

THE USE OF CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP IN CRISIS MANAGEMENT IN
POLICING

By

Margaret K. Hanslik, B.A.

A thesis submitted to the Graduate Council
of Texas State University in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science with a Major in Criminal Justice
August 2018

Committee Members:

Wayman Mullins, Chair

Howard Williams

Scott Bowman

COPYRIGHT

By

Margaret K. Hanslik

2018

FAIR USE AND AUTHOR'S PERMISSION STATEMENT

Fair Use

This work is protected by the Copyright Laws of the United States (Public Law 94-553, section 107). Consistent with fair use as defined in the Copyright Laws, brief quotations from this material are allowed with proper acknowledgement. Use of this material for financial gain without the author's express written permission is not allowed.

Duplicate Permission

As the copyright holder of this work I, Margaret K. Hanslik, authorize duplication of this work, in whole or in part, for educational or scholarly purposes.

DEDICATION

To my father, Curtis. Who believed I would not accomplish much, thus driving me to accomplish more.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thanks to my committee members who tolerated the ups and downs of my life and my master's program and challenged me to think harder, write better, and contribute more and thanks to my family for their support in this stressful time.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
ABSTRACT	x
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Defining Charisma for the Purpose of Policing	5
II. PURPOSE	10
III. DEFINING TERMS	15
IV. LITERATURE REVIEW	19
Leadership Definitions and Classifications	19
Positive-Impact Leadership	21
Negative-Impact Leadership	25
Qualities of Leadership in Policing and Crisis Management	27
Leadership Qualities that Impact Policing	28
Crisis Management Leadership Qualities	30
Charisma Relative to Policing Crisis Management	34
Charismatic Leadership and Unit Commanders	35
Charismatic Leadership and Unit Members	38
The Primary and Secondary Negotiators	39
Charismatic Leadership and the Bad Actors	41
V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS & HYPOTHESES	45
VI. VARIABLES	47
VII. SAMPLE	48
VIII. ETHICS	50

IX. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION	51
X. ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES	54
XI. RESULTS.....	56
XII. DISCUSSION	60
XIII. DATA.....	61
XIV. LIMITATIONS and FEASIBILITY	69
XV. CLOSING and FUTURE RESEARCH	71
APPENDIX.....	73
GLOSSARY OF TERMS	85
REFERENCES	86

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1a. Survey Participant Gender	48
1b. Survey Participant Age	48
1c. Survey Participant Race	48
1b. Survey Participant Job Industry	48
2a. Total Participant Selection of Charismatic Characteristics.....	56
2b. Total Participant Selection of Leadership Characteristics	56
3a. C-K Scale on Charismatic Characteristics of Best & Worst Leaders in a Crisis	57
3b. MLQ6 Leadership Characteristics of Best & Worst Leaders in a Crisis	58
4. General Charisma Inventory Best & Worst Leaders	58
5. Best Leader in a Crisis Mean Scores	61
6. Worst Leader in a Crisis Mean Scores.....	62
7a. GCI Best Leader in a Crisis	63
7b. GCI & AMS Worst Leader in a Crisis.....	63
8. Demographic Scores	64
9. Adjusted Mood Survey Scores.....	64
10a. Best Leader Charismatic Characteristics Best or Preferred	65
10b. Best Leader Leadership Characteristics	65
10c. Best Leader GCI Characteristics	65
11a. Worst Leader Charismatic Characteristics.....	66

11b. Worst Leader Leadership Characteristics	66
11c. Worst Leader GCI Characteristics	66
12a. Best Leader C-K Scale & MLQ6 Individual Question Scores	67
12b. Worst Leader C-K Scale and MLQ6 Individual Question Scores	68

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project is to identify followers' perceptions of charismatic leadership effectiveness in hierarchical organizations like policing and their relation to crisis management by those leaders. The goal is the comparative survey use of the Conger-Kanungo's Charismatic Leadership Scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1997), Bass' Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 6) (Bass & Avolio, 2004), and questions adopted from the General Charisma Inventory (Tskhay, Zhu, Zou, & Rule, 2017) and Madsen and Snow's (1983) political mood assessment of leadership to identify if preferred crisis management leaders had more or fewer charismatic traits than least preferred leaders in a crisis. The research question is whether charismatic leadership has effective and beneficial effects on crisis management in policing. The hypothesis was that there would be a positive correlation between follower perceptions of charismatic leaders and successful leadership in crisis management in hierarchical organizations. A survey of a convenience sample of 76 university criminal justice students at Texas State University and Corporate Security Officers for G4S Secure Solutions found that there was a positive correlation between preferred leadership traits in crisis management and charismatic leadership traits. It also found that there was a positive correlation between leaders lacking those traits and the least preferred leaders in a crisis management.

I. INTRODUCTION

Journalist Maria Kuruvilla (2017) asked Dr. George Kholrieser, a nearly 40-year veteran negotiator, a question: How closely are hostage negotiation and leadership linked? He responded:

“An important aspect of hostage negotiation is to change the mindset of a hostage taker to give up their weapons and hostages and surrender. What a hostage negotiator has to do is create a bond and through that understand the trigger for the incident. In 95% of the cases, the hostage takers give up their weapons. Leaders do not even come close to that level of effectiveness, but what we’re basically teaching is how to give a closer success rate to that 95% (Kuruvilla, 2017, p. 1).”

What is agreed upon by psychologists, sociologists, and business researchers in almost all discussions of charisma is that it is, at least, comprised of two things: (1) a constellation of traits that are both unifying and divisive depending on context and (2) a person marked with the trait empowers a group of followers, possibly for a reason with unclear logical standing (Bass, 1988; Conger & Kanungo, 1997; Bligh, Kohles, & Meindl, 2004; Fiol, Harris & House, 1999; House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991; Weber, Henderson, & Parsons, 1922). Charismatic leadership generally arises in defiance of traditional bureaucratic norms and at points in time when groups or individuals are needing or wanting new direction—also known as experiencing crises—whether it be regarding their faith, government, or simply needing advisement (Weber, et al., 1922). Charismatic leaders have a niche in these times because they are defined by their out-of-the-box thinking, their new or revolutionary ideas, and cleverly unique methodologies that tend to inspire followers when inspiration is otherwise lacking or when current leaders are failing to meet follower needs with the currently utilized ideas and methods (Conger & Kanungo, 1997; Weber, et al., 1922).

Those groups or individuals feeling adrift will turn to someone who identifies a seemingly clear path, even if there is no rationally visible route to success. A hallmark of charismatic leadership is that the “someone” they turn to will always have a strategic vision that is easily identifiable and well-articulated (Vergauwe, Wille, Hofmans, Kaiser & De Fruyt, 2017). This is the nature of charismatic leadership, and it can manifest emotionally from zealotry to intoxication and structurally from revolution to reconstruction (Weber, et al., 1922). Its characteristics are what make it difficult to define because what looks like a charming, straight path to some, seems like a dangerous river crossing to others (Alston, 2013; Dutton, 2016; Einarsen, Aaskand & Skogstand, 2007; Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Even the founding fathers of America experienced trepidation over charismatic leaders despite being such themselves which is evident in the design of the balance of power between the three branches of government (Couto, 2002), and is perhaps the similar notion with which the policing community eschews the idea, despite its potential benefits. However, it was not charismatic leadership itself that they feared, it was democracy’s ability to uproot a hierarchy that maintained rule for the benefit of all versus “the rule of the many for the benefit of the many” (Couto, 2002, p. 106). Similarly, many executive-level police officers may share the same notion that they know what is best, even at the expense of the group its meant to benefit, whether it be the department itself or the community at large. A likely well charisma research hits in the policing community is the coupling of those in power with an aversion to change (Engel, 2003; Schafer, 2010), but, in policing, crisis management leadership is not about power, it is simply about preferred negotiation methods that lead to the best possible outcome.

Organizations with hierarchies must put the right people in the right levels of leadership to successfully *organize* the group into a goal-oriented, single unit. Weick and Sutcliffe (2015) discuss the importance of organizational culture and its needs for effectiveness. “Part of the effectiveness of organizations lies in the way in which they are able to bring together large numbers of people and imbue them for a sufficient time with a sufficient similarity of approach, outlook, and priorities to enable them to achieve collective, sustained responses which would be impossible if a group of unorganized individuals were to face the same problem (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2015, p. 130).” Policing departments and agencies must be able to organize in a crisis at a moment’s notice which requires not only practice and preparation, but a culture of good leadership that can effectively communicate the needs and goals of not only the organization but also the community. On September 11, 2001, the most unexpected event in U.S. history occurred when terrorists flew planes into the World Trade Center towers. Because the New York police, emergency, and fire departments had drilled relentlessly since the previous 1993 bombing they were quickly able to coordinate with hospitals, other agencies, building security, the public and the media to expedite rescue and recovery efforts. They had lines of communication established, they had worked with building businesses and employees and established team leaders for evacuation protocols, trained with the security teams, and drilled the occupants biannually (Ripley 2008).

Culture of an organization defines its expectations both internally and externally and it also offers a framework of how to interpret those expectations; managing expectations is fundamental in good leadership (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2015). According to Sutcliff and Weick (2015), a good leader in any organization must be able to prioritize

and convey preferred values, beliefs, and actions. They must then be able to consistently communicate credibly to insure understanding by all parties and the beliefs they communicate must be valued by the majority of their followers (Smith, 1990). Finally, rewards and consequences must be established for accountability purposes to reinforce group behavior (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2015). In a crisis, a charismatic leader is a good vehicle for values, beliefs, and priorities that may suddenly change with the advent of new information.

Kappeler, Sluder, and Alpert (1998) point out that authoritarian personalities are already drawn to police work in the first place and that they are also more militaristic in their conformity to authority. The implication is that, while most rookie officers carry with them some capacity to lead, they are also highly susceptible to conforming to whatever culture their more senior leaders are guiding them towards. Additionally, policing itself exposes them to a darker side of humanity that forces them to have cognitive lenses they view the world through that are unlike that of any other organization (Kappeler, Sluder, & Alpert, 1998). It is then critical that police involved in crisis management have leaders that share their ideals, direct them towards agreed upon goals, and share the lens with which they perceive their current situation. Charismatic leadership is only effective when the group perceives the leader as having shared goals and cultural lenses (Conger & Kunungo, 1988), but, if that specification is met in policing crises, then there is potential amplified success with both the policing department and external agencies that will be required to work together (Smith, 1990).

Defining Charisma for the Purpose of Policing

Charisma was coined by the Greeks as “one who received grace or favor from the gods,” and was reiterated by Christians throughout the Middle Ages as a religious term with the same definition (Miriam-Webster, 2017). Primary association with the word is that there is a magical aspect to its purveyor, something ephemeral that cannot be measured or even pinpointed. It was not aligned with organizational leadership until Max Weber identified it as one of three leadership styles: charismatic, traditional and rational-logical (Weber, et al., 1922). In a discussion on state leadership in which he paired charisma with discord, Weber identified charismatic leaders as agents of upheaval. If a charismatic leader arises, it is because there was unrest in an institution that is now looking for something new even at the cost of the institution itself (Weber, et al., 1922). Charisma is often linked with revolution and crisis, not successful bureaucracy in sociological terms. But the question asked in this paper is if the only state of being for a group is crisis, as it is in policing crisis management, can charisma bring stability within each crisis?

The reality is that charismatic leadership is simply a dyadic following in which a leader or leaders emotionally connect, not just logically connect, with a follower or followers (Haney, Sirbasku, & McCann, 2010). Robert Cialdini (2007; 2016) heavily discusses unity in his books on the psychology of persuasion, pointing out that humans like people they can identify with at their basic cores. A leader can harness that to unify groups of followers with something as simple as clothing to something as powerful as belief. By identifying what a group is looking for, a leader can manipulate compliance through shared beliefs, backgrounds, interests, and goals (Cialdini, 2007). Cialdini (2016)

discusses systems thinking types and how proper manipulation of either type 1 (associative, intuitive, and emotional) or type 2 (deliberative, analytical, and rational) can assist and influence in targeting and directing a group successfully. Leaders need to do this well, but charismatic leaders do this naturally or intentionally.

In his Pulitzer Prize winning book, historian, geographer and anthropologist Jared Diamond (1997) follows the history of humanity in the creation of culture and identifies four causes of leadership at its most fundamental levels, all of which he points out are crises induced: (1) conflict between group members as the population grows, (2) a need for communal decision making, (3) prioritization of economic transfers of goods and supplies, and (4) the spatial realities of increased population density. Diamond (1997) even weighs in on the unification capacity of charismatic leadership noting that it is historically highly successful if the individual leader's goals align with the groups or tragically unsuccessful when the leader is incapable of controlling and manipulating information well. He points to examples of successes and failures of crises between dueling charismatic leaders in the histories of the "Ten Plagues" where Moses led the Israelites against Pharaoh, the Revolutionary War between George Washington and King George, and the Civil War between Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis, or General Ulysses Grant and General Robert E. Lee (all four men being identified as charismatic leaders) (Diamond, 1997).

Grabo and van Vugt (2016) looked at the use of charismatic leadership as a method of engaging cooperation and pro-sociality through the lens of Signal Theory. Their theory of the charismatic pro-sociality hypothesis was validated in their 2016 study where they were able to positively correlate improved social behavior in Trust and

Dictator, and Stag Hunt games with charismatic leadership during the activities. Their hypothesis dictates that through the notion of Signal Theory, humans are predisposed to follow charismatic leaders in situations requiring “urgent coordination.” Signals produced by charismatic leaders create a “first mover” climate that engenders confidence in followers that there will be a mutually beneficial arrangement between the leader (Grabo & van Vugt, 2016). In Stag Hunt, players must choose to work together to hunt a stag or choose to hunt a hare alone. Neither player knows what the other will do but must rely on the idea that both want the optimal outcome. In their experiment, participants exposed to charismatic leadership signals opted for the stag and successfully convinced another to coordinate with them. Ultimately, Grabo and van Vught’s (2016) findings implied that charismatic leadership could potentially galvanize groups of strangers and improve cooperation to achieve a mutually beneficial outcome. This potential could easily be directed into policing crisis management whether it was bringing together rescue teams for hurricane relief, coordinating agencies for a terrorist attack, or mediating a hostage situation.

In psychology, certain personality types have been identified to have consistent clusters of traits. One commonly used test, the Myers-Brigs Personality Evaluation can be used to qualify those types. Through such an evaluation, charisma is not defined as magical but as a persuasive personality type that, when it is framed in that way, reflects the Myers-Brigs “ENTP” or “Debater” personality. This summary from 16personalities.com (2017) paints a picture of the dilemma of charismatic persons in organizations with any form of bureaucracy:

“ENTPs enjoy the mental exercise found in questioning the prevailing mode of thought, making them irreplaceable in reworking existing systems

or shaking things up and pushing them in clever new directions. However, they'll be miserable managing the day-to-day mechanics of actually implementing their suggestions. ENTP personalities love to brainstorm and think big, but they will avoid getting caught doing the 'grunt work' at all costs. ENTPs only make up about three percent of the population, which is just right, as it lets them create original ideas, then step back to let more numerous and fastidious personalities handle the logistics of implementation and maintenance... their intellectual independence and free-form vision are tremendously valuable when they're in charge, or at least have the ear of someone who is, but getting there can take a level of follow-through that ENTPs struggle with. Once they've secured such a position, ENTPs need to remember that for their ideas to come to fruition, they will always depend on others to assemble the pieces... (16personalities, 2017).”

Charismatic leadership in policing crisis management requires this personality type that clarifies a vision, pushes through or around obstacles, maximizes the use of resources and information, and unifies or rallies their community, co-workers, cohorts in other agencies, and the bad actors towards a goal of agreement with minimal consequence. In hierarchical organizations, placement of leaders is often based on seniority even for crisis management, but are the best leaders being chosen for such high-risk situations if their management style falls into more transactional or laissez-faire categories?

During the day-to-day affairs of policing, those styles may be preferable, but what if bureaucracy is primarily set aside in certain instances?

Many crises that require police leadership—terrorist attacks, active shooters, hostage negotiations, catastrophic weather events, and viral outbreaks—are limited and fluid, with only nebulous outlines of bureaucracy that must be incredibly flexible to adapt to each new and completely different scenario. Situations in which basic morality is the go-to bureaucracy like hostage negotiations, domestic disturbances, environmental and ecological disasters, and terrorist attacks leave

victims, passers-by, and even the policing agencies themselves scrambling for a new direction that leads directly to the moral high-ground: minimal tragedy and loss of life. The ability of a charismatic leader to stay focused to the point of creating policy is not necessary in policing crises that already have prepared for frameworks, but charismatic creativity to adapt those policies to sudden changes and curve balls can be more than necessary. Their ability to engage the bad actors or threats in a way that organizes people to appropriate and rapid action would matter.

It should be noted that “ability” is inclusive of their training and authority, not just their personality. There is no substitute for training, practice, and preparation (McMains & Mullins, 2010), but, like a loaded gun, a charismatic leader could be pointed at a threat and made good use of, when needed (Pinto & Larsen, 2006; Vergauwe, Wille, Hofmans, Kaiser & De Fruyt, 2017). McMains and Mullins (2010) identify one of the failures of crisis leadership to be the poor selection of negotiators in exchange for loyalty to command. The research question focused on in this project is whether there is a benefit to the policing community to identify charismatic personality types or ENTP “Debaters” and train them specifically for crisis events and negotiations with the goal of potentially maximizing success rates of policing crisis management. The hypothesis of the study concurrent with this paper is that charismatic traits will be identified by participants in preferred leaders during crisis situations they have experienced relative to the fields they have worked in; additionally, that leaders lacking those traits will be identified as least favored among participants. The paper itself will discuss policing leadership and special operations units through the lens of charismatic leadership and its potential to improve crisis management leadership in policing.

II. PURPOSE

In Special Operations Units (SOUs) like Crisis Negotiation Teams (CNTs) the leadership duties are multi-tiered. Both leaders and members are required to have above average communications traits that are found in leaders defined as charismatic. These skills are closely correlated to charismatic leadership traits and stages defined by Conger and Kanungo (2002) such as sensitivity to the environment, sensitivity to follower needs (empathy), strategic vision and articulation, unconventional behavior and willingness towards personal risk (Conger & Kanungo, 1988, Conger, Kanungo, Menon & Purnima, 1997). McMains (2009) references Borgman's (1992) "focal concern" in negotiations that require a commanding presence, a deep connection with others and an orienting quality that directs followers to see a picture bigger than themselves. Similarly, Banks, et al. (2017) found a positive correlation between conscientiousness and charismatic leadership.

The three stages of charismatic leadership include environmental assessment, vision formulation, and implementation, (Conger & Kanungo, 1987, 1988) which are closely aligned with three of four stages of crisis leaderships and negotiation: crisis, accommodation, and resolution (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Identifying a problem is the first step a charismatic leader takes to find an opening for their ideas; it is also the first step an SOU would take when arriving on a scene. Their ideas for success are then form-fitted to their followers' needs to enact change according to their vision which parallels the accommodation stage of crisis management. In the lens of policing, negotiators with a vision of resolution can coordinate their empathy and active listening skills to disarm

actors and redirect them towards cooperation (McMains, 2002 a, b, c) which is fundamentally charismatic.

In the vein of policing crisis management, leaders may take the form of Crisis Response Teams for a natural disaster, and the followers are citizens lost in the fray, or leaders may be Crisis Negotiation Teams whose followers ultimately include each other, other agencies, their superiors, SWAT Teams, the public, the bad actors, and any hostages. Under such conditions, charismatic traits would be well suited due to their adaptability to their audience, which changes depending on whom the CNT is directing in the moment. Managing expectations is a massive part of leadership and successful charismatic leaders can dominate in this arena (Wilderom, van den Berg, & Wiersma, 2012). CNTs must mitigate the expectations of other police and agencies involved, of the future and potential outcomes of the situation, of the hostages and victims and their families, and of the bad actors and each other (McMains & Mullins, 2010).

The resolution stage or implementation stage is a process that is on-going throughout the event in any case of crisis or charismatic leadership. While a clear path to success may exist, obstacles may still present themselves, and response may need to be quickly altered. McMains and Lancelly (2003) identify crises as unexpected, arbitrary, and unpredictable and generally representing some loss. Actors with conflicting needs may obscure the path to resolution and charismatic qualities can come in handy here by utilizing effective attitudes such as acceptance, caring, and patience to clarify needs and work towards resolution (McMains & Lancelly, 2003).

Crisis is the niche of charismatic leadership (Weber, et al., 1922; Yukl, 2010), and policing CNTs provide an opportunity for a team of people to charismatically navigate a

crisis. Failure to do so could result in loss of life, therefore the leadership facet of the team extends to not just the team leader but to each member who is in charge of their particular position. That position may change depending on the type of incident, day of the week, or even who arrives first on the scene. Working together, a team must think and react quickly to the bad actors' demands, hostage disposition, and the instructions from higher-ups and other agencies. Their leader must also be able to defend their position quickly at a potential risk to themselves if they have a new or unique idea on how to turn the tables on the bad actor (McMains, 2002b).

The distinct purpose of exploring charismatic leadership is the goal of developing teams with members that have identifiably useful personality traits, like openness and adaptability, which can be honed to use charismatic leadership skills like active listening, empathy, decisiveness, and vision. McMains (2002b) stated, "It is important that a team leader have an attitude of commitment to the purposes, goals and methods of the team. Commitment means that he be willing to pay a price to accomplish the team objectives (McMains, 2002b, p.53)." This recognizes that in crisis management, risk taking and commitment to vision are both useful and required charismatic traits identified by Conger and Kanungo (1988). By filtering for or developing those traits, agencies may be able to increase their chances of limiting loss of life and achieving justice more successfully. Patterson, Grenny, McMillian and Swizler (2012) make it clear with their research that these traits can be taught and honed for the benefit of organizations, relationships, and any situation that would require a crucial conversation that could go terribly wrong.

One purpose of research on charismatic leadership in policing crisis management is best illustrated by Dolnik and Fitzgerald (2008) in their discussion on "new terrorists."

“(W)e need to be aware of the well-recognized danger of applying one-size-fits-all approach to managing hostage crises...deviations from the protocols established in traditional crisis negotiation “playbook” given the fact that many of the conditions which have long been believed necessary in order to negotiate are no longer relevant or affordable [when dealing with “new terrorists”] (Dolnik & Fitzgerald, 2008, p.141).”

There is a highly aggressive, new breed of actors that have been involved in these crises that often begin with violence. At the Orlando, Florida, Pulse Nightclub on June 12, 2016, a shooter entered and began massacring club-goers, killing 50 people and wounding 53 others. Negotiators were able to buy enough time between 2:15 a.m. and 2:35 a.m. with the suspect barricaded in the bathroom to rescue over 30 people, many of whom were shot (Straub, et al, 2017). However, rather than continue to negotiate with the actor, the SWAT team entered and killed him (Shapiro & Chan, 2016). Pivotal information on the activities of other terrorists may have been gained in interrogations had the actor been captured and not killed. Arguably, more lives may have been lost as well, but in a world of networked terrorism the balance of lives lost must include potential knowledge of future attacks. Regardless, one of the metrics of deciding non-negotiability is acts of violence during negotiations (Dolnik & Fitzgerald, 2008; McMains & Mullins, 2010). The historical fact is that many violent negotiations have led to successful surrender with continued negotiation despite meeting the standards of non-negotiability (Dolnik & Fitzgerald, 2008). This gives those with charismatic traits a window of opportunity to calm the situation, readjust the strategy, and get the bad actors back on board with keeping the most people alive, including themselves.

Beyond the factors of flexibility and necessary listening and empathy skills, stress becomes a factor in team member’s abilities to maintain peak cognitive functioning. In that time of crisis and stress, Driskell, Salas, and Johnson (1999) found that team

members will start to have reduced performance and perspective on the outcome of the crisis, but when a charismatic leader is introduced, they may be better equipped to deal with the situation, experience, and level of arousal and keep the team performing more optimally (Halverson, Murphy & Riggio, 2004). The survey taken with this paper can potentially identify if these types of leaders are preferred in crisis situations by their peers, and—if given the opportunity to participate—even bad actors and hostages.

Research on charismatic leadership in crisis management could ultimately help identify potential team members that will be most adaptable to the fluid environment of policing crisis and that will be most able to influence the situation in favor of the SOU. It would also identify those leaders that could inspire teams which made the most effective and efficient decisions while shaking off the mass amount of stress that correlates with the crises they are inevitably forced to deal with on a regular basis.

Beyond individual identification, several studies like Antonakis, Fenley, and Liechti (2011) and Patterson, Grenny, McMillan, and Swizler (2012) have been able to significantly identify the ability to teach charismatic leadership traits. If SOUs and CNTs can develop these traits, it only raises their potential ability as peacemakers. Currently, texts like Haney, Sirbasku and McCann (2010) exist for the business world to improve charisma in business leaders, but similar studies and discussion like Levine, Muenchen, and Brooks (2010), Shea and Howell, J. (1999), Tosi, et al. (2004) and Thompson (2014) could be adapted to create study guides for the law enforcement and military communities if charismatic leadership could be shown to be of benefit and not detriment to crisis situations.

III. DEFINING TERMS

There are several ambiguous terms discussed in this project such as “charisma,” “leadership,” “crisis,” and “crisis management.” This section will discuss the operational definitions that will be most closely targeted for the purposes of this study. Several of the terms have contextually fluid definitions or are subjective, to a degree, and are difficult to define precisely. Additionally, within policing some of the terms have their own specifications or authority. Therefore, the following definitions will be aggregated from relevant literature and defined relative to policing through several previously validated scales.

For the purposes of this study, leadership will be defined as the proximal half of a relationship involving followership who willingly follow an individual or group of individuals in so much as they trust them to arbitrate or negotiate on their behalf with outside groups, set goals for the group, mediate internal group conflict and make judgements that are considered rational and logical for the group, its goals and its culture. Operationally, leadership will be defined by participants utilizing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ6) (Appendix B) (Avolio, Bass, and Jung, 1999) which includes a 10-item charisma subscale used to measure charisma (has my trust in his/her ability to overcome any obstacle), a 10-item subscale from management-by-exception (is likely to take action only when a mistake has occurred), contingent reinforcement subscales used to measure transactional leadership/exchange (is likely to provide his/her assistance in exchange for my efforts) and a 2-item subscale of satisfaction with leader on 5-point Likert scale. Ideally, leadership will be viewed by participants considering a crisis

that hierarchical organizations would face and therefore would not only be a single leader, but extroverted group members as well.

The definition of charisma will be considered in the vein of policing. It will be a trait that identifies a person capable of manipulating or motivating others eccentrically in a way that leads others to believe they have chosen whatever path or goals willingly; an “infectious” trait that lends to an affirmative desire to meet the leader’s strategic vision (Haney, Sirbasku & McCann, 2010). Charismatic Leadership will be operationally defined by the participants subjectively through the Conger-Kanungo Scale Survey. Questions from the General Charisma Inventory (Tskhay, Zhu, Zou, & Rule, 2017) will be added to qualify participant objectivity of charismatic traits. It is possible but highly unlikely, participants may select a leader they find to be influential, affable, and attractive, but that leader may not have any charismatic traits when scored on either the C-K or MLQ6. Questions regarding adjusted mood towards leadership in general will be asked as adapted from Madsen and Snow (1983) to judge the relationship between follower hopelessness and the rise of charismatic leaders.

First, it is necessary to look at the general community’s and the policing community’s notions of charismatic leadership and how it is defined and identified, which will be the subject of this study. The following discussion will turn to the requirements of crisis management in hierarchical organizations like police, whom deal with life-and-death crises, and how those requirements vary. The discussion will also review historical evidence regarding relationships of subordinates with supervisors as well as supervisors with each other and other departments and agencies. The Federal Emergency Management Agency has standardized leadership in crisis management so a

brief comparison with leadership in policing studies will be overlaid to identify the characteristics that are designated as most ideal in times of crisis.

Crisis will be more loosely defined in the survey than it would be in a policing situation. In the survey, it will be any crisis experienced by the participant in the hierarchical organization relative to that organization. There is room for a great deal of subjectivity here with regards to what the participant deems a crisis, but the participants will all be college students whom should have some notion of how to define a legitimate crisis. Less subjective is the actual definition, which Davis and Gardner (2012) use the most relevant: “a serious threat to the basic structure or fundamental values and norms of a system, which under time, pressure, and highly uncertain circumstances necessitates making critical decisions (Davis & Gardner, 2012, p. 920).” The continue by pointing out that several factors build the identity of a crisis such as size, duration, emergency response required, cause, and locus of responsibility, which are all connected with the amount of urgency and surprise of the organization’s failure.

Davis and Gardner (2012) also identify a definition for crisis management that is applicable to this paper: “the discourse initiated by decision makers in an attempt to communicate to various constituents that a certain development is critical and to suggest a certain course of action to remedy the critical situation. Crisis management may be done by an individual but is more often done by a team like a Special Operations Unit, Crisis Management or Crisis Response Team. Typically, a leader will use specific rhetoric relevant to crisis situations to convey both the urgency, summary of the issue, and the possible solutions (Davis & Gardner, 2012). This rhetoric will be the topic of this

paper – how it is conveyed, what characteristics are most successful and which leaders are best equipped to bring stability back to the situation.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership Definitions and Classifications

Leadership, in general, is a widely discussed and researched topic from business to government to education. Likewise, charisma has exhaustively been discussed in those fields but there is sparse identification of the personality style utilized in policing beyond the investigations of B.M. Bass's discussions on administrative leadership in policing. Bass (1988) viewed charisma through the lens of transformational leadership. Max Weber, et al. (1922) discussed it in a religious and social sense, and Conger and Kanungo (2002) discussed it in the theme of primarily business organizations. It is nebulously discussed by policing crisis management experts and negotiators such as Michael McMains and Wayman Mullins (2010), Chris Voss and Tahl Raz (2017), and Robert Cialdini (2007, 2016) through constellations of traits best disposed towards crises management but not outright identified. Is it because charismatic traits often come together with polarizing degrees of narcissism and hubris (Dutton, 2016) that there is a hesitancy to identify them as charismatic? Or is it simply the issue of the cloudy definition of charisma that keeps it from being brought into the rigidity of paramilitary environments?

Yukl (1999) argued that charismatic leadership is fleeting and that charisma itself is transitory in each individual leader. He disagreed with the notion that charismatic leadership was a consistent trait and argued it could be gained or lost depending on the needs of the followers and the situations in which the leader is performing. Further, he argued that long-term, they became "victims of their own success" when they could not maintain the day-to-day operations of the organization they were in with the impulsive,

risky behaviors that were characteristic of charismatic leaders. Gebert, Heinitz, and Buengeler (2016) pointed out that societies become cynical and disassociate from their leaders at which point they turn to a charismatic leader. Once they become disillusioned with that leader the cycle simply begins again, or mistrust occurs, and the society reverts to the previous status quo. They found in their 2016 study that follower needs were not the issue, but that credibility may be core to charismatic leader success (Gebert, Heinitz, & Buengeler, 2016).

The attributes we desire most in leaders we define as charismatic such as having a strong will, discerning competency, and fearlessness often come packaged with darker qualities such as self-centeredness, a lack of empathy and impulsivity (Dutton, 2016; Hogan & Hogan, 2001). However glorified or demonized, these are trait constellations that make decision making in crises that much easier in the face of unfairness and discomfort and are characteristics essential in leaders in fast-paced, ever changing environments of Special Operations Units used by law enforcement and the military (Voss & Raz, 2017). Often, we identify the darker traits with descriptions like “brash” or “decisive” rather than “impulsive” or “impetuous” (Gebert, Heinitz & Buengeler, 2016) so as not to undermine the good that is ultimately done by way of them, but that recognition begs questions such as: Could leaders have those constellations of traits and still be successful in the sight of their subordinates and public? If leaders have the dark traits can they be identified by subordinates? The following section is a discussion of the literature on the definition of charismatic leadership relative policing and the qualities deemed most ideal or detrimental.

Positive-Impact Leadership

It is commonly known, almost inherently known, what defines a good leader, but it is subjective to our perceptions of what needs doing, how we like to be told how to do it, how we think things should be done, and the type of person we believe should get to make those decisions. Due to this subjectivity, even Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary (2016) uses a broad brushstroke in defining leadership as "a position as a leader of a group, organization, etc., the time when a person holds the position of leader, the power or ability to lead other people." Cialdini (2007) discusses the use of the Consistency Principle to direct human action in a crisis pointing out that automatic consistency can function as a shield against thought that can be exploited in times of crisis. A characteristic of charismatic leaders is their truly passionate belief and commitment in their ideas for change (Haney, Sirbasku, & McCann, 2010) and a successful charismatic leader is consistent and dogged in their beliefs and ideas. They can use that blatant consistency to manipulate compliance from both followers and aversive parties (Cialdini, 2007). Cialdini (2007, p. 64) states, "[Charismatic leaders] structure their interactions with us so that our own need to be consistent will lead directly to their benefit."

In various studies, leadership is either defined as a list of qualities or traits that may either be dark or encouraging but influential none-the-less or is defined as a relationship between an individual or group of individuals and their followers; one is a vastly broad definition and the other is ambiguous and situational. As a third option, Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007) define leadership as a "value-neutral" term that implies

social influence and interaction between a leader and followers and leadership effectiveness is based on the group's ability to achieve their purpose and goals.

Due to the nature of the quasi-military environment of policing, the definition is generally relational and goal-oriented (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Culturally, the hierarchical structure of law enforcement generates a group of individuals who represent their subordinates both in practice and in ethical fortitude to meet the expectations of the public they serve (Bruns & Shuman, 1986; Schafer, 2009).

Relationally, interaction and mutually reciprocal respect or understanding between a leader and their subordinates is successful or unsuccessful based on the outcomes of the unit. The outcomes are not limited to merely statistics such as arrest rates and tickets issued but public perception of security as well (Engel, 2003). Arguments have been made that leadership in policing exists on every level, from the chief to the "rookie" who is forced to make executive, and potentially life-altering, decisions in the field (Andreescu & Vito, 2010). Logically, the whole unit, then, must be trained into and become capable of those executive decisions by leaders.

In policing, leadership has been studied profusely and defined in various ways. Primarily, B.M. Bass's (1990) transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire definitions represent the over-arching themes under which most other leadership definitions fall. Transactional is considered being task-oriented and dependent upon rewards and punishments as motivators. Transformational is summarized as more egalitarian where people-oriented leaders provide more intellectual stimulation and problem-solving opportunity for followers keeping the job interesting. Charismatic leadership falls within this vein in Bass's (1990) writings. Laissez-faire is defined as

having a disinterest in the leader to devote much to the goals of the organization allowing for a great amount of individual freedom of discernment for subordinates (Engel, 2003).

To further the leadership taxonomy, Kuykendall (1977) categorized five styles (rated low-1, to high-9) of leadership not specific to policing: 9/9 (high production oriented, high people oriented); 9/1 (high production oriented, low people oriented, i.e. transactional); 1/9 (low production oriented, high people oriented – transformational); 5/5 (moderate production and people oriented); and 1/1 (low production oriented, low people oriented, i.e. laissez faire). Engel (2000) designated leadership styles well-supported in the policing community that included: traditional, innovative, supportive and active techniques. While hypothesizing that innovative would have the most effect due to the charismatic and motivational traits describing it, Engel (2001; 2003) found that each style was nearly equally represented in studies done in both the Indianapolis, Indiana and St. Petersburg, Florida Police Departments and that active, not innovative, was the most influential style with regards to subordinate behavior. While it is contradictory to the hypothesis of this paper, Engle's study was also over day-to-day operations, not crisis management.

Hershey and Blanchard (1977) discussed leadership as a method of communication in which the leader engages followers in a reciprocal conversation and uses support, psychology, and facilitation to win over new audiences. Leadership communication included telling, selling, participating, and delegating and each elaborated a varied balance of the three engaging factors (Hershey & Blanchard, 1977). With exception of Kuykendall's 5/5 model, Hershey and Blanchard's (1977) four different

communication styles fall much along the same lines as Kuykendall's styles, but the focus is on communication versus Kuykendall's production focus.

Hershey and Blanchard's (1977) four policing leadership styles include: 1) Telling (much like Kuykendall's 9/1 model) is high task-oriented, low relationship-oriented, 2) selling (like 9/9) is high task, high relations, 3) participating (like 1/9) is low task, high relations, and 4) delegating (like 1/1) is low task, low relationship oriented. Telling and selling seemed to be the most dominant styles of communication in policing and participating and delegating were found least effective (Hershey & Blanchard, 1977). According to Bruns and Sherman (1988), Vroom argued that this was due to the participant's personal drives (whether they wanted to be told or voluntarily participate), and in policing there is a greater expectation of being told due to the para-militaristic structure.

Andreescu and Vito (2010) address Haberfeld's (2006) stratification of leadership styles by purpose within each police force. Haberfeld (2006) contends that Engel's styles were accounted for in every police department but were role-dependent. Traditional at the district level, innovative at the department level, supportive at the middle management level, and active at the sergeant/street level (crisis-management, SOUs or CNTs were absent from the discussion) (Andreescu & Vito, 2010). Schafer (2010) argued for ambiguity in role definition as "one person's self-centered egoist is another person's confident visionary (p. 647)" and that efficacy, not style, was the key characteristic in productive leadership. Bryman (2004) discussed that the type of study to define leadership styles inherently affected the outcome of the definition because each study

would be in context to a specific desired outcome, therefore leadership could only ever be defined in context or situationally.

Likert (1961) discussed management style and orientation, as well, and identified leadership as not having styles but being a system that incorporated a variety of subsystems necessary to achieve a variety of goals. He identified four subsystems within the whole: (1) exploitative-authoritative, (2) benevolent-authoritative, (3) consultative, and (4) participative-group. System 1, exploitative-authoritative, included a Machiavellian leadership utilizing punishment and humiliation. System 2, benevolent-authoritative, utilized reward systems without losing top-down decision-making. System 3, consultative, falls more along the egalitarian lines of Engel's innovative style or Kuykendall's 9/1 style in which subordinate input was highly considered in the decision-making process, and finally, system 4 which is reminiscent of Bass's transformational style where decision making input is incorporated from across all lines of the organization. Collectively, goals are discussed by the whole system and decisions about which goals to focus on are set by the top executives in groups using the innovative side (Likert, 1961); this is where charisma would most likely manifest.

Negative-Impact Leadership

Other research has also focused on the "darker" side of leadership, not what makes a good leader, but what constitutes a bad one. Kellerman (2009) pointed out that most studies devote themselves to the idyllic and positive side of leadership, and, by placing the trait on a pedestal, it ignored the negative and despotic side of leadership that, in many cases, built the modern world. Negative-impact researchers argue that style cannot define leadership nor does achievement of a desired outcome. Hitler and Stalin

were highly successful as leaders but their “goodness” could obviously be questioned (Alston, 2013; Dutton, 2016; Einarsen, Aaskand & Skogstand, 2007; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007; Popper & Mayseless, 2002; Schyns & Schilling, 2012). Padilla, et al. (2007) broadly discussed destructive leadership versus constructive leadership and felt that the line between the two was based on the characteristics and methodology of the leader. Discussing charisma is particularly key in this context because, although they were negative-impact leaders, Stalin and Hitler were still considered charismatic.

Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad (2007) created a matrix of four traits classified as either pro or anti-subordinate or organizational behaviors. First, supportive-disloyal leaders inspired pro-subordinate behavior that was concurrently anti-organizational. Second, constructive leadership, motivated followers towards pro-subordinate behavior and pro-organizational behaviors. Third, tyrannical leadership stimulated pro-organizational behaviors but generated anti-subordinate behavior, and, fourth, derailed leadership instigated anti-organizational and anti-subordinate behavior by followers (Einarsen, Aasland, and Skogstad, 2007). Schyns and Schilling (2013) acknowledged that Einarse, et al.’s (2007) study found that one-third of employees involved in the study felt they were victims of destructive leadership to a degree but, Schyns and Shilling (2013) pointed out, studies done by Aryee, Sun, Chen and Debrah (2008) and Hubert and van Veldhoven (2001) resulted in much lower rates of destructive leadership experience.

Schyns and Shilling (2013) classified four conceptualizations of destructive behavior: (1) perception versus actual behavior, (2) intent, (3) physical, verbal and non-verbal behavior and (4) inclusion of outcomes. Follower point-of-view is identified in “perception versus actual behavior”, and then intent becomes relative to the point-of-view

that was taken. Intentional versus unintentional outcomes additionally affect follower point-of-view (Schyns & Shilling, 2013). Perception of leader communications throughout the process from goal to outcome adversely altered point-of-view and often clarified intent. Then, using the four concepts of leadership, Schyns and Shilling (2013) identified a matrix of follower perceptions of destructive leadership that included: leader-related, job-related, organization-related, and individual follower-related perspectives which defined the level of destructiveness or constructiveness of the leader. Ultimately the discussion evolved, as do all the discussions on leadership, into traits that defined the leaders. Schyns and Shillings (2013) identified the traits as the building blocks of all the notions and models of leadership noting that none can single-handedly accomplish defining leadership, but that the various constellations of traits become the brushstrokes with which the picture of leadership is painted.

QUALITIES OF LEADERSHIP IN POLICING AND CRISIS MANAGEMENT

Throughout all the studies done on leadership in various fields, the qualities consistently overlap. Researchers tend to group them in various ways to better classify them, but the foundational overlap always comes down to trait constellations of the individuals in leadership positions and how those constellations influence a leader's ability to accomplish goals with a group of followers. In the policing community, there are several qualities that seem to be more ubiquitously desired but the nomenclature changes. "Motivational" or "influential" is used to identify those with a supportive attitude towards goals and subordinates that seems infectious. For military and paramilitary, this is commonly identified as a willingness of the leader to have done or do what they are asking of their subordinates (Bass, 1994; Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Einarsen,

Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Engel, 2000; Kuykendall, 1977). Other traits describe a leader's ability to achieve the goals of the organization or event such as being "task-oriented", or "driven", "committed" or "decisive" (Mazerolle, Darroch & White, 2013; Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007; Schyns & Shilling, 2012). Still other traits are used to define the nature of the leader and their ability to inspire followers—occasionally at their own expense or the expense of others—such as tyrannical or despotic, egalitarian or laissez-faire, manipulative or charismatic (Bass, 1994; Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Engel, 2000; Kuykendall, 1977; Mazerolle, Darroch & White, 2013; Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2007; Schyns & Shilling, 2012).

Dutton (2016) points out that psychopathic qualities were somewhat necessary to fill leadership roles in public service organizations; varying shades of narcissism and megalomania can be drivers of the unyielding self-confidence leaders often possess. However, the ability to push one's vision can be destructive when that agenda does not align with that of the followers, but a level of self-centered impulsivity or risk-taking in times of crisis can lead to effective and efficient decisions (Dutton, 2016). There can also seem to be displays of limited or muted empathy involved inherently in negative-impact leadership because, ultimately, someone will always be offended when tough decisions get made (Dutton, 2016).

Leadership Qualities that Impact Policing

Roy Alston (2013), ex-Chief of Police in Dallas, Texas, acknowledged qualities of toxic leaders in policing to be demoralizing, self-serving, humiliating, Machiavellian, arrogant, purposeless, petty, sociopathic, inflexible, and uninspiring. Schafer (2010) identified unsuccessful qualities of police leaders as: resistance to change, being

uninspiring, being egotistical, failing to lead, an inability to raise funding or influence labor organizations, and incapable of establishing a system to meet goals. Being a bully, manipulative, humiliating, harassing, absentee, shirking, fraudulent, and displaying an exaggerated notion of self-achievement were negative characteristics identified by Einarsen, Aasland and Skogstad (2007).

Padilla, Hogan, and Kaiser (2007) found similar results as Dutton (2016) asserted and identified five critical qualities of police leaders: charisma, personalized use of power, narcissism, negative life themes, and ideology of hate to describe destructive leaders. Engel (2002) identifies with these qualities in policing by codifying them under the traditional style of police leadership. However, Padilla, et al. (2007) points out that equally important are the qualities of followers such as having unmet needs and low self-esteem and maturity or the colluders who often have ambition and sincerely questionable ethics. The qualities of the environment that brings the leader and followers together are also relevant to the type of qualities followers connect with or are deterred by (Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). There must be instability and a perceived threat, and in criminal justice there is constant instability due to the ever-existing chaos of crime. There must also be a clear set of cultural values, which in policing is identified in the goals and purposes of police: deter criminality, punish criminality, enforce law and serve the community with which you are trusted.

Qualities that are desirable in constructive leaders such as strategic thinking, indirect leadership capacity, vision and forecasting aptitude, unity of command ideals, ability to delegate authority, objectivity, and conceptualization were categorized by Thomas Baker (2011) in his book on effective police leadership. He established

categories of qualities required for community policing such as strong character, positive core values, ability to build an ethical climate, ability to apply those ethics, and the capacity to hold themselves and their followers accountable to those ethics.

“‘Can-do’ police leaders apply ‘moral force’ to police organizations. Leadership is not merely expedient; it is also moral and ethical whose essential elements of moral leaderships are expert power, confidence and competent leadership...the wise leader acknowledges limitations as well as assets. Only then can leaders maximize strengths and weaknesses. Self-assessment is essential before moving into key leadership positions. This assessment will help identify the officer’s personal values and philosophies of leadership (Baker, 2011, p. 26-27).”

Baker’s (2011) studies claimed that the leadership qualities were reciprocated by the community quality of support for Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment or “SARA” planning, support from Neighborhood Watches, support from subordinates with regards to community policing and the community-at-large’s support for Community Oriented Policing (C.O.P.) (Baker, 2011).

Crisis Management Leadership Qualities

Leadership in emergency management and crisis situations is a pivotal role for police and law enforcement agencies. Two distinct principles define the goals of effective crisis management, and they are: 1) the development of the capacity for an organization to respond to a crisis flexibly and 2) the practicing and rehearsing of what will be required during a crisis (Clark & Harman, 2004). Effective communication and coordination with speed, credibility, consistency, and accuracy with each other, other agencies, the media and the public are vital (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Internal and external needs and problems must be identified by leaders and clear goals must be set quickly (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Tailor-made solutions must be made on the fly, so creativity and strong organizational skills in individuals as well as their organization are

effective traits in leadership roles (Taneja, Pryor, Sewell, & Recuero, 2014). While a certain degree of openness is required, an ability to set limits on “group thinking” that prolongs the path to solutions mid-crisis must be owned by leaders. Facilitating democratic decision-making while being decisive in a time of calamity must be balanced (Rosenthal, t’Hart & Kouzmin, 1991).

Similarly, various law enforcement journals regularly produce incident-specific volumes to specify the necessary skills required for various incidents such as pandemics, active shooters, mass demonstrations and natural disasters. The importance of effective leadership expands from leader-follower relations to leader-leader relations. With that expansion comes a new set of characteristics required for being an effective communicator like the ability to identify boundaries and responsibilities and the capacity to make impulse decisions that may save or take hundreds of lives.

Qualities outright called for by FEMA (2016) include vision, coordination, direction, and motivation towards immediate goals in an emergency. Other value characteristics include expertise in achieving goals and shared missions, facilitation of change, trust building, personal influence, political savvy, and flexibility in a changing environment. Cooperation is especially necessary when various agencies are working together with politicians and community leaders. Preparedness, integrative assessment capability, personal qualifications such as licenses and certifications like CPR and first aid training. High standards of integrity, respect for others, trust, openness, and honesty are key. Leaders must be able to foster commitment from other leaders and the community at large, integrate perspectives and influence operational decisions. Creating a

sense of urgency and inspiring people to act and be involved in planning for the future is required (FEMA.gov, 2016).

Reflective qualities are also crucial. Self-assessment, self-reflection, and the ability to solicit authentic feedback from other leaders and subordinates. Listening skills and approachability must be cohesive with a flexibility to adjust to changing environments and public perceptions of how the crisis is being handled. In crisis management the leader must be able to play the hired hand, the broker, and the hero at the same time (FEMA.gov, 2016). The ability to generate clear, concise and meaningful documentation of the crisis is necessary along with the capacity to be objective when noting failures of the community, other agencies, and oneself (Ramsey, 2010). The openness to utilizing contractors and the humility to delegate work to more qualified individuals is also necessary in specific situations of emergency (Russell, 2010).

Training on equipment, planning for fatigue in crises with long durations, being able to balance and coordinate daily work that must continue in addition to meeting crisis management needs is pivotal to maintain the community in policing (McMains & Mullins, 2010). During pandemics, the situational awareness and training on proper health protocols to keep officers that are healthy and capable working is essential (Luna, Brito & Sanberg, 2007). During active shooter and sniper situations, tactical awareness, operational command, and competence can make or break the ability to coordinate with other leaders and bring the assault to a close (Strentz, 2013). The ability to keep constant communication open and not delay decisions must advance the event towards resolution (McMains & Mullins, 2010).

Being an effective task force leader in multi-jurisdictional crises such as natural disasters require balancing the needs of the CNT with those of other agencies. A team leader must be able to recognize chain of command and simultaneously be a leader and follower, must be able to relinquish some control to other leaders, control support of participating agencies and distinguish between executive and operational responsibilities (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Joint Operations Centers must have leaders that can see the big picture and locate and negotiate the necessary resources to bring the weight of the agencies against the perpetrator(s) (Narr, Toliver, Murphey, McFarland & Ederheimer, 2006). A leader must have the capacity to limit participation when it violates the roles of others, meet unique demands, identify specific roles and responsibilities of subordinates and cohorts, and information must be managed efficiently and in a timely fashion (Murphy, Wexler, Davies, & Plotkin, 2004).

Paul t'Hart (1993) argues in one study that a leader's capacity to identify and project social symbols, rituals and notions of power during a crisis are the most important qualities of that leader. Effective communication of local tones, colloquialisms, and identification of the structures of rituals, and hierarchies within the community are critical to navigating political systems for emergency management leaders, SOUs, and law enforcement entities. Grabo, Spisak and van Vught (2015) argue that charisma can be an evolutionary symbol or signal on various levels to instigate change; crisis-handling devices recognized by t'Hart (1993) include ritualizing, framing, and masking. When a crisis breaks down the social system of a locale for a time, the response to the situation must be framed accurately to set the public at ease. Preparedness and practice with training simulations and drills, particularly in law enforcement, must be ritualized and

second-nature. Masking includes the ability to manipulate the situation and public, calm them and the media, utilize charisma and competency to take control of information and perception to appear credible and trustworthy even in the face of insecurity (t'Hart, 1993).

CHARISMA RELATIVE TO POLICING CRISIS MANAGEMENT

In policing crisis management, there are two positions in which charismatic leadership can be useful: 1) the leaders of the units themselves and 2) the negotiators or SOU members acting as leaders for the actor and hostages. The first is identified by Doering (2016) when he states, "There are still some otherwise great cops who just don't believe that the principles of negotiation are the right methods to handle a violent or potentially violent person. In many cases, we have to do as much negotiating with these leadership individuals as the perpetrator (p.13)." The second is illustrated by any successful negotiation or crisis averted by talking bad actors in to giving up the situation they have created.

In a setting where loss of life (even the bad actors' lives) feels like a failure, these leaders can walk their teams in to places they cannot return. On October 4, 1971 in Jacksonville, Florida a hi-jacked plane made its way from Nashville to the Jacksonville airport. The bad actors had taken control of the pilot and co-pilot with a 9mm pistol and claimed to have plastic explosives. While the actors were attempting to refuel in Jacksonville, the FBI had been warned of the situation. The Special Agent in charge of the scene declined to acknowledge the potential plastic explosives and threats by the actor if the demands for more fuel were not met. The Special Agent refused negotiation and ordered his team to start shooting at the plane's tires and engine. The hostage-taker

responded by shooting his wife (who survived) and the pilot, then taking his own life. The pilot's wife later sued the FBI and won in the appeals process (Doering, 2016). In this incident, had the leader attempted to finesse the bad actor rather than antagonize him, a better outcome may have been achieved with no loss of life. Had the leader attempted to lead the hostage-taker away from such actions rather than assuming he could not, a more positive, less expensive operation outcome would have been achieved.

Charismatic Leadership and Unit Commanders

Effectiveness is a hallmark of charismatic leaders, which Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) found while studying leadership and team effectiveness. They identified sub-hallmarks in a meta-analysis of several charismatic leadership studies: a) satisfaction, morale or approval of subordinates, b) higher levels of team or unit performance, c) higher promotion and recommendation rates from superiors and d) historian ratings of above average greatness (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Concurrent with Yukl (1990), Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) identified other charismatic aspects that lead to success of leaders with teams: clear mission, minimizing and resolving conflicts between team members, understanding goals relative to resources, and the ability to acquire those resources.

Key to a unit commander's success is the ability to maintain overall control of an incident and know the capabilities of their CNT teams (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Self-confidence is a major factor in maintaining authority and charismatic leaders are often inherently equipped with the sort of ego to project confidence (Haney, Sirbasku, & McCann, 2010; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Vergauwe, Wille, Hofmans, Kaiser and de Fruyt (2017) found a positive and linear correlation between charismatic personality

and self-perceived effectiveness in their study of charismatic leadership and effectiveness, but they found that charismatic leadership existed on a bell curve and too much was potentially divisive. They also found that a balance between strategic and operation leader behaviors had to be maintained to maximize success of charismatic leaders.

Cialdini (2007) answers this with “the consistency principle” in which automated consistency can function as a shield against extremes. “Fixed-action patterns” can establish a charismatic leader’s authority over time and repeat crises (Cialdini, 2007). As panic sets in during each crisis, a need for hope becomes required and people often defy logic to adhere to any consistency that maintains hope there for a charismatic leader can manipulate that response for compliance by mediating extremes rather than falling into them. He states, “[Charismatic leaders] structure their interactions with us so that our own need to be consistent will lead directly to their benefit (Cialdini, 2007, p.64)”. In a later work, Cialdini (2016) refers to charismatic leaders as “the magnetizers” identifying that their self-awareness of their authority and sense of self being are linked allows them to care more, remember more, and reuse the useful in the future. Cialdini (2007) also identified commitment as a key leadership trait – which is often found in charismatics; particularly audible and public commitments to maintaining consistency, and therefore, hope. This can be used by a team leader to manage exhausted team members, a disgruntled press or public, or family members of hostages or actors who have been brought to the scene.

Pillai (1991; 1996) found that charisma is both recognized by followers and presented more by leaders in times of crisis. Shamir, et al. (1993) and Klein and House

(1995) found that the likely outcome of charisma training is improved subordinate relations not spread a “raging fire” of charisma. Charismatic homogeneity is rare, and leaders may still inspire subordinates to new outcomes, new values, and new levels of performance. Charismatic leaders can then take advantage of the attraction-selection-attrition cycle. The implication is that leaders who motivate and inspire both charismatic traits and followers towards successful outcomes can better maintain authority in crisis situations regardless of whether they maintain charisma outside of crises.

In studies done by Conger and Kanungo (1998) they found strong support for charisma in management and leadership. Followers view charismatic leadership as distinct from administration task-management and followers had distinct changes in their attitude, values and behavior consistent with the manager’s vision (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Popper and Maysel (2002) argued that leaders who acted as role models that developed, encouraged and motivated their followers in empathetic and sensitive ways met internal “good parenting” needs of followers so their vision was more readily accepted.

Yukl (2009) found that leaders who engender social and personal identification of the followers with the leader were more successful in goal attainment. Kark and Shamir (2002) argued that, based on the findings of Shamir, et al. (1993) self-concept-based motivational theory of charismatic leadership, leaders who could exert rational and socially collective influence over followers accounted for improved goal accomplishment. Howell and Frost (1989) and Shea and Howell (1999) found that charismatic leaders had followers who had higher task gratification and lower role confusion than individuals with considerate leaders.

Charismatic Leadership and Unit Members

Effective SOU team members are generally required to either have or train to have charismatic traits identified by Conger and Kanungo (2002) including: sensitivity to the environment, sensitivity to follower needs, strategic vision and articulation, unconventional behavior, and willingness towards personal risk. While there is an administrative team leader, they defer to the specialties of their team members to lead their own aspects of the unit, so the team leader is not necessarily “in charge” (McMains & Mullins, 2010). The leadership duties are assigned to the team members equally according to their expertise so that minute-to-minute initiative can be taken if need be (Strentz, 2013).

Charismatic traits are included in each aspect of the team: intelligence gathering requires out of the box thinking, and the primary negotiator must have sensitivity to the environment and the needs of both the actor and hostages. The primary must also utilize active listening skills in response to that sensitivity while having fluid adaptability to the actor’s emotional state. Each member plays an integral part that utilizes those skills to some degree. The secondary negotiator is required to have active listening and adaptive response to intelligence while assisting the primary. The team leader’s ability to mediate another agencies’ interference and the team’s coordination is key. Charisma is also required for the public communications officer to keep the public calm, informed to a necessary level, and involved, if required (McMains & Mullins, 2010; Strentz, 2013). Additionally, they must also do all this under extreme stress and pressure of the threat of life-or-death throughout the incident.

The Primary and Secondary Negotiators

“It’s clear: no communication, no charisma. Highly polished communication skills are critical to the development and maintenance of a productive charismatic leader’s persona (Haney, Sirbasku, & McCann, 2010, p. 153).” In this same light, Haney, Sirbasku, and McCann (2010) discuss the “seven secrets” to charismatic communication, and they are virtually in line with active listening skills as a method of gaining cooperation from followers and non-followers. The first is, “Keep it Upbeat!” such as maintaining positive ideas rather than ruminating on struggle and suffering which is pivotal, use of humor when appropriate, and focusing on non-verbal expression like tone and being aware of non- aggressive word choices. Second, “For heaven’s sake, LISTEN!” requires doing more than hearing and preparing what you will say next – genuinely listening to the actor enables empathetic response that creates relationship and limiting interruptions allows the actor to speak more; “if they’re talking they’re not shooting”.

Third, “Communicate one on one” by reminding them of their value, the things they value, and reviewing the goals you both must foster mutually beneficial outcomes. Get personal and provide intimate information so they will respond in kind, potentially providing useful intelligence. Fourth, “Solicit opinions, ideas and suggestions from others” or “involve everyone”. Make sure to ask the actor what an alternative solution is so you know what his flexibility level is and ask other agencies for any suggestions on similar circumstances; the sum of everyone’s experience is greater than your own. Follow through with advice and ideas so they know they are being heard and respected, particularly if you can with the actor.

Fifth, “Communicate clearly – even on sensitive subjects” so that you can insure that facts are straight, goals are clear, and listen for feedback so you can readjust accordingly, if necessary. Do not lie, if possible, so you cannot get caught in it and do not hide behind language or distort facts. Sixth, “Create a comfortable climate for raising concerns”. This is particularly important internally with the team and with other agencies; people need to know things are being accounted for and emotional venting may be required if the situation is tense and elevated. Finally, seventh, “Display common courtesy”. Do not make “sorry” sound like the hardest word to say, use “please” and “thank you”, respond when required, and, likewise, hold your tongue when your thoughts cannot help the conversation (Haney, Sirbasku, & McCann, 2010).

Based on Cialdini’s (2007) “principle of social proof”, public displays of commitment create a social pressure to align self-image with action so achieving a public commitment from the actor and begin building a bridge to resolution. This takes a great deal of charisma to achieve as the “principle of likeability” plays a heavy role in getting the actor to commit. Rapport building is a key factor in negotiating and once active listening, conditioning and association have laid that foundation, the primary negotiator can move to the actor towards “the foot-in-the-door technique” of having the actor committing to small favors that steadily increase into larger ones until resolution is reached (Cialdini, 2007; McMains & Mullins 2010).

Vocabulary choice when dealing with an emotional actor is pivotal. Paraphrasing follower suggestions, emotional labeling, “I” messages and effective pauses are all communication traits of active listening in crisis negotiation (McMains & Mullins, 2010). Baur, et al. (2016) found that charismatic rhetoric varied from leader to leader but that

there was a statistically significant measure of follower preference for charismatic leaders whom had collective focus a.k.a. clear articulation of the collective follower ideals, which confirmed Shamir et al.'s (1993) findings. They also found that higher amounts of action orientation – or providing direction and purpose to the followers – in ratio to collective focus and follower mutual identity could lead to higher influential success (Baur, et al., 2016); negotiators can utilize this aspect of charismatic leadership to influence actor behavior towards preferred directions.

Charismatic Leadership and the Bad Actors

Grabo and van Vugt (2016) found that charismatic leadership had a significant potential to be used effectively to gain cooperation and prosocial behaviors from strangers which could translate into dealing with mentally ill persons in crisis or highly motivated and intelligent hostage takers.

A large aspect of dealing with bad actors is “creating an illusion of control” through coaxing and co-opting with them according to hostage negotiator Chris Voss (2016). He adds that success is found through “bending their reality” to match your goals in a way that leads them to believe it was their idea. Voss (2016) discusses the steps of anchoring the actors emotions through empathy, allowing them to make the first offer of getting their needs met, establishing a range you may be willing to work in, pivoting to non-monetary terms to change their perception of what is reasonable to receive, using odd numbers to create psychological significance, and, finally, surprise them with a gift they did not ask for and were not expecting to create an air of required reciprocity. Cialdini (2007) addresses the psychology of reciprocation heavily; people have a genuine subconscious sense of obligation to reciprocate a favor or gift on any level. Voss (2016)

subliminally lists several inherently charismatic traits in his reality bending: shared vision, articulating needs, empathy, unique and risky behavior, and unusual ideas that lead to successful changes in the status quo.

Gebert, Heinitz, and Buengeler (2016) found cynicism to be a catalyst for the rise of charismatic leaders and identified the success that new, unique, and risky ideas could bring to dealing with disillusioned and unhappy societies. This, too, can translate in to mediating angry residents who have been displaced in a weather event or attack or managing domestic disturbances that involve fatalistic or homicidal individuals whom have lost hope.

Grubb (2010) discusses the various models of dealing with bad actors: “Getting past no”, “Crisis Bargaining”, “Behavioral influence stairway”, “S.A.F.E. model”, and the “Cylindrical” and “S.T.E.P.S.” models. The principled negotiation model is an interest-based approach that 1) separates the person and the issue they are having, 2) focuses on mutual interest, 3) creates solutions for mutual benefit, and 4) uses objectivity to measure effectiveness. The “getting past no” model which includes four steps: 1) “don’t react – go to the balcony” as a way to meet the actor and gauge the situation as a whole picture, 2) “step to their side” in which the enemy becomes an ally through empathy and active listening skills, 3) “change the game” (similar to Voss’s (2016) reality bending) to reframe the actor’s demands so that the negotiator can, 4) “build a golden bridge” that creates an environment of the actor saying ‘yes’ and not ‘no’ to the negotiator, and, finally, 5) “make it hard to say no” so that the actor is boxed in to a successful resolution.

The crisis bargaining model, which is a relational process that builds trust before working on the problem to steer the subject towards resolution. The “S.A.F.E.” model of crisis negotiation focuses on triggers that de-escalate a situation: Substantive demands, Attunement, Face, and Emotion. Substantive demands of the actor are identified first, then trust is established to get the negotiator in tune with the actor, validating and reframing the self-image or “face” of the actor, and then managing the emotions of the actor to the point of resolution.

The Behavior Influence Stairway Model (BISM) created by Vecchi (2007) focuses on active listening skills (ALS), empathy, rapport, and behavioral influence with the aim of directing the actor’s behavior through relationship (Ireland & Vecchi, 2009; Grubb, 2010). The negotiator builds a “stairway” to the relationship to change the mind and goals of the actor utilizing behavior analysis through the tools of ALS. Success has been found in terrorism and other highly barricaded and potentially violent situations and is most practiced by the FBI, currently (Ireland & Vecchi, 2009).

Grubb (2010) continues with the Cylindrical Model of Crisis Negotiation which focuses on interaction levels (including distributive, avoidant, and integrative), motivation, and behavior intensity. This is a less linear model, like the BISM and identifies the fluctuating ebb-flow behavior of a hostage taker and their intensity levels as windows of opportunity open and close for resolution throughout the negotiation process (Grubb, 2010). Finally, the Structured Tactical Engagement Process (STEPS) model identifies four stages of conflict resolution: 1) precontemplation, 2) contemplation, 3) preparation, and 4) action. Rapport is built and utilized much like the BISM but focuses more on directing change than on behavior influence.

The value of these models is inherently based in the ability of the negotiator to lead and direct the actor towards resolution. Eisenhardt and Zbaracki (1992) discuss rationality and bounded rationality in making strategic decisions. They recognize that even once potential outcomes are identified, factors like cognitive limitations or assumptions deeply affect rationality. Charismatic leadership can assist in overcoming these limitations and assumptions by using empathy and shared vision to identify follower needs through active listening skills and then articulate the shared vision in a unique way that drives the actor to follow the negotiator into a resolution.

Sayegh, Anthony, and Perrew (2004) propose that the best crisis management decision making is done not linearly, but intuitively as the crisis unfold and must be responded to flexibly. Through experience, explicit knowledge, advanced cognitive schemas, efficacy, emotional memory, and tacit knowledge ideal decision making and reflexing mistake correction can pivot a crisis towards resolution. A charismatic leader whom has the training and explicit knowledge can most ideally navigate a crisis on this intuition.

McMains (2002c, 2009) identifies active listening as the key factor in negotiations with bad actors and points to a commanding presence, deep connection with others, and an orienting quality as the foundational aspects of good active listening. These are fundamentally charismatic leadership traits that can be built on through training, experience, and preparation. If officers with charismatic traits could be transition into Crisis Management Teams, whether they are inherent or learned charismatic traits, the potential for improving crisis management with charismatic leadership could be boundless.

V. RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESES

As previously stated, the research question focused on in this project is whether there is a benefit to the policing community to identify or train charismatic personality types to benefit crisis-management teams. This question will hopefully be answered to some degree with samples of participants from backgrounds (either employment-wise or educationally) relevant to criminal justice fields. The survey will intend to find the value they may place on having leaders with charismatic traits. Ideally, participants would be involved in the military and or law enforcement, but as criminal justice students are seeking careers in those fields and have experience working in any hierarchical organization, their input will still be valuable.

Klein and House (1995) state, “charisma resides in the relationship between a leader who has charismatic qualities and those of his or her followers who are open to charisma, within a charisma-conducive environment” (p.183). The hypotheses presented in this study are: a) the crisis management side of policing and the military has a charisma-conducive environment (H_1), b) charismatic leadership traits are recognized, valued, and of benefit to law enforcement and military personnel relative to crisis management (H_2), and c) there is a statistically significant number of preferred leaders that are identified as having charismatic traits in the hierarchical organizations (H_3). Specific to the survey, a further hypothesis (H_4) is that those who are identified with traits consistent with charismatic leadership will also score highly on a Likert Scale that they maintain those traits during a crisis. Potentially, the null hypothesis (H_0) would include no relevant data pointing towards charismatic leadership traits being identified or of value hierarchical organizations and that no consistent data indicates whether the traits are

maintained during crisis. Additionally, it is possible that we will find that these traits are counterintuitive to what law enforcement and military personnel prefer in these fields.

VI. VARIABLES

Leadership in hierarchical organizations is designated by position relative to experience or longevity. Charisma depends on the subjective identification of the follower. Although charisma can be identified by one person in a leader, the next person may consider there to be nothing charismatic at all about the leader. Crisis is subjective to the industry that it is affiliated with; a department store may have no pre-Black Friday shipment, or a military unit may be pinned in a fire fight. Like charisma, crisis is subject to context and individual perception. The control was therefore hierarchical leadership, as all participants will be choosing only from those in positions of authority over them.

Participants will be instructed to select only from individuals in positions of leadership “above” them in a hierarchy generated by the organization, employment, or service culture they are or were involved in with the leaders they identify. Charismatic leadership is the dependent variable being tested for that was designated unknowingly by the followers according to their survey responses, on a Likert Scale, of those leaders. Charismatic leadership traits will then, ideally, be correlated with preferred leaders versus not being correlated at all or being correlated with least preferred leaders.

VII. SAMPLE

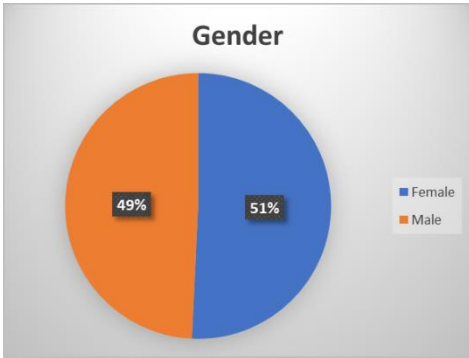


Figure 1.a Survey Participant Gender

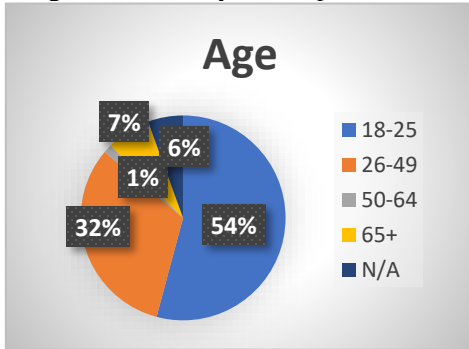


Figure 1.b Survey Participant Age

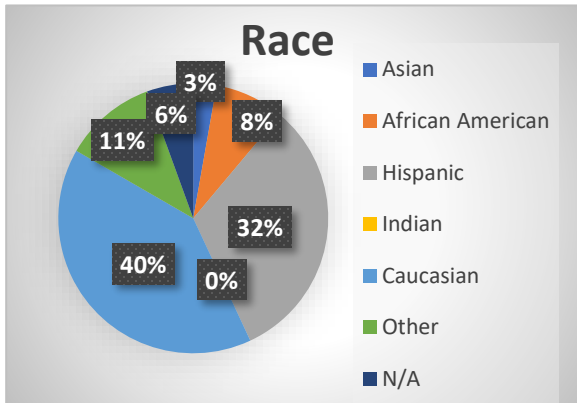


Figure 1.c Survey Participant Race

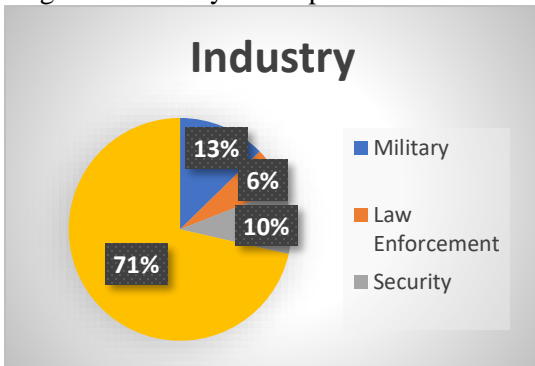


Figure 1.d Survey Participant Job Industry

The preferred sample would be taken from current or former members of either the military or law enforcement, but the actual sample was taken from a convenience sample of 66 Texas State University students and 20 participants from the

author's co-workers in Corporate security. There were 76 total anonymous volunteers, but 4 were disqualified for not meeting the minimum criteria. The minimum criteria for participation was that participants must be 18 or older, must have worked

in a hierarchical organization, and must have previously or currently worked for an employer on a full-time basis for a minimum of 2 years or served in the military or law enforcement for a minimum of 2 years.

Demography varied; 34 (48%)

candidates were male participants, 33 (52%) were female participants and 5 participants did not answer (Figure 1.a.). The average age group was 18-25, which is expected when surveying college students (Figure 1.b). Race

was highly varied, there being 29 (40%) participants that identified as Caucasian, 23 (32%) identified as Hispanic/Latin American, 8 (11%) as 'Other', 6 (8%) as African American, and 2 (3%) as Asian or Pacific Islanders; 4 participants did not answer (Figure 1.c). Industry of the leader being considered in each survey was requested to identify any military, law enforcement, or security leaders that were most applicable to the goal of the study, but a fill-in-the blank 'Other' category was also left for participants as an option (Figure 1.d). There were 45 (63%) participants that surveyed about leaders in the 'Other' category which primarily included food and service industry responses. Of the remaining, 8 participants circled 'Military', 4 participants circled 'Law Enforcement', and 6 participants circled 'Security' (although 20 participants were from the co-workers of the author, they did not consider leaders from the Security industry in their surveys), and 9 participants abstained.

VIII.ETHICS

All participants were voluntary and anonymous. There was no compensation for participation. There was no private or personal data beyond basic demographic data and veteran status requested, which were not associated with any individual's name or identity directly or indirectly in any way due to the anonymity of the survey. There was no recording of any kind nor association of individual participants with their scores nor the leaders with their scores. As there are no emotional or physical consequences to any of the questions, there was no risk of harm to participants. Pregnant women or minorities may have participated but were at no risk of physical or mental harm. There was no deception in the disclosure of the purpose of the survey beyond stating simply that it is a leadership study for the improvement of leadership in criminal justice organizations and not a charismatic leadership study so as not to bias respondent answers.

IX. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

A survey was conducted that included a collaboration of several validated surveys related to charisma and leadership (see Appendix A; Conger and Kanungo Charismatic Leadership Scale (C-K) (Conger and Kanungo, 1997) was used first, and surveyed on a Likert Scale from 1-6, (1-Very Uncharacteristic, 2-Uncharacteristic, 3-Slightly Uncharacteristic, 4-Slightly Characteristic, 5-Characteristic, and 6-Very Characteristic). The authors of the survey intended that it identify five themes of charismatic leadership traits and one theme of self-directed goals: strategic vision (questions 1-7, 22); sensitivity to the environment (questions 8-11, 23); sensitivity to member needs (questions 12-14); personal risk (questions 15-17, 25); and unconventional behavior (questions 18-20). The self-directed goals theme was identified in questions 2,9, 17, 21 and 24. Scoring was done as intended by the authors of the survey and a mean score was found by the total group that fit within the maximum and minimum ranges of the survey scores. Totals of each trait theme were added, and then totaled together. A mean score was then identified for all 72 participants.

Additionally, the 6th version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ6) (Avolio & Bass, 2004) was included and each question was answered on a Likert Scale of 0 to 4 (0-Not at all; 1-Once in a While; 2-Sometimes; 3-Fairly Often; 4-Frequently, if not always). The survey's goals were to identify preferred leadership traits, one of which was a subcategory including charismatic traits. The survey measured seven factors: idealized influence (questions 1, 8, 15); inspirational motivation (questions 2, 9, 16); intellectual stimulation (questions 3, 10, 17); individual consideration (questions 4, 11, 18); contingent reward (questions 5,12, 19); management-by-exception (questions 6, 13, 20)

and laissez-faire leadership (questions 7, 14, 21). Scoring was done according to the survey authors' specifications of summing each factor's scores and adding for a total. A mean score was then identified for all 72 participants.

There were three additional questions taken from Tskhay, Zhu, Zou and Rule's (2017) General Charisma Inventory (GCI) study which identifies participant understanding of charismatic leaders in general as influential and affable (Tskhay, Zhu, Zou, & Rule, 2017). Tskhay, et al. (2017) also measured for physical attractiveness in their study for correlation to identifying charismatic leaders so the third question added in this study was about level of physical attractiveness in addition to influence and affability. All three questions were asked on a Likert Scale from 0 to 4 in the same way as the MLQ6. Responses were totaled for individuals and mean score was found for all 72 participants.

The remaining five questions were adapted from the Madsen and Snow (1983) survey that measured defeatism in followers relative to rise in charismatic leaders and called the Adjusted Mood Survey (AMS). The goal of these five questions was to ensure that most participants had a minimum amount of faith in leadership to begin with—rather than extremes in narcissism or insecurity that might jade responses of any leader they considered—or did not rely entirely on leadership to any extremes. The questions were asked on the same Likert Scale as the MLQ6 and GCI and were also scored the same; individual scores were totaled, and a mean score was found for all 72 participants.

Use of the Likert Scale was done with the goal to get a basic understanding of effectiveness of charismatic leaders during crisis situations, appeared to be emotionally stable during crisis, and created and enforced crisis policies effectively (Vergauwe,

Willie, Hofmans, Kaiser & De Fruyt, 2017). There was a baseline question asked at the end of each of the C-K and MLQ6 scales to simply confirm the participants were adhering to the instructions of answering about a leader *in a crisis situation*. These baseline questions were done on a Likert Scale of 0 to 4. The answer should have always been 3-Mostly or 4-Absolutely if the instructions were being followed correctly. Results indicated that many did not accurately follow instructions, answering 0s, 1s and 2s, as discussed in the limitations section of this paper.

Instructions on both were verbally given and written at the start of each portion of the survey and participants were told that they were participating in a survey for the purposes of improving leadership through identification of preferred leadership traits in hierarchical organizations like law enforcement and the military. They were not told that the primary objective was identification of *charismatic* leadership traits to blind them from biasing or adjusting their answers in anyway. Participants were asked to take the same identical survey twice but consider a preferred leader *during a crisis* the first time and worst leader *during a crisis* the second time. Both versions of the survey were identical and included being asked to fill out the survey in third person, considering the leader and not themselves. All parts of the survey had both been adapted for this study by reframing the questions into the third-person to answer about the leader rather than themselves as usually intended.

X. ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

All questions were scored on a Likert scale and the means were analyzed for means correlation. The goal was simply to determine if the preferred leadership type during crises in hierarchical careers reflects charismatic leadership and its traits within crisis-management situations. Each survey was scored according the instructions of the authors on the Likert Scales they were originally created with, and the aggregation of responses identified specific trait groupings in both the C-K and MLQ6 scales. Higher scores on the C-K equated to higher charismatic leadership trait disposition; higher scores on the MLQ6 indicated higher leadership capacity. The GCI and AMS scales were scored from highest to lowest; on the GCI, higher scores indicated higher charisma, on the AMS higher scores indicated higher narcissism while lower scores indicated faith in leaders, in general. There were four mean scores from each survey for all 72 participants that were then compared to identify majority preference or identification of traits for both best and worst crisis leaders. However, the AMS survey showed erratic answers so was ultimately not compared to the other survey scores. Additionally, due to the wording of the fifth question, the 5-question survey was flawed because it unintentionally inverted the Likert scoring relative to the other four questions but could be fixed by correcting the scoring and re-questioning participants.

Microsoft Excel was used for data collection and analyzation due to lack of access to SPSS. Due to it being a means analysis only, correlation was still evident in bar graphs presented by the data. Correlations between the C-K and MLQ6 are presented for best and worst leader surveys and then the best and worst means have been compared to each

other. Demographics are presented as well. Cohen's d was calculated using the University of Colorado online calculator, located at <https://www.uccs.edu/lbecker/>.

XI. RESULTS

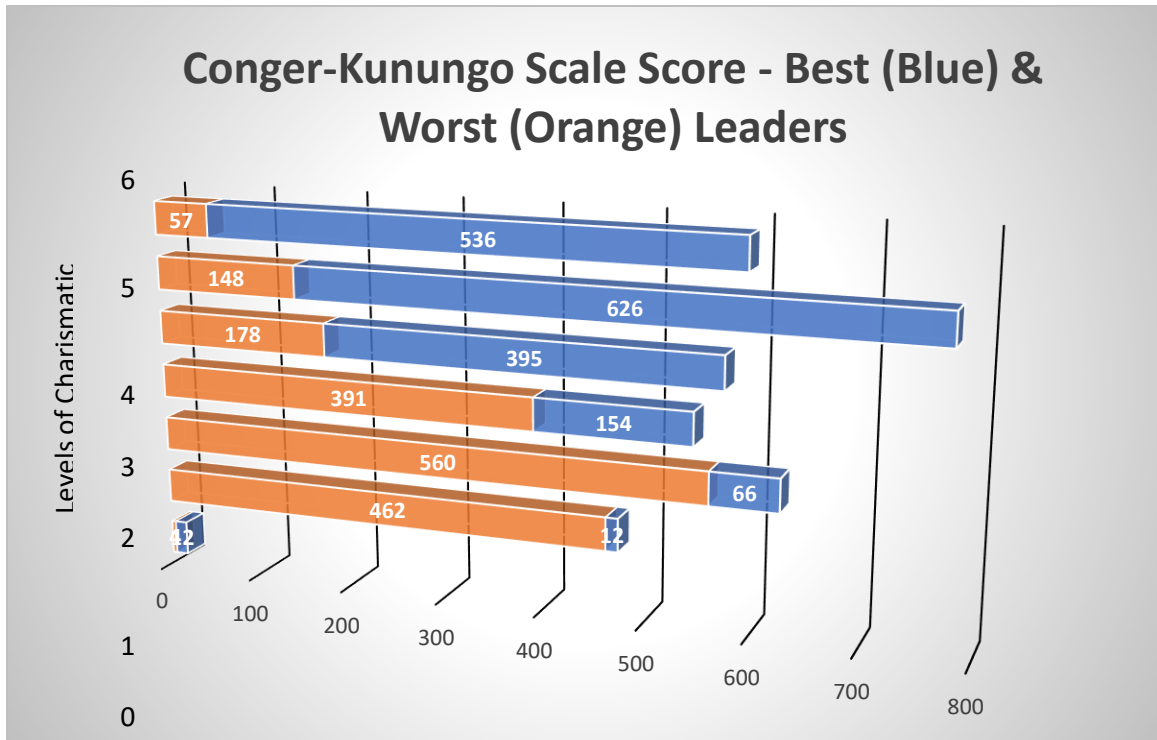


Figure 2.a Total Participant Selection of Charismatic Characteristics

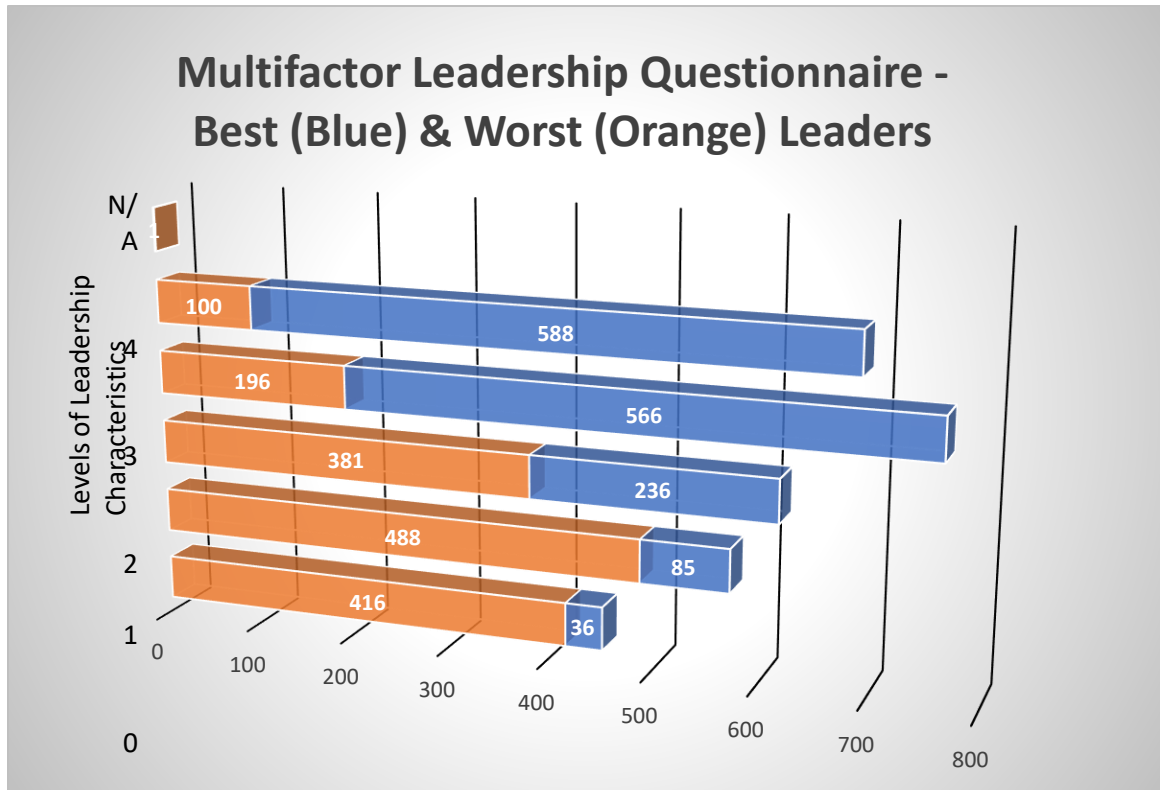


Figure 2.b Total Participant Selection of Leadership Characteristics

As predicted strong in H₁₋₄, a significant positive correlation (Cohen's *d*; $r_{xy} = 24.59, p > .60$) was found between preferred leaders during a crisis and charismatic traits when compared to least preferred leaders during a crisis and charismatic traits on the C-K Scale. It was clearly defined that preferred leaders were more characteristically described as charismatic leaders (Figure 2.a, blue).

Additionally, a significant, positive correlation was found with leaders lacking charismatic traits and participant choices of worst leaders in a crisis (Figure 2.b, orange).

The C-K Scale has a high score of 150, which would indicate maximum charismatic leadership, and a low score of 25, which would indicate minimum charismatic leadership. The mean score for all 72 participants on the C-K Scale was 99.6 for best leaders in a crisis (the control being a mean of 75) (Cohen's *d*; $r_{xy} = 24.59, p > .60$) and a mean score of 26 for worst leaders in a crisis (Cohen's *d*; $r_{xy} = -49, p > -.60$).

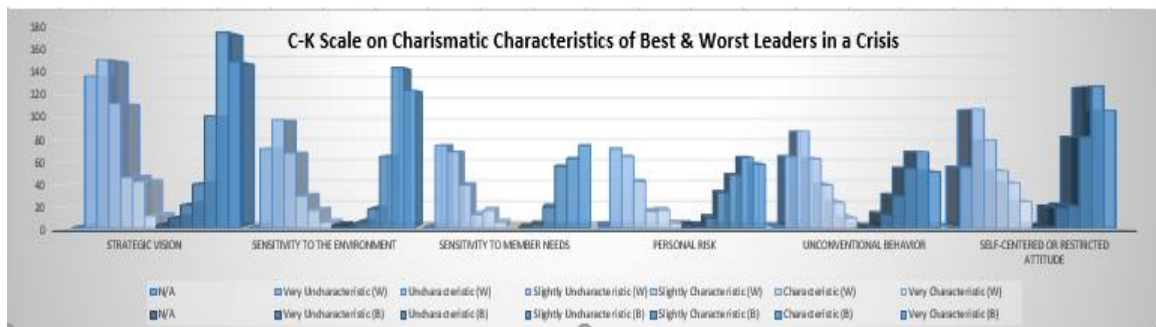


Figure 3.a C-K Scale on Charismatic Characteristics of Best & Worst Leaders in a Crisis

There is a significant correlation with charismatic leadership and preferred leaders in a crisis resulting from this survey. As indicated in Figure 3.a, the charismatic leadership trait themes had a strong positive correlation with preferred leaders (in dark blue, on right) and, conversely, least preferred leaders had a strong positive correlation with the lack of charismatic leadership traits (in light blue, on left).

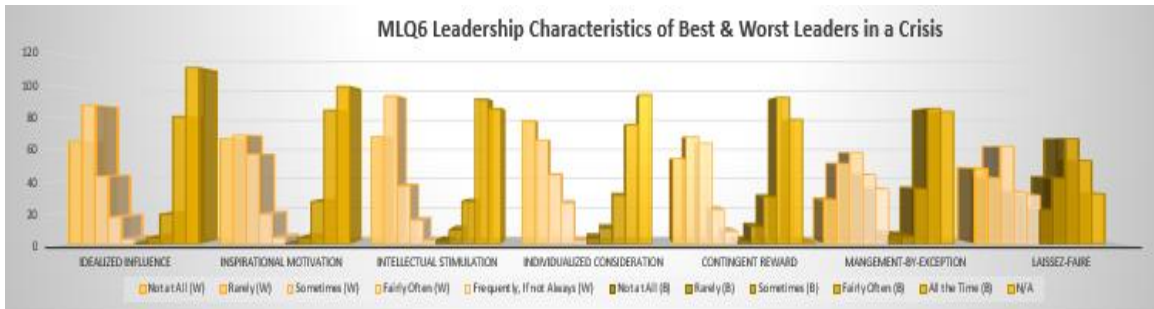


Figure 3.b MLQ6 Leadership Characteristics of Best & Worst Leaders in a Crisis

Likewise, as indicated in Figure 3.b, a significant, positive correlation was found in preferred leadership trait themes and best leaders (dark yellow, on right) when compared to worst leaders (light yellow, on left) on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (6). There was also a significant, positive correlation between worst leader participants chose and a lack of leadership traits. The high score for the MLQ6 is 84, indicating the strongest leadership traits possible, and a low score of 4, indicating the lowest leadership traits possible. The average mean score for best leaders in a crisis for all 72 participants was 63.99 (Cohen's d ; $r_{xy} = 5.99, p > .60$) (with a controlled mean of 58) and for worst leaders the mean score was 21 (Cohen's d ; $r_{xy} = -37, p > -.60$), indicating that there was positive correlation with preferred leaders in a crisis and leadership traits. The General Charisma Inventory questions also show significant

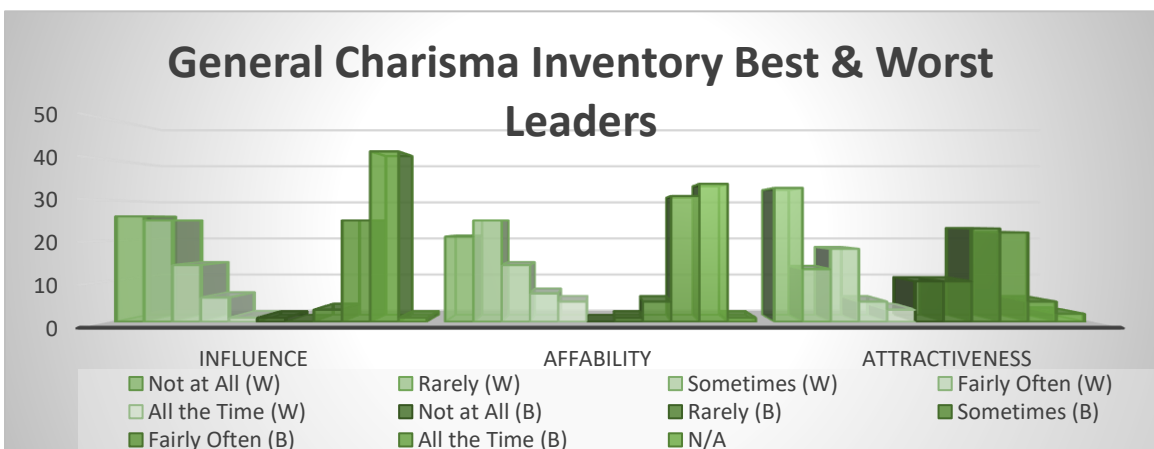


Figure 4. General Charisma Inventory Best & Worst Leaders

correlation and validated both the C-K and MLQ6 scores (Figure 4.a; preferred leaders in dark green/right and least preferred in light green/left). The highest possible score was 12, indicating the highest about of charismatic behaviors and the lowest was 0. Preferred leaders in a crisis scored a mean score of 8.89 out of all 72 participants (Cohen's d ; $r_{xy} = 2.89, p > .60$) (with a controlled mean of 6), while least preferred scored a 5 (Cohen's d ; $r_{xy} = -1, p > -.40$). This indicates that the GCI is a good basic indicator of charismatic behavior and preferred leadership traits when compared with the C-K and MLQ6.

While the first three survey sections validated each other with regards to correlating charismatic traits and behaviors of preferred leaders in a crisis, the Adjusted Mood Survey answers were subjective and erratic in a way that could not be correlated in any meaningful way. This is strongly suggestive of the uselessness of including these five questions. Additionally, the questions were flawed in their wording with regards to properly scoring them on a Likert Scale due to the fifth question's responses being inverted from the first four.

XII. DISCUSSION

Overall, each individual survey seemed to validate the other when comparing the C-K, MLQ-6 and GCI. Charismatic leadership traits appear to be both consistently identifiable by participants and correlate with preferred leaders in crisis management. Worst leaders did appear to have several charismatic traits specifically relative to unpredictability but did not overall carry the majority of charismatic traits. A surprising trait find was the limited amount that ‘Excellent public speaker’ was selected for preferred leaders. The question then becomes whether participants experienced their preferred leader public speaking or if they did but did not find the leader to fall into the category of ‘excellent public speaker’. Charismatic public speaking is generally considered a hallmark of charismatic leadership, so it begs the question of why more fives and sixes were not scored on preferred leaders for this particular trait on the C-K scale.

As predicted, worst leaders in a crisis were found to have limited charismatic leadership traits, however several participants answered the base line questions in a way that implied they had not answered the primary questions relative to ‘in a crisis’. When asked if the worst leader would perform similarly in a crisis, the answer should have always been 4 or 5, but was often 0 or 1, indicating that in a crisis they may have behaved differently somehow. Further clarity would be needed in the baseline questions in further surveys to ensure that they were keeping participants on track.

XIII. DATA

	N/A	Very Uncharacteristic (B)	Uncharacteristic (B)	Slightly Uncharacteristic (B)	Slightly Characteristic (B)	Characteristic (B)	Very Characteristic (B)	TOTALS					
Strategic Vision	3	9	21	40	102	178	151	504		C-K Total Scores		Total	Mean Score
Sensitivity to the Environment	2	0	5	17	65	146	125	360	1	11	11	7171	99.60
Sensitivity to Member Needs		0	3	19	56	63	75	216	2	50	100	High = 150	
Personal Risk	3	2	9	32	48	64	58	216	3	137	411	Moderate = 75	
Unconventional Behavior	1	0	12	29	54	69	51	216	4	325	1300	Low = 25	
Restricted Attitude	2	1	18	20	83	129	107	360	5	520	2600		
									6	460	2760		
									N/A	9			
	Not at All (B)	Rarely (B)	Sometimes (B)	Fairly Often (B)	All the Time (B)	N/A		TOTALS					
Idealized Influence	0	4	19	81	112			216		MLQ Total Scores		Total	Mean Score
Inspirational Motivation	0	4	27	85	100			216	0	36	0	4607	63.99
Intellectual Stimulation	2	9	27	92	86			216	1	85	85	High = 84	
Individualized Consideration	4	10	31	76	95			216	2	236	472	Moderate = 58	
Contingent Reward	2	11	30	93	79	1		216	3	566	1638	Low = 4	
Management-by-Exception	6	5	35	86	84			216	4	588	2352		
Laissez-Faire	22	42	67	53	32			216					
										General Charisma Inventory	Total	Mean Score	
	Not at All (B)	Rarely (B)	Sometimes (B)	Fairly Often (B)	All the Time (B)	N/A		TOTALS	0	11	0	631	8.89
Influence	1	0	3	25	42	1		72	1	11	11	High = 12	
Affability	0	1	5	31	34	1		72	2	31	62	Moderate = 6	
Attractiveness	10	10	23	22	5	2		72	3	78	234	Low = 0	
									4	81	324		

*Adjusted Mood Survey and Demographics were used only once and can be found with 'Worst Leader' Data

Figure 5. Best Leader in a Crisis Means Scores

Best Leader in a Crisis C-K & MLQ (6) Trait Scores and Mean Scores

The below table (Figure 5) shows how the trait themes were scored for best leaders according to the pre-determined scoring mechanism (as found in Appendix A).

	N/A	Very Uncharacteristic (W)	Uncharacteristic (W)	Slightly Uncharacteristic (W)	Slightly Characteristic (W)	Characteristic (W)	Very Characteristic (W)	TOTALS	C-K Total Scores		Total	Mean Score
Strategic Vision	1	138	153	113	46	42	11	504	1	477	1872	26
Sensitivity to the Environment	0	72	98	68	29	16	5	288	2	581	High = 150 Moderate = 75 Low = 25	
Sensitivity to Member Needs	0	75	69	39	12	16	5	216	3	405		
Personal Risk	2	72	65	42	15	16	4	216	4	193		
Unconventional Behavior	1	65	88	63	39	23	9	288	5	154		
Self-Centered or Restricted Attitude	0	55	108	80	52	41	24	360	6	58		
									N/A	4		

	Not at All (W)	Rarely (W)	Sometimes (W)	Fairly Often (W)	Frequently, If not Always (W)	N/A	TOTALS	MLQ Total Scores		Total	Mean Score
Idealized Influence	65	88	43	17	3		216	0	408	1512	21
Inspirational Motivation	67	69	57	19	4		216	1	478	High = 84 Moderate = 58 Low = 4	
Intellectual Stimulation	68	94	37	15	2		216	2	365		
Individualized Consideration	78	66	44	26	2		216	3	176		
Contingent Reward	54	68	64	22	8		216	4	85		
Management-by-Exception	28	51	58	44	35		216				
Laissez-Faire	48	42	62	33	31		216				

Figure 6. Worst Leader in a Crisis Mean Scores

Worst Leader in a Crisis C-K & MLQ (6) Trait Scores & Mean Scores

The below table (Figure 6) shows how the trait themes were scored for worst leaders according to the pre-determined scoring mechanism (as found in Appendix A).

								General Charisma Inventory		Total	Mean Score	
	Not at All (B)	Rarely (B)	Sometimes (B)	Fairly Often (B)	All the Time (B)	N/A	TOTALS	0	11	0	631	8.89
Influence	1	0	3	25	42	1	72	1	11	11	High = 12	
Affability	0	1	5	31	34	1	72	2	31	62	Moderate = 6	
Attractiveness	10	10	23	22	5	2	72	3	78	234	Low = 0	
								4	81	324		

*Adjusted Mood Survey and Demographics were used only once and can be found with 'Worst Leader' Data

Figure 7.a GCI - Best Leader in a Crisis

	Not at All (W)	Rarely (W)	Sometimes (W)	Fairly Often (W)	All the Time (W)	N/A	TOTALS	Gen.Charisma Inventory		Total	Mean Score
Influence	26	25	14	6	1			0	80	216	3
Affability	21	25	14	7	5			1	63	High = 12	
Attractiveness	33	13	18	5	3			2	46	Moderate = 6	
								3	18	Low = 0	
								4	9		
	Not at All (W)	Rarely (W)	Sometimes (W)	Fairly Often (W)	All the Time (W)	N/A	TOTALS	Adjusted Mood Survey		Total	Mean Score
Leadership is One-Sided and Unfair	18	16	18	15	5			0	111	360	5
Meaningless of the Leader	34	22	9	6	1			1	90	High = 20	
Powerlessness of Leaders	30	24	9	5	4			2	70	Moderate = 10	
Level of Micro-Management Preferred	20	15	17	16	4			3	56	Low = 0	
Day-to-Day Ability	9	13	17	14	19			4	33		

Figure 7.b GCI & AMS- Worst Leader in a Crisis

General Charisma Inventory and Adjusted Mood Survey Mean Scores (Best & Worst)

The below table (Figure 7.a and Figure 7.b) shows how the trait themes were scored for best and worst leaders according to the average scores between all participants on GCI and AMS.

	Female	Male					N/A	Total
DEMO1	34	33					5	72
	18-25	26-49	50-64	65+			N/A	
DEMO2	39	23	1	5			4	72
	Asian	African American	Hispanic	Indian	Caucasian	Other	N/A	
DEMO3	2	6	23	0	23	8	4	72
	Military	Law Enforcement	Security	Other			N/A	
DEMO4	8	4	6	45			3	72
DEMO5	72	4						76
	Veteran	Reserve	Not a Veteran					
DEMO6	3	4	55				4	72
	Law Enforcement	No Law Enforcement					N/A	
DEMO7	4	62					6	72

Figure 8. Demographic Scores

Demographic Scores

The following is the demographic scores (Figure 8) taken from the participant's most completed version of the survey.

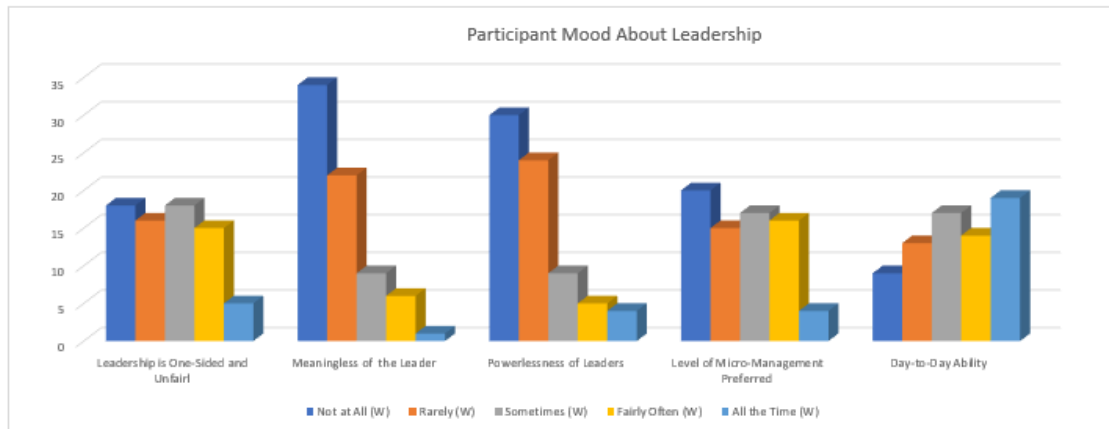


Figure 9. Adjusted Mood Survey Scores

Adjusted Mood Survey Data

The below data (Figure 9) indicates the flaws of the AMS and, therefore, the reason it was not used. Due to the backwards scoring on the final question, the data was inconsistently scored and thus too erratic to utilize.

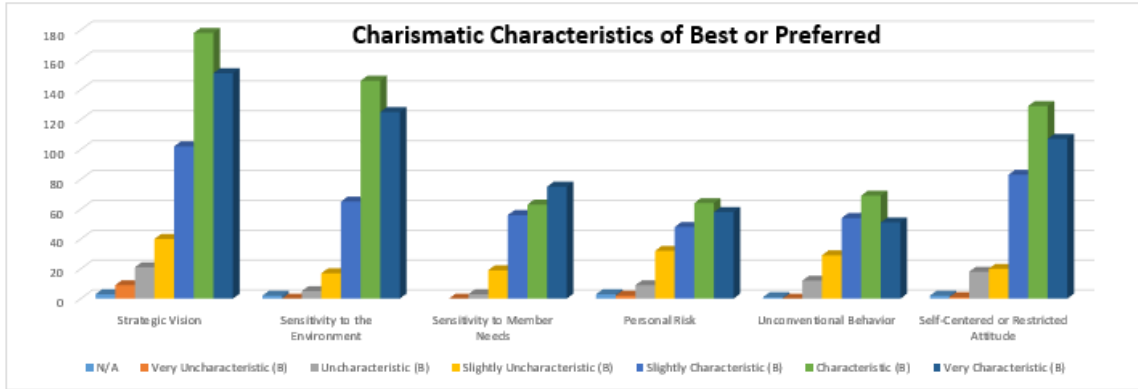


Figure 10.a Best Leader Charismatic Characteristics Best or Preferred

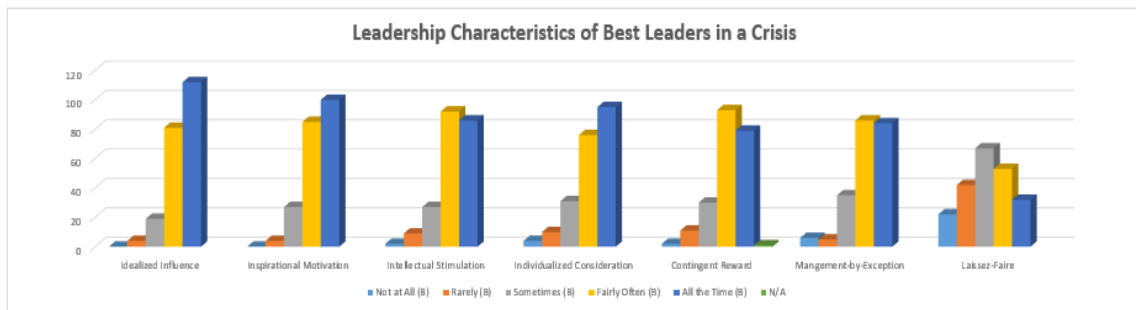


Figure 10.b Best Leader Leadership Characteristics

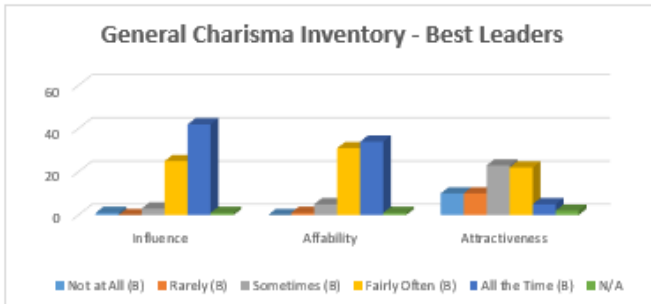


Figure 10.c Best Leader GCI Characteristics traits that were considered charismatic leadership traits as opposed to being best leaders with few charismatic traits. All three surveys – the C-K, the MLQ-6, and the GCI reflected best leaders as having valid, charismatic traits in most cases.

Best Leader in a Crisis Data

The following data (Figure 10.a, 10.b, and 10.c) reflects that most leaders selected by participants as “best leaders in a crisis” reflected

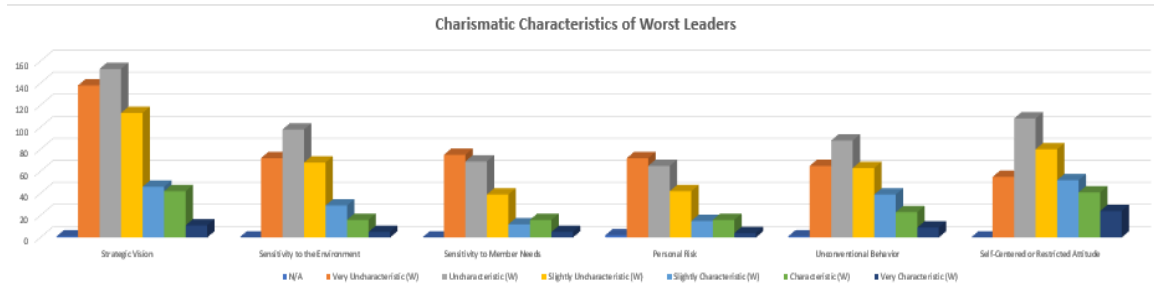


Figure 11.a Worst Leader Charismatic Characteristics

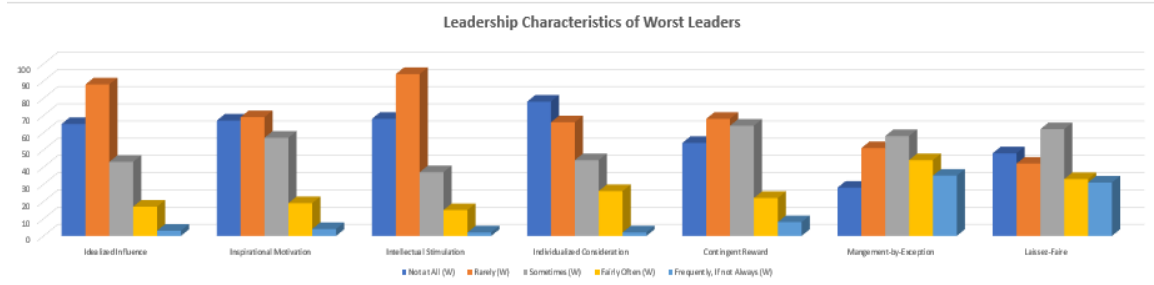


Figure 11.b Worst Leader Leadership Characteristics

Worst Leader in a Crisis Data

The following data (Figure 11.a, 11.b, and 11.c) reflects that most leaders selected by participants as “worst leaders in a crisis” reflected traits that were considered

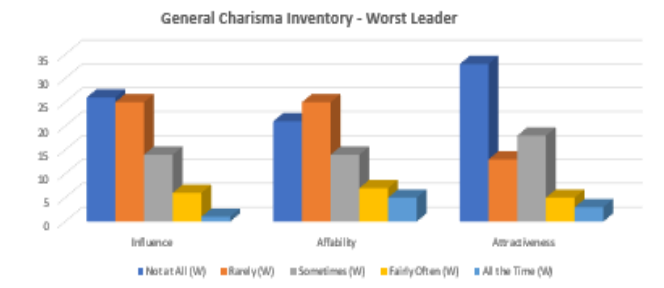


Figure 11.c Worst Leader GCI Characteristics

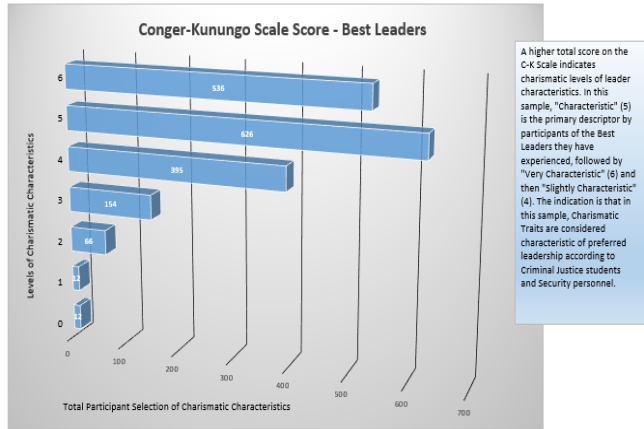
charismatic leadership traits as opposed to being best leaders with few charismatic traits.

All three surveys – the C-K, the MLQ-6, and the GCI reflected worst leaders as having

limited to no charismatic traits in most cases.

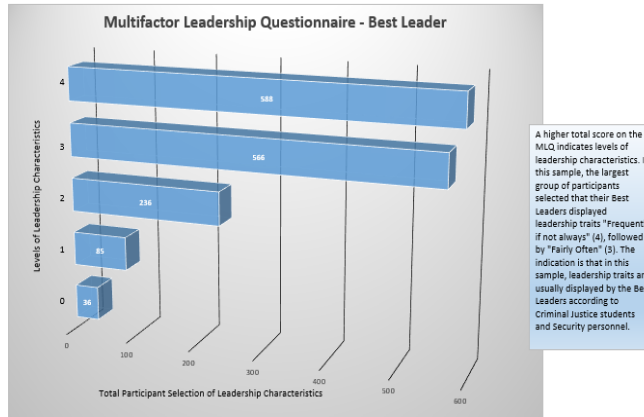
Best Leaders	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
CK1		0	0	3	5	32	32	72
CK2		0	1	3	14	33	21	72
CK3	1	6	11	7	16	20	11	72
CK4		0	0	4	15	28	25	72
CK5		1	1	3	16	32	19	72
CK6		2	6	12	19	18	15	72
CK7	2	0	1	8	18	25	18	72
CK8	2	0	2	5	14	28	21	72
CK9	1	0	5	2	24	20	20	72
CK10		0	1	3	8	27	33	72
CK11		0	0	4	15	36	17	72
CK12		0	3	9	27	20	13	72
CK13		0	0	5	13	20	34	72
CK14		0	0	5	16	23	28	72
CK15		0	1	10	14	20	27	72
CK16	1	1	4	10	9	26	21	72
CK17	1	1	9	10	23	17	11	72
CK18		0	6	19	19	19	9	72
CK19	1	0	0	1	7	30	33	72
CK20		0	6	9	28	20	9	72
CK21		0	1	4	11	24	32	72
CK22		0	2	3	13	23	31	72
CK23		0	0	2	15	32	23	72
CK24		0	2	1	11	35	23	72
CK25	2	1	4	12	25	18	10	72
CKa26	2	2	6	26	36			72

** Columns with no value for that survey are in grey; if a value is inputed (ex: B7) then it represents a 'no answer given'



CK SUBTOTALS							
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	12	12	66	154	395	626	536

Best Leaders	0	1	2	3	4	N/A	Total
MLQ1	0	2	6	27	37		72
MLQ2	0	2	10	31	29		72
MLQ3	1	2	7	32	30		72
MLQ4	0	1	5	20	46		72
MLQ5	0	6	10	28	27	1	72
MLQ6	0	0	11	27	34		72
MLQ7	8	6	27	24	7		72
MLQ8	0	1	8	29	34		72
MLQ9	0	1	8	31	32		72
MLQ10	1	2	10	29	30		72
MLQ11	2	3	14	25	28		72
MLQ12	1	1	11	28	31		72
MLQ13	6	5	22	25	14		72
MLQ14	8	23	21	12	8		72
MLQ15	0	1	5	25	41		72
MLQ16	0	1	9	23	39		72
MLQ17	0	5	10	31	26		72
MLQ18	2	6	12	31	21		72
MLQ19	1	4	9	37	21		72
MLQ20	0	0	2	34	36		72
MLQ21	6	13	19	17	17		72
MLQa22	3	0	7	25	28	9	72



MLQ-6S SUBTOTALS						
	0	1	2	3	4	N/A
	36	85	236	566	588	1

Figure 12.a Best Leader C-K Scale & MLQ6 Individual Question Scores (See insets)



Figure 12.b Worst Leader C-K Scale & MLQ6 Individual Question Scores (See insets)

XIV. LIMITATIONS AND FEASIBILITY

There were several limitations with this research. First, the structure of the survey complicated participant's ability to complete it correctly. Examples include the physical structure of the print out seemed to hamper the ability to follow instructions—both verbal and written—and there appeared to be issues with vocabulary used in some of the questions that were consistently left unanswered. It was clear that some participants confused the “best” leader version with their “worst” leader answers, some participants did not seem to pay attention to the Likert choice they made, and some participants likely answered randomly without even reading the questions. Second, generalizability is questionable due to the sample pool being pulled from Criminal Justice students and the author's co-workers in the Security industry. Ideally, participants would have been taken solely from criminal justice or military organizations whom experience true crises and have distinct leaders. Third, subjectivity was a concern from the beginning relative to both vocabulary and to personalized definitions of leadership and crisis. The terms “best” and “worst” leaders are even open to a large degree of subjectivity due to participants potentially simply not liking a particular leader and not being able to objectively define if they were good or bad at their job. These are common limitations of leadership surveys but may be more prevalently displayed among a convenience.

A key limitation was definitional subjectivity. Leadership, good or bad, is subject to follower opinion, so identification of leadership traits and their quality may be mildly skewed by a variety of factors beyond perception, such as understanding of the term itself or personal distrust of what they self-define as “good” or “bad” leaders. Likewise, the concept of crisis may be subjective to some degree even when limited to hierarchical

organization circumstances. Participants may consider personal interactions or inner office discord as crises, rather than keeping it to an industrial context. Due to this level of subjectivity, generalizability may be limited.

Additional factors limiting generalizability include potential use of participants involved solely in educational criminal justice programs rather than military or paramilitary employment. While organizations may have similar responses to charismatic leadership and crisis, the unique stresses of military and paramilitary organizations, such as rigid policies, life or death situations, overworked and understaffed employment or deployment forces, and limited financial resources add a jaded layer to leadership perceptions and tolerance. Retail or private business have relatively more latitude in reward and consequences systems that may influence participant responses.

The only possible solution to limiting subjectivity is to provide a specific and detailed definition of charismatic leadership to participants to guarantee understanding, rather than attempting to discover a collective, subjective definition. Likewise, limiting the survey to only samples of participants whom have experienced life-or-death crises would be particularly helpful for specifically mitigating for policing crisis management.

XV. CLOSING AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Crisis management in policing requires superb communications skills known as Active Listening Skills, will power, strength of character, adaptability, and risk-taking. The task of leadership in law enforcement is difficult regardless of it being a regular, low-key day or a full-bore catastrophe so it important to identify the qualities that should be best developed. Charismatic leadership offers many of the skills needed to achieve the best possible outcome.

As the law enforcement community extends to and is integrated with private security, emergency management organizations, federal agencies, the media, and the public it would be ideal to create a study in which current leaders and subordinates of various positions within the community provide their expectations of law enforcement leadership. It should then be compared with charismatic leadership traits to identify usefulness or detriment to the community. Law enforcement leaders are generally under a microscope in crisis management, therefore must be able to express key leadership qualities to meet public expectations. A study should be done to identify a systematic and collective set of requirements to meet the needs of the public on any field in which a crisis may transpire.

Leadership in policing is a broad topic with much agreement and disagreement on defining it without throwing charisma into the mix, but charismatic leadership ramifications seem identifiable via study, research, and evidence-based practices, at least. More research is needed to fill in the gaps that clearly exist and could prohibit future failures. Questions must be asked such as: what do we do with leaders that are ineffective but charismatic? How is it that they are raised to leadership roles to begin with? What is

the failure of the public or subordinates that leads to destructive charismatic leadership?

How do we insure constructive leadership in every crisis?

Perhaps charisma is a metaphysical theme and leadership activities committed in spontaneous situations cannot be adequately measured or perhaps it is a state of being that varies between individuals who inherently possess a particular constellation of traits. What is clear is that there are both ineffective and effective facets of charismatic leadership. It is necessary to specifically identify the methods that are particularly useful to policing crisis management because it is quite literally a matter of life and death to the community it commits to serve.

APPENDICIES

APPENDIX A

Conger-Kanungo-Questionnaire

For the first round, consider a superior, manager, or leader you have or previously had that you considered your most preferred leader *in times of crisis within your work environment* and rate the following attributes according to your perception of their leadership skills.

For the second round, consider your least preferred superior, manager, or leader you have or previously had *in times of crisis within your work environment* and rate them as before.

Very Uncharacteristic	1	Slightly Characteristic	4
Uncharacteristic	2	Characteristic	5
Slightly Uncharacteristic	3	Very Characteristic	6

YOUR MANAGER:		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Influences others by developing mutual liking and respect						
2	Readily recognizes barriers/forces within the organization that may block or hinder achievement of his/her goals						

3	Engages in unconventional behavior in order to achieve organizational goals						
4	Entrepreneurial: seizes new opportunities in order to achieve goals						
5	Shows sensitivity for the needs and feelings of the other members in the organization						
6	Uses nontraditional means to achieve organizational goals						
7	In pursuing organizational objectives, engages in activities involving considerable self-sacrifice						
8	Readily recognizes constraints in the physical environment (technological limitations, lack of resources, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational objectives						
9	Advocates following non-risky, well-established courses of action to achieve organizational goals						
10	Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals						
11	Readily recognizes constraints in the organization's social and cultural environment (cultural norms, lack of grassroots support, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational objectives						

12	Takes high personal risks for the sake of the organization						
13	Inspirational: able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing						
14	Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization						
15	Exciting public speaker						
16	Often expresses personal concern for needs and feelings of other members in the organization						
17	Tries to maintain the status quo or the normal way of doing things						
18	Often exhibits very unique behavior that surprises other members in the organization						
19	Recognizes the abilities and skills of other members in the organization						
20	Often incurs high personal costs for the good of the organization						
21	Appears to be skillful performer when presenting to a group						
22	Has vision: often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future						

23	Readily recognizes new environmental opportunities (favorable physical and social conditions) that may facilitate achievement of organizational objectives						
24	Recognizes the limitations of other members in the organization						
25	In pursuing organizational objectives involving considerable personal risk						
	Additional Question 0 = Not at all 1 = A little 2 = Somewhat 3 = Mostly 4 = Absolutely	0	1	2	3	4	5
A.	In a crisis, the leader would score the same answer						

How to read you results:

This is the **5-Step-Scale of Charismatic Leadership** according to Jay A. Conger and Rabindra N. Kanungo. You clearly see that the higher you score in most of the questions the higher is your Charismatic Leadership Style. Except for questions 2, 9, 17, 21, and 24. These either are self-centered (“my own goals”) or directed by a restricted attitude.

1. Strategic Vision and Articulation
1. Provides inspiring strategic and organizational goals
2. Inspirational; able to motivate by articulating effectively the importance of what organizational members are doing
3. Consistently generates new ideas for the future of the organization
4. Exciting public speaker
5. Has vision; often brings up ideas about possibilities for the future
6. Entrepreneurial; seizes new opportunities in order to achieve goals
7. Readily recognizes new environmental opportunities (favorable physical and social conditions) that may facilitate achievement of organizational objectives
2. Sensitivity to the Environment
8. Readily recognizes constraints in the physical environment (technological limitations, lack of resources, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational goals
9. Readily recognizes constraints in the social and cultural environment (cultural norms, lack of grassroots support, etc.) that may stand in the way of achieving organizational goals
10. Recognizes the abilities and skills of other members of the organization
11. Recognizes the limitations of other members of the organization
3. Sensitivity to Member Needs
12. Influences others by developing mutual liking and respect
13. Shows sensitivity for the needs and feelings of other members of the organization
14. Often expresses personal concern for the needs and feelings of other members of the organization
4. Personal Risk
15. Takes high personal risks for the sake of the organization
16. Often incurs high personal costs for the good of the organization
17. In pursuing organizational objectives, engages in activities involving considerable self-sacrifice
5. Unconventional Behavior
18. Engages in unconventional behavior in order to achieve organizational goals
19. Uses nontraditional means to achieve organizational goals
20. Often exhibits very unique behavior that surprises other members of the organization

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 6S

INSTRUCTIONS: This questionnaire provides a description of your leadership style.

Twenty-one descriptive statements are listed below. Judge how frequently each statement fits your preferred leader *in times of crisis within your work environment*. The word others may mean your followers, clients, or group members. Repeat during the second round considering your least preferred leader *in times of crisis within your work environment*.

KEY

0 - Not at all 1 - Once in a while 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = Frequently, if not always

1. They make others feel good to around them.....0 1 2 3 4
2. They express with a few simple words what we could and should do0 1 2 3 4
3. They enable others to think about old problems in new ways0 1 2 3 4
4. They help others develop themselves0 1 2 3 4
5. They tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work0 1 2 3 4
6. They are satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.....0 1 2 3 4
7. They content to let others continue working in the same ways always0 1 2 3 4
8. Others have complete faith in them0 1 2 3 4
9. They provide appealing images about what we can do0 1 2 3 4
10. They provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things0 1 2 3 4

11. They let others know how I think they are doing0 1 2 3 4
12. They provide recognition/rewards when others reach their goals0 1 2 3 4
13. As long as things are working, they do not try to change anything.....0 1 2 3 4
14. Whatever others want to do is OK with them.....0 1 2 3 4
15. Others are proud to be associated with them0 1 2 3 4
16. They help others find meaning in their work.....0 1 2 3 4
17. They get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before0 1 2 3 4
18. They give personal attention to others who seem rejected0 1 2 3 4
19. They call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.....0 1 2 3 4
20. They tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work0 1 2 3 4
21. They ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential0 1 2 3 4

Additional Question

0 = Not at all 1 = A little 2 = Somewhat 3 = Mostly 4 = Absolutely

1. In a crisis, the leader would score the same answer0 1 2 3 4

SCORING

The MLQ-6S measures your leadership on seven factors related to transformational leadership. Your score for each factor is determined by summing three specified items on the questionnaire. For example, to determine your score for factor 1, idealized influence, sum your responses for items 1, 8, and 15. Complete this procedure for all seven factors.

TOTAL

Idealized influence (items 1, 8, and 15) _____ Factor 1

Inspirational motivation (items 2, 9, and 16) _____ Factor 2

Intellectual stimulation (items 3, 10, and 17) _____ Factor 3

Individual consideration (items 4, 11, and 18) _____ Factor 4

Contingent reward (items 5, 12, and 19) _____ Factor 5

Management-by-exception (items 6, 13, and 20) _____ Factor 6

Laissez-faire leadership (items 7, 14, and 21) _____ Factor 7

Score range: HIGH = 912,

MODERATE = 58,

LOW = 04

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 6S

SCORING INTERPRETATION

Factor 1 – IDEALIZED INFLUENCE indicates whether you hold subordinates' trust, maintain their faith and respect, show dedication to them, appeal to their hopes and dreams, and act as their role model.

Factor 2 – INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION measures the degree to which you provide a vision, use appropriate symbols and images to help others focus on their work, and try to make others feel their work is significant.

Factor 3 – INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION shows the degree to which you encourage others to be creative in looking at old problems in new ways, create an environment that is tolerant of seemingly extreme positions, and nurture people to question their own values and beliefs of those of the organization.

Factor 4 – INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION indicates the degree to which you show interest in others' well-being, assign projects individually, and pay attention to those who seem less involved in the group.

Factor 5 – CONTINGENT REWARD shows the degree to which you tell others what to do in order to be rewarded, emphasize what you expect from them, and recognize their accomplishments.

Factor 6 – MANAGEMENT-BY-EXCEPTION assesses whether you tell others the job requirements, are content with standard performance, and are a believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it."

Factor 7 – LAISSEZ-FAIRE measures whether you require little of others, are content to let things ride, and let others do their own thing.

General Charisma Inventory Questions

INSTRUCTIONS: 1st round - Consider your most preferred manager and rate them as best as possible

2nd round – consider your worst manager and rate them as best as possible

KEY

0 - Not at all 1 - Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = All the time

1. I would classify them as influential0 1 2 3 4
2. I would classify them as affable (friendly and likeable).....0 1 2 3 4
3. I would classify them as physically attractive0 1 2 3 4

Adjusted Mood Survey Questions (Madsen and Snow, 1983)

INSTRUCTIONS: This may be completed only once. Consider your current mood relative to leadership.

KEY

0 - Not at all 1 - Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly often 4 = All the time

1. I feel that leadership is generally one sided and unfair.....0 1 2 3 4
2. I feel that most things are meaningless when I am not the leader0 1 2 3 4
3. I feel that I am generally powerless to change things and so are leaders0 1 2 3 4
4. As far as day-to-day leaders go, I prefer that they leave me alone0 1 2 3 4
5. When considering my preferred leader, they managed day-to-day activities well0 1 2 3 4

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Demographic questions collect data about the characteristics of your sample population (gender, age, ethnicity, education level, veteran's status, etc.)

For classification purposes only:

What is your gender? female male transgender

How old are you? 18-25 years 26-49 years 50-64 years 65 and
older

What is your race/ethnicity? Asian or Pacific Islander Black/African American
Hispanic/Latino American Indian/Native American
White/Caucasian Other _____

What employment industry did you refer to in your survey? _____

Have you worked for a minimum of 2 years professionally? Yes No

What is your veteran's status? Not a veteran Veteran Reserve

Have you ever or do you currently work for law enforcement? Yes No

APPENDIX B



Margaret Hanslik is a graduate student at Texas State University, is conducting a research study to identify Leadership Types in Crisis Management in Law Enforcement. You are being asked to complete this survey because you are a Texas State criminal justice student who has worked a minimum of 2 years professionally or you are a security officer, military veteran, or law enforcement personnel.

Participation is voluntary. The survey will take approximately 30 minutes or less to complete. You must be at least 18 years old to take this survey.

This study involves no foreseeable serious risks. We ask that you try to answer all questions; however, if there are any items that make you uncomfortable or that you would prefer to skip, please leave the answer blank. Your responses are anonymous.

Benefits include potential identifying and creating curriculum for optimal leadership styles in the law enforcement communities for Special Operations Units and Crisis Negotiation Teams.

If you have any questions or concerns, feel free to contact Margaret Hanslik or her faculty advisor Dr. Wayman Mullins:

Margaret Hanslik, graduate student
Criminal Justice Department
Phone number
mh1544@txstate.edu

Dr. Wayman Mullins, Professor
Criminal Justice Department
512-245-3344
wm04@txstate.edu

This project, IRB Application Number: 2018497, was approved by the Texas State IRB on March 13, 2018. Pertinent questions or concerns about the research, research participants' rights, and/or research-related injuries to participants should be directed to the IRB chair, Dr. Denise Gobert 512-245-8351 – (dgobert@txstate.edu) or to Monica Gonzales, IRB Regulatory Manager 512-245-2334 - (meg201@txstate.edu).

If you would prefer not to participate, please do not fill out a survey.

If you consent to participate, please complete the survey.



GLOSSARY OF TERMS

For the purpose of this project, the following operational definitions are used:

Charisma – a personality type that is identified by a fluid constellation of traits that is adaptable to the immediate circumstances and is particularly identifiable in crisis situations.

Law enforcement – a profession requiring training, certification and/or licensing to practice protection of the public, enforcement of societal laws and policies and works in a service capacity in a given locale to meet the security needs of the community; may include federal agencies, local departments or nebulously created SOUs and CNTs.

Leadership – a dyadic relationship that includes a leader or group of leaders that maintains functional control of a group of followers or team members or an individual that mentors or guides another individual into a specific course of action.

Special Operations Units (SOUs) and Crisis Negotiation Teams – teams that serve a special or specific purpose and are made up of military or law enforcement members that each serve a particular purpose in satisfying the team's needs; SOUs and CNTs may be temporary and dynamic depending on the crisis event or lack of events.

Traits – neuro-psychic identifiers that are objectively considered aspects of an individual's social behaviors; objectively identified with synonymous terms by others to describe and individual's actions, mannerisms, and communication patterns.

REFERENCES

- 16personalities. (2017). ENTP. Retrieved January 19, 2018 from <https://www.16personalities.com/entp-personality>.
- Alston, R. (2013) Toxic police leadership. *Law Officer*, 11. (pulled from lawofficer.com on 10/6/2016)
- Andreescu, V. & Vito, G.F. (2010). An exploratory study on ideal leadership behavior: the opinions of American police managers. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 12(4). 567-583.
- Antonakis, J., Fenley, M. & Liechti, S. (2011). Can Charisma be taught? Tests of two interventions. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 10, 374-396.
- Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M. & Jung, D.I. (1999) Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 441-462.
- Aryee, S., Sun, L. Y., Chen, Z. X. G., & Debrah, Y. A. (2008). Abusive supervision and contextual performance: The mediating role of emotional exhaustion and the moderating role of work unit structure. *Management and Organization Review*, 4, 393–411.
- Baker, T.E. (2011). *Effective police leadership: Moving beyond management*. 3rd Ed. Flushing, NY: Looseleaf Law Publications.

- Banks, G., Engemann, K., Williams, C., Gooty, J., McCauley, K. & Medaugh, M. (2017). A meta-analytic review of future research agenda on charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 508-529.
- Bass, B.M. (1990) Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research & Managerial Applications. 3rd ed., The Free Press, New York, NY.
- Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B.J. (2004). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1988). Evolving perspectives on charismatic leadership. In J.A. Conger & R.N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership: The elusive factor in organizational effectiveness* (pp. 40-77). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Baur, J., Ellen III, B., Buckley, R., Ferris, G., Allison, T., McKenny, A. & Short, J. (2016). More than one way to articulate a vision: A configurations approach to leader charismatic rhetoric and influence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27, 156-171.
- Bligh, M.C., Kohles, J.C. & Meindl, J.R. (2004). Charisma under crisis: Presidential leadership, rhetoric, and media responses before and after the September 11th terrorist attacks. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 211-239.
- Borgman, A. (1992). *Crossing the post-modern divide*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Bruns, G. & Schuman, I.G. (1988). Police managers' perceptions of organizational leadership styles. *Public Personnel Management*, 17(2), 145-157.

- Bryman, A. (2004). Qualitative research on leadership: a critical but appreciative view. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 761-769.
- Cialdini, R. (2007). *Influence: The psychology of persuasion*. Broadway, NY: Harper Collins.
- Cialdini, R. (2016). *Pre-suasion: A revolutionary way to influence and persuade*. London: Random House.
- Clark, J. & Harman, M. (2004). On crisis management rehearsing. *Risk Management Magazine*, 51(5), 40-43.
- Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.N. (1987). Toward behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(4), 637-647.
- Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.N. (1988). *Charismatic leadership: the elusive factor in organizational effectiveness*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Conger, J.A. & Kanungo, R.N. (2002). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Conger, J.A., Kanungo, R.N., Menon, S.T. & Purnima, M. (1997). Measuring charisma: Dimensionality and validity of the Conger-Kanungo Scale of Charismatic Leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 14(3), 290-302.
- Couto, R. (2002). Dear Publius: Reflections on the Founding Fathers and charismatic leadership. *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership*, 2, 95-108.

- Davis, K.M. & Gardner, W.L. (2011). Charisma under crisis revisited: Presidential leadership, perceived leader effectiveness and contextual influence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 918-933.
- Diamond, J. (1997). *Guns, germs, and steel*. New York: W.W. Norton and Company.
- Doering, P. (2016). *Crisis cops: The evolution of hostage negotiations in America*. Kindle Ed. Self-Published.
- Dolnik, A. & Fitzgerald, K.M. (2008). *Negotiating hostage crises with the new terrorist*. Westport, CT: Praeger Security International.
- Driskell, J., Salas, E. & Johnson, J. (1999). Does stress lead to loss of team perspective? *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, 3(4), 291-302.
- Dutton, K. (2016) Would you vote for a psychopath? *Scientific American Mind*, Sept/Oct. 50-55.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M.S., and Skogstand, A. (2007) Destructive leadership behavior: a definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18. 207-216.
- Eisenhardt, K. & Zbaracki, M. (1992). Strategic decision making. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13, 17-37.
- Engle, R.S. (2000). The effects of supervisory styles on patrol officer behavior. *Police Quarterly*, 3(3), 262-293.
- Engle, R.S. (2001). Supervisory styles of patrol sergeants and lieutenants. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 29(4), 341-355.

- Engle, R.S. (2003). How police supervisory styles influence patrol officer behaviors. In Dunham, R. & Alpert, J. (Eds.) *Critical issues in policing*. 7th ed. (pp. 219-228) Longrove, IL: Waveland Press.
- FEMA (2016) ISO240.B Leadership & Influence. Accessed September, 2017: <https://www.firstrespondertraining.gov/frt/npccatalog/EMI>
- Fiol, C.M., Harris, D. & House, R. (1999). Charismatic leadership: strategies for effecting social change. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 449-482.
- Gebert, D., Heinitz, K. & Buengeler, C. (2015). Leaders' charismatic leadership and followers' commitment – The moderating dynamics of value erosion at the societal level. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27, 98-108.
- Grabo, A. & van Vugt, M. (2015). The charismatic leadership and evolution of cooperation. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 37, 399-406.
- Grabo, A., Spisak, B. & van Vught, M. (2016). Charisma as a signal: An evolutionary perspective on charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 28, 473-485.
- Grubb, A. (2010). Modern day hostage (crisis) negotiation: The evolution of an art form within the policing arena. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 15, 341-348.
- Haberfeld, M. R. (2006). Police leadership. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall
- Halverson, S.K., Murphy, S.E. & Riggio, R.E. (2004). Charismatic leadership in crisis situations: A laboratory investigation of stress and crisis. *Small Group Research*, 35(5), 495-514.

- Haney, B., Sirbasku, J. & McCann, D. (2010). *Leadership charisma*. Waco, TX: S & H Publishing Company.
- Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K. H. (1977). *Management of organizational behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hogan, R. & Hogan, J (2001). Assessing leadership: a view from the dark side. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9, 40-51.
- Hogan, R., Curphy, G. & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership. *American Psychologist*, 49(6), 493-504.
- House, R.J. 1977. A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J.G. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press
- House, R.J., Spangler, D.W. & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. presidency: A psychological theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 3, 364-396.
- Howell, J. & Frost, P. (1989). A laboratory study of charismatic leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 43, 243-269.
- Hubert, A. B., & van Veldhoven, M. J. P. M. (2001). Risk sectors for undesirable behaviour and mobbing. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10, 415–424

- Ireland, C.A. & Vecchi, G. M. (2009). The Behavioral Influence Stairway Model (BISM): a framework for managing terrorist crisis situations? *Behavioral Sciences of Terrorism & Political Aggression*, 1(3), 203-218.
- Kappeler, V.E., Sluder, R.D. & Alpert, G.P. (1998). Breeding deviant conformity: The ideology and culture of police. In Kappler, V. (Ed.) *Forces of deviance: The dark side of policing*. (pp. 83-108) Long Grove, IL: Waveland Press.
- Kark, R. & Shamir, B. (2002). The dual effect of transformational leadership: Priming relational and collective selves and further effects on followers. *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership*, 2, 67-91.
- Kellerman, B. (2004). Leadership: warts and all. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1). 40-45.
- Klein, K.J. & House, R.J. (1995). On fire: Charismatic leadership and levels of analysis. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 183-198.
- Kuruvilla, M. (2017). He had a knife to his throat and a gun to his head. But that never stopped this former hostage from teaching the art of good communication across the globe. *The New Indian Express*. Retrieved October 20, 2001 from <http://www.edexlive.com/live-story/2017/sep/14/he-had-a-knife-to-his-throat-and-a-gun-to-his-head-but-that-never-stopped-this-former-hostage-from-1130.html>.
- Kuykendall, J.L. (1977). Police leadership: an analysis of executive styles. *Criminal Justice Review*, 2(1), 89-100.

- Levine, K.J., Muenchen, R.A. & Brooks, A.M. (2010). Measuring transformational and charismatic leadership: Why isn't charisma measured? *Communication Monographs*, 77(4), 576-591.
- Likert. R. (1961). *New patterns of management*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Luna, A.M., Brito, C.S. & Sanberg, E.A. (2007). Introduction, background and summary of findings. In Fisher, C. (Ed) *Police planning for an influenza pandemic: Case studies and recommendations from the field*. 2007. Database: National Criminal Justice Reference Service Abstracts. p. 10-11.
- Madsen, D. & Snow, P. (1983). The dispersion of charisma. *Comparative Political Studies*, 16(3), 337-362.
- Mazerolle, L., Darroch, S. & White, G. (2012). Leadership in problem-oriented policing. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 36(3). 543-560.
- McMains, M. & Lancely, F. (2003). The use of crisis intervention principles by police negotiators. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 3(1), 3-30.
- McMains, M. & Mullins, W. (2010). *Crisis negotiations: Managing critical incidents and hostage situations in law enforcement and corrections*. New Providence, NJ: Matthew Bender and Co., Inc.
- McMains, M. (2002a). Active listening: The aspirin of negotiations. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 2(1), 69-74.

- McMains, M. (2002b). Developing teams for crisis negotiations. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 2(1), 43-62.
- McMains, M. (2002c). Is it negotiable? If not, make it so. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 2(1), 99-103.
- McMains, M. (2009). Making negotiations a focal concern: Enhancing active listening skills. *Journal of Police Crisis Negotiations*, 9, 176-179.
- Merriam-Webster.com. (2017). Charisma. Retrieved July 6, 2017, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/charisma>.
- Narr, T., Toliver, J., Murphy, J., McFarland, M. & Ederheimer, J. (2006). *Roles and responsibilities. Police management of mass demonstrations: Identifying issues and successful approaches*. Arlington, VA: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Padilla, A., Hogan, R. & Kaiser, R.B. (2007). The toxic triangle: Destructive leaders, susceptible followers and conducive environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 176-194.
- Patterson, K., Grenny, J., McMillan, R. & Swizler, A. (2012). *Crucial conversations tools for talking when stakes are high*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Pillai, R. (1991). The effect of a crisis on the emergence of charismatic leadership: a laboratory study. *Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings*, Aug. 235-239.
- Pillai, R. (1996). Crisis and the emergence of charismatic leadership in groups: An experimental investigation. *Journal of Applied Sociology*, 26(6), 543-562.

- Pinto, A. & Larsen, S. (2006). Conclusion: Fascism, dictators, and charisma. *Totalitarian Movements and Political Regions*, 7(2), 251-257.
- Popper, M. & Mayseless, O. (2002). Internal world of transformational leaders. *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership*, 2, 203-229.
- Ramsey, C. (2011). A police chief should know everything in the after-action report, and the documentation must be carefully preserved. Managing Major Events: Best Practices from the Field. *Police Executive Research Forum*, p. 42.
- Ripley, A. (2008). *The Unthinkable*. New York: Three Rivers Press.
- Rosenthal, U., t'Hart, P. & Kouzmin, A. (1991). The bureau-politics of crisis management. *Public Administration*, 69, 211-233.
- Russel, T. (2011). Consider hiring a professional contractor to aid with documenting a major event. Managing Major Events: Best Practices from the Field. *Police Executive Research Forum*. p. 42.
- Sayegh, L., Anthony, W. & Perrewe, P. (2004). Managerial decision-making under crisis: The role of emotion in an intuitive decision process. *Human Resources Management Review*, 14; 179-199.
- Schafer, J. A. (2009). Developing effective leadership in policing: perils, pitfalls, and paths forward. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 32(2), 238-260.

- Schafer, J.A. (2010). Effective leaders and leadership in policing: traits, assessment, development and expansion. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 33(4), 644-663.
- Schyns, B. and Schilling, J. (2013) How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 24. 138-158.
- Shamir, B., House, R. & Arthur, M. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, 4(4), 577-594.
- Shapiro, J. & Chan, M. (2016). What to know about the Pulse Nightclub shooting in Orlando. Time.com. Retrieved October 3, 2017 from <http://time.com/4365260/orlando-shooting-pulse-nightclub-what-know/>.
- Shea, C. & Howell, J. (1999). Charismatic leadership and task feedback: A laboratory study of their effects on self-efficacy and task performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 375-396.
- Smith, D. (1990). Beyond contingency planning: Towards a model of crisis management. *Industrial Crisis Quarterly*, 4, 263-275
- Straub, F., Cambria, J., Castor, J., Gorban, B., Meade, B., Waltemeyer, D. & Zeunik, J. (2017). *Rescue, response, and resilience: A critical incident review of the Orlando public safety response to the attack on Pulse Nightclub*. Washington, DC: Community Oriented Policing Services, U.S. Department of Justice.

- Strentz, T. (2013). *Hostage/crisis negotiations: Lessons learned from the bad, the mad and the sad*. Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas Publisher.
- t'Hart, P. (1993). Symbols, rituals and power: the lost dimensions of crisis management. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, 1(1), 36-50.
- Taneja, S., Pryor, M.G., Sewell, S. & Recuero, A.M. (2014). Strategic crisis management: A basis for renewal and crisis prevention. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, 15(1), 78-85.
- Thompson, K.J. (2014). The effects of charismatic leadership on follower cognitions and behaviors. *Leadership and Organizational Management*, Vol. 2014 (4), 11-33.
- Tosi, H.L., Vilmos, F.M., Fanelli, A., Waldman, D.A. & Yammarino, F.J. (2004). CEO charisma, compensation, and firm performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 405-420.
- Tskhay, K.O., Zhu, R., Zou, C. & Rule, N. (2017). Charisma in everyday life: Conceptualization and validation of the General Charisma Inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, In press.
- Vergauwe, J., Willie, B., Hofmans, J., Kaiser, R. & De Fruyt, F. (2017). The double-edged sword of leader charisma: Understanding the curvilinear relationship between charismatic personality and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. In press.
- Vecchi, G.M. (2007). Psychopathology [PowerPoint presentation]. Quantico, VA: FBI Academy.

- Voss, C. & Raz, T. (2017). *Never split the difference*. New York: Harper Business.
- Weber, M., Henderson, A.M. & Parsons, T. (1922). *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. Kindle Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Weick, K.E. & Sutcliffe, K.M. (2015). *Managing the Unexpected: Assuring high performance in a complex world*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Wilderom, C., van den Berg, P. & Wiersma, U. (2012). A longitudinal study of the effects of charismatic leadership and organizational culture on objective and perceived corporate performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 835-848.
- Yukl, G. (1999). An evaluation of conceptual weakness in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 285-305.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2010.
- Yukl, G., O'Donnell, M., & Taber, T. (2009). Influence of leader behaviors on the leader-member exchange relationship. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(4), 289-299.