 7). Data was examined based upon the study's research question and sub-questions, framed by semi-structured interview questions (Appendix A) designed to elicit information to answer those questions, along with examination of documents and media related to customer satisfaction with the service of the Yonkers Police Department. Realist research questions were used to elicit respondents' own accounts of their experiences and points of view (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). Codes and themes were derived using the process detailed below.

Codes emanated from words or phrases in the data (in this case, interview transcripts, supplemented where appropriate by documents and media) that represented "summative, salient,

essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute[s]" for portions of the data (Saldaña, 2016, p. 4). Every segment of text that seemed to be relevant to or specifically addressed the research questions was initially coded (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). Wherever possible, patterns were sought which were repeated more than twice in the data (Saldaña, 2016), particularly from more than two respondents. Although a single statement may be significant, it does not show the whole story, especially when the researcher is trying to understand relationships in diverse data from multiple respondents (Alhojailan, 2012), such as the five police officers and two sergeants interviewed in this study.

Themes were developed from grouping related codes, representing a network of associations (Jnanathapaswi, 2021). A theme is a "pattern that captures something significant or interesting about the data and/or research question" (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017, p. 3356), representing repeated patterns of meaning across the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006) provided a checklist of criteria for good thematic analysis, cautioning that themes should not be generated from a few vivid anecdotes, but through thorough, inclusive, and comprehensive coding.

Relevant extracts for themes have been collected and collated, and illustrate analytic claims (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Data analysis, completed through coding and themes, should tell a convincing and well organized story about the findings, recognizing that themes do not just emerge, but arise through a researcher who is *active* in the research and analysis processes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In an overview of thematic analysis, Williams and Moser (2019) recommend starting with many pages of text (in this study, 80 pages of interview transcripts and over 55 documents, web pages, news media sources, and social media posts), narrowing it to "many segments of text," then "30-40 codes," reducing the codes to 20, and finally reducing the

“codes to 5-7 themes” (p. 47). This study revealed five themes, but that was due more to answering the five research questions than it was due to Williams and Moser’s model.

Codes and themes were developed through repeated reading and analysis of interview transcripts and other related documents and media, in the context of the theoretical framework and research questions (theoretical thematic analysis). Basic themes uncovered in the data, that answer the research (sub-)questions, include:

1. A positive tone and supportive environment from police and city leaders promotes police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
2. Peer officer interaction is the strongest influence in promoting police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
3. Police and city leaders are conduits for gathering information from customers and disseminating it to police officers who deliver service to customers.
4. A synthesis of department activities, policies, and tools (technology) promotes police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
5. A variety of internal and external performance mechanisms influence police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.

Defining Customers and Customer Satisfaction

Because the focus of this study is the delivery of satisfactory police service (along with the closely related practice of procedural justice), respondents were asked who they considered to be their customers, and how they defined customer satisfaction. Inquiring about participants’ definitions of customers and customer satisfaction was done to see how their answers aligned with the literature, and to provide context for further discussion on providing customer satisfaction and procedural justice. It also allowed the participants to begin the interview with

relatively simple questions, compared to the later questions about leader-follower-situation interactions. Responses were analyzed by finding codes and supporting quotations, although no themes were created (as these questions did not address specific research sub-questions).

Customers

For defining customers, codes were based on responses that aligned with existing definitions, particularly for voluntary customers. In extant literature, many definitions tend to be very broad, such as such as the general community (Baker & Hyde, 2011), local community (Bland, 1997), citizens (Jamaica Cabinet Office, 2003; Madan & Nalla, 2015; Witte, 2004), taxpayers (Hulpus et al., 2015; Witte, 2004), or the public (IntelliPulse, 2013). The code of *All residents,* includes: “The citizens” (PO2), “The residents of Yonkers” (PO3), “All people that live within the precinct” (PO4, who also said, “Primarily Hispanics and African Americans,” referring to the demographics of their precinct), “The people of Yonkers, the community” (PO5), “The taxpayers… all the residents” (SGT1), and “All the residents of the city” (SGT2). The code of *Visitors to the city*, added: “Visitors to… Yonkers” (PO3), as well as, “Those that come within the confines of the city” (SGT2).

Voluntary customers, as defined in Chapter 1, include persons who request assistance from police (Maguire & Johnson, 2010; McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015; Worden & McLean, 2017). For the code of *People needing help*, examples include: “People that call for service” (PO1), “Complainants, people requesting police service” (PO2), “The people that call on us… that need help… people you stumble upon [who] you end up helping” (PO5), and “The people requesting service from you” (SGT1).

Respondents tended to provide mainly definitions of voluntary customers, rather than involuntary customers. Involuntary customers, as defined in Chapter 1, are those persons who are

involuntarily subjected to police authority, such as person detained on a traffic stop (Maguire & Johnson, 2010; McCarthy & Rosenbaum, 2015; Worden & McLean, 2017). Examining the code of *Involuntary customers* required some prompting from the researcher. One respondent defined customers as, "Anyone we interact with at all on a daily basis" (PO1). When specifically asked, the respondent said that would also include those who were issued a summons, arrested, or stopped and questioned—involuntary customers. Another respondent was specifically asked if their definition of customer would include those arrested or issued a summons, and they said, "Absolutely," adding that the "community" includes "law abiding citizens, victims of crimes, suspects of crimes, and [even] offenders that have been released back into the public" (SGT2).

Only one respondent did not give an answer that included involuntary customers at all. SGT1 viewed everything in terms of the taxpayer or complainant; those stopped, arrested, or cited are not "customers," but contact with them is for the "betterment of the quality of life" for the taxpayers (who *are* customers).

Customer Satisfaction

For defining customer satisfaction, codes were based on responses that aligned with elements of customer satisfaction and procedural justice from the extant literature. The first code to emerge was *Respect*, which is one of the four components of procedural justice (Goodman-Delahunty, 2010; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015; Skogan, 2005), as well as an element of customer satisfaction (Worden & McLean, 2017; Witte, 2004). Examples of *Respect* include: "You see people on their worst days. Even if they end up in handcuffs, they could say, 'You guys weren't bad, at least you treated me with some respect' [referring to involuntary customers]" (PO1), "Treating [them] with respect and… dignity, as if they matter—

and they do" (PO2), and "Respect goes a long way, even when we can't give them what they want" (PO4).

According to SGT2, "I don't think about procedural justice, more in the forefront of my mind is treating somebody with respect," and "The most important thing that I do try to push out onto my guys is… respecting individuals." SGT2 also sees respect as a reciprocal relationship:

> It's very important for police to be respected, and I don't think you command respect from fear. You command respect from respecting others and you earn it, so to speak. You don't command respect just because you have a uniform on, you have to earn it in your interactions with the public… I just think policing is so different than it was, like it's evolved to be this idea of providing a service, which we always have done, but it's no longer, "Do as I say, because I'm wearing a badge and I have a blue uniform." It's more like this: there's more explanation, there's more conversation, which there always should be… policing is evolving into a better way… we're transitioning right now.

Similar to SGT2, PO4 also sees a reciprocal relationship in officer-citizen interactions, noting, "The way we interact with them also changes the way they respond to us." Paraphrased from several pages of transcript, SGT2 believes the key elements of satisfying customers and practicing procedural justice are respect, empathy, and communication.

The second code to emerge was *Voice*, also a component of procedural justice (Goodman-Delahunty, 2010; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015; Skogan, 2005) and an element of customer satisfaction (Worden & McLean, 2017). Examples include: "People wanna have a voice, sometimes that's the most important thing to them. If they feel heard, if they can express how they feel, they leave the situation satisfied" (PO1), and "Listening and hearing what the person's problem actually is…listen and ask questions" (PO3).

PO2 included *Voice* along with *Respect*:

> It's really mostly just treating people with dignity and respect, as much as you possibly can, and hearing them out—people wanna feel like they are heard out… Essentially, it is just making people feel heard… Trying to have people feel like they have a voice: they wanna voice displeasure, their opinion, things of that nature. If the other person feels like they got off their chest what they wanted or needed to say, they feel a sense of fulfillment.

PO3 equates procedural justice with the way they have always been trained to do police work:

> I think of procedural justice just as every day doing police work and treat everybody the same and be fair… that's just the way I've always been taught police work… treat everybody fairly and do what's right, no matter who's on the other side… I've always tried to use procedural justice, just didn't title it that, it was just police work… From when I first started in the academy to field training through the years of coming up, it's never been 'different people get different service.'

The codes of *Communication* and *Doing the most* (or *problem resolution*) are both elements of customer satisfaction (Worden & McLean, 2017; Witte, 2004). Examples for *Communication* include: "You have to arrest somebody, or do something they don't want… as long as you can explain it, or try to explain it, that we are doing what we have to" (PO5), and "Giving them a solid answer, even if we can't do something" as well as "Following up" (SGT1).

Examples of *Doing the most* (*problem resolution*) include: "We try to help our customers solve their problems in the best way" (PO3), "Sometimes you can't give them exactly what they want, but you… do the most you can within your job" (PO5), and "There's no guarantee for

satisfaction… but… have them [customers] know we did everything in our power" (SGT1). PO3 and PO5 also acknowledged that a lot of things are out of the control of the police, and they can't always satisfy customers by giving them exactly what they want or need, but the customer should know that the police helped in the best way they could, and that they did everything in their power.

Other codes related to customer satisfaction, similar to those found in the literature, were *Empathy*, *Equality*, and *[Leaving a] Positive feeling*. PO4 specifically linked empathy to satisfying customers, saying, "Empathy goes a long way in satisfying them [customers]." PO5 linked *Equality* to *Doing the most (problem resolution)*, asserting, "No matter who you are, we're going to do what we can to help you." PO5 believes that if a customer is left with an impression that their interaction was a positive one, they won't hesitate to call again—"If you leave… an impression that their interaction… was a positive one… they wouldn't hesitate to call again"—that is, they will be satisfied with the encounter.

It is significant that respondents' answers to these two background questions are consistent with the literature. Significant congruence between respondents' answers and research on voluntary and involuntary customers, plus customer satisfaction, strengthens the reliability of the data and findings in the rest of the study.

Leader-Follower Interactions

In defining customers and customer satisfaction, existing literature provided a framework of definitions, in addition to the respondents' narratives, to aid in the theoretical thematic analysis. However, for analysis of the interactions discussed in the remainder of this chapter, there is no extant literature. The study is now dealing with the research gap: what promotes officers in the Yonkers Police Department to deliver service that satisfies customers'

expectations. Theoretical thematic analysis was still used, but only the respondents' narratives, along with document and media sources, were available to guide analysis within the theoretical framework of distributed leadership. Under the distributed leadership model (Figure 1), leadership practices evolve from interactions between leaders, followers, and situation. Under the detailed theoretical framework (Figure 4), intermediate leaders and peer-to-peer interactions are also included in the model.

Based on the traditional police hierarchy (Figure 3), police *leaders* tend to be seen as the commissioner (chief executive), senior command and administration, command and administration, and upper-level supervision. An interesting finding from the respondents in Yonkers is that they view *leadership* as extending above the police commissioner, to the city leadership, including politicians, creating a code of *City politicians are part of leadership*.

According to PO1:

> We have a pretty good working relationship with city council members. They're big supporters of the police and they're also diverse in their ethnicities… They're doing community outreach, they want the police at their events… that's a good bridge between the police and the communities… It basically comes from the top down. Yonkers is big on communities and keeping people happy across the board.

PO5 described the influence of complaints made to council members by citizens, saying:

> The complaint was made to city council member… and I think it was given a little more attention. The council member forwarded it to the captain, to the sergeant, to us. This specifically came from a little bit higher up and was given a little bit more attention.

SGT2 describes the evolution of policing as a service, noting:

> Coming down from a council member or community leader, the whole idea of policing is different now. It's more of a service. It reminds me a lot of social work… people think you should be more sensitive to someone who is mentally ill, interact more with a kid, not be so rude or abrupt… the expectation for policing to be community service oriented, to exhibit procedural justice, is so different. I see policing as evolving into a better way.

The second code developed was *Tone*—that is, leadership sets the tone for customer satisfaction and procedural justice. According to PO1, "It seems to be a citywide push… from the top down… that this is important and it makes our job easier." SGT1 said, "The Commissioner sets the tone, he's a calm, level-headed guy… 'Let's get this job done right. Let's just do it one job at a time. Treat everybody the right way.'" SGT1 also ties the tone in with accountability, saying, "If you screw up and you're on this job, you're gonna be held accountable… nobody's burying anything anymore."

SGT2 gave an example tying the tone set by leadership to an officer's duty to intervene, noting:

> We're being held accountable for other people's actions on the force. When you see excessive force—force going too far—whether you're a captain or on probation, you are responsible to speak up. There is permission from 'on high' that it's okay for a young cop to speak up against a guy with 30 years on. It's expected… it gives everyone a voice.

This quote is consistent with the discussion of duty to intervene in Chapter 2, particularly the incident in Florida in which a police officer intervened in an apparent use excessive force by a superior—a sergeant (Hensel & Cohen, 2022). It also illustrates why the distributed leadership model uses a bidirectional arrow between leaders and followers, instead of a simple top-down arrow typical of strict paramilitary, hierarchical structure.

The third code deals with the *Support sys*tem established by leaders. According to PO1, "I feel that Yonkers is pretty progressive… they're pushing to have that satisfied customer feel… Yonkers wants that for its citizens." PO1 and PO2 believe both police leaders and city leaders are supportive of giving police officers the tools needed to satisfy customers and practice procedural justice. SGT1 describes "a support system from the top down." According to SGT1, the police commanders "aren't your typical 'let me show up, have a cup of coffee and sit in my office' type of guys," saying, "Some of these guys really take this job to the next level."

SGT1 says, "I'm glad to have them [captains, chiefs, etc.]… because [we have] a support system from the top down," adding, "I'm talking about the politicians, too [part of the first code, *City politicians are a part of leadership*], for the most part we have great support from those people." SGT1 speaks highly of Yonkers' support system, especially in relation to the larger New York City, asserting:

> I think that you look at a job like New York City [police], and I think that these people down in New York City are like… a little bit more hesitant to do their jobs because they don't get the same support system that we have here from the top down.

Taken together, these codes produced Theme 1 (Table 5): A positive tone and supportive environment from police and city leaders promotes police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.

Table 5

Police Leader-Follower Interactions Promoting Customer Satisfaction and Procedural Justice

Code	Quotes (examples) (identified by respondent ID)	Theme
City politicians are part of leadership	PO1: “We have a pretty good working relationship with city council members. They’re big supporters of the police and they’re also diverse in their ethnicities… They’re doing community outreach, they want the police at their events… that’s a good bridge between the police and the communities… It basically comes from the top down. Yonkers is big on communities and keeping people happy across the board” PO5: “The complaint was made to city council member… and I think it was given a little more attention. The council member forwarded it to the captain, to the sergeant, to us. This specifically came from a little bit higher up and was given a little bit more attention” SGT2: “Coming down from a council member or community leader, the whole idea of policing is different now. It’s more of a service. It reminds me a lot of social work… people think you should be more sensitive to someone who is mentally ill, interact more with a kid, not be so rude or abrupt… the expectation for policing to be community service oriented, to exhibit procedural justice, is so different. I see policing as evolving into a better way”	**Theme 1:** A positive tone and supportive environment from police and city leaders promotes police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
Tone	PO1: “It seems to be a citywide push… from the top down… that this is important and it makes our job easier” SGT1: “The Commissioner sets the tone, he’s a calm, level-headed guy… ‘Let’s get this job done right. Let’s just do it one job at a time. Treat everybody the right way’” SGT2: “We’re being held accountable for other people’s actions on the force. When you see excessive force—force going too far—whether you’re a captain or on probation, you are responsible to speak up. There is permission from ‘on high’ that it’s okay for a young cop to speak up against a guy with 30 years on. It’s expected… it gives everyone a voice” SGT1: “If you screw up and you’re on this job, you’re gonna be held accountable… nobody’s burying anything anymore”	
Support system	PO1, PO2: After discussing the support of council members, Interviewer specifically asked if PO1 and PO2 believed city and police leaders are supportive of giving officers the tools needed to satisfy their customers and practice procedural justice; both PO1 and PO2 replied, “Yeah, I believe so.” PO1: “I feel that Yonkers is pretty progressive… I think they’re pushing to have that satisfied customer feel. I think Yonkers wants that for its citizens” SGT1: “I’m glad to have them [captains, chiefs, etc.]… because [we have] a support system from the top down… I’m talking about the politicians, too, for the most part we have great support from those people”	

Peer-to-Peer Interactions

As discussed in Chapter 2, in police work the lowest member of the organizational hierarchy, the worker on the line, has the greatest discretionary power (Haas, et al., 2015; Kingshott , 2006; Walsh, 1984; Wilson, 1978). Not only do front line personnel have the greatest discretionary power, but they deliver the bulk of police services working alone or with a peer, and not in the actual physical presence of a supervisor (Mark, 1976). So, the accomplishment of an organization's goals and objectives ultimately depends on the willingness of line level patrol personnel to carry out those goals and objectives (Walsh, 1983). For these reasons, it is important to examine who police officers interact with the most, and who most influences the way respondents do their job.

When asked who they interact with the most, police officers typically said fellow officers. PO1 and PO2 said, "Our peers. The guys in the precinct, on the same tour." PO3 said, "The other officers on my shift." PO4 said, "The other police officers," and PO5 said, "The people we work with." Even the sergeants indicated that they interact the most with the police officers. SGT1 said, "[I] deal with my officers, my officers contact me… I deal with my officers more than anything." SGT2 said, "The individuals that I supervise," adding, "When I arrive on scene… we talk a lot, which is why I think that most of my interaction is with the police officers." PO4 said that in addition to the other police officers, they also interact with "our sergeants," indicating a two-way interaction between sergeants (intermediate leaders) and police officers (line-level personnel).

When asked which department members most influence the way respondents do their job, police officers again answered that it was mainly their peers (especially their partner, if they had one), generating the code *Peers, partners*. PO1 and PO2 said, "Other officers." PO4 said, "My

partner," and PO5 said, "My partner first, then other officers… they can give you advice or help you out." PO3 said, "Peers," but added that that also included, "how we are all deciding to interpret what is coming down from supervisors," further reinforcing the discretion of line level officers in carrying out their duties.

Even sergeants conceded the influence of police officers on each other. SGT1 said, "In reality it's probably their coworkers… they would probably take more heedance from the people they deal with than somebody just putting out paperwork." SGT2 admitted, "I'd like to think I [sergeant] influence the officers, but I don't think I'm the most influential—it's each other."

The next code for influence on police officers was *Senior officers (informal leaders)*. Senior patrol officers are those with the most time on the job (for their shift or assignment). PO1 and PO2 said, "Senior officers on the tour… you can reach out to them for advice." PO4 said, "we are now the senior people… we have an opportunity to mentor." The concept of senior police officers as informal leaders is consistent with Spillane and Diamond's (2007b) finding that people move in and out of leader and follower roles, depending on the situation, as well as Portin et al.'s (2003) finding that de facto leaders, despite not being in a formal positional leadership role, help identify issues, bring resources to bear on those issues, and exercise discretion and influence over the direction of the organization.

The third code to emerge for influence on police officers was, *Immediate supervisors*. PO5 said, "After my partner and other officers, my immediate supervisor, less so the lieutenant, even less so the captain, and so on." SGT1 describes the commissioner and chiefs dealing with captains, and how those interactions filter down to lieutenants and sergeants, but there is no real, direct interaction between police officers and the upper command staff. SGT1 said officers are influenced by "their immediate supervisors, because those are the people they're constantly

dealing with… [especially if] the supervisor is reinforcing the paperwork that comes from above… I try to set a good example for my guys." SGT1 concedes, though, that "Every officer has a different personality… cops definitely take most of their direction from immediate supervisors because we set the tone, but the tone isn't always guaranteed to be followed." PO3 added a caveat, talking about patrol officers "all deciding [how] to ***interpret*** what is coming down from supervisors," again reinforcing the discretion line-level officers have in carrying out their duties.

Sergeants report being influenced by *Police officers* and *Other sergeants (peers)*. SGT2 said, "To be honest with you, I learn a lot from my officers, particularly the older ones, because they really have a wealth of knowledge to share." Acknowledging the contribution of senior officers reinforces the idea of de facto leaders holding an informal leadership position. SGT1 reported being most influenced by his peers—other sergeants—saying:

> I interact with other sergeants… we'll bounce questions off of each other… We all don't have the answers, but I think if you pool everybody together, you can come up with a pretty solid answer… a well thought out one for that matter.

SGT2 also reported being influence by their *Immediate supervisor*, saying, "My lieutenant… When I deal with my lieutenant, he is influencing the way I direct—interact—with the community, based on the needs they are vocalizing."

Analysis of these codes was used to create Theme 2 (Table 6): Peer officer interaction is the strongest influence in promoting police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.

Table 6

Department Members Who Most Influence the Way Respondents Do Their Job

Code	**Quotes (examples)** (identified by respondent ID)	Theme
For police officers:		
Peers, partners	PO1, PO2: “Other officers” PO4: “My partner” PO5: “My partner first, then other officers… they can give you advice or help you out” PO3: “Peers, [including] how we are all deciding to interpret what is coming down from supervisors” SGT1: “In reality it’s probably their coworkers… they would probably take more heedance from the people they deal with than somebody just putting out paperwork” SGT2: “I’d like to think I (sergeant) influence the officers, but I don’t think I’m the most influential—it’s each other.”	
Senior officers (informal leaders)	PO1, PO2: “Senior officers on the tour… you can reach out to them for advice” PO4: “We are now the senior people… we have an opportunity to mentor”	
Immediate supervisors	PO5: “After my partner and other officers, my immediate supervisor, less so the lieutenant, even less so the captain, and so on” (SGT1 describes the commissioner and chiefs dealing with captains, and how those interactions filter down to lieutenants and sergeants, but there is no real, direct interaction between police officers and the upper command staff.) SGT1: “Their immediate supervisors, because those are the people they’re constantly dealing with… [especially if] the supervisor is reinforcing the paperwork that comes from above… I try to set a good example for my guys” SGT1: “Every officer has a different personality… cops definitely take most of their direction from immediate supervisors because we set the tone, but the tone isn’t always guaranteed to be followed” *Note:* PO3 talks about patrol officers “all deciding to ***interpret*** what is coming down from supervisors”	**Theme 2:** Peer officer interaction is the strongest influence in promoting police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
For sergeants:		
Police officers	SGT2: “To be honest with you, I learn a lot from my officers, particularly the older ones, because they really have a wealth of knowledge to share”	
Other sergeants (peers)	SGT1: “I interact with other sergeants… we’ll bounce questions off of each other… We all don’t have the answers, but I think if you pool everybody together, you can come up with a pretty solid answer… a well thought out one for that matter”	
Immediate supervisor	SGT2: “My lieutenant… When I deal with my lieutenant, he is influencing the way I direct—interact—with the community, based on the needs they are vocalizing”	

In further clarifying how peer interactions influence respondent police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction and procedural justice, officers reported that they were influenced primarily, or even solely, by their partner. According to PO1, "You follow the lead of others to a certain extent, but a lot of what we do is based on our [my partner and my] own experience." According to PO4 and PO5:

> Other officers [besides my partner] don't influence me. Regardless of who else is working or who the boss is, my partner and I are going to deliver the same way… it doesn't matter if my mother or the commissioner were standing behind me [us].

PO4 said, "I am more concerned about what my partner thinks than other officers," indicating that their partner exerts influence through a sort of positive peer pressure.

Officers also seemed to want to obtain positive results. According to PO1, "Everyone should be respected; we [partners] treat them how we feel is fair, not replicating what we don't agree with from other officers." PO2 said, "You learn how to handle certain situations, or not to do certain things, to get the result you desire." PO4 said:

> We're [my partner and I] always talking about the outcomes of our jobs [calls, details], about how people are reacting to these jobs, and what could have been done differently [to obtain a more positive outcome]… we're always having those conversations.

PO5 discussed observations of how other officers handled calls, and acknowledged that they debrief as partners and often agree they wouldn't have handled it that way—"I think that happens a good amount." Thus, PO5 described how other officers' handling of jobs creates a sort of negative peer pressure. The conversations described by PO4, and the debriefing described by PO5, are also discussed under police follower-situation interactions (Table 8).

Some police officers seem to develop a personal style based on their experience, which can be as strong a factor as peer influence in how an officer delivers customer satisfaction or practices procedural justice. PO3 asserts, “Interactions with peer officers has some effect, but for me, not a great effect. I’ve been doing this a very long time, and have developed my own style.” According to PO5, “Delivering customer satisfaction is totally dependent on you, your personality and engagement, then your partner.” SGT1 notes, “I send out 11 guys each day, and you have 11 different personalities [that impact how the job is done].”

In addition to the findings discussed above, PO5 expressed a combination of pride in their work, along with a sense of responsibility and empathy for other officers. Especially with respect to procedural justice, PO5 said, “You wanna make the experience for the next cops better… you have to make it good for the next guy [police officer] up.” Noting that they will eventually be leaving their current precinct, PO5 promised to “leave it as best we can, as good for all the new people [police officers] that are coming in.” PO5 has a wide-ranging attitude towards creating a legacy of customer satisfaction and procedural justice:

> You have to make it for not only yourselves, for the next time you go, but for the next cop that goes there, for the precinct, for the community, for everybody to know that, “Hey, we could call the police, and the service we got was great—nine outta ten times.”

Leader-Situation Interactions

In the distributed leadership model (Figure 1), leadership practices evolve from interactions between leaders, followers, and situation. Sample elements of *situation*, from research in the field of education, are listed in Table 4. Situation elements are an integral component constituting leadership practice (Spillane, 2006). Aspects of situation both enable and

constrain practice, contribute to defining practice, and can make practice more or less difficult (Spillane, 2006).

The code of *Public interaction* was created by an overwhelming number of respondents' answers. Leaders interact with the public in a variety of venues, and in turn pass that information down the chain of command, ultimately to the police officers. PO2 cited "Leaders' interactions with the public… meetings, community outreach, etc. They have [monthly] community meetings at each precinct and you get things coming down from there through the chain of command…" Acknowledging the role of city's political leaders in leadership, PO3 said, "That's one of the ways the community gets their information to the department, through their elected officials." PO3 also included the role of police leadership, saying, "I guess some of the directives that come down are created based on feedback they're received from the community." Policies and procedures are discussed below.

Public interaction with leadership also includes complaints made by the public. PO3 stated that, "If people are making complaints about a certain way something is done, something is handled… the department's going to handle complaints." PO5 describes how those outside the department interact or communicate with leaders, saying, "People or leaders, albeit outside the department, from the business district or people that know politicians… have direct lines… the sergeant, lieutenant, captains can influence the calls." Similarly, SGT2 remarked, "People we interact with have a perception they have a relationship, a direct line of communication with the mayor… others have a direct line of communication with advocates or community leaders." Public interaction also comes through the department's website and social media presence.

Another leader-situation interaction is in the form of *Surveys*. SGT2 stated, "There have been a couple of surveys [from the Commissioner's level] asking about customer service.

There's been surveys that they've asked us as police officers to do about customer service and interaction with the public." A great deal of information on surveys was found through examining Yonkers Police Department documents and Internet resources.

The final leader-situation code, *Mission statement and policies & procedures*, was created from a review of Internet-accessible police department documents and media. Top leadership creates the department's mission statement and policies & procedures to guide the department, including a core value of respect.

The codes for leader-situation interactions created Theme 3 (Table 7): Police and city leaders are conduits for gathering information from customers and disseminating it to police officers who deliver service to customers.

Table 7

Police Leader-Situation Interactions Promoting Customer Satisfaction and Procedural Justice

Code	**Quotes (examples)** (identified by respondent ID)	Theme
Public interaction	PO2: "Leaders' interactions with the public… meetings, community outreach, etc. They have community meetings at each precinct and you get things coming down from there through the chain of command…" PO3: "That's one of the ways the community gets their information to the department, through their elected officials" PO3: "I guess some of the directives that come down are created based on feedback they're received from the community" PO3: "If people are making complaints about a certain way something is done, something is handled… the department's going to handle complaints" PO5: "People or leaders, albeit outside the department, from the business district or people that know politicians… have direct lines… the sergeant, lieutenant, captains can influence the calls" SGT2: "People we interact with have a perception they have a relationship, a direct line of communication with the mayor… others have a direct line of communication with advocates or community leaders" WEBSITE AND SOCIAL MEDIA: Yonkers Police maintains a detailed website, and has a strong social media presence on Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram..	**Theme 3:** Police and city leaders are conduits for gathering information from customers and disseminating it to police officers who deliver service to customers.
Surveys	SGT2: [From the Commissioner's level:] "There have been a couple of surveys asking about customer service. There's been surveys that they've asked us as police officers to do about customer service and interaction with the public"	
Mission statement, policies & procedures	Top leaders promulgate the department's mission statement and policies & procedures to guide the department, including "Respect" as a key value.	

Website, Social Media

The Yonkers Police Department maintains a detailed webpage (Yonkers Police Department, 2023a), along with a strong social media presence. The department has a Facebook page (Yonkers Police Department, n.d.-a), an Instagram profile (Yonkers Police Department, n.d.-c), and six separate Twitter pages, one for each of the four precincts (Yonkers Police 1st Pct., n.d.; Yonkers Police 2nd Pct., n.d.; Yonkers Police 3rd Pct., n.d.; Yonkers Police 4th Pct., n.d.), one for the detective division (Yonkers Police Detective Division, n.d.), and one for headquarters (Yonkers Police HQ, n.d.). Analysis of social media for this study focused on the Facebook page, as the Twitter pages and Instagram page tend to duplicate posts on the Facebook page. Contents of the Facebook page include:

- Recent crimes being investigated, particularly violent crimes;
- Arrests, investigations, and other updates (like sentencing), particularly for violent crimes and quality of life crimes;
- Youth and community programs;
- Community and neighborhood events;
- Engagement with community members (including schools);
- Safety alerts;
- Weather alerts;
- Scam alerts (including in Spanish, particularly for those targeting the Hispanic community);
- Crime prevention tips;
- Job postings (for example, police officer recruitment, public safety dispatcher, crossing guard);

- New hires, promotions, retirements;
- Awards and compliments;
- Missing persons and unidentified persons;
- Lost or found pets;
- Links for text and email alerts, and tip line;
- Traffic alerts and updates, street closures, parking limitations;
- News from other police departments.

Mission Statement, Policies and Procedures—Respect as a Value

According to the department's Mission Statement, "Our members shall respect the public and recognize the vast diversities they represent" (Yonkers Police Department, 2018, para. 7). The Mission Statement logotype, which is prominently displayed in/on all Yonkers Police Department facilities, communications, and documents, includes the motto "Service, Integrity, Respect" (Yonkers Police Department, 2018).

The Rules of Conduct require that:

> All sworn members of the Yonkers Police Department shall: (1) Be courteous and respectful to all members of the public… (2) Exhibit and maintain an impartial attitude toward complainants, violators, witnesses, suspects and other members of the public and not mistreat any person. (Yonkers Police Department, 2016, p. 2)

The webpage for the Police Department's Community Outreach Programs and Initiatives reflects the concept of respect, noting, "[E]very member of the public shall be treated with respect at all times and rendered professional service" (Yonkers Police Department, 2023d, para. 1). The webpage also acknowledges involuntary customers, noting, "Every member of the

Department is trained to treat every public contact as an opportunity for positive engagement, even in enforcement situations" (Yonkers Police Department, 2023d, para. 2).

The concept of a respectful demeanor is not new for the Yonkers Police Department. A Facebook post (Yonkers Police Department, 2022d) pays tribute to Robert Cannon, a former 36-year police veteran serving from about 1963 to 1999. The post includes not only his obituary, but a copy of an undated, unsourced newspaper article titled, "Officer cited for professionalism." The article cites Cannon's "courteous, professional manner" with the public, and quotes the then-Police Commissioner as saying, "Cannon's brand of politeness is capable of preventing conflict because it is calming to people who are agitated." Cannon himself is quoted as saying, "When you are dealing with people, you are dealing with human beings."

Surveys

Yonkers' first Police Department Public Opinion Survey was conducted in 2017 (Yonkers Police Department, 2017). It was conducted by a third party, OrgVitality, and made available in both English and Spanish (Yonkers Police Department, 2017). The report specifically notes that the Yonkers Police Department serves a diverse population (Yonkers Police Department, 2017).

Among the findings, the report claims 84% of respondents "are satisfied that YPD officials act in a professional manner" and 79% "think YPD treat [sic] people fairly" (Yonkers Police Department, 2017, p. 7). Respondents included a mix of voluntary and involuntary customers, with 14% "contacted by YPD" (involuntary customers) and 32% who initiated contact with YPD (voluntary customers); others included 12% who witnessed a crime, 9% who were victims of crime, and 6% who attended a recruiting event (Yonkers Police Department, 2017, p. 8).

There was some criticism of the survey, however. Garcia (2017) noted that OrgVitality "were [sic] unsuccessful in capturing Yonkers' racial and ethnic diversity in their respondents" (para. 7). Survey respondents were about 10% Black and 20% Hispanic, while the city's population is 17.2% Black and 35.5% Hispanic (Garcia, 2017). Garcia (2017) also pointed out economic disparities, with respondents from the wealthiest precinct reporting the highest satisfaction, and respondents from the poorest (and highest crime) precinct reporting the lowest levels of satisfaction.

Yonkers conducted a second survey in 2018 (Yonkers Police Department, 2019). Minority representation was even lower that the 2017 survey, including only 6% Black and 12% Hispanic respondents (Yonkers Police Department, 2019). Respondents did include both voluntary and involuntary customers, with 14% subject to enforcement or investigation by the police (involuntary customers) and 35% who initiated contact with the police (voluntary customers); others included 27% "other interaction," 27% community event, 23% "none" (no interaction with the police), 14% witnessed a crime or traffic "incident," and 9% victim of a crime (Yonkers Police Department, 2019). The totals add up to over 100%, because an accompanying pie chart shows that respondents could have had no interaction with the police, one interaction, two, three, four, or five "or more interactions" (Yonkers Police Department, 2019, p. 6).

Similar to the 2017 survey, 82% of respondents were satisfied "that YPD officials act in a professional manner," and 81% "think YPD treat [sic] people fairly" (Yonkers Police Department, 2019, p. 7). Comments from respondents included: "We have had nothing but good interactions with the YPD… the YPD have always been very courteous and professional at all times," "[T]he police officers were very professional, informative and reassuring…," and "Every

officer we came into contact with seemed personally interested in what happened, what is happening, and what might happen on our street" (Yonkers Police Department, 2019, p. 9).

At the time of this study, Yonkers is conducting its 2023 Community Survey on Public Safety and Law Enforcement (Yonkers Police Department, 2023g). The survey is promoted on the department's Facebook page (Yonkers Police Department, 2023h, 2023i) and was also featured on local television news (News 12 staff, 2023). The survey is designed to assesses five key components, including procedural justice, police contact and satisfaction, community involvement, safety, and performance (Yonkers Police Department, 2023g). The survey "was developed by the U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (COPS Office) with the support of ICF International and law enforcement experts" (Yonkers Police Department, 2023g, para. 6) and can be completed online using a computer or mobile device.

Follower-Situation Interactions

The first three codes for follower-situation interactions—*Procedural justice training*, *Roll call*, and *Conversations, debriefings*—were actually developed starting early in many of the interviews, and occurred in one form or another throughout the narrative. Training is a major consideration in the Yonkers Police Department. SGT1 said, "We've… had procedural justice training here," and noted a wide variety of training, "You've covered the gambit [including formal training, outside training]… the different trainings that all the cops have had." PO1 noted, "We've had procedural justice training with outside trainers," with PO2 clarifying that Yonkers "Even held some of the training from outside the department to ensure there's no sort of bias or anything like that." PO3 described the concept that officers should "Treat everybody fairly and do the best you can to find the right answers… [as] part of our training." PO3 also said the

“Department reinforces [procedural justice regularly] through training… it’s almost like it’s ingrained.”

Roll calls are used to talk about problems that need to be addressed in the community, as well as a vehicle for training. While discussing roll call, PO3 agreed that officers are told about the problems they need to tackle, which is ultimately a part of satisfying their customers. SGT1 notes:

> We do roll call training every day or we at least try to. And during that time, we… tell the officers like, “Hey, we have this… problem going on over here. If you guys could just please give it special attention.”

SGT2 asserts, “I’m a big roll call training individual.”

Conversations and debriefings are extensions of peer influence and interactions between officers and sergeants that have been described previously. According to PO2, “Both formal and informal conversations [are] going on… you and your peers, roll-call, in-service training.” According to SGT2, “We don't always say, ‘Okay guys, now we're gonna talk about procedural justice.’ It's just included in our [roll call training] and debriefings.”

Mission statement and policies and procedures was included as a code for follower-situation interactions, even though it was already included in leader-situation interactions. While leaders write the mission statement and policies and procedures, they are guiding documents for the entire department. According to PO3, “Treat everybody fairly and do the best you can to find the right answers was part of… the mission/policy,” and “Department reinforces [procedural justice] through… policies.” Both SGT1 and SGT2 acknowledged the impact of policies, procedures, and the mission statement.

Technology and media revolve mainly around video—from the department's body worn cameras, from other departments, and from social media. PO4 said:

> So, we all have body cameras and I think that influences the way that we are interacting with people and making sure to use procedural justice… if… it ever gets reviewed… I want them to see that I did everything I could. I made sure to explain and all that.

In addition to body camera video, SGT1 notes, "Everything's out there for everybody now. Whether you think you're on camera or not, you are." SGT2 feels that videos from other departments can be a valuable training tool:

> Watching YouTube videos from other jurisdictions… everyone watches and it's like a debriefing… With technology, and so much exposure on body cameras or street cameras, CCTV… learning from other people's mistakes is a great influencer on how we handle things. It's one thing to read a policy, it's another thing to watch it happen on a TV screen. We critique it over and over. That happens in in-service training, but I think it happens more informally amongst the guys… that's why I said I think the guys really influence each other.

The codes for follower-situation interactions created Theme 4 (Table 8): A synthesis of department activities, policies, and tools (technology) promotes police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.

Table 8

Police Follower-Situation Interactions Promoting Customer Satisfaction and Procedural Justice

Code	Quotes (examples) (identified by respondent ID)	Theme
Procedural justice training	PO3: “Treat everybody fairly and do the best you can to find the right answers was part of our training” “Department reinforces [regularly] through training… it’s almost like it’s ingrained” SGT1: “We’ve… had procedural justice training here” “You’ve covered the gambit [including formal training, outside training]… the different trainings that all the cops have had” PO1: “We’ve had procedural justice training with outside trainers” PO2: “Even held some of the training from outside the department to ensure there’s no sort of bias or anything like that”	**Theme 4:** A synthesis of department activities, policies, and tools (technology) promotes police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
Roll call	PO3: While discussing roll call, PO3 agreed that officers are told about the problems they need to tackle, which is ultimately a part of satisfying their customers. SGT1: “We do roll call training every day or we at least try to. And during that time, we… tell the officers like, ‘Hey, we have this… problem going on over here. If you guys could just please give it special attention.’” SGT2: “I’m a big roll call training individual”	
Conversations, debriefings	PO2: “Both formal and informal conversations going on… you and your peers, roll-call, in-service training” SGT2: “We don't always say, ‘Okay guys, now we're gonna talk about procedural justice.’ It's just included in our [roll call training] and debriefings.”	
Mission statement and policies and procedures	PO3: “Treat everybody fairly and do the best you can to find the right answers was part of… the mission/policy” “Department reinforces through… policies, it’s almost like it’s ingrained” SGT1: “You’ve covered the gambit [including policies, procedures, mission statement]” SGT2: “Yes, there’s policies”	
Technology and media	PO4: “So, we all have body cameras and I think that influences the way that we are interacting with people and making sure to use procedural justice… if… it ever gets reviewed… I want them to see that I did everything I could. I made sure to explain and all that.” SGT1: “Everything’s out there for everybody now. Whether you think you’re on camera or not, you are.” SGT2: “Watching YouTube videos from other jurisdictions… everyone watches and it’s like a debriefing… With technology, and so much exposure on body cameras or street cameras, CCTV… learning from other people’s mistakes is a great influencer on how we handle things. It’s one thing to read a policy, it’s another thing to watch it happen on a TV screen. We critique it over and over. That happens in in-service training, but I think it happens more informally amongst the guys… that’s why I said I think the guys really influence each other.”	

Training, including Roll Call, Conversations, Debriefings

Yonkers participates in, and receives funding from, New York's Gun Involved Violence Elimination (GIVE) initiative (Kava & Mason, 2018). All participating agencies must integrate procedural justice (Kava & Mason, 2018). In early 2022, all Yonkers police personnel received training in procedural justice from outside trainers with Future Policing Consultants (Future Policing Consultants, 2022b; Geraci, 2022; McCarthy, 2022). Future Policing Consultants' instructors have been trained since 2017 by the Chicago Police Department, creators of procedural justice training (Future Policing Consultants, 2022b), a curriculum built around four principles: voice, neutrality, respect, and trustworthiness (Future Policing Consultants, 2022a).

Training for Yonkers police was conducted by Anthony Geraci, Sean McCarthy, and J.W. Cortés. Geraci is chief of the Newburgh (NY) Police Department, former chief of the Watervliet (NY) Police Department, former lieutenant with the Albany (NY) Police Department, and a former officer with the New York City Police Department (NYPD) (Geraci, n.d.). McCarthy is a lieutenant with the Poughkeepsie (NY) Police Department (McCarthy, n.d.). Cortés is a sergeant with the New York Metropolitan Transportation Authority Police Department and a long-time trainer/instructor (Cortés, n.d.).

According to respondents, there is annual in-service training and less formal training occurs at roll calls. Several respondents also talked about conversations, dialogs, and debriefings (between peer officers or officers and sergeants) that occur regularly about jobs, which is the Yonkers police term for a call, dispatch, or incident that they have handled. According to PO4:

> I think that sometimes we don't even realize we're having those conversations [about customer satisfaction and procedural justice], right? Because we're always talking about the outcomes of our jobs, about how people are reacting on these jobs, and what could

> have been done differently. We're always having these conversations, even if we don't know that that's what we're actually doing.

Roll call training and dialogs often involve viewing media, social media, or body camera footage from other departments, to critique other officers' performance.

Technology, Body Cameras, and Media

SGT1 pointedly states, "Everything's out there for everybody now. Whether you think you're on camera or not, you are." SGT2 believes videos can be used as training tools:

> Yes, there's roll call training… but I feel like a lot of what we learn is from other officers. Watching YouTube videos from other jurisdictions… everyone watches and it's like a debriefing… "He shouldn't have done that, he should have done this, he should have done it different"… Police are their own worst critics. Everyone's a Monday morning quarterback. With technology, and so much exposure on body cameras or street cameras, CCTV… learning from other people's mistakes is a great influencer on how we handle things. It's one thing to read a policy, it's another thing to watch it happen on a TV screen. We critique it over and over. That happens in in-service training, but I think it happens more informally amongst the guys… that's why I said I think the guys really influence each other the most.

Yonkers police officers are equipped with body cameras. PO4 and SGT1 both see that as a positive. According to PO4:

> So, we all have body cameras and I think that influences the way that we are interacting with people and making sure to use procedural justice… if… it ever gets reviewed, yeah, I do think about how, well I want them to see that I did everything I could. I made sure to explain and all that.

Based on the reviews of officers' body camera recordings, SGT1 asserts:

> We have body cameras now, and I think it's the best thing that happened to us because I'll tell you, it… definitely if you watched as many body camera footages as I have, you'll see the cops for 99.9% of the time do the right thing. And a lot of the times the public that comes out and says, "The cop did X, Y, and Z," well, if you watch the body camera footage, you'd be like, "Wow, this guy's a saint. I can't believe he, well, he said one bad word during that whole incident, whereas this guy was trying to punch him in the face." I could tell you I deal with my guys on body camera and most of these guys are very good at de-escalating situations and far and few [sic] between is it that they have to go hands-on with somebody, but when they do, it's justified for the bulk of the time and it's not something that somebody just signs off on and justifies, because that has to go through a lot of motions. I mean, if somebody tries to sue the department, everything's on body camera now… That all gets dispelled once those cameras come out. So, I think that that's something that the public needs to be made a little bit more aware of.

SGT1 has concerns about how media portrayal of some police incidents, even those outside of Yonkers, might impact how police react in the future:

> It's been around forever, but for the last five or plus years, the media has been something. I mean, sometimes, guys—and it's become clear, not something I've seen very frequently—but some people don't react appropriately at certain jobs because they're petrified that they're gonna be skewered by the media. And you're dealing with something that's constantly, you'll see a clip of a hands-on job [e.g., an arrest with a use-of-force], and then maybe by that point the cop is so beaten down by the media and then a month later you'll get a full body camera footage of what actually happened. And it's like the

> guy is completely exonerated and people are all of a sudden flip-flopped. But by that point, the cop is so beaten down, he might even be put on modified duty at some point. You know what I mean? And then all of a sudden it's like, "Hey, sorry about that." That's just an example. I mean, that's not every single time, but I think the media is a huge portion of that.

SGT1's concerns about the media also include a lack of coverage of positive things that police do, stating:

> When it comes to recognition, it's far and few [sic] between where the media comments on something that's really good… [there's] a lot more of that than you think, but that doesn't sell newspapers and it doesn't sell news ads and everything else.

Mechanisms Ensuring Customer Satisfaction and Procedural Justice

Interestingly, the Yonkers Police Department does not have formal performance evaluations or annual ratings for its officers, based upon their collective bargaining agreement. However, there are a number of mechanisms to monitor and ensure or promote customer satisfaction and procedural justice, in addition to the surveys discussed in Theme 3, Table 7.

One mechanism (code) is *Recognition*, with informal and formal recognition of officers (including department commendations and awards), and recognition of individual officers or department actions on social media. PO5 says, "We've been recognized by the job many times, given awards." SGT1 acknowledges, "Informal and formal recognition." SGT1 adds:

> We have a yearly department recognition, so if there is a really standout job the supervisor will write the officer up for an award. Or the public will a lot of times write a nice note or card and we'll put it in the officer's file… If one of my guys gets a nice

> report or a good report, I like to bring it to the attention of the captain or lieutenant, and possibly even the third floor [colloquial for the department's administration].

In addition, SGT1 talks about recognition on social media:

> With the dawn of the Internet and everything now… nothing is a secret anymore. The PIO [Public Information Officer] likes to boast their good doings and they'll put it out for the public to see, for everybody to see… we have webpages [and social media]… it shows that the cops are getting good recognition.

The next mechanism (code) is *Citizen feedback*. PO2 says, "If a customer is willing to go to the extreme—either side, whether it's to be giving you praise for something or making a citizen's complaint—you will hear about it. So I guess that is formal feedback." SGT1 notes, "It [recognition] goes both ways, good and bad sometimes." The police department has processes in place to receive both complaints and compliments from customers. The department's website provides information on making a civilian complaint or giving a compliment on its homepage (Yonkers Police Department, 2023a) and its Internal Affairs Division page (Yonkers Police Department, 2023f), and its Frequently Asked Questions page includes information on making a complaint (Yonkers Police Department, 2023e). The department also has a detailed brochure titled, "How to make a civilian complaint or give a compliment" (Yonkers Police Department, n.d.-b). The brochure is printed in English and Spanish, and is accessible through a link on the Internal Affairs webpage (Yonkers Police Department, 2023f).

Additional mechanisms to ensure or promote customer satisfaction and procedural justice include *Ongoing training*, *Discipline*, and *Duty to intervene* (discussed in Chapter 2). For *Ongoing training*, PO3 said, "It [customer satisfaction and procedural justice] definitely comes up in training for our yearly in-services… probably mixed into roll call, just not really titled that

per se." Regarding *Discipline*, SGT1 asserted, "If you screw up and you're on this job, you're gonna be held accountable… nobody's burying anything anymore." As for the *Duty to intervene*, SGT2 claimed, "We're being held accountable for other people's actions on the force. When you see excessive force—force going too far—you are responsible to speak up. It's expected…"

These mechanisms (codes) created Theme 5 (Table 9): A variety of internal and external performance mechanisms influence police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.

Table 9

Mechanisms Ensuring the Delivery of Customer Satisfaction and Procedural Justice

Code	Quotes (examples) (identified by respondent ID)	Theme
No formal evaluations	PO3: “We don’t have performance evaluations or annual ratings” SGT1: “At one time the immediate supervisors used to give these [annual] evaluations to the officers. We no longer do that” SGT2: “Evaluations [of police officers] are not allowed by their collective bargaining agreement”	**Theme 5:** A variety of internal and external performance mechanisms influence police officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction.
Recognition	PO5: “We’ve been recognized by the job many times, given awards” SGT1: “Informal and formal recognition, it goes both ways, good and bad sometimes” SGT1: “We have a yearly department recognition, so if there is a really standout job the supervisor will write the officer up for an award. Or the public will a lot of times write a nice note or card and we’ll put it in the officer’s file… If one of my guys gets a nice report or a good report, I like to bring it to the attention of the captain or lieutenant, and possibly even the third floor [colloquial for the administration]” SGT1: “With the dawn of the Internet and everything now… nothing is a secret anymore. The PIO [Public Information Officer] likes to boast their good doings and they’ll put it out for the public to see, for everybody to see… we have webpages [and social media]… it shows that the cops are getting good recognition”	
Citizen feedback	PO2: “If a customer is willing to go to the extreme—either side, whether it’s to be giving you praise for something or making a citizen’s complaint—you will hear about it. So I guess that is formal feedback” CIVILIAN COMPLAINTS OR COMPLIMENTS: The department’s website provides detailed information on how citizens can file complaints against, or provide compliments to, an officer.	
Ongoing training	PO3: “It definitely comes up in training for our yearly in-services… probably mixed into roll call, just not really titled that per se”	
Discipline	SGT1: “If you screw up and you’re on this job, you’re gonna be held accountable… nobody’s burying anything anymore”	
Duty to intervene	SGT2: “We’re being held accountable for other people’s actions on the force. When you see excessive force—force going too far—you are responsible to speak up. It’s expected…”	

Facebook

The Yonkers Police Department Facebook page is used to recognize individual officers. Recognition can range from complimenting detectives on how they handled a murder case (Yonkers Police Department, 2022f) to thanking patrol officers for their help with an auto crash or theft case (Yonkers Police Department, 2022c, 2022e).

A woman whose boyfriend had been murdered sent a letter to the police department expressing her “deepest thanks” to the Police Commissioner and his team, particularly two detectives, for working “hard and diligently to bring justice” by arresting the murder suspect (Yonkers Police Department, 2022f). Her letter says the detectives had “both gone above and beyond,” and how much she appreciated their calls, texts, and updates, as well as checking up on her and encouraging her to never give up hope—that the person who did such a terrible act would be held responsible (Yonkers Police Department, 2022f).

While not nearly as traumatic as a murder, other citizens wrote in with appreciation for officers helping them in their time of need. A citizen who had been in their first automobile accident, and was “shaken up,” thanked the officer for being “very kind, knowledgeable, and professional,” and “making an unpleasant situation a little better” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022c). Another citizen accompanied a neighbor to one of the precincts to file a theft report (Yonkers Police Department, 2022e). That person commended the officer for being extremely helpful and going out of their way to assist them (Yonkers Police Department, 2022e). Each of these three Facebook posts included copies of the letters sent by the citizens; while the citizens’ names were redacted, the officers’ names were included.

The Yonkers Police Department also uses their Facebook page to post about various events in which they are involved, as well as enforcement actions they have taken. These posts

tend to generate a number of responses from citizens—both favorable and unfavorable. The favorable comments will be discussed here, while the unfavorable or critical comments will be discussed later under Negative or Discrepant Information.

The police department made a Facebook post about officers “working to keep everyone safe at Riverfest 2022 (while also having some fun!)” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022g). Comments on the post included, among others: “Send out a huge shot [sic] out to Yonkers PD in an amazing job! THANK YOU SO MUCH TO ALL THE Women and men of the department!” “Thank you for your continued service and protecting and connecting with the community,” “YPD is the best. They help people, they help animals, they engage with the community. Thank you!” and, “For all the wonderful work you do to keep our City of Yonkers safe for us and our children. God bless the YPD always” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022g).

In terms of enforcement action, the police department made a post about a large drug sweep with the arrest of 14 dealers (Yonkers Police Department, 2022a). Positive comments included, among others: “Thank you, Commissioner Sapienza and the YPD.” “Good job YPD. Keep up the good work!” and, “Thank you YPD for keeping our streets safe” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022a). On a post about illegal smoke shops being shut down, positive comments included, among others: “Great Work Yonkers finest. Stay Safe!” and “Keep up the good work. Fix all those broken windows!!!” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022h).

On a post about a major initiative to tow “ghost cars” (cars that are not registered or bear falsified registrations, and are often used in crimes), positive comments included, among others: “Awesome job! Keep it going and take down the criminals,” and, “Great job. Keep it going” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022i). Two comments even suggested the New York City Police Department could learn from this initiative: “Pay attention NYPD. This is how it's done,” and

"Now come and show the NYPD how to do their job" (Yonkers Police Department, 2022i). The enforcement program was even featured on television (CBS New York/CBS 2, n.d.). Another post dealt with dumping in Yonkers (Yonkers Police Department, 2022k). Positive comments included, among others: "Good job YPD. They think they will get away with it. No they won't," "The best way to stop dumping things on the streets and every where! Give them big fine [sic] and report on Tv [sic] for the others to learn…. Thank you Yonkers PD," and, "Much respect to Yonkers PD..Way to go !!! That's awesome !!!" (Yonkers Police Department, 2022k).

The posts discussed in the first paragraph of this section (Yonkers Police Department, 2022c, 2022e, 2022f) deal with voluntary customers, who called the police or sought out the police for help. Those discussed in the second, third, and fourth paragraphs (Yonkers Police Department, 2022a, 2022g, 2022h, 2022i, 2022k), though, do not represent voluntary customers in the technical sense—they are not people who necessarily or explicitly called the police for assistance. It is important to remember McCarthy and Rosenbaum's (2015) caution that simply being a resident is not sufficient for gauging satisfaction with the service delivered by the police, as an average person—having no direct contact with law enforcement—has no knowledge about the quality of police services.

It is impossible to gauge from Facebook comments what actual contact the respondents have had with the police, or what direct experience they may have with the issue at hand. However, they appear to be expressing appreciation or satisfaction with the police for keeping their environment safe. Perhaps it might be useful to view them as an entirely separate class of customer—"environmental customers"—because they depend upon the police to keep them safe at a public event or venue, and they depend upon the police to keep their environment free of quality of life issues, like drug dealing, illegal smoke shops, ghost cars, and dumping. SGT1

stressed that a lot of the interactions they have are “because of quality-of-life issues that are brought to our attention from, if you want to call them, the customers or the taxpayers… the bulk of the jobs we deal with are quality of life… quality-of-life issues is [sic] huge.” The positive comments on the department’s Facebook posts seem to reinforce that dealing with quality-of-life issues is important to residents.

Effects of Diversity

No single, clear theme arose from the data regarding how diversity affects officers’ delivery of customer satisfaction or practice of procedural justice. However, diversity is an element of situation with which both leaders and followers interact. Officers and sergeants believe in providing the same service to all customers, but they are also sensitive to the needs and desires of minority customers, and recognize differences in how officers and customers of different ethnicities, genders, and languages might interact. The police department is also heavily focused on minority recruitment.

Respondents expressed a strong conviction to treating all customers equally and fairly, while still recognizing that minority customers may have a preference for dealing with police officers who look like them or speak their language (primarily Spanish).

When asked about the impact of Yonkers’ diversity on delivering customer satisfaction and practicing procedural justice, PO3 didn’t see a particular impact, “because we’ve always been policing a diverse community, so it’s not something new here to have different people calling the police.” PO3 expressed a philosophy of policing in which everybody gets the same service: “From when I first started in the academy to field training through the years of coming up, it’s never been ‘different people get different service.’” PO2 said they “try to be as fair across the board to, as much as I possibly can, to whomever it is… I try to be as fair and even keeled

across the board toward whoever I'm speaking with." PO2 admits, though, "I guess there's ways you can approach certain individuals because of today's sensitivity surrounding a lot of the things that's [sic] going on within today's world." According to PO1:

> Obviously, every situation you go into is a little different, so you do your best to adjust how you react to - not everyone, like you said, it's very diverse or there's people that aren't from here originally who might be used to dealing with police in a different manner or how they were treated or vice versa, how they treat us. So, it's kind of situational, but you do your best to make everyone at least feel like, "Alright, they're here, they're gonna help me, they're gonna do the best they can to make this situation right."

SGT1 says that based on interactions with their officers, "all of these guys treat people very well. They don't look at whether the person is light skinned, dark skinned, blue skinned, whatever. They don't care about any of that stuff." SGT1 did note, however, that some citizens don't like it when an officer "doesn't look like everybody in the community." They said:

> A lot of times you'll hear, "I want a cop that looks like me. I feel more safe around that person or more comfortable." And that's fine. If that's the case, I'll do what I can to try and appease them. But that doesn't mean that's exactly gonna happen every day.

PO5 said that some people are more open to dealing with officers who look closer to how they look—whether they are of the same race, ethnicity, or nationality, or who speak Spanish—especially "in a society where people are obviously scared of cops." However, in an interesting twist, PO5 also notes that some customers may actually have a problem dealing with an officer who *does* look like them—for example, a female minority suspect being arrested by a female minority officer may protest that, "Oh, you're really gonna do this to me? Look at us. We're the same [nationality/ethnicity] and you're really gonna treat me like that?"

As far as Spanish speaking officers, PO5 noted that out of 85 officers in the precinct, probably fewer than 10 speak Spanish, and a third of them “can get by” but “aren’t fluent.” An on-duty Spanish speaking officer might have to respond into another precinct to serve as a translator, assist the detective division, or even serve the court. PO4 noted that officers fluent in Spanish do not get paid any extra for that skill, which is clearly in high demand by the department.

PO5 described having to have a neighbor assist in translating when they were taking a report from a Spanish speaking victim. PO4 described a woman from Mexico who was the victim of a Hispanic lottery scam, with a loss of over $10,000. Because the first two officers she approached did not know what she was talking about, they sent her to another precinct. According to PO5, a minority, Spanish speaking officer might have put more effort into handling such as case, as they:

> Come from a family where their parents speak only Spanish, their mom is older… this older woman who looks like their mom, talks like their mom, and is the same age as their mom is a victim of a crime and so could their mother [sic]. Let me do what I can to help her.

It appears that diversity (or demographics) can impact not just how customers relate to the police, but how police relate to their customers. Such a dynamic is consistent with Skogan’s (2005) finding that the things police officers do on the spot during police-citizen encounters dominate in determining satisfaction, although in a diverse community the personal characteristics of residents play an important role in shaping how different groups are treated, and affect satisfaction.

The Yonkers Police Department is sensitive to the issue of diverse recruiting and hiring. In the 2017 public opinion survey, one respondent commented that the police department should, “Hire more police officers of color so it can better represent the growing minority population” (Yonkers Police Department, 2017, p. 9). SGT1 says:

> They [the department] go out and I mean do everything in their power to try and recruit as many different cultures and diversities as they can to take this [the police entrance] exam. And I mean, when I say that they really spend a good sum of money trying to get many different backgrounds to take this test. We do try to do what we can to get as many different backgrounds as we can. So, in the case that people may not feel safe or may not feel like they’re not [sic] getting the service they want because of the way somebody looks, we’re doing what we can to try and recruit those people.

A focus area of the Yonkers Police Reform Committee is recruiting a diverse workforce, with a goal of increasing the number of Hispanic and African American police officers, primarily through the hiring and recruitment processes (Yonkers, NY, 2021).

Recruiting posters as far back as 2013 were printed in Spanish (Yonkers Police Department, 2013). However, the police department in Yonkers has never reflected the demographics of the Yonkers community, so in 2021 they began to specifically work on recruiting officers of color (Girma, 2022). Yonkers launched a new program in preparation for the (then) upcoming 2021 entrance exam (Yonkers Police Department, 2022b). The Police Commissioner at the time described the initiative, “Be the Hero, Be the Change” as “hyper-focused outreach to people of color to join the Yonkers Police Department,” offering “free tutoring to take the tough police exam” (News 12 staff, 2021a, para. 4). According to the department, the program was:

> Focused on recruiting Yonkers residents of a minority background, giving them the training and support needed to prepare for the test and obtain assistance with the application process for the Yonkers Police Department. The goal of this program was to recruit prospective Officers that reflect the communities they will be serving. (Yonkers Police Department, 2022b)

The police department even teamed up with community podcasters “Brother to Brother,” in a public event with a DJ, to publicize their efforts to recruit more Black officers (News 12 staff, 2021b). In July 2022, the police department added 26 new Probationary Officers, in the first class hired under the “Be a Hero, Be the Change” program (Yonkers Police Department, 2022b).

Negative or Discrepant Information

No single, clear theme arose regarding negative or discrepant information. However, identifying, analyzing, and presenting negative or discrepant information—information which runs counter to the themes (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013)—is a common procedure used to check qualitative internal validity. Presenting contrary evidence can allow the reader to decide its merits, and perhaps increase the realism of the overall interpretation. Dealing with the realities created by negative information—especially incidents such as investigations, lawsuits, and complaints—is yet another element of situation with which (primarily) leaders must interact.

Investigations, Complaints, Lawsuits

The Yonkers Police Department has had a number of complaints, investigations, and lawsuits, alleging activities clearly inconsistent with the principles of procedural justice. Significant examples, readily located via an Internet search, are included here.

In August 2007, the United Stated Department of Justice initiated an investigation of an alleged pattern or practice of excessive force and discriminatory policing by the Yonkers Police Department (U.S. Department of Justice, 2016a). The investigation was based on a series of complaints received by the Department of Justice in 2006-2007 and was completed in April 2012 (Yonkers, NY, 2016). In November 2016, following "many years of negotiations between the City and our Department of Justice—exhibiting cooperation, not confrontation," Yonkers and the Department of Justice reached an agreement that avoided imposition of a federal monitor, consent decree, or any punitive or financial measures against the city (Yonkers, NY, 2016).

The agreement states that there is not sufficient evidence of race-based policing by the Yonkers police, and there is no admission of wrongdoing (Yonkers, NY, 2016). According to the Department of Justice, the guidance provided by the agreement will strengthen public trust in the police by, among other things, implementing policies to avoid the use of excessive and unreasonable force, implementing policies on investigatory stops and detentions, ensuring transparency and accessibility in the complaint process, and ensuring training in Constitutional policing (U.S. Department of Justice, 2016b).

A 2014 newspaper article begins with a description of a police brutality lawsuit, but then details the fact that the Yonkers officer involved had been named in federal lawsuits at least six times in the previous two years, and another Yonkers officer was named in suits at least eight times in that 2-year period (Shilling, 2014). Three *additional* prior lawsuits against the officers had resulted in judgments or settlements of over $225,000 (Shilling, 2014). The Yonkers Police Department paid nearly $3 million in misconduct lawsuit judgments or settlements between 2000 and 2009 (Shilling, 2014).

According to Brannstrom (2022), between 2007 and 2020, at least 102 lawsuits alleging police misconduct were filed against Yonkers police. Most of the cases (95) were settled, with the city and officers denying any liability (even though a settlement was paid), and seven judgments came after jury verdicts against the city. Payouts cost the city over $5.5 million; the largest payout was over $1.1 million, while the average payout was around $55,000 and some were as low as $1,500 (Brannstrom, 2022). At least 10 Yonkers police officers were named in between four and nine lawsuits during the 2007-2020 period (Brannstrom, 2022). A communications director for the Yonkers Mayor said lawsuits are "settled for a variety of reasons and stressed that there is no admission of liability" (Brannstrom, 2022, para. 15). One of this study's interview participants, PO1, expressed concern about how lawsuits are handled, saying:

> I think lawsuits… give a cloudy picture, because a lot of times… cities will wanna pay out lawsuits as opposed to going to court, and by paying out a lawsuit sometimes it makes us look like we're accepting the wrongdoing, even though it's beneficial to just say, "Alright, listen here, take this please, and we're done" kind of deal.

A link to Brannstrom (2022) was also included in the comments of an unrelated Yonkers Police Facebook post (Yonkers Police Department, 2022c).

In April 2020, a lawsuit was filed against the Yonkers Police Department after a practicing Muslim woman was forced to remove her hijab for a mug shot, and then spent almost 36 hours in custody without being permitted to wear the Islamic head scarf (Edwards, 2021). In 2021, the suit was settled for $175,000; the New York Chapter of the Council on American-Islamic Relations (CAIR) praised the settlement, which it believed might be one of the largest of its kind (Edwards, 2021). The settlement also ends Yonkers' discriminatory policy of forcing

women to remove hajibs, in violation of their religious principles; the department also agreed to provide additional training for officers and report any previous incidents regarding the removal of religious garments for arrestees (Edwards, 2021). A case like this is particularly significant in Yonkers, where, for example, its 3rd Precinct has “seen a significant influx of people of Palestinian, Syrian, and Egyptian descent, mostly Islamic” (Yonkers Police Department, 2023c, para. 2).

On October 26, 2022, the Yonkers Police Department made a Facebook post about two men charged in a street assault (Yonkers Police Department, 2022j). However, it wasn’t long until negative comments were made by citizens about how the incident was handled. While some people praised the police for making the arrests in a brutal, videotaped assault, many pointed out that the first responding officer did almost nothing to intervene during the assault (Yonkers Police Department, 2022j). News reports detailed how a female sergeant got out of a cruiser and slowly approached the fighting men and appeared to say something to them, but did not physically intervene at all (Woods, 2022). The sergeant then simply stood by for a moment before gesturing for one of the assailants to get back, and grabbing the arm of the other, who continued to stomp on the man’s head and punch him (Woods, 2022).

The police department said it was conducting an internal inquiry into the initial police response (Woods, 2022), but within two days admitted the sergeant had been placed on modified duty and placed in an administrative position (Propper, 2022; Yonkers Police Department, 2022j). Comments and links to the news articles also appeared on an unrelated Yonkers Facebook post (Yonkers Police Department, 2022k) .

On a positive note, the March 2021 "City of Yonkers Police Reform Committee, Reform and Reinvention Plan" has focused areas in the following (among others):

- Procedural justice and community policing strategies;
- Addressing bias-based stops, searches, and arrests;
- Citizen oversight, accountability, and transparency;
- Recruiting a diverse workforce. (Yonkers, NY, 2021)

Plans such as this represent yet another leader-situation interaction.

Facebook

Negative comments on the department's Facebook page indicate that there are citizens who are not satisfied with some of the department's actions or priorities. There were even negative comments that disparaged the police department on issues completely unrelated to the topic of the post. On a post about a major drug sweep with the arrest of 14 dealers, one comment was, "Don't believe the hype" (Yonkers Police Department, 2022a). On a post about illegal smoke shops being shut down, there were many negative comments, including, among others: "Seriously 🤦‍♀️ this is truly pathetic!" "You should focus more on guns and Crimes not marijuana, what difference does it make if I buy it from smoke shop or Dispensary besides the high costs?" "What bullshit there are people dying from fentanyl stealing looting assault against the elderly and your [sic] worried about a business selling fake marijuana over the counter and letting criminals out 20 min after there [sic] arrest," and "They should be more concerned with the illegal sale of opioids instead of driving by past the dealers" (Yonkers Police Department, 2022h).

On a post about a major initiative to tow "ghost cars," negative comments included, among others, "How about the crime??? also gangs all over yonkers [sic]!!" and even a

complaint about the noise from sirens, “Sirens on yonkers avenue [sic] you can’t sleep!!” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022i). On a post dealing with dumping in Yonkers, negative comments, though not related directly to the enforcement action, included, “How about cracking down on the number of illegal apartments here in YONKERS too??? 😡😡😡,” and “Yonkers police suck just as much as Uvalde police” (Yonkers Police Department, 2022k). There were also comments on this post (Yonkers Police Department, 2022k) with links to news accounts of the Yonkers police sergeant who barely intervened in an assault (discussed above) (Propper, 2022; Woods, 2022). On a post where a citizen, who had been in their first auto accident, thanked the police (Yonkers Police Department, 2022c), two separate comments—unrelated to the topic of the post—included links to an article about alleged police misconduct costing Yonkers millions of dollars (Brannstrom, 2022).

On a Facebook post soliciting participants for the 2023 Community Survey on Public Safety and Law Enforcement, there was a lengthy, pointed, and somewhat sarcastic comment expressing dissatisfaction with unresolved issues in one of the precincts:

> Plenty of complaints in our residential neighborhood FOR YEARS that the 3rd Precinct not patrolling AND not attending to ONGOING TRAFFIC VIOLATIONS, QUALITY OF LIFE ISSUES REGARDING INCESSANT NOISE DISTURBANCES… WEIRDOS WALKING AROUND OUR NEIGHBORHOODS WITH CAMERAS TAPING RESIDENTS HOMES WITH THEIR CAMERAS (invasive harassment) SO THE RESIDENTS ARE TERRORIZED BY THIS… ONGOING FOR YEARS THE MIDDLE SCHOOL JOY RIDING STUDENTS WITH LOUD MUFFLERS, SPEEDING, INVASIVE NOISE BOOMING CAR RADIOS… THANK YOU NOT FOR THE INSULT TO OUR CITIZENS WHO HAVE LOST RESPECT AND

CONFIDENCE THAT THE THIRD PRECINCT IS OVERWHELMED W THE VIOLENT CITY CRIME AND IGNORING OUR CONCERNS AND ONGOING COMPLAINTS… THANK YOU NOT. (Yonkers Police Department, 2023i)

It is again important to remember McCarthy and Rosenbaum's (2015) caution that simply being a resident is not sufficient for gauging satisfaction with the service delivered by the police, as an average person—having no direct contact with law enforcement—has no knowledge about the quality of police services. It is impossible to gauge from Facebook comments what actual contact the respondents have had with the police, or what direct experience they may have with the issue at hand.

Operational Model Diagram

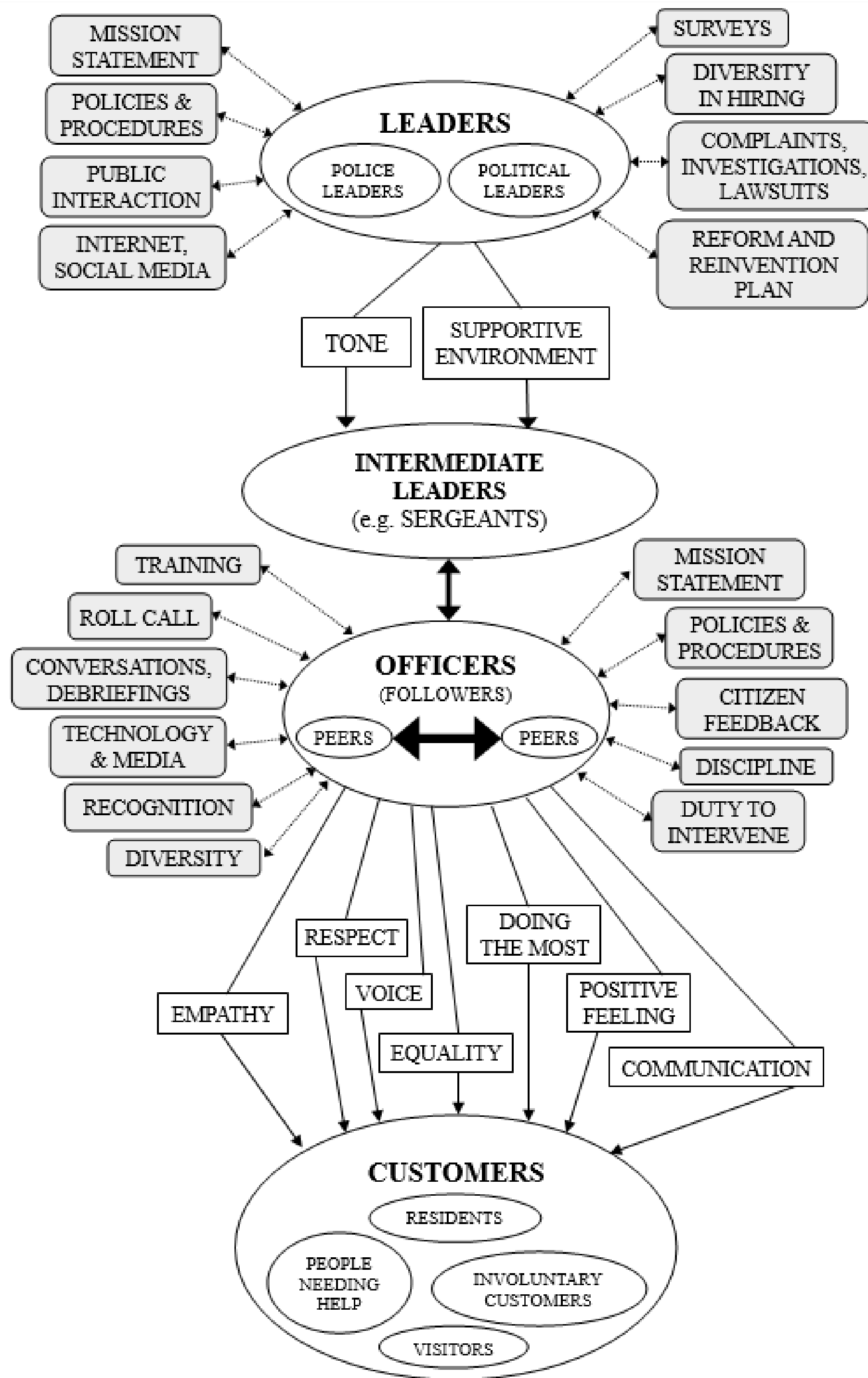
Saldaña (2009) recommends developing an operational model of the phenomenon or process analyzed and synthesized in the qualitative data. He encourages researchers to "think display" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 203), to visually represent codes, categories, themes, and concepts, and "map the complexity of the story" (Saldaña, 2009, p. 166). Such a diagram aids in readers' visual grasp of the study, supplements the analysis, clarifies the researcher's thoughts, and enhances the written presentation. Connecting lines and arrows (both one-way and bidirectional) illustrate not only the space and flow of actions and interactions, but can be used to suggest a sense of quality or magnitude (Saldaña, 2009).

Figure 5 is an operational model diagram created from the findings for this study, based on the theoretical framework of distributed leadership (Figure 1) and detailed theoretical framework (Figure 4). Participants—leaders (police leaders and political leaders), intermediate leaders (sergeants), followers (police officers), and customers—are represented by large ovals, with subsets of each population represented by inner, smaller ovals. Situation elements impacting

leaders and followers are contained in shaded rectangles. Interactions between leaders and intermediate leaders (tone and a supportive environment) are represented by plain rectangles, with thin one-way arrows from leaders downward. A thicker, bidirectional arrow appears between intermediate leaders and police officers, representing a stronger interaction between those two ranks than upper ranks. The thickest bidirectional arrow appears between peer officers, indicating the strongest interaction and influence within the model. Finally, one-way arrows from police officers to customers represent the delivery of seven elements identified in respondents' definition of providing customer satisfaction.

Figure 5

Operational Model Diagram (developed from study analysis and findings)

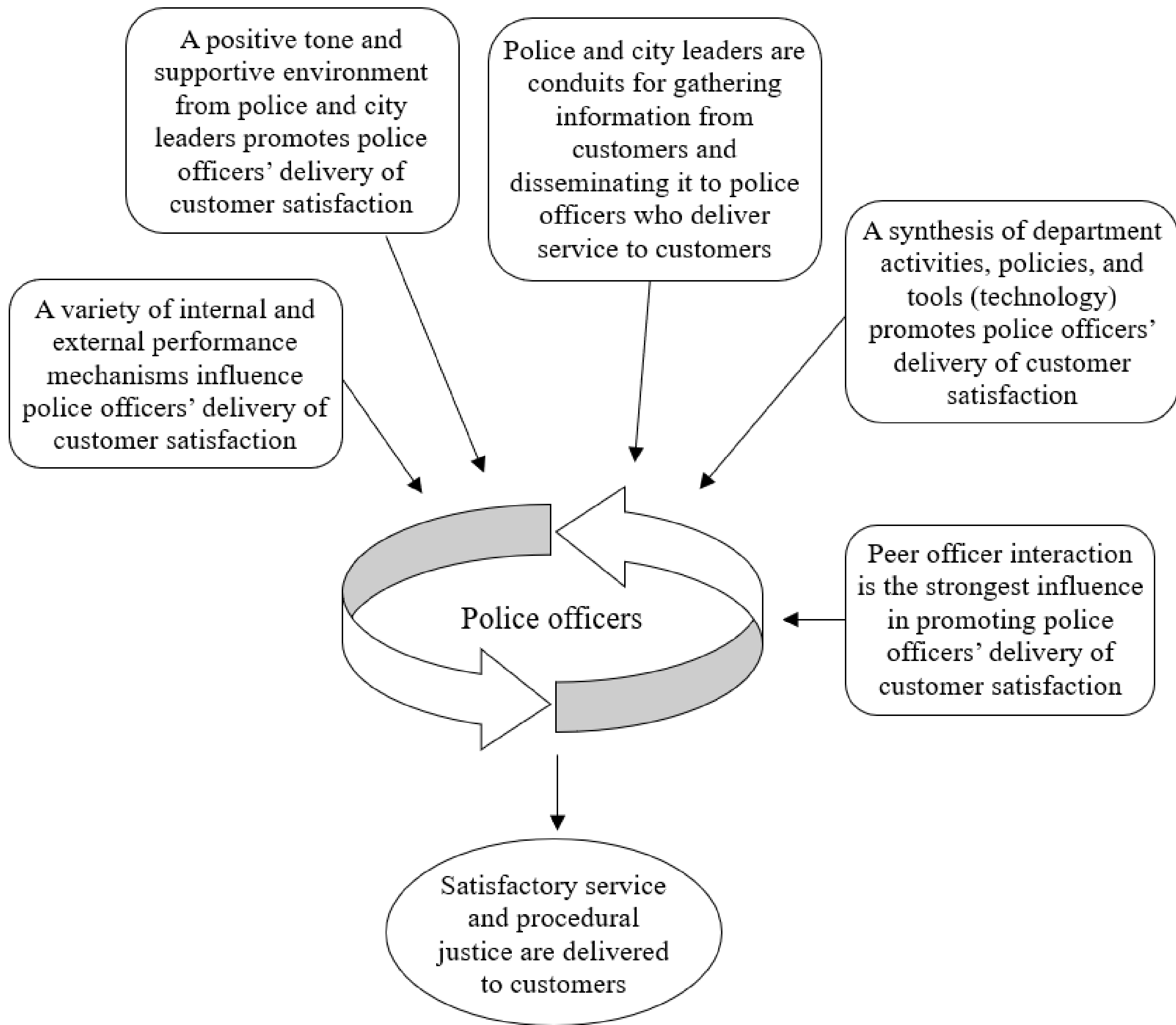


Thematic Map

Another way to graphically represent the findings is through the use of a thematic map. Maguire and Delahunt (2017) used a thematic map to illustrate the interaction between themes, including how they relate to the main theme. Though not explicitly stated (as it is not a finding, per se), the main theme examined in the study is the delivery of satisfactory service (and procedural justice) to customers. Service is delivered to customers by front-line police officers. The thematic map illustrates the interaction of the themes developed to answer the research questions in the study. The themes influence police officers, and ultimately their delivery of customer satisfaction (and procedural justice) to customers.

Figure 6

Thematic Map



Summary

At the beginning of the semi-structured interviews, respondents defined customers and customer satisfaction in terms consistent with extant literature. These responses bolster the reliability of the data and findings, as it indicates a general understanding by participants of

existing theory, making it more likely that their responses to other questions will be similarly grounded.

Theoretical thematic analysis of interview data, documents, and media was used to define codes and themes that answered the research questions. The five themes are:

1. A positive tone and supportive environment from police and city leaders promotes police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.
2. Peer officer interaction is the strongest influence in promoting police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.
3. Police and city leaders are conduits for gathering information from customers and disseminating it to police officers who deliver service to customers.
4. A synthesis of department activities, policies, and tools (technology) promotes police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.
5. A variety of internal and external performance mechanisms influence police officers' delivery of customer satisfaction.

The findings allow the identification of leader-follower-situation interactions that fit the distributed leadership model. In addition to interactions identified in constructing the themes, the findings revealed additional situation interactions regarding minority interactions, discrepant information (complaint, lawsuits, and investigations), and reform plans. The findings are graphically represented in an operational model diagram and a thematic map.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides an introduction, background, and summary of the study, along with an interpretation of the findings, and a discussion of the limitations of the study. It also explains the study's original contribution to scholarship—both to existing literature and to global leadership studies. Most importantly, it details a new model of distributed leadership applicable to hierarchical police organizations, created from the findings of this study, based on leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction and the practice of procedural justice by police organizations in a diverse, multicultural society. Finally, it discusses implications for future research and for global leaders and global organizations.

Introduction and Background

Those who have direct contact with law enforcement are the customers of the police. They include both voluntary customers (i.e., citizens who initiate contact with the police) and involuntary coercive customers (i.e., those subjected to police-initiated contact) (Baker & Hyde, 2011; Dai & Jiang, 2016). A great deal is known about what satisfies police customers, found mainly through survey research. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a result of whether customers' expectations for police service match or differ from the quality of the actual service they received (Ziaee Azimi & Saidi-Mehrabad, 2016). Worden and McLean (2017) identified categories of dissatisfaction with police service (Table 1), while Witte (2004) identified four primary elements of customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service (Table 2). Satisfying customers is also closely tied to the exercise of procedural justice by police, and the related legitimacy of the police in the community. Procedural justice is based on four key values: trustworthiness, respect, neutrality, and voice (Goodman-Delahunty, 2010; President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing, 2015; Skogan, 2005). Satisfying customers can be especially difficult or problematic in

diverse, multicultural environments, and procedural justice and police legitimacy are global concerns. Failures of police—particularly in highly publicized and questioned uses of force, especially deadly force—can result in not only diminished satisfaction and legitimacy, but protests, riots, and even calls to defund or abolish the police.

Despite the knowledge of what satisfies police customers, little is known about what police actually do, much less how or why they do it, in order to deliver service that is satisfactory to their customers; this constitutes the literature gap. The purpose of this study was to identify leadership practices that promote police officers to deliver satisfactory service in a diverse, multicultural environment. Under the distributed leadership model (Figure 1), leadership practices are created through interactions between leaders, followers, and situations (Spillane, 2005, 2006). The goal of this study was to better understand why and how officers deliver satisfactory service, so police agencies can increase the practice of procedural justice and facilitate the achievement of police legitimacy. The study has a secondary purpose of expanding the use of the distributed leadership model outside its predominant use in the field of education, and applying it to the field of policing and police leadership.

Summary of the Study

A qualitative case study was conducted with the Yonkers (New York, U.S.) Police Department. Yonkers was chosen because of its highly diverse and multicultural population, based on descriptions provided by the city itself (Yonkers, NY., 2022), the school district (Yonkers Public Schools, 2022), and the U.S. Census Bureau (United States Census Bureau, n.d.). The study's primary research question sought to identify leadership practices within the Yonkers Police Department that promote the delivery of service that satisfies both voluntary and involuntary police customers. Sub-questions investigated: (a) interactions between police leaders

(including intermediate leaders) and police followers that create leadership practices promoting the delivery of service that satisfies police customers, (b) interactions between police peers (especially at the follower level) that create leadership practices promoting the delivery of service that satisfies police customers, (c) interactions between police leaders and the situation that create leadership practices promoting the delivery of service that satisfies police customers, (d) interactions between police followers and the situation that create leadership practices promoting the delivery of service that satisfies police customers, and (e) the mechanisms in place to determine that these leadership practices are producing the delivery of police service that satisfies the police customer.

Data was collected from two primary sources. The first source was semi-structured interviews with seven members of the Yonkers Police Department consisting of five police officers (front-line employees or followers) and two sergeants (first-line supervisors or intermediate leaders). Participants were volunteers, with interview dates and times coordinated by a department liaison. Interviews were conducted via Zoom™ and transcribed using Rev™. The second source was documents and media available on the Internet regarding customer satisfaction and procedural justice with the Yonkers Police Department. These sources included: (a) department policies, procedures, and mission statements; (b) department social media, primarily collected from Facebook; (c) department and city documents; (d) U.S. Department of Justice documents related to the Yonkers Police Department; and (e) area television and newspaper reports related to the Yonkers Police Department.

Coding and thematic analysis of the data was done manually, using theoretical thematic analysis. Theoretical thematic analysis is a deductive approach using theory-driven coding and analysis of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Analysis was framed by: (a) existing research in

customer satisfaction, procedural justice, and police organizational structure; (b) the study's research questions; (c) the theoretical framework (distributed leadership, Figures 1 and 4); and (d) the conceptual framework (Figure 2).

Interpretation of Findings

An operational model diagram (Figure 5) was created, detailing leader-follower-situation interactions from the findings. Themes were developed that addressed the research questions and were integrated into thematic map (Figure 6). The findings ultimately allowed the creation of a new distributed leadership model for leadership practices that promote customer satisfaction with the delivery of police services and the practice of procedural justice (Figures 7 and 8). Data analysis was performed using theoretical thematic analysis, an approach that tends to be "driven by the researcher's theoretical or analytic interest in the area, and is thus more explicitly analyst-driven" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). The researcher's theories, along with constructs from existing research, are brought into play (Jnanathapaswi, 2021). When a researcher is concerned with addressing specific research questions, data is analyzed with those questions in mind (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). While this may provide a less rich description of the overall data, coding is done for specific research questions and results in a more detailed analysis of some aspect(s) of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). While the primary data source was the interview transcripts, data was also triangulated with the secondary data source of documents and media.

When asked to define their customers, and what satisfies their customers, respondents gave answers consistent with extant research. Customers were seen as residents, visitors (e.g., shoppers), people needing police help, and (when specifically asked by the researcher) involuntary customers (e.g., those arrested or issued a summons). Satisfaction was viewed as a

product of respect, voice, empathy, equality, communication, doing the most to solve problems, and leaving a positive impression.

When asked about police leader-follower interactions, respondents defined leaders as not only top police commanders, but also included city political leaders, such as council members. Respondents said leaders set a tone for customer satisfaction and procedural justice, and provided a supportive environment.

Influence varied along the leader-follower interaction dimension. By far, the strongest influence is between peer officers, especially partners. Senior officers can also move in and out of the role of de facto leaders. Police officers serving as de facto leaders is consistent with the incredible discretion exercised by front-line officers, and the fact that police officers carry out their duties primarily alone or in the presence of one or more peer officers and outside the presence of an immediate supervisor. Peer officers exerted both positive and negative pressure on how to handle situations to achieve the most positive results in terms of customer satisfaction and procedural justice.

The second strongest influence is between sergeants (first line supervisors/intermediate leaders) and police officers, which is a bi-directional influence. Sergeants also have peer influence/relationships with other sergeants. Lieutenants exert some influence over sergeants, but influence tends to weaken at each successively higher level of the organization. The most common leader-situation interaction reported by respondents was public contact/interaction with the public, allowing customers to communicate their needs, and leadership to in turn communicate those needs to the department. Leaders conducted surveys regarding customer satisfaction and procedural justice, and promulgated the department’s mission statement and

policies and procedures, which included requirements for elements of procedural justice and customer satisfaction (primarily the theme of respect).

Police follower-situation interactions included training, roll call, conversations and debriefings, the department's mission statement and policies and procedures, and technology and media—especially body cameras. Mechanisms to ensure or promote the delivery of customer satisfaction and procedural justice included formal and informal recognition, citizen feedback, ongoing training, duty to intervene, and discipline.

The most significant interpretation of the findings is that they were able to identify interactions between leaders, followers, and situation that are consistent with the construction of the distributed leadership model, and capable of explaining the creation (and evolution) of leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction and procedural justice in the Yonkers Police Department. A number of situation elements from the study (Table 10) are similar to examples from the field of education (Table 4, Chapter 2), such as:

- Mission statement, policies, procedures ~ Artifacts such as policies and procedures (Halverson, 2007; Spillane et al., 2004) and symbols (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Training ~ Professional development (Burch, 2007; Diamond, 2007; Sherer, 2007)
- Roll call, conversations, debriefings ~ Structures such as work unit meetings (Spillane, 2005), meetings (Spillane et al., 2004), and symbols (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Surveys, complaints, investigations, citizen feedback ~ Tools such as assessment instruments and evaluation protocols (Spillane, 2005), monitoring, evaluation tools (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Public interaction ~ Social and community context, sociocultural context, societal composition and structure, cultural settings (Spillane et al., 2004)

- Website, media, social media, body cameras ~ Tools and technologies (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Recognition, discipline ~ Monitoring, evaluation symbols (Spillane et al., 2004), tools such as evaluation protocols (Spillane 2005)
- Diversity in hiring, diversity of officers ~ Staff composition, organizational structures (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Diversity of customers (also diversity in hiring) ~ Social and community context, societal composition/structure, sociocultural context (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Tone set by leaders, supportive environment of leaders ~ Support in the form of providing resources and assistance (Spillane et al., 2004)
- Hierarchical relationship of police organization/influence within the hierarchy ~ Structure, organizational structure, staff composition, institutional setting (Spillane, 2005)

The only element or interaction listed in Table 10 that did not have a parallel in Table 4 was a duty to intervene.

Table 10

Complete List of Leader-Follower-Situation Interactions from the Study

Leader-follower interactions

- Leaders include both police commanders and city politicians (e.g., council members)
- Leaders set a tone for customer satisfaction and procedural justice
- Leaders provide a supportive environment for customer satisfaction and procedural justice
- Influence varies along the leader-follower dimension
    - By far, the strongest influence is between peer officers (especially partners). Senior officers can also move in and out of the role of de facto leaders.
    - The second strongest influence is between sergeants and police officers.
    - Lieutenants exert some influence over sergeants.
    - Influence tends to weaken at each successively higher level of the organization.

Leader-situation interactions

- Public interaction
- Mission statement
- Policies and procedures
- Surveys
- Complaints, investigations, lawsuits
- Diversity in hiring
- Website, social media
- Reform and reinvention plan

Follower-situation interactions

- Training
- Roll call
- Conversations, debriefings
- Mission statement
- Policies & Procedures
- Technology, media, body cameras
- Recognition
- Citizen feedback
- Diversity of customers
- Diversity of officers
- Discipline
- Duty to intervene

While the bulk of the findings focused on leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction and the practice of procedural justice, a counterbalance was demonstrated with negative or discrepant information. Negative or discrepant information was documented in the form of a federal investigation into the Yonkers Police Department for improper policing practices, lawsuits against the department (primarily for excessive force or other rights violations), and other complaints about officers' actions. Negative or discrepant information also included comments on the Yonkers Police Department's Facebook page, criticizing their actions, priorities, or other aspects of the department and its activities.

Presenting negative or discrepant information—information which runs counter to the themes—is a common procedure used to check qualitative internal validity (Creswell, 2014; Maxwell, 2013). Identifying and analyzing negative findings is important, to locate potential defects in an account or in the themes and interpretations. Most importantly, presenting contrary evidence can allow the reader to decide its merits, and increase the realism of the data collection and overall interpretation. Nothing in the findings seemed to contradict what I have found in the literature, and the findings seemed consistent with my 35-year career in policing, as well as my previous research on what satisfies customers of police service.

Limitations of the Study

There are two primary limitations to this study: First, its small sample size, and second, the bias (interpretation) of the researcher. The sample size is small for two reasons—it is a single site for a case study, and it had a small number of respondents. While the City of Yonkers provided the diverse, multicultural population sought for the study, the Yonkers Police Department is only one of over 17,000 police departments in the United States alone (Gardner &

Scott, 2022). The department has over 600 officers, yet only seven (five police officers and two sergeants) agreed to participate in the study.

The small sample size makes it impossible to generalize from the study. However, the goal of qualitative research is not to generalize, but to seek a perspective from the respondents (or the site of the study) (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). Narrative data provides for clarification, understanding, and explanation of respondents' perspectives (and other data from the research site), not for generalization.

Qualitative researchers do not generally use the term "bias," but say that the research is "interpretive" (Creswell, 2008, p. 266). The researcher themselves can be thought of as the key instrument in a qualitative study (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative data is dependent on interpretation (Alhojailan, 2012), and when conducted manually, qualitative analytical methods face the problem of inherent subjectivity (Feinerer & Wild, 2007). In thematic analysis, the coding process is highly subjective, and demands validity to minimize potential researcher bias, by carefully justifying the selection of particular phrases (Jnanathapaswi, 2021). Qualitative researchers cannot disconnect themselves from their theoretical and epistemological frameworks, and they do not code in an "epistemological vacuum" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 84). A theoretical thematic analysis, used in this study, tends to be driven by the researcher's theoretical or analytic interest in the topic, and is very much researcher driven (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher's perspective was discussed in Chapter 1, and justification of the coding method and process was hopefully demonstrated sufficiently in Chapters 3 and 4.

Explanation of the Original Contribution to Scholarship

This study makes an original contribution to scholarship in three principal areas. First, it explores what promotes police officers to deliver satisfactory service to their customers, closing

(or at least narrowing) the literature gap. Second, it creates a new model of distributed leadership aligned with the unique structure and culture of police organizations. Third, it expands the use of distributed leadership theory, both in general and in the study of policing and police leadership.

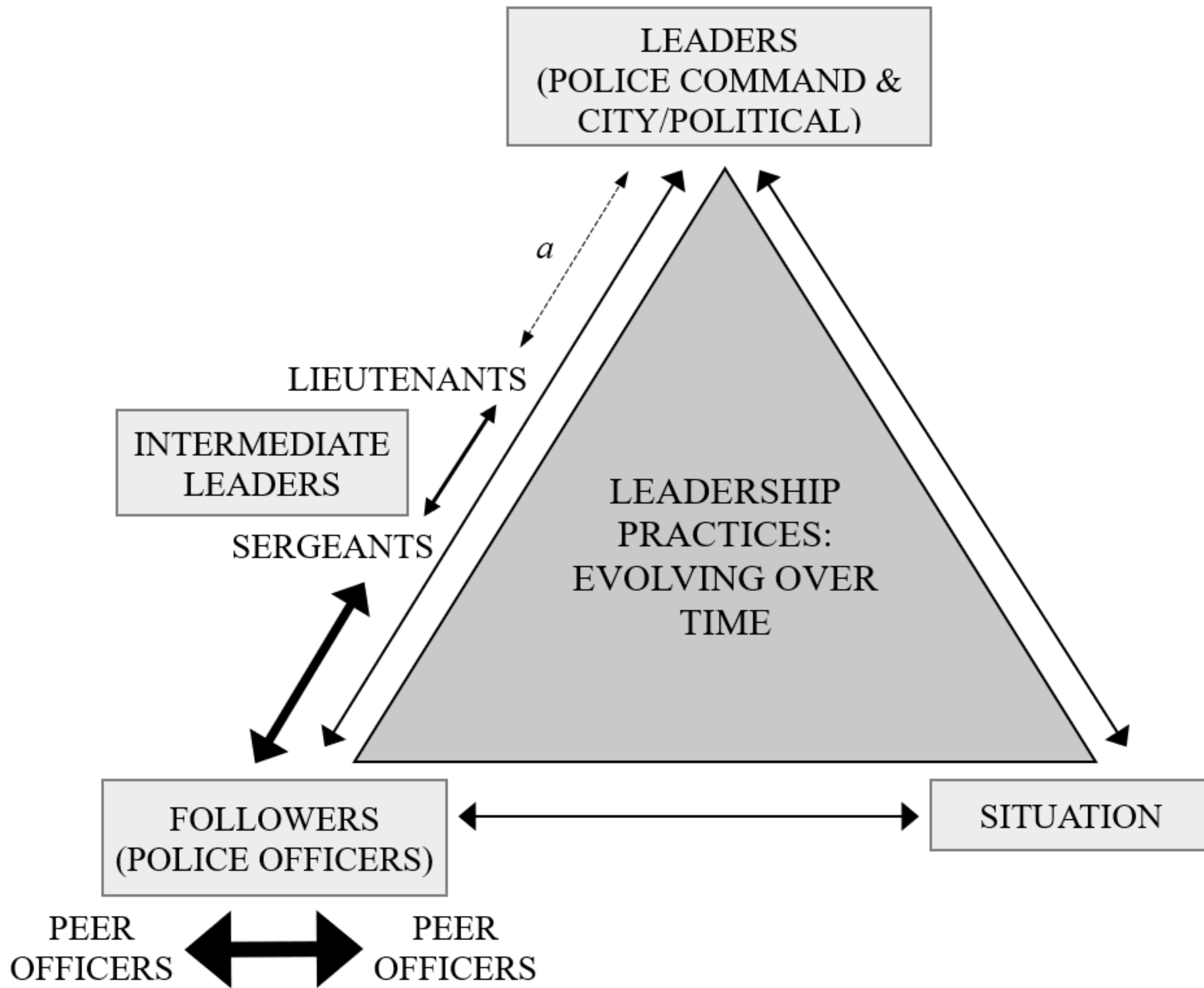
Relevance of Results to Existing Literature

Spillane's (2005, 2006) distributed leadership model (Figure 1), used primarily in the field of educational leadership, shows leadership practices being formed (and evolving over time) through the interactions of leaders, followers, and situations. However, the model is not necessarily suited to the description of leader-follower interactions in rigid hierarchical organizations such as police agencies. Police organizations tend to have formal, multi-layered rank structures, while educational institutions tend to have flatter structures, often consisting primarily of a principal (and possibly an assistant principal) and teachers—including lead teachers or specialists, and other teachers who may move in and out of leadership positions. To better illustrate the various ranks of a police organization (particularly first line supervisors) and account for the discretion exercised by line-level police officers (who perform most of their duties alone or with a peer officer, outside the direct view of a supervisor), Figure 4 added intermediate leaders along the leader-follower dimension, and added peer-to-peer interactions at the follower apex of the model. Figure 7 adds further detail to model. First, it includes city political leaders with police leaders at the leader apex. Second, it expands the range of intermediate leaders by delineating sergeants and lieutenants. Third, it adds arrows of varying thickness to show the relative influence of leader-follower interactions found in the study. The arrow between peer officers is the thickest, to illustrate that peer officer interactions are by far the strongest influence on how officers perform their duties. The next thinner arrow is between police officers and sergeants, showing the second most influential interaction. The next even

thinner arrow is between sergeants and lieutenants, illustrating a decreasing level of influence. The thinnest arrow is between lieutenants and top leaders, showing the decreasing interaction and influence by those at higher levels of the organization and sergeants and police officers. The arrows between peer officers and between sergeants and officers are bidirectional, reflecting findings of the study. While the arrows between sergeants and lieutenants and between top leaders and lieutenants are also shown as bidirectional in the model, it could be argued that single directional arrows from leaders downward might be more appropriate, showing more of a top-down dynamic. Only one respondent sergeant described influence by their lieutenant, and the other respondent sergeant specifically described a “top down” support system from the chiefs and captains. One police officer respondent explicitly mentioned being influenced by their partner and fellow officers, then by their immediate supervisor (sergeant), but then less so by the lieutenant and even less so by the captain. Beyond the interaction of police officers and sergeants, none of the respondents mentioned influencing those in ranks above them. Additional study is needed to more fully understand the interactions and influence above the rank of sergeant.

Figure 7

New Distributed Leadership Model for Hierarchical Police Organizations



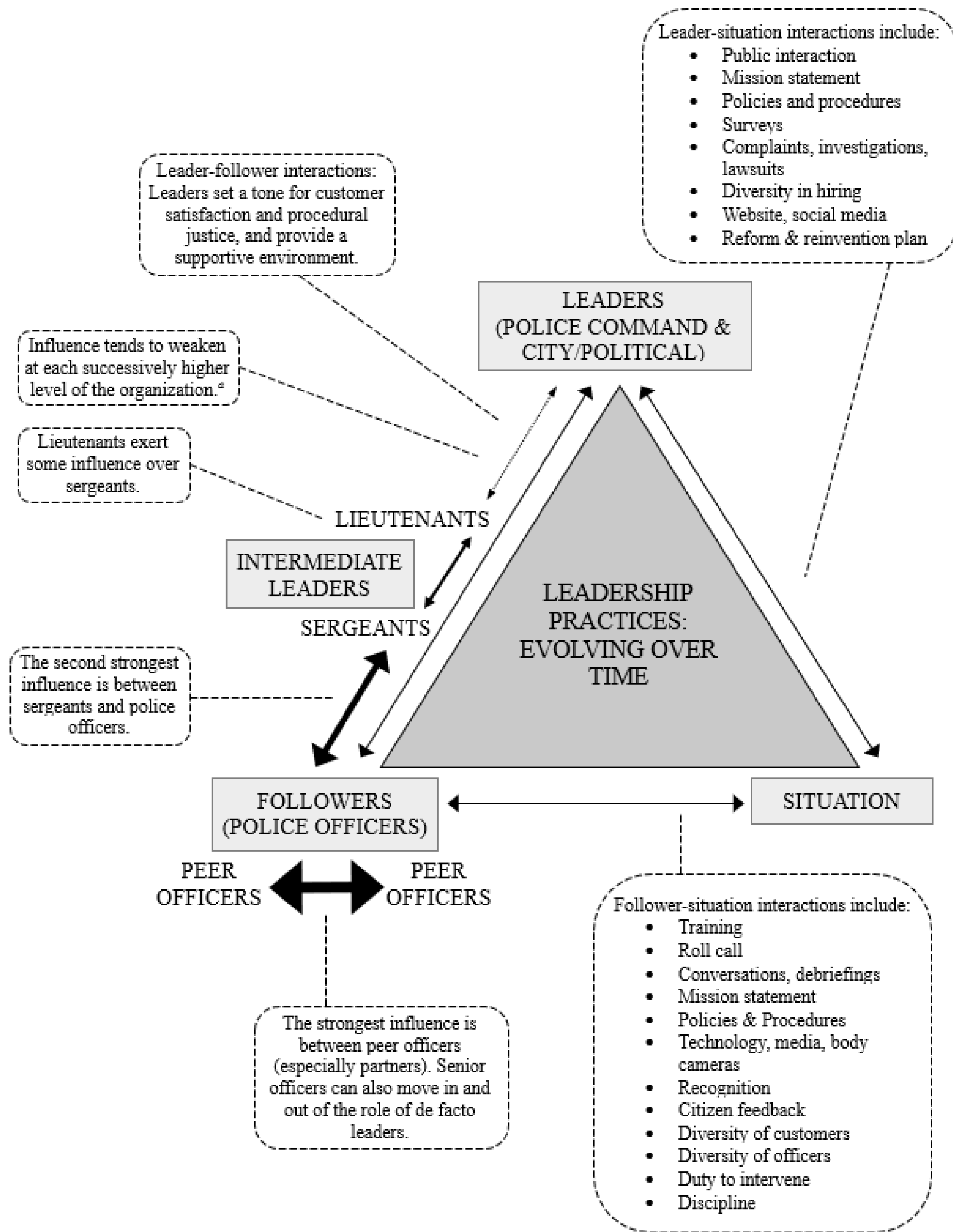
Note. © J. Witte (2023). Based on Spillane (2005, 2006).

[a] Additional study is needed to determine the direction and strength of interactions and influence above the rank of sergeant.

Figure 8 is the completed model based on the findings of the study. It is annotated with all of the elements and dynamics found in the study to complete the distributed leadership representation of leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction and the practice of procedural justice. Table 10 is a tabular list of all of the leader-follower-situation interactions presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8

New Distributed Leadership Model—Complete and Annotated



Note: © J. Witte (2023). Center triangle only based on Spillane (2005, 2006).

[a] Additional study is needed to determine the direction and strength of interactions and influence above the rank of sergeant.

Relevance of Results to the Field of Global Leadership Studies

The primary contribution of the results of this study is its unique application of the distributed leadership model to a new field and a new research question. The study was also conducted with an agency serving a diverse, multicultural, and evolving environment, which is an important consideration across the globe. There are few frameworks for studying leadership practice (Spillane, 2006). Examining the day-to-day practice of leadership has been mainly neglected in leadership studies (Spillane & Diamond, 2007b), with few researchers investigating how leadership takes shape in the interactions between leaders, followers, and situation (Spillane, 2006). The appropriate unit of analysis for studying practice, according to Spillane and Diamond (2007b), is the interdependence of the individual and the environment, showing how human activity is *distributed* across an *interactive web* of actors, artifacts, and the situation, especially during day-to-day activities. While this study shows the utility of the distributed leadership framework, Spillane (2006) cautions that, “Distributed leadership in itself is not a recipe for effective leadership practice. Instead, it offers a productive way to think about leadership for both diagnostic and design purposes” (p. 103). The distributed leadership model is an option for global leaders to better analyze the interactions within their organization that create leadership practices, especially in organizations—like police agencies—where influence may be disproportionately exercised at the follower level, rather than through formal leadership positions.

Implications for Future Research

There are clear implications for using the distributed leadership model to study other aspects of policing, as well as organizations outside of policing. There are four primary areas in policing, suggested by this study, for future research:

The first area to include in future research are the demographics of officers and customers. Yonkers was selected for the case study due to their highly diverse, multicultural, and evolving population. However, to help secure the participation of respondents, and protect their anonymity, a conscious decision was made not to collect any demographic information beyond their rank (police officer or sergeant). During the course of the interviews, a number of the respondents spoke about how their own demographics (race, sex, ethnicity or nationality, and language fluency [particularly Spanish]), along with the corresponding demographics of their customers, impacted their interactions. A review of documents also uncovered concerns about the lack of diversity among officers, and the department's efforts to recruit more minorities. More in-depth research should specifically analyze results based on demographic influences. Collection of demographic information from respondents, however, may be problematic due to issues of possible reverse identification of individual participants, and a possible reluctance to talk about sensitive demographic issues. Examination of customers' perceptions would also have to be studied in a different manner than this project used.

In addition to the demographics mentioned above (race, sex, ethnicity or nationality, and language fluency), a second area that would be beneficial to study is variation in responses based on age and tenure (length of service) of the respondents.

A third point for future study is organizational justice. While organizational justice was discussed in Chapter 2 as impacting officers' practice of procedural justice with the public, it was not a specific line of inquiry in the interviews. None of the respondents raised an issue of dissatisfaction with the organizational culture, and a number of them spoke in positive terms about their relationships within the department (and even with the city's political leadership). The relationship between organizational justice and procedural justice could be valuable to

pursue. However, it should be noted that even when recruiting volunteers to speak about customer satisfaction and procedural justice, some potential participants expressed concern about their image being recorded in the interviews, and others asked if they could receive an advance copy of the questions. Discussing issues of organizational justice (especially any negative connotations) might be especially sensitive to some members of the department, which may create resistance or hesitancy to participate. This might be an area that could eventually be studied with a quantitative survey instrument, which could be administered online through SurveyMonkey™ or PsychData™ to further protect any chance of identifying individual participants. (Of course, this would obviously involve further research in developing and validating such an instrument.)

The fourth area for future investigation are the influence and interactions of top ranks. The study focused on front line police officers, along with their immediate supervisors, because front line officers are engaged in the vast majority of individual police contacts with customers. The study found the strongest interaction/influence between peer officers, and secondly between officers and sergeants. One sergeant mentioned the influence of their lieutenant, but respondents indicated diminished interaction and influence at progressively higher levels of the organization. Above the rank of lieutenant, the department's organizational chart indicates at least 16 captains, two deputy chiefs, one first deputy chief, and the police commissioner (Yonkers Police Department, 2022l). It would be informative to study interactions and influence at the higher ranks, to more fully flesh out the leader-follower dimension of the new distributed leadership model presented in Figures 7 and 8. Obviously, this would require obtaining the participation of those in the higher ranks, and dynamics would vary from one agency to another, and among agencies of different sizes. It would also be interesting to study the impressions of top

commanders on the discretion wielded by front line personnel and their understanding of their own influence upon the operation of the department.

Implications for Global Leaders and Global Organizations

Customer satisfaction with the delivery of police service is a critical issue for global police leaders and global police organizations. Global police organizations may include those which actually serve one or more countries across national borders, those in single countries serving diverse, multicultural, and evolving populations, or those in single countries dealing with transnational crime.

Possibly the best way to improve public satisfaction with the police is to improve the quality of daily interactions between officers and citizens (Reisig & Parks, 2002). Ngobese et al. (2017) recommended regular assessment and monitoring of customers' experiences, as well as officers' behaviors, as ways to improve service quality. Customers' experiences have long been monitored through surveys, while there has been little systematic assessment of officers' behaviors in delivering satisfactory service (a sample literature gap). Assessing officers' behaviors can be accomplished by studying the interactions of followers through the distributed leadership model.

There are millions of police officers across the globe, and myriad contacts between police and both voluntary and involuntary customers. For example, in the United States, there are over 780,000 sworn police officers serving in over 17,000 police agencies (Gardner & Scott, 2022). In 2020, roughly 21% of U.S. residents aged 16 or older reported experiencing contact with the police—around 53.8 million people (Tapp & Davis, 2022). Voluntary customers represented about 11% of the population, involuntary customers represented about 10% of the population, and those who had contact with police due to being involved in a traffic crash represented about

3% of the population (Tapp & Davis, 2022). Between two and three percent of those who had contact with the police reported experiencing a use of non-lethal force or threat of force by the police, and half of those people believed that the threat or use of force was excessive (Tapp & Davis, 2022). Even the United States' smaller neighbor, Canada, has 70,114 sworn police officers (Statistics Canada/Statistique Canada, 2022) serving in 137 individual police agencies below the provincial or national level, 36 First Nation (Indian) police services, three provincial police agencies, and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) at the national level (Conor et al., 2020). In the United Kingdom, there are 48 civilian police forces, including 43 territorial police forces in England and Wales, a national police force in both Scotland and Northern Ireland, and three specialized police forces—the British Transport Police, the Civil Nuclear Constabulary, and the Ministry of Defense Police (Brown, 2021). In the 43 territorial police forces, there are over 140,000 full time police officer ranks (Home Office, 2022). Using a Google™ search, I could not locate any statistics for the total number of police agencies or police officers globally, but INTERPOL (2022) has 195 member countries, indicating that one or more police agencies exist in at least 195 countries. A non-academic source (Sawe, 2017) lists the top 30 countries by number of police officers, ranging from 1.6 million in China to 95,000 in Kenya.

Police are vested with tremendous power, including the authority to use physical force (Ben-Porat & Yuval, 2014; McCartney & Parent, 2015) as well as the ability to deprive citizens of their freedom through detention or arrest, search them and their dwellings or vehicles, and seize their property (McCartney & Parent, 2015). While this exercise of authority is directed towards involuntary customers, about 40% of police response in the United States involves noncriminal calls (Asher & Horwitz, 2020). These factors demonstrate the need to be attentive to satisfying both voluntary and involuntary customers. This study provides a valuable insight into

assessing officers' behaviors that promote the delivery of satisfactory customer service and the practice of procedural justice, especially in diverse, multicultural, and evolving environments, in a framework that can be used across the globe.

Summary

The study answered each of the five research questions with themes created through codes and supported by textual references from the interviews, documents, and media. The study fulfilled its stated purpose of identifying leadership practices that promote police officers to deliver service that is satisfactory to their customers in a highly diverse, multicultural, and evolving environment. Interactions were discovered between leaders, followers, and situation that created these leadership practices, which evolve over time. The findings allowed the creation of a new distributed leadership model that accounts for the hierarchical structure of police agencies and demonstrates the interactions and themes uncovered during the case study. The distributed leadership model provides a new way for leaders to examine and understand the dynamics of their organization—whether police or not—globally.

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APPENDIX A

Basic Questions for Semi-Structured Interviews

Correlation of interview questions to primary research question (RQ) or sub-question(s) (SQ) is indicated in parentheses.

1. Who do you consider to be your customers? (RQ)
    a. How do you define satisfaction for your customers? (RQ)
2. Think about the other members of your department:
    a. Who do you interact with the most frequently or the most regularly? (SQ1, SQ2)
    b. Who do you interact with that most influences how you do your job? (SQ1, SQ2)
    c. In what way, if any, do your interactions with them affect how you deliver customer satisfaction? (SQ1, SQ2)
    d. In what way, if any, do your interactions with them affect how you practice procedural justice? (SQ1, SQ2)
3. Think of a situation where you know, or believe, you satisfied a customer.
    a. What did you do to accomplish that satisfaction? (RQ)
    b. What people or ***things*** (e.g., mission statement, policies & procedures, evaluations, training) on your department influenced you to act this way? (SQ1, SQ2, SQ4)
4. Think of a situation where you know, or believe, you practiced procedural justice.
    a. What did you do to accomplish delivering procedural justice? (RQ)
    b. What people or ***things*** (e.g., mission statement, policies & procedures, evaluations, training) on your department influenced you to act this way? (SQ1, SQ2, SQ4)

5. Tell me about any conversations within your department about customer satisfaction. (RQ, SQ1, SQ2)
    a. Who initiates and participates in these conversations? (RQ, SQ1, SQ2)
6. Outside of past, formal training, tell me about any conversations within your department about procedural justice. (RQ, SQ1, SQ2)
    a. Who initiates and participates in these conversations? (RQ, SQ1, SQ2)
7. Tell me about any ways in which customer satisfaction and/or procedural justice are included as part of your performance evaluation? (SQ3, SQ4, SQ5)
8. In what way does the diversity of your city's population affect your delivery of customer satisfaction? (RQ, SQ4)
9. In what way does the diversity of your city's population affect your application of procedural justice? (RQ, SQ4)
10. Think of the leaders on your department. Are you aware of any people or things they interact with that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction or procedural justice? Please describe these interactions. (SQ3)
11. Can you think of any other interactions between people or with things, or within the operations of your department, that promotes the delivery of customer satisfaction, or the practice of procedural justice? Please describe these interactions. (RQ, SQ1, SQ2, SQ3, SQ4, SQ5)

APPENDIX B

IRB Letter of Approval

INDIANA TECH

Fort Wayne, Indiana

October 3, 2022

To Whom It May Concern:

Indiana Tech's Institutional Review Board ensures that all human participant research, regardless of funding source, follows the requirements set forth in Title 45, Part 46 of the Code of Federal Regulations (http://ohrp.osophs.dhhs.gov/humansubjects/guidance/45cfr46.htm). As a result, it is the responsibility of the IRB to protect the rights and safety of research participants in accordance with federal law and the National Institute of Health and Human Services.

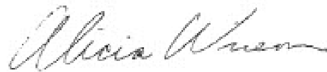
After careful review of your IRB application entitled, "Leadership Practices That Promote the Delivery of Customer Satisfaction With Police Services in a Diverse, Multicultural Environment," your research project **has been approved**, as submitted, by the Institutional Review Board of Indiana Tech. This research project, as submitted, **is exempt** from further human subjects review by the IRB of Indiana Tech. Please note the following limitations of this approval for exempt status for this IRB application.

The IRB of Indiana Tech approves the research plan as it currently exists in this specific application, including issues related but not limited to methodology, selected subjects, intervention procedures, risks and/or benefits to the subjects, confidentiality, information provided to the subjects and related consent forms, issues of privacy, and potential conflicts of interest. This approval extends to this research plan for the duration of **one year**.

This approval does not extend 1) to any exempt research interventions or activities not outlined within or beyond the scope of this specific application, 2) to any non-exempt issues that have not been presented in this specific IRB application, 3) to non-exempt issues that might develop during or as a result of this research project, nor 4) to any further research projects proposed by the investigator and/or co-investigator of record for this IRB application.

Any post-approval changes to the research plan, which include modifications to the existing application and/or application extension/renewal, may be submitted to the IRB using the IRB Post-Approval Change Form.

We wish you the best in your research project.



Alicia Wireman, Ph.D.
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Indiana Tech

APPENDIX C

Organization Informed Consent Form

ORGANIZATION INFORMED CONSENT FORM
For Indiana Institute of Technology (Indiana Tech) Research Project
At Yonkers (NY) Police Department

Project Title
Leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction with police services in a diverse, multicultural environment.

Purpose
The purpose of this case study is to explore leadership practices that are created through interactions between leaders, followers, and situation (referred to as distributed leadership) which promote the delivery of police service satisfactory to the agency's customers, particularly in an organization serving a diverse, multicultural, multinational population.

Procedures
The procedures for this case study involve: (1) semi-structured interviews with patrol-level (front line) employees and first-line supervisors (intermediate leaders), conducted via Zoom; and (2) research and review of publicly-available documents or media related to the topic.

Confidentiality
While the name of the Yonkers Police Department will be included as the participating agency, all individual respondents will remain anonymous. No personal identifying information will be collected or revealed, other than respondents' general position within the agency as a follower, intermediate leader, or leader. No individual responses will be provided to the agency. The researcher will store all data securely and confidentially. Only the researcher, and other qualified researchers who may assist him in the future, will have access to raw data (without names or identifying information attached).

Risks
There is no reason to believe that this project poses any risks or will create any discomfort for the participants.

Benefits, Freedom to Withdraw, and Ability to Ask Questions
The study is not designed to benefit the organization or individual participants, but to help the researcher learn more about leadership practices that promote the delivery of customer satisfaction with police services. Participants are free to ask questions or withdraw from participation at any time and without penalty. Department administrators are also free to ask questions, or for clarification, at any time.

Contact Information of Investigators
Principal investigator: Jeffrey H. Witte, jhwitte01@indianatech.net,
Dissertation committee chair: Douglas A. Barcalow, EdD, dabarcalow02@indianatech.edu

Statement of permission to allow this research on these premises:
"I give permission to allow Indiana Tech to proceed with the above named research at the **Yonkers Police Department** (via video conferencing for interviews), pending IRB (Indiana Tech Institutional Review Board) approval."

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: COMMISSIONER CHRISTOPHER SAPIENZA

SIGNATURE OF SUPERVISOR:

DATE: 9/14/22

APPENDIX D

Individual Informed Consent

(This will be attached to each participant's email with their Zoom™ meeting invitation.)

Identification of Project: You are receiving this invitation because you have either volunteered or you have been nominated by your agency as someone who may be able to provide rich, descriptive information on this topic. By joining the attached Zoom meeting (at the specified date and time), you are consenting to participate in an interview for the research project, *"Leadership Practices That Promote The Delivery Of Customer Satisfaction With Police Services In A Diverse, Multicultural Environment."* You also certify that you are at least 18 years of age and physically and mentally capable of participating in this research. Please be aware of the following:

Investigators: This research is being conducted by Jeffrey H. Witte, a doctoral candidate in organizational leadership/global leadership at the Indiana Institute of Technology, as part of his Ph.D. research. The project is under the supervision of Dr. Douglas A. Barcalow, Committee Chairperson. If you have any questions, you may email jhwitte01@indianatech.net or dabarcalow02@indianatech.edu.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to explore practices that are created through interactions between leaders, followers, and situation which lead to the delivery of police service satisfactory to their customers, particularly in an organization serving a diverse, multicultural, multinational population.

Procedures: This component of the research involves semi-structured, qualitative interviews designed to elicit information about the study topic. A separate component will involve a review of Police Department documents, media, and social media related to customer satisfaction.

Benefits, Freedom to Withdraw, and Ability to Ask Questions: This study is not designed to help individual participants personally, but to help the researcher learn more about leadership practices that promote the delivery of satisfactory services by police in a diverse, multicultural environment. Your participation is completely voluntary, you may feel free to ask questions of the researcher, you may choose not to answer any question(s), and you may end your participation at any time.

Risk/Discomfort: Because these interviews will be conducted one-on-one (albeit via Zoom), unless there is a privacy concern on your end, there is no reason to believe that this project poses any risks or will create any discomfort.

Anonymity/Confidentiality: Your name will be kept confidential throughout the research project, and will be replaced by a participant number or letter to be used by the researcher. No personal identifying information will be collected or revealed, other than your general position within your organization as a follower, intermediate leader, or leader. None of your individual responses will be provided to your agency. The researcher will store all data securely and

confidentially. Only the researcher, and other qualified researchers who may assist him in the future, will have access to raw data (without names or identifying information attached).

Recording and Transcription: Your Zoom interview will be recorded and transcribed, for the purposes of data analysis. You will be provided with a copy of the transcript prior to analysis, so you can check the accurate transcription of your answers, so you can correct any errors, and so you can add or clarify any information (if you so desire). Your name will not appear with your transcript, only your participant number or letter.

Release and Permission: By participating in this interview, you give Jeffrey H. Witte permission to use the collected data in his dissertation, which will be submitted to the Indiana Institute of Technology and also published in the ProQuest database. You also give your permission for the data to be used by Jeffrey H. Witte and any co-authors in future derivative publications.