Senior Management in Police Leadership are Comprehensive of the Procedures, Regulations, and Customs Related to Policing Leadership Development

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Abstract:- The first study sought to comprehend the procedures, regulations, and customs related to policing leadership development. This article is divided into two parts. The first section reviews the literature on leadership and leadership development in policing settings. In addition to a large growth in theoretical and empirical study into leadership development over the past three decades, this review demonstrates a significant scholarly focus on leadership. The importance of context for leadership development in settings with a corporate ambiance is highlighted by a review of the literature. The focus of the second portion is the literature that has already been written about leadership and leadership development in police. An overview of the police context, leadership, and leadership development in policing will be provided in the following parts. The section emphasizes how crucial it is for police to have formal training and mentorship, as well as "on-the-job" experiences. It has been emphasized how crucial it is to improve police officers' leadership development there has only been a very little amount of theoretical research done in this area. Notably, a small number of literature reviews on police leadership development have not found any empirical data. The significance of creating effective leaders in police organizations has gotten little attention, despite the significant scholarly focus on leadership development in corporate settings. The peculiar demands of policing are sometimes disregarded when discussing the issue of specific leadership requirements due to the paucity of study on police leadership. This discrepancy also indicates that we still lack a thorough understanding of how the features of policing motivate the demand for specialized methods of training police leaders. By first examining how senior officers develop the art of leadership in policing setting.

Keywords:- *Police, Leadership, Policing Context, Leadership Development, Leadership Management, Leadership Theories, Approaches to Leadership, Leadership Development Framework.*

I. INTRODUCTION

When police leadership fails, there are major consequences for governments and citizens, that tend to spill over into the public domain, including the media (Leishman & Mason, 2012). When police leadership fails, it can have a number of negative consequences for governments and citizens. These consequences can include: Increased crime: When police leadership is ineffective, it can lead to an increase in crime. This is because officers may not be properly trained or supervised, and they may not be held accountable for their actions. Loss of public trust: When police leadership fails, it can lead to a loss of public trust in the police. This can make it difficult for the police to do their job effectively, and it can lead to an increase in civil unrest. Damage to the reputation of the police force: When police leadership fails, it can damage the reputation of the police force. This can make it difficult for the police to recruit and retain good officers, and it can make it more difficult for the police to get the cooperation of the community. Increased costs: When police leadership fails, it can lead to increased costs for governments. This is because governments may need to spend more money on training, supervision, and accountability measures. Negative media attention: When police leadership fails, it can lead to negative media attention. This can damage the reputation of the police force and make it more difficult for the police to do their job effectively. The community needs to have confidence that the police will serve them and keep them safe. In this context, developing a cadre of good leaders is pivotal in maintaining that confidence. Good police leaders are those who are ethical, competent, and committed to serving the community. They are also able to build trust with the community and to create a culture of accountability within the police force.

The community needs to have confidence that police will serve them and keep them safe, and in this context developing a cadre of good leaders is pivotal in maintaining that confidence. A key question is whether developing leadership in a policing context is more 'art' than 'science'. In terms of developing good police leadership, the broad aim of this thesis was to test how this distinction is perceived by leaders, by determining the extent to which leadership is seen as being acquired in the unstructured and unpredictable 'field' (art) as opposed to a formal more or less 'science'-based setting of the classroom or training course. Recourse to the literature revealed that an intense scholarly focus on leadership has been accompanied by a substantial increase in the theoretical and empirical research on leadership development, particularly in corporate and military environments (Schafer, 2008, 2010a). However, the important role of leadership and leadership development in the unique policing context has received relatively limited

scholarly attention (Bragg, 2013; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009).

There is no consensus in the literature on whether contextual nuances associated with policing necessitate a unique or distinctive leadership style. In addition, discourse continues on whether tailored approaches are required to develop police leaders. For instance, researchers Adlam (2000), Campbell and Kodz (2011), contend that distinct contextual characteristics associated with policing command a unique style of leadership. However, Blair (2003) questioned whether police leadership is truly different to approaches used in non-police organisational contexts. In general, the literature on police leadership and ways to 'grow' leaders is restricted in scope and fails to adequately address many theoretical and empirical questions concerning police leadership development. Despite the paucity of empirical evidence on how police leaders learn leadership, a rich vein of research exists from other professions which arguably can be applied to guide the creation of police leader development interventions (Day & Zaccaro, 2004; McCauley, Van Velsor, & Ruderman, 2010. However, further theoretically-based research within the context of policing, not merely generalised from leadership studies within corporate-style environments, is required to understand police leadership development more deeply, and illuminate the developmental experiences that enhance police leadership.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE POLICING CONTEXT

Scholarly discourse has emphasised the growing complexity of police work (Ariel et al., 2016; Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington) together with the requirement to operate in rapidly changing environments (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; White & Robinson, 2014). Policing has been popularly described as an 'art' as opposed to a science (Baker, 2008; Chan, Devery, & Doran, 2003) and a trade or craft as opposed to a profession (Bumgarner, 2002; Cox, 2011). Conversely, it has been argued that more strategic roles performed by executive level police leaders is part science and part art (Baker, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017).

The literature review also revealed how the police role is changing (Clamp & Paterson, 2016; Cox, Scaramella, Cox, & McCamey, 2010) and therefore, police leaders need to be equipped with the necessary skills and experience to address the significant demands associated with this broader and increasingly complex role (White & Robinson, 2014). Within policing, context needs to be considered when examining leadership (Drodge & Murphy, 2002; Murphy & Drodge, 2004), as the context of policing presents unique challenges for its leaders. For example, constraints and obstacles are imposed upon police leaders' capacity by the hierarchically-organised and highly bureaucratic structures which characterise policing (Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996).

III. INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP IN POLICING

The influence of popular television shows and podcasts which focus on gruesome and complex murder cases may give the public a distorted picture of police leaders' role in performing every day policing duties. In reality, the role of a police leader is far removed from this popular image. Therefore, to provide clarity, the unique complexities and challenges confronting contemporary police leaders will be initially overviewed.

The "real world" of crime, which is unpredictable and uncontrollable, and the highly structured and predictable frameworks of the internal police bureaucracy are both balanced in the leadership of the police. The literature emphasizes the significance of competent leadership in policing (Densten, 2003; Meaklim & Sims, 2011) in order to address the complex issues facing modern police organizations and to raise integrity standards (Mastrofski & Willis, 2010). In police organizations, leadership is a complex and difficult job (White & Robinson, 2014). The organizational setting of police organizations is significantly different from other organizational contexts, which has an impact on the leadership roles within those organizations (Schafer, 2009).

In police, leadership is a "socially constructed phenomenon occurring within a contextual milieu" (Murphy, 2008: 165). In contrast to other organizational settings, the dispersed work environment in which frontline officers operate and the particular nature of the work these officers undertake make it difficult for police leaders to effectively manage and oversee (Schafer, 2009).

Within police organizations, effective leadership must be demonstrated at all levels and not only among the select group of senior or executive ranks (Drodge & Murphy, 2002; Vito & Higgins, 2010). The literature (Muller, Maclean, & Biggs, 2009; Schafer, 2010b) has also made mention of the negative aspects of leadership in policing, including references to subpar or ineffectual police commanders (Schafer, 2010a, 2010b). There have been calls for police organizations to improve the caliber of their leadership (Adlam, 2003a), particularly as traditional leadership models are becoming more and more viewed as ineffective at managing the complex and frequently conflicting demands within modern police agencies (Adlam, 2003b; Caless, 2011).

Police organizations need their managers to adopt more participative leadership philosophies in order to successfully implement change (Marks & Fleming, 2004; Silvestri, 2007). The importance of police leadership has been recognised, but little study has been done on it (Murphy, 2008; Schafer, 2010a; Yang, Yen, & Chiang, 2012), and there hasn't been much done to examine the level of senior leadership (Dantzker, 1996).

Within police organizations, effective leadership must be practiced at all levels and not just the elite cadre of senior or executive positions (Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Vito & Higgins, 2010). The literature (Densten, 1999; Muller, Maclean, & Biggs, 2009) has also made allusions to the negative aspects of leadership in policing, such as references to subpar or ineffective police commanders (Bryman et al., 1996; 2010a, 2010b). Police organizations have been urged to improve the caliber of their leadership (Adlam, 2003a), especially in light of the growing perception that traditional leadership models are insufficient for handling the complex and frequently conflicting demands within modern police agencies (Adlam, 2003b; Caless, 2011).

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IV. STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATION AND LEADERSHIP

The interaction between organizational structure and leadership has been a recurrent issue in modern academic discourse. Organizational structures, which Wikström and Sampson (2006) define as the ties or essential links that guarantee a system remains intact, are what bind leaders. The literature that is now available (Fitria, Mukhtar, & Akbar, 2017; Horner, 1997) has underlined the connection between organizational structure and leadership. Globalization, increased rivalry, advancing technology, changing consumer demands, and the character of the workforce are just a few of the dynamic external pressures that have forced modern organizations to change their organizational structures (Bolman & Deal, 2017: 51). Because of this, organizational structures have had to change and adapt, including having to flatten out (Goffee & Scase, 2015; Peetz, Muurlink, Townsend, Wilkinson, & Brabant, 2017), with a focus on teamwork.

Rapid technological advancements, increased globalization, changing organizational structures, and shifting career paths have all contributed to the evolving design of organizational structures (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999; Kraut & Korman, 1999). These factors have also coincided with significant changes in the leadership styles necessary to successfully lead transformed organizational structures (Horner, 1997). Due to competitive work conditions, the organizational structure that today's leaders must deal with has dramatically flattened (Wassenaar & Pearce, 2017). Teams have emerged as a sub-structure of organizations that call for different leadership (Giber et al., 2000; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). According to theorists like Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, and Turner (1996), contextual factors can be primarily blamed for organizational structure. The foundation for future conversations about police leadership and leadership development will be examined in the discussion that follows, which will focus on the relationship between context and leadership.

➢ *Governance and Environment*

A survey of the literature demonstrates that no discussion of leadership can be considered comprehensive without also looking at the ongoing and dynamic interaction between leadership and the context in which it operates. With regard to influencing organizational performance (Antonakis & Day, 2017a; Bush & Jackson, 2002; Javidan, & Varella, 2004) and sustaining organizational culture (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003), leadership is crucial in organizations. The term "leadership" is frequently used and well-liked, but there hasn't been agreement on what it means (Alimo-Metcalfe & Lawler, 2001; Bennis, 2007; Kingshott, 2006; Vardiman et al., 2006).

Vardiman et al. (2006) make a compelling case that leadership entails achieving goals through a process of influence, while Popper and Lipshitz (1993) argue that leadership entails persuading people to take an action by non-coercive means. From a conceptual standpoint, leadership has been viewed as a talent held by a certain person (Day, 2001). In contrast, Northouse (2017) contends that leadership may be viewed from a variety of angles, including as a personality, an aptitude, a skill, a behavior, a connection, and as an impactful process. According to the research, leadership is a much more nuanced notion that encompasses interactions between the leader and their social and organizational contexts (Dalakoura, 2010; Fiedler, 1996; House & Aditya, 1997). "Leadership occurs in a social context and is a direct function of the relationships or connections among individuals in a given situation," claim Day and Zaccaro (2004: 391).

➢ *Traditional Leadership Theories, Methods, and Approaches*

A wide variety of leadership ideas, techniques, and styles are prevalent in contemporary leadership literature, underscoring the field's extreme complexity and diversity. Many common theories, techniques, and leadership styles have emerged as a result of numerous attempts to categorize leadership. As an illustration, Yukl (1989) categorized leadership theories into four primary groups based on trait, behavior, power-influence, and situational aspects. Authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire are three generalized theoretical leadership philosophies proposed by Northouse (2017). Trait, style, contingency, and innovative leadership techniques were the four major categories Bryman (1999) used to categorize it. According to Brungardt (1997: 82), there are five main types of leadership theories: trait, behavioural, situational, power-influence, and transformational.

As an alternative, Yukl (2010: 30) contended that three more commonly highlighted variables—(i) qualities of leaders; (ii) characteristics of followers; and (iii) features of the circumstance (or context)—provide a more useful framework for categorizing leadership theory. By grouping them into three broad categories—leadership styles, leadership settings, and leadership characteristics—the table

below summarizes some of the more well-known conventional leadership theories, methods, and styles found

in the body of literature.

Fig 1 Popular Conventional Leadership Theories, Approaches and Styles
Source: Brungardt, 1997; Bryman, 1999; Northouse, 2017; Yukl, 1989

Traditional contingency leadership theory can be roughly divided into two types, according to contingency approaches to leadership, which emphasize the importance of circumstance. The first group looks at leadership qualities and results attained, whereas the second category concentrates on leadership behaviors and results attained (Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017: 156). This thesis will examine how the characteristics and behaviors of police leaders affect the formation of leadership, drawing on elements of contingency theory. In addition to assessing inputs (such as organizational and cultural surroundings) and outputs (such as behavioral and attitudinal elements), Ayman and Lauritsen (2017: 148) also looked at leadership. This research will largely follow the methodology used by Ayman and Lauritsen (2017) to examine characteristics of how senior leaders evolve within a policing context in order to align leadership with context.

➢ *Theories of Leadership that are Unconventional*

The shift in scholarly discourse away from standard leadership theoretical constructions and toward post-conventional or alternative leadership theories is noted by Davis (2017). Conventional leadership theories frequently place an emphasis on the individual at the expense of context or process (Uhl-Bien, 2011), as well as on important traits and behaviors exhibited by particular leaders and the connections or bonds established between them and their subordinates (Pearce & Conger, 2002). The "relational, shared, and distributed nature of leadership" is acknowledged by post-conventional leadership theories, which offer several theoretical leadership methods (Davis, 2017: 54).

"Followership leadership" theory (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014) is a less traditional theory of leadership that questions the relevance of traditional theories. Although

followership research has its roots in the 1950s, it wasn't until Kelley (1988) released the foundational piece on followership that the theory received substantial scholarly attention (Baker, 2007). The influence that followers have on the leadership process has recently received increasing attention, despite the fact that the role of followers had previously been frequently overlooked in leadership theory (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). According to the followership hypothesis, context has an effect on how followers behave (Carsten et al., 2010). According to Uhl-Bien et al. (2014), there are two theoretical perspectives that can be used to analyze followership: a role-based approach and a "constructionist" or leadership process. Davis (2017) adds that despite the increased interest in followership as a theoretical concept, the position of the leader continues to dominate scholarly discussion.

The traditional leader-centric leadership ideologies continue to be challenged by shared leadership, also known as dispersed leadership (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003; Kalinovich & Marrone, 2017). Shared leadership is defined as "leadership that is broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralised in the hands of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior" by Pearce and Conger (2002:1). The shared leadership theory views it as a social and collaborative process (Davis, 2017). Gronn (2011) contends that more conventional ideas of leadership theoretical frameworks still dominate most current theoretical discourse, notwithstanding the advent of post conventional leadership theories.

In conclusion, theories, techniques, and styles related to leadership continue to develop despite the lack of agreement on a universal definition. The research identifies numerous outside factors that have an effect on organizational structures and procedures and alter leadership philosophies. In order to support positive organizational

outcomes, today's leaders must exhibit a more collaborative style of leadership and place less emphasis on a person's position, authority, or title (Day & Thornton, 2017). The notions of management and leadership will be briefly distinguished in the discussion that follows.

➢ *Leadership and Management*

Scholarly interest in management theory and practice has decreased recently, in contrast to the study of leadership. However, without first defining the two concepts, any conversation about leadership would be lacking. Despite having distinct meanings, the terms "management" and "leadership" are commonly conflated, misconstrued, and used in the same context (Antonakis & Day, 2017a; Northouse, 2017). In spite of the fact that both ideas require influence, Northouse (2017: 7) argues that leadership entails looking for positive change while management concentrates on establishing order. The phrases "management development" and "leadership development" are also used in academic papers, illustrating the unsystematic use of these terms in the literature as a whole (Suutari & Viitala, 2008). The relationship between "leadership" and "management" as a concept is still being developed by theorists. Kotter (2001), for instance, succinctly outlined how managing complexity differs from leading change in leadership. The term "task-driven" has also been used to characterize management, while the term "purpose-driven" describes leadership that is based on "values, ideals, visions, symbols, and emotional exchanges" (Antonakis & Day, 2017b, p. 6). Modern companies are almost often poorly led and over managed. Therefore, the quick pace of change that modern organizations are experiencing can be used to explain why leadership has grown more crucial in recent years (Kotter, 2001). Before examining the literature on leadership development, a quick introduction to the connection between organizational culture and leadership will be made.

➢ *Organisational Culture and Leadership*

Without using the numerous references in the literature about the interaction between leadership and culture, any analysis of leadership would fall short. For instance, it has been noted in the literature (Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017; Sharma & Sharma, 2010) that culture and leadership have a dynamic and symbiotic relationship in which one cannot exist without the other. Tsai (2011) found a significant positive correlation between organizational culture and leadership behavior. A strong, cohesive organizational culture has been connected to leadership achievement (Myatt, 2014). Organizational culture, according to McConnell (2013: 24), is the shared and transmitted set of underlying presumptions, attitudes, and perceptions that influence both individual and group behavior. Organizational culture, on the other hand, is aptly described by Myatt (2014: 38) as the "sum of all organizational parts." Organizations can develop their own cultures through shared learning that results in shared presumptions about how to act and communicate internally (Schein, 2010). Culture is created by leaders when they initially assemble groups and start organizations. Organizational cultures, once established, dictate the type of leadership needed and ultimately determine who will and won't be promoted to

leadership positions (Schein, 2010: 22). As our society becomes increasingly connected through technology, the relationship between culture and leadership continues to change (Schein, 2010). Leaders must incorporate organizational culture into all facets of the organization's processes and practices in order for it to be perpetuated (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003). The preceding section gave a general overview of leadership; this section presents the field of leadership development, covering context, strategic issues, theories, models, and frameworks, as well as leadership development techniques.

➢ *Leadership Development*

A examination of the academic options regarding leadership development reveals a highly crowded field of research, much like the field of leadership. According to McCauley, Van Velsor, and Ruderman (2010), leadership development is "an expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes" (p. 2). It has been noted as a strategic imperative for organizations due to its inherent complexity (Cacioppe, 1998a; Leskiw & Singh, 2007); as a way to gain a competitive advantage (Day, 2001; Frawley, Favaloro, & Schulenkorf, 2018)). The underlying theories and principles upon which activities intended to improve leadership development inside organizations are based are frequently ignored (Bolden, 2016). Despite the abundance of literature on the subject, leadership development is still a complicated and understudied field that calls for more empirical study. As an illustration, Day and Thornton (2017) questioned the caliber of the body of literature and emphasized the stark contrast between theory and practice. The debate that follows about building leaders is predicated on the knowledge that there is no one "winning" method or ideal strategy for doing so (McCauley, Van Velsor &Ruderman, 2010).

➢ *Leadership Development and Context*

As was mentioned earlier, context is crucial when assessing leadership. This thesis is not unique in emphasizing the value of context when developing leaders (Bryman, 1999; Edwards et al., 2013; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kets de Vries & Korotov, 2010; McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman, 2010), particularly the need for leadership development to be grounded in context. Despite the fact that academics have acknowledged the significance of context in leadership development, there isn't much concrete data to support this claim (Hamilton & Bean, 2005). Context has several facets, which implies that growing leadership potential takes place in a variety of situations (Day, 2001). In conclusion, the research emphasizes how crucial context is to any leadership development strategy. According to McCauley, Van Velsor, and Ruderman (2010), there is no single, ideal method for developing all leaders since leadership development is so highly reliant on the vastly different contexts that occur inside organizations.

➢ *Impact of Strategic Issues on Leadership Development*

Investigating how larger strategic issues affect leadership development is crucial since it is not limited to a set of developmental methodologies. For instance, it has

been emphasized that top management support is essential for any initiative aimed at fostering leadership (Block & Manning, 2007; Carter, Ulrich, & Goldsmith, 2004; Gradney, 2008; Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Leskiw & Singh, 2007). All employees will doubt the value of growing their leadership and divert their time and effort elsewhere if there isn't a strong CEO and top management backing for it (Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Kesler, 2002). According to Burgoyne and Turnbull James (2001), Cacioppe (1998)a, Carter et al. (2004), Giber, Lam, Goldsmith, and Bourke (2009), Leskiw & Singh (2007), McAlearney (2006), and Weiss & Molinaro (2006), a clear explanation of the relationship between leadership development and the organization's strategic goals is another strategic imperative.

Organizations, systems, and processes must be fully integrated with leadership development (Amagoh, 2009; Cacioppe, 1998b; Dalakoura, 2010; Groves, 2007; Weiss & Molinaro, 2006); multiple stakeholders must accept shared responsibility for integrating leadership development throughout the organization (Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Leskiw & Singh, 2007). It has also been underlined how crucial it is from a strategic standpoint (Amagoh, 2009; Brown & Posner, 2001; Burgoyne & Turnbull James, 2001; Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Giber et al., 2009; McClelland, 1994) to have leadership development firmly ingrained in an organization's culture.

Best-practice organizations understand that the leadership development processes must be in line with the organizational culture in order to facilitate transformation (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001). According to Dalakoura (2010) and McClelland (1994), leadership development must be integrated into regular work procedures in order to become part of the organizational culture. The growth of an organization's leaders can be significantly impacted by its culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). A leadership culture that permeates the entire organization can be a result of effective leadership development (Dalakoura, 2010).

➢ *Learning Theories Related to the Development of Leaders*

Without reference to important learning theories, which serve as the foundation for how people learn leadership, no discussion of leadership development would be complete (Allen, 2007; Wang, 2015). Although Allen (2007) admits the lack of "all-encompassing" theory of adult learning, he stresses the significance of comprehending the main goals of these theories. Learning methodologies are therefore a crucial part of the overall process when deciding how to construct leadership development programs (Wang, 2015). Despite what might seem like a "natural" connection, leadership academics have generally ignored the relationship between adult learning theory and leadership development. Merriam and Bierema (2013) provided an overview of Allen's (2007) investigation into the relationship between leadership development and four key learning theories, including behaviorism, cognitivism, social learning, and constructivism/developmental theories. According to

behaviorists, learning results from environmental stimulation and reaction.

As a result, children only react to outside stimuli like teachers and other students (Allen, 2007). Schunk (2012) asserts that cognitive theories "stress the acquisition of knowledge and skills, the formation of mental structures, and the processing of information and beliefs" in contrast. The social learning theory, which is most frequently linked to Bandura (1977) and Wortley (2011), is a less extreme version of behaviorism. According to Bandura (1977), people learn by imitating other people's behavior in their surroundings. According to McConnell (2013), this approach emphasizes learning that occurs in a social setting. Learning happens when a connection is made between the learner and their environment (Allen, 2007), or it can happen socially as a result of human contact (Marodin, Waterhouse, & Malik, 2017). Constructivism/developmental theory focuses on how students create reality and then interpret their experiences to extract meaning. When people critically reflect on their learning and learning environment, they experience transformational learning, which is closely related to constructivism and developmental theory (Allen, 2007). According to Kolb's (1984, 1985, 2014) theory of experiential learning, adult learning and change are primarily characterized by learning experiences and critical reflection. The majority of scholarly research, according to DeRue, Nahrgang, Hollenbeck, and Workman (2012), shows that theories of experiential learning serve as the foundation for leadership development.

Organizations have been compelled to reconsider how they support learning as a result of radical changes in the workplace. In order to support continuous learning, these changes have led to a greater emphasis on informal and incidental learning approaches (Watkins & Marsick, 1992). Conlon (2004), Marodin et al. (2017), Marsick, Volpe, & Watkins (1999), and Watkins, Callahan, & Volpe (2006) all focused on recent studies on informal and accidental learning that examined how adults learn in the workplace. Informal and incidental learning is not a new concept; Marsick and Watkins (1990), who drew on Dewey (1938) and Lewin (1951) earlier works, further expanded the theory. According to Marsick and Watkins (1990), informal or incidental learning takes place in the workplace and is enhanced by critical reflection.

A issue is what triggers the learning process, and it advances as a result of identifying and seeking to address that problem (Marsick et al., 2006). When it comes to meeting the learning and training needs of employees, unstructured or informal learning that takes place in work contexts might be crucial (Marodin et al., 2017).

➢ *Models, Theories, and Frameworks for Leadership*

Scholars have bemoaned the lack of a proven framework or theory in this field despite the emphasis organizations place on educating their leaders (Avolio & Hannah, 2008; McCauley, 2008). Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2009: 4) assert that "no single approach can address the full complexity and richness of the leadership development

process" because of the several disciplines connected to leadership development. Unfazed, many academics have worked to establish modern models of leadership development, and their efforts have resulted in a wide range of methodologies (see Day, 2001; Giber et al., 2000; Schein, 2010). After researching these many frameworks, Leskiw and Singh (2007) put out a model with six essential components for successful leadership development. A summary of the four primary phases or components of each of the four broad leadership development frameworks, along with a brief description of each framework. When contrasted, these frameworks show the drastically different methodologies that are reflected in the discrepancy between the quantity and kind of the components or stages involved.

Table 1 Models, Theories, and Frameworks for Leadership

Authors	Brief Description	Main components or phases
Leskiw and Singh (2007)	Six key factors can be linked to effective leadership development	i) needs assessment; ii) audience selection; iii) supporting infrastructure in place; iv) developing a learning system; v) evaluate effectiveness; and vi) reward success and improve on deficiencies.
Bennis (2000)	Six-*phase* approach to leadership development	i) business diagnosis; ii) assessment; iii) program design; iv) implementation; v) on-the-job support; (vi) evaluation
DeRue and Myers (2014)	Centres on a seven-component organising framework	The PREPARE framework consists of seven key components: i) Purpose, ii) Result, iii) Experience, iv) Point of Intervention, v) Architecture, vi) Reinforcement, and vii) Engagement
Cacioppe (1998)	Integrated seven stage approach	i) articulate strategic imperatives ii) set objectives for developmental iii) identify appropriate methods and approaches iv) select providers & design learning programs v) evaluate program delivery vi) integrate with Human Resource Systems vii) evaluation of strategic imperatives, objectives & HR systems

Source: Adapted from Bennis (2000); Cacioppe, (1998); DeRue and Myers (2014) and Leskiw & Singh (2007).

➤ *Overview of Leader Development*

The phrases "leader development" and "leadership development" have been attempted to be distinguished by certain academics. Despite this, these concepts are nonetheless frequently used synonymously in the literature with no clear distinction being made between them (Belinskaja & Paulien, 2012), leading to conceptual muddle (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). The sole goal of leader development is to improve each individual leader's capacity for leadership (Dalakoura, 2010). In contrast, leadership development encompasses a process of growth that focuses on a group of persons (Day et al., 2014) and has a much broader definition than leader development (Dalakoura, 2010). Complete leadership development enables the improvement of not only people but also of teams and organizations as a whole (Avolio, 1999).

One of the terms shouldn't be given more weight or significance as a result of the distinction between the two. Day (2001), for example, contends that leadership development and leader development are both crucial. Since this thesis was primarily concerned with individual leaders, the term "leader development" will be preferred. No single hypothesis has been found to sufficiently describe how leaders evolve, according to the research (Avolio & Hannah, 2008; Day, 2000; Riggio, 2008). The discussion that follows will provide a brief overview of the larger body of research on frequently used frameworks and models for leader development.

➤ *Models and Frameworks for Developing Leaders*

Modern academic literature contains a wide variety of frameworks and models for leader development. As workplace dynamics change quickly, so do the theory and practice of social sciences that are related to these concepts, ideas, and frameworks for leader development (McConnell, 2013). Seven well-known frameworks for developing leaders were identified through a review of the literature. Wilson and Van Velsor (2011) developed a model for senior executives that identified five general experience clusters that were thought to be crucial for establishing leadership. Campbell, Dardis, and Campbell's (2003) comparable model included planned job assignments and experiences as well as five key processes related to building leaders. According to a number of researchers, formal education, job assignments, and self-directed learning are the three main ways that leaders develop (Day & Zaccaro, 2004; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004; Zaccaro, Wood, & Herman, 2006).

A slightly different three stage method with the production of learning experiences was put forth by Allio (2005). A 70:20:10 leadership learning mix, promoted by

McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) and others, holds that roughly 70% of learning is acquired through diverse on-the-job learning events (with 20% learned from managers and co-workers and 10% through courses and reading). Based on the five webs of belief, O'Connell (2014: 8) adopts a holistic approach to leader development that encompasses a person's career and entire life. "Learning, reverence, purpose, authenticity, and flaneur" (balance/reflexivity) are these constructs.

Finally, a two-part development model was supported by McCauley, Van Velsor, and Ruderman (2010: 1). Assessment, growth, and support were all included in the first component because they are three essential components that, when integrated, undoubtedly result in more positive developmental experiences (Day & Thornton, 2017; Van Velsor, McCauley, & Moxley, 2004). The second component of the concept includes a wide range of learning experiences along with the leader's accumulated knowledge from those encounters. This model also emphasizes the importance of context in the process of developing leaders and the fact that there is no one best approach to lead or develop leaders because it all depends on the environment in which the leader is working (McCauley, Van Velsor, & Ruderman, 2010). It is clear that many researchers have emphasized the significance of experience in terms of developing leadership, and there is broad agreement in the literature that experience serves as the main catalyst for leadership development (DeRue & Myers, 2014; McCall, 2004; Ohlott, 2004; Thomas & Cheese, 2005).

Table 2 Popular Leader Development Frameworks

Source	Brief Description	Main components, phases or steps
Wilson and Van Velsor (2011)	There are five general experience groups that are thought to be crucial for a senior executive's leadership development.	Five clusters of experience include: i) Challenging assignments; ii) Developing relationships; iii) Coursework and training; iv) Adverse situations; and v) Personal experiences.
Campbell et al. (2003)	There are five main steps that go into developing leaders.	Five major processes comprise: i. Mentoring and modelling; Formal executive training; (i) Planned job assignments and experiences; (ii) Formal feedback; and (iii) Reflective self-evaluation.
Day and Zaccaro (2004);	Three mechanisms in general contribute to the growth of leaders.	Three mechanisms involve: (i) Formal instruction; (ii) Work assignments; and (iii) Self-directed learning.
McCall et al. (1988)	70:20:10 leadership learning mix.	Traditional classroom-based training accounts for about 10% of leadership development. The final 70% is accomplished through various on-the-job learning opportunities, with another 20% being developed through mentoring.
O'Connell (2014)	Include five networks, structures, or cognitive schemas that direct a leader's growth throughout the course of their career and lifetime.	The five webs are authenticity (self-awareness/positive moral attitude), authenticity (balance/reflexivity), purpose (self-regulation), reverence (relational/collective), and learning (creativity/expertise).
McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010)	Two-part model (comprised of the developing process and developmental experiences). Three basic tactics are used to integrate learning experiences. Enhancing people's capacity for learning from experience; Align the leader development strategy with the leadership environment.	Consists of three key strategies: assessment, challenge, and support for integrated learning experiences.

➤ *The 70:20:10 Developmental Model*
According to the 70:20:10 leadership learning model mix advocated by McCall et al. (1988) and others, roughly 70% of development is attained through a variety of work-based learning experiences, 20% is attained through relationships like mentoring, and the final 10% is attained through traditional formal structured training and development. The three main components of the concept have been improved over time with various descriptors attached, including structured learning (10%), learning from others (20%), and learning from experience (70%). Despite its widespread use and the many labels applied to the three categories, Kajewski and Madsen (2013: 4) pointed out that there isn't any reliable empirical data to back up the validity of the 70:20:10 model. The 70:20:10 learning paradigm has been promoted for three decades already, but as shown by recent scholarly references to the idea (see Day & Thornton, 2017; DeRue & Myers, 2014; Kajewski & Madsen, 2013), its popularity still holds strong.

The 70:20:10 learning model was chosen as the framework for this study because it is applicable to the QPS and emphasizes context, making it suitable for use in the complex contextual environment of policing. To emphasize, there are several learning frameworks in the larger literature on leadership development outside McCall's leadership learning model.

V. LEADERSHIP

Examination of the academic literature demonstrates that, during the past thirty years or so, there has been a lot of scholarly interest in the multifaceted and difficult issue of policing. An overview of current concerns affecting police organizations, such as varied forces and evolving responsibilities and policing paradigms, will be provided in the conversation that follows. The specific contextual environment of policing, including organizational structures, the reform movement, and the subsequent impact on police leaders, will be discussed.

➤ *Factors Affecting Modern Policing*

Like other vocations, policing has been influenced by a variety of factors, but maybe in this field more strongly than in others. For instance, a wide range of local, national, and international legal and policy influences, as well as social forces (Bradley, 2012; Fleming & Hall, 2008; Thorne, 2003), shifting demographics (Bentz, 1995; Enter, 1991; Fleming & Hall, 2008; Murray, 2000; Sklansky, 2006), have an impact on modern policing (Dupont, Manning, & Whelan, 2017), growing globalization (Batts et al., 2012; Bowling, 2009), changing crime patterns (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Shearing, 2001; Bittner, 1970), expanding private security industry (Bayley, 1994; Bayley & Shearing, 2001; Jones & Newburn, 2002), growing financial constraints (Batts et al., 2012; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Jackson, 2015; Meaklim. Police organisations are also influenced by growing politicisation (Brewer, Wilford, Guelke, Hume, & Moxon-Browne, 2016; Fyfe, Greene, Walsh, Wilson, & McLaren, 1997; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Rogers & Frevel, 2018; Savage, 2007; Walker & Archbold, 2013), increased accountability (Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Walker, 2001), a push towards increased "civilianisation" (see Cordner, 2014; Maguire, Shin, Zhao, & Hassell, 2003; Russell & MacLachlan, 1999) and a renewed emphasis on being more efficient (see Davis & Bailey, 2018; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Hoque, Arends, & Alexander, 2004; Kiedrowski, Ruddell, & Petrunik, 2017; Marks & Fleming, 2004; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Ratcliffe, 2003).

Future police structures and practices, according to Rogers and Frevel (2018: 1), will continue to be shaped by a variety of factors, including "social, political, economic, technological, environmental, and legal" influences. The police environment is continually changing due to a number of factors, which has an effect on policing models, methods, and styles (Watson, 2018). Now, focus will shift to the growing police role, shifting organizational structures, and related reform.

➤ *Police Role Change*

The aforementioned mentioned influences have combined to affect the function the police play. For instance, historically, law enforcement organizations have tended to play a more limited "crime-fighting" role (Cordner, 2014; Deakin, 1988; Morris, Heal, & Britain, 1981; Paoline, 2004). However, the function of the police has expanded and grown more complex (Bond, Murphy, & Porter, 2015; Herrington & Pope, 2014; Tyler & Jackson, 2014; Hansson, Hurtig, Lauritz, & Padyab, 2017; Prenzler, Martin, & Sarre, 2010; Shane, 2010a). The role of police leaders has changed as a result of police organizations' evolution from being historically exclusive and closed organizations to ones that are more open, transparent, and responsible (Fleming & Hall, 2008). A wider range of leadership abilities are required for police leaders due to the challenges brought on by the growing complexity of police work and financial restraints (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Neyroud, 2011). Police officers must take the initiative, exercise command and control, and make important decisions in a setting that is largely self-directed (Sommerfeldt, 2010). The evolving organizational structures that reflect the changing function of the police, supported by a wide range of forces and reform initiatives.

➤ *Organisational Structures*

Adlam, 1999; Chan, 1996; Cox, 2011; King, 2005) and rigid hierarchical rank-based structure, where officers are bound by strict adherence to numerous rules and regulations (Bazemore & Griffiths, 2003; Das, 1986; Maguire, 1997; Roberg, 1994); police organizations, which have been described as paramilitary in nature. A concentration on internal and vertical lines of communication, rigorous adherence to organizational policy, procedures, and legislation, and authoritarian, militaristic concepts have all been used to organize police organizations in the past (Fleming & Rhodes, 2004). Traditional paramilitary and hierarchical structures in democratic police organizations have, however, come under increasing scrutiny over time (Angell, 1971; Auten, 1981; Bittner, 1970; Cordner, 1978; Cox, 2011; Densten, 2003; Engel, 2001; Etter, 1993; Hodgson, 2001; King, 2003; Sandler & Mintz, 1974; Vickers & Kouzmin, 2001; Violanti & Aron, 1994; Yuille, 2012). Traditional hierarchical police structures are criticized for failing to follow modern governance principles (Clark, 2005) and for having an inherent rigidity that, among other things, makes it difficult to make decisions and use discretionary authority in difficult moral situations (Vickers & Kouzmin, 2001).

Without mentioning the rank-based system, which academic journals frequently refer to as "rank mentality" (Davis, 2017; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Metcalfe & Dick, 2001; Mitchell, 2009; Silvestri, 2006, 2007), no study of police organizations would be complete. According to Martin, Rogers, Samuel, and Rowling (2017), the military paradigm, which prioritized rank and authority and legitimized a leader's ability to govern and direct subordinate behavior, served as the foundation for police leadership historically. Officers continue to place a significant amount of reliance on the rank structure when

defining roles and responsibilities for making decisions (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Police managers have used rank-based power to stifle opposition and uphold their longstanding heritage of management flexibility (Marks & Sklansky, 2014). The development of alternative leadership philosophies has been hampered by the continued reliance on rank as a sign of authority (College of Policing, 2015; Davis, 2017). According to Mitchell (2009), formal rank does not always reflect a leader's aptitude or level of expertise, and it can also inhibit creativity and innovation (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Densten (2003: 409), who came to the conclusion that bureaucratic structures encouraged leaders to deal with officers depending on their rank, underlined the benefits of a clearly defined rank system by concluding that it led to a high level of homogeneity inside the organization.

➤ *Police Reform*

It is clear from an examination of the academic literature that attempts at police reform are a significant and recurrent issue. The immense issues that modern police organizations are still facing put great strain on their institutional systems (Mitchell, 2009). Among these difficulties are reform initiatives. Executives have been compelled by reform in police organizations to restructure bureaucratic structures, including efforts to flatten organizational structures (Cordner, 2014; Etter, 1993; Greene, 2000; Maguire, 1997; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Vito, Walsh, & Kunselman, 2005); decentralize (Bolen, 1997; Cordner, 2014; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Hepworth & White, 2016; Mastrofski & Will Reputable police scholar Bayley (2008: 8) examined significant police reforms over the course of four decades and divided them into three main categories: (i) strategies (community-oriented policing and problem-oriented policing), (ii) standards (internal discipline and external accountability), and (iii) management (computer-driven crime analysis and diversity measures).

The three categories can be broadly applied across western police agencies more generally, including Australia, despite the fact that Bayley's (2008) analysis was US-focused. Community policing encouraged police departments to reconsider their conventional hierarchical and bureaucratic models and move towards flatter structures when it comes to "strategies" (Engel, 2001).

The manner that police organized their operational response to crime was altered by problem-oriented policing (Braga, 2007). The application of external accountability measures as a result of corruption scandals has been one of the main drivers of reform with regard to "standards" in police organizations (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Moggré et al., 2017). For instance, the watershed Fitzgerald Report found that Queensland's public service was "politicized and moribund, not subject to review or accountability mechanisms" (Lewis, Ransley, & Homel, 2010: 13), which prompted the creation of the Criminal Justice Commission (CJC) to oversee police misconduct and the imposition of external supervision (Prenzler, 2011).

Regarding "management," Bayley's (2008) references to management changes were largely influenced by the US policing context and neglected to mention new public sector management reforms, which are more prevalent within UK and Australian police agencies and are consistent with scholarly interest. Police organizations have been compelled to "modernize" and restructure their organizations with a stronger emphasis on increasing operational performance, efficiency, and cost effectiveness in an effective way (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Marks & Fleming, 2004) as part of the public sector reforms in many western democracies (Meaklim & Sims, 2011).

Police organizations have become entangled in the larger new public sector management (NPM) reform movement, which has seen the adoption of methods that emphasize results-driven outcomes (see Barzelay, 2001; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Hoque et al., 2004; Hough, 2010; Mann, 2016), as well as a renewed emphasis on cost effectiveness and administrative accountability (Fleming & Lafferty, 2001). Police have demonstrated greater steadfast resistance to reform initiatives than other public sector organizations (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Knight, 2014) notwithstanding the failures and issues connected with implementing NPM in policing that have been noted (Barzelay, 2001; Hough, 2010). Since police leaders' skill sets were determined to be lacking, training and development initiatives were required to raise the bar for leadership (Golding & Savage, 2011; The Home Office, 2004). Many police agencies still resemble large bureaucracies despite reform efforts to reduce the size of police structures, according to academic research from the US and the UK (Ackroyd, Soothill, Harper, Hughes, & Shapiro, 1992; Guyot, 1979; Whittred, 2008). This is because the main organizing principle is rigid hierarchical rank-based structures. A survey of the official websites for Australian law enforcement organizations revealed a similar image of the country's bureaucratic institutions. Public sector changes have affected every police agency in Australia, yet organizational structures have persistently held steady and continue to resemble hierarchical rank-based setups.

Police organization structures and ongoing transformation present particular difficulties to its leaders. For instance, the hierarchically organized and highly bureaucratic nature of the policing organization structure is what makes it resistant to change (Baker, 2011) and creates limitations and impediments on a leader's capacity (Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996). Senior police personnel now are required to manage intricate bureaucracies, deal with mounting uncertainty, and advance a more politicized law enforcement agenda (Casey & Mitchell, 2007). Senior leaders are also faced with an environment that is becoming more challenging and complex. This environment is layered with rising degrees of accountability and a wide range of stakeholders that have higher expectations (van Dijk, Hoogewoning, & Punch, 2015). Modern managers' leadership styles have not always changed in response to reform initiatives to flatten and streamline police organizations and the systems that support them (Marks &

Sklansky, 2008). Poor leadership has been blamed for issues with implementing police reform (Mazerolle, Darroch, and White, 2013), with managers stubbornly clinging to more conventional or traditional leadership styles over modern leadership behaviors (Fleming & Rhodes, 2005; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Silvestri, 2007).

The vital competencies needed of police leaders have expanded, especially in turbulent and dynamic times, as a result of the need to promote change and bring about organizational reform (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Flynn & Herrington, 2015). The way police train and educate its officers has been changed by the shifting policing environment and philosophy (Hudson, 2014), including the initiative taken by police organizations to identify new and improved education and training approaches (Bradley, 2012). As a result, it is clear that contextual theories of leadership that have already been discussed in this discussion have a place in the study of police leadership. Future policing in Australia must be adaptable and sensitive to quickly changing circumstances, according to a significant report on work practices within the Victoria Police (Office of Police, 2010). Within police organizations, significant change is possible but is reliant on the caliber of police leadership spearheading the change (Schafer, 2009).

Policing concepts have been inspired and molded by policing reform initiatives. In the case of police agencies, for instance, conventional, traditional organizational models have typically been adopted. These models are characterized by specialized units and governing bodies through a set of geographically defined boundaries, such as police regions, districts, and divisions (Murray, 2000; Stone & Travis, 2013). According to the literature, pressures related to greater accountability, coupled with ongoing public sector changes interspersed with corruption scandals, drove police organizations to implement extensive organizational reform efforts. For instance, a number of public sector reforms affecting Queensland and New South Wales police organizations in the 1980s led to the flattening of rank hierarchies, the decentralization of decision-making, and "doing more with less" (Fleming & Lafferty, 2001: 165).

Community-based policing and its close relative, problem-oriented policing, were both inspired by this reform movement (see Friedmann, 1992; Greene & Mastrofski, 1988; Johnson, 2017; Schanzer, Kurzman, Toliver, & Miller, 2018; Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). Evidence-based policing (Bullock & Tilley, 2009; Lum & Koper, 2017; Sherman, 2013; Smith, 2017; Willis & Mastrofski, 2018) and intelligence-led policing (Cope, 2004; Peterson, 2005; Ratcliffe, 2016; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008) are two strategies that have gained popularity more lately. Police departments have adopted community-oriented, intelligence-driven, and problem-oriented techniques as a result of government-imposed reforms, which attempt to replace more reactive approaches to policing with more proactive ones (Tilley, 2008). Significant scholarly emphasis has been paid to the distinctive policing setting in which leaders function. The context of policing, including organizational structures and reform, discretion, accountability, culture, police unions, and professionalism, will be briefly described in the study that follows.

➤ *Contextualizing Policing*

The contextual factors, which distinguish police employment from other professions, are undoubtedly essential to any study of policing. In a nutshell, the environment of police is a peculiar contrast between crime and the law, one of which is very unstructured and persistent and the other of which is relatively fixed and rigid. The scholarly literature, which includes Cockcroft (2014), Dick (2010), Dunham & Alpert (2010), Herbert 1996, Kroes 1976, Smith 2005, Sykes 1985, van Dijk et al. (2015), Walker & Archbold (2013), acknowledges the special or distinctive nature of police. Police work is distinct from other jobs by the universal authority to use legal force and coercive authority (Cioccarelli, 1989; Dunham & Alpert, 2010; Klockars, 1985; Paoline, 2003).

Police job can be delicate and complex because it frequently involves doing normal tasks in potentially dangerous situations (Andersson Arnten, Jansson, Olsen, & Archer, 2017). The complexity of police work has been previously mentioned (see Herrington, 2015; More, 1998; Vanebo, Bjrkelo, & Aaserud, 2015), which, among other things, makes the task of the police leader very difficult (Batts et al., 2012). The amount to which leadership has been impacted by the police setting, however, has not been adequately explored in police leadership studies to date (Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017). The special policing setting has shaped and influenced the job of police leaders. As previously said, the specific character of police work and the diverse circumstances in which officers are needed to function make the task of the police leader particularly difficult (Brown, 1998; Schafer, 2009). (Davies, 2000; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001) High ranking police leaders are forced to extended work hours and high workloads. A senior leader spends a large amount of time dealing with issues related to people management, such as performance management, punishment, grievances, welfare, and training and development (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Haake, Rantatalo, & Lindberg, 2017; Silvestri, 2007; Skogan, 2008) have emphasized the crucial role police leaders play in promoting organizational change, particularly the necessity of fostering a positive ethical culture (Silvestri, 2007).

Senior police commanders now play more of a corporate leader, teacher, or coach role rather than the archetypal military commander, who inspires, instructs, or bargains for results (Mastrofski, 2018). Future top police executives will likely be more concerned with fostering a work climate that allows subordinates to succeed (Martin et al., 2017). The fundamental significance of "political and social content and the external environment in which police leaders operate" has often been underemphasized in academic literature about police leadership, according to Fleming and Hall (2013).

The substantial degree of discretion that police officers use in the course of their everyday tasks sets the profession apart from others (see Ariel et al., 2016; Goldstein, 1977; Ryan, 1996). Police officers must act independently in their duties, which calls for the exercise of discretion, according to policing researchers (Tyler, Callahan, & Frost, 2007). For police leaders, the scope of this discretion poses serious difficulties. For instance, Lundman (1979: 160) notes that "the work of the patrol officer is unsupervised and, to a lesser extent, it is unsupervisable". Police organization legitimacy (Tasdoven & Kapucu, 2013) and functioning (Kelling, 1999) are both based on how this discretion is used and managed. Police have a lot of discretion, and that discretion can have a big impact on the communities they serve. As a result, while using these authorities, officers need to be held responsible (Hays et al., 2007).

The expanding layers of accountability present within the police setting can also be characterized. (See Cooper, 2018; Currie, DeKeseredy, & MacLean, 1990; McLaughlin, 2005; Punch, 2009; Simmons, 2009; Walker & Archbold, 2013) The literature has emphasized the crucial requirement for police accountability. In the past, police officers received their basic equipment, such as their badge and weapon, and were sent unaccompanied to the front lines. This outdated leadership style, which lacked adequate accountability systems, resulted in a number of power abuses, including misconduct and corrupt actions (Hays et al., 2007). The use of body worn cameras or videos is a more recent method of accountability (Coudert, Butin, & Le Métayer, 2015; QPS., 2015b); as well as new technological developments like "early warning" or "early intervention systems" that have increased the accountability of police leaders for their work (Stroshine, 2015).

Lack of suitable accountability measures has also been linked to inappropriate behavior or misbehavior, in addition to poor police accountability systems and models that limit police responsibility (Walker & Archbold, 2013). Due to the wide powers granted to police (Stenning, 2000), including restrictions on the use of force (Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Walker, 2001; Walker & Archbold, 2013), high levels of accountability are necessary. Given that accountability in policing is a wide-ranging and complex phenomena, police commanders must develop a number of strategies to create the best framework for managing it (Walker & Archbold, 2013).

The persuasive power of police unions is another characteristic of the police setting. According to numerous studies (Fleming & Hall, 2013; Marks, 2007; Marks & Fleming, 2006; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Walker, 2008), police unions (or associations) have consistently had a significant impact on police agencies. This is especially true in Australia, where 99% of police officers belong to a union (Burgess, Fleming, & Marks, 2006). Police unions have a considerable impact on larger management decisions (Evans, 2010; More, 1992; Walker, 2008), which is particularly visible when attempts at organizational transformation are made (Fisk & Richardson, 2017; Hays et al., 2007).

The literature has contested both the beneficial and detrimental effects unions have had on change and reform in police organizations (see Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Marks, 2007; Walker, 2008). In terms of workplace reform, unions have generally attacked senior police efforts vigorously (Fleming & Lafferty, 2000), with their activities being characterized as "reactionary and defensive" (Sklansky & Marks, 2008). Police unions are renowned for having an ill-defined idea of police professionalism (Burgess et al., 2006), and they have steadfastly upheld old notions of police professionalism and orthodox police tactics (Marks, 2007). Police leaders must consult with union officials in order to increase the likelihood that administrative reforms will be successful today, as evidenced by the fact that police unions, as industrial organizations, remain a potent force in terms of enhancing members' material benefits (Evans, 2010).

The police setting must be understood in relation to the apparently separate culture that exists within the police (Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1997; Cockcroft, 2014; Crank, 2014; Jones, 1995; Paoline, Myers, & Worden, 2000; Woody, 2005). According to academics (Baily, 2002; Quinton, Myhill, Bradford, Fildes, & Porter, 2015; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Keelty, 2013), police cultures are governed by rules and resistant to organizational innovation.

Reforms must also cut through numerous levels of both the "police sub-culture" (see Marks, 2007; Marks & Fleming, 2006; Walker, 2008) and the mainstream organizational culture (Jermier, Slocum, Fry, & Gaines, 1991). According to several studies (Bacon, 2014; Bradford & Quinton, 2014; Crank, 2014; Hesketh, Cooper, & Ivy, 2018; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Prenzler, 1997; Waddington, 1999), a disproportionate amount of people perceive police work as a purpose. Many scholars recognise the macho police culture reflected in strong masculine images that permeate the organisation (Brown, 2007; Chan, 1996; Dick & Jankowicz, 2001; Fielding, 1994; Henry, 1995; James & Warren, 1995; Loftus, 2009; Prenzler, 1997; Silvestri, 2007; Waddington, 1999), and fuelled by a male-dominated bias against female officers (Brown, 2007; Brown, Campbell, & Fife-Schaw, 1995; Dick & Jankowicz, 2001; More, 1992; Rabe-Hemp, 2008).

Another prominent aspect of police culture that has been emphasized is the tendency for police to show intense loyalty to other officers and peer groups, as well as characteristic displays of defensive solidarity, particularly within groups where officers form strong and intense bonds with peers (see Crank, 2014; Goldsmith, 1990; Lawson, 2016; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Paoline, 2003, 2004; Paoline et al., 2000; Westmarland, 2005). (Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1997; Loftus, 2009; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Nhan, 2014; Paoline et al., 2000; Prenzler, 1997; Reiner, 2010; Woody, 2005) Police solidarity can make officers feel socially alienated from the rest of society.

Police tend to have deeply ingrained cynicism (Bellingham, 2000; Cochran & Bromley, 2003; Graves, 1996; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Nhan, 2014; Prenzler, 1997; Waddington, 1999) as well as strongly

conservative attitudes and views (James & Warren, 1995; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Reiner, 2010). In a similar vein, Bellingham (2000), Chan (1996), Kingshott, Bailey, and Wolfe (2004), Loftus (2009), Myhill & Bradford (2013), Reiner (2010), and others have noted that cops tend to be gloomy and distrustful by nature.

The alleged distinction between "management cops" and "street cops," which has received much attention in the literature (Crank, 1998; Dantzker, 2000; Densten, 2003; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Reuss-Ianni, 2011; Reuss-Ianni & Ianni, 1983), is another feature of police culture. Additionally, "street culture" in policing is frequently mentioned (Mittleman, 2004; Reuss-Ianni, 2011; Van Maanen, 1984), which states that all officers, whatever of level, must work on the street for a period of time in order to be deemed to have "street cred" (Van Maanen, 1984: 146). By limiting the ability to enforce compliance with the prevalent police culture (Jermier et al., 1991; Marks, 2007), it is obvious that police culture has a significant impact on how police leaders grow and function (Poitras, 2017).

The paradox that police work is really an applied art rather than a science and a trade rather than a profession is another aspect of the police setting. Following that, the focus of academic discussion has been the requirement to elevate police to the status of a true profession (see Shusta, Levine, Harris, & Wong, 2002; Sklansky, 2014; Stone & Travis, 2013). To achieve true police professional status, a number of reforms have been made, such as stricter selection procedures (Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013); improved accreditation (Carter & Sapp, 1994; Felkenes, 1980; McCabe & Fajardo, 2001; Schneider, 2009); higher standards of police education (see Hays et al., 2007; Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013); higher standards of police education (Hays et al., 2007; Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013; Trofymowych, 2008); and improved accreditation (Carter & Sapp, 1994; Felkenes, 1980; McCabe & Fajardo, 2001; Schneider, 2009). The "new professionalism" is defined by more recent initiatives to elevate policing from a blue collar to a legitimate profession as consisting of four important elements: accountability, legitimacy, innovation, and national coherence (Flynn & Herrington, 2015: 5; Stone & Travis, 2013).

Police organizations are putting more of an emphasis on management and leadership development programs as a result of the "new professionalism" (Council of Canadian Academies, 2014). The need for college education for police officers was a topic of discussion in the US as early as the 1960s (Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Trofymowych, 2008), and it is still a topic of discussion today. Many commentators claim that the profession of policing has not yet attained full professional status, despite numerous initiatives to improve professionalism (see Bayley, 2016; Neyroud & Weisburd, 2014; Villiers, 2003). According to Villiers (2003: 15), agreement must be established in two key areas for police to be generally recognized as a profession: agreement on a concise "policing philosophy" and an accepted leadership style deemed acceptable for policing.

The last chapter concentrated on the police context by outlining crucial components that, in some ways, distinguish policing. The discussion that follows will provide an overview of the field of police leadership, including definitions, roles, models, frameworks, theories, and leadership styles, as well as important characteristics and behaviors that define effective leaders. This discussion will build on earlier discussion, which highlighted how context influences and shapes leadership.

➤ *Taking the Lead in Policing*
A number of studies have emphasized the significance of effective leadership within police organizations (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Densten, 1999, 2003; Di Grazia, 1976; Gibson & Villiers, 2006; Macdonald, 1995; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Rowe, 2006; Schafer, 2009), particularly in terms of achieving organizational performance (Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Macdonald, 1995; Schafer, 2008).

The theoretical frameworks and practical models connected with leadership are still very much in their infancy, according to an assessment of the scholarly works on police. Despite an upsurge in study on police leadership (Andreescu & Vito, 2010), empirically grounded studies in this field are still scarce (Mastrofski, 2006; Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2010a; Silvestri, 2006). The majority of academic writings on leadership in policing are overly descriptive in style (Mitchell, 2009; Neyroud, 2011; Schafer, 2008); they also heavily rely on "anecdotes and case studies" (Schafer, 2008: 13); and they are predicated on organizational contexts that may not be compatible (Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2008). Despite the crucial role that leadership plays in police organizations, the majority of academic works in this field are based on research from other fields, particularly the military and business settings (Schafer, 2008).

It is debatable to what extent these "borrowed" settings apply to the police environment. Studies of police leadership tend to emphasise celebrity police executives (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Mastrofski, 2006; Schafer, 2009) and focus on leadership styles and behaviours (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Densten, 2003; Girodo, 1998; Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982; Rowe, 2006; Vito & Higgins, 2010). The process of creating effective leaders is poorly understood, despite the recognised value of strong leadership within police organizations (Bragg, 2013; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a).

This study will also look at how context affects officers' capacity to improve their leadership, particularly in terms of challenge, criticism, and support. The significance of context in leadership development has not been adequately demonstrated in scholarly publications (Hamilton & Bean, 2005). A relative dearth of scholarly research has also been done on the influence of the environment within police organizations on leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Fleming & Hall, 2008). This

becomes especially clear when discussing leadership in the "cultural and occupational context of policing" (Schafer, 2009: 244) and when describing how police commanders acquire leadership skills (Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White, and Schedlitzki, 2013).

However, one of the defining characteristics of police leadership literature (and practice) is the strong tradition of favoring management over leadership (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Schafer, 2009; Vito, Suresh, & Richards, 2011). Despite numerous attempts, scholars have been unable to come to consensus on a universal or clear definition of police leadership (Caless & Tong, 2017; Davis, 2017; Golding & Savage, 2011; McCarthy, 2012). While Murphy and Drodge (2004: 1) contend that leadership in policing is a social process that is contextually situated and influenced by various mediating factors, including that "emotions, actions, personality factors, and contextual conditions coalesce," Davis (2017: 30) contends that leadership in policing presents a challenging paradox as a "institutionalized social status... both the source and solution to organizational problems."

Scholarly circles continue to debate whether the context of policing may be sufficiently distinguished from other organizations to merit a particular style of leadership (or "police leadership"). For instance, Schafer (2010b: 738) stated that the crucial necessity of ethics and integrity, structural restrictions impeding tight supervision, and the "geographically diffuse nature of police work environments" were some of the unique characteristics of policing that had an impact on leadership. Schafer (2010b) questioned the relevance of existing theories and the framework based on corporate style environments to policing based on these various contextual variables. Some academics have taken this idea a step further by proposing that the distinctive contextual traits connected to policing need a certain style of leadership (see Adlam, 2000; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Densten, 1999; Schafer, 2009). Blair (2003), on the other hand, questioned whether police leadership is actually distinct from the approaches used in other organizational environments. Police work has some distinctive characteristics, but it also has aspects in common with other organizations (Caless & Tong, 2017). According to Caless (2011; Caless & Tong, 2017), no comprehensive analysis has been done to prove that "police leadership" is distinct from other types of leadership. Attempts to precisely define "police leadership" despite varying interpretations have proven unsuccessful (Adlam, 2000, 2002; Davis, 2017; Maciha, 2014) and call for more research (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Schafer, 2010b). After looking at several definitions of police leadership, the focus is now briefly on policing-related leadership theories.

Scholarly texts contain a variety of theories related to police leadership; nonetheless, it appears that no empirically tested theory or conceptual construct is present in the current literature. Police leadership has been studied using a number of conventional or mainstream theories, including the situational, transformational, and behavioral theories (Davis, 2017; Wright, Alison, & Crego, 2008). The influence of

social constructionist theories on leadership in policing is also acknowledged (see Davies & Thomas, 2003; Davis & Bailey, 2018), which recognizes that leadership is not an autonomous concept separate from the social environment but is instead influenced by "social interaction and discourses" (Davis & Bailey, 2018: 15).

Every officer, regardless of rank, is a leader, according to one widely-cited theory in academic writing (Anderson, 1999; Fisher, Weir, & Phillips, 2014). This theory is based on the idea that all officers must engage in some sort of leadership activity while performing their duties (Kingshott, 2006; Ramsey & Robinson, 2015). According to the notion, training should be provided to all officers regardless of rank because some officers may not exhibit leadership potential until they have experienced developmental activities (Schafer, 2008).

As was previously mentioned, despite many attempts, academics have been unable to agree on a common definition of police leadership (Golding & Savage, 2011), including what essential qualities must be present in successful police leaders (Anderson, 1999; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017). The fact that there isn't a common definition of police leadership in the literature is probably what is to blame for the diverse leadership theories related to policing. As a result, no single strategy fully captures the contextual diversity prevalent in police situations, despite the different leadership theories proposed in the literature (Wright et al., 2008). The evolution of leadership, or more specifically, perceptions of development, is at the heart of this theory. After evaluating the data, it became clear that multiple definitions are being operationalized, hence no attempt was made to enforce a single, "universal" definition of police leadership.

> *Senior Police Leaders' Function*

The subject of senior leaders in policing has not drawn scholarly attention, with the exception of stories of how well-liked police chiefs have ascended to the top. For instance, there is comparatively little empirical research on leaders at the top echelons of police organizations, despite the clear importance of their position (Densten, 1999, 2003). Introspective business practices are no longer acceptable for modern police organizations. Police researchers, for instance, have discussed how today's policing is rapidly becoming international or transnational (Newburn, 2008; Walker, 2008). Senior police leaders must concentrate on establishing and promoting the organization's vision, setting the strategic direction, developing strategic goals, and collaborating with and empowering officers by delegating responsibilities, according to Vito et al. (2011).

In recent decades, the role of senior police leaders has changed from one based on conventional command and control methods to one that is more bureaucratic and include "managerialist" concepts that incorporate a strategic vision (Davis & Bailey, 2018). In order to effectively handle the tumultuous environment and the needs of modern policing that are always changing, officers at top levels in the force need to be trained with the appropriate leadership qualities

(Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Morreale & Ortmeier, 2004). When officer's move into management positions and eventually executive level jobs at more senior levels of policing, it becomes clear that leaders must be developed (Flynn & Herrington, 2015). By ensuring that modern learning processes are deeply ingrained across the board of the entire police agency, senior police leaders also play a crucial role in the development of leaders (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Herrington & Colvin, 2015).

➢ *Leadership Styles*

Finding the right leadership style for policing is still a contentious topic in academic circles, much like attempts to define police leadership. Despite this, some academic discussion has centered on various leadership philosophies in policing (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013), including thorough literature reviews (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Dobby et al., 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013) examining the relationship between various policing philosophies and the effectiveness of policing philosophies.

Blair (2003) questioned whether the leadership styles used in policing differ noticeably from those used in other organizational situations. Other scholars, however, disagree, arguing that police leadership is a unique and difficult task (Adlam, 2000; Densten, 1999; Schafer, 2009). The authoritarian, transactional, transformational, and mixed leadership styles will all be briefly described in the discussion that follows. These styles are widely discussed in academic literature related to policing.

According to Densten (2003) and Steinheider & Wuestewald (2008), police work inside well defined organizational structures that are characterized by bureaucratic procedures and hierarchical rank-based reporting systems. The hierarchical, bureaucratic, and militaristic policing systems that have historically favored autocratic and authoritarian leadership styles have influenced the leadership philosophies chosen by police (Vito et al. 2011). In particular in dynamic operational situations, autocratic leaders are more likely to prioritize accountability (Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982) and make snap decisions (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Kingshott, 2006). The effectiveness of autocratic leadership styles in policing has, however, come under fire for being overly dependent on rigid "quasi-military" structures (Campbell & Kodz, 2011), adhering rigidly to rules and regulations (Marks & Sklansky, 2008), and disempowerment of subordinates by taking away their power to make decisions (Kingshott, 2006).

Reform initiatives are always overshadowed by traditional autocratic or authoritarian leadership styles (Phillips & Burrell, 2009), which can lead to tense interactions between police unions and the administration (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Police authoritarian bosses are less likely to adequately recognize their staff members' efforts (Shane, 2010b) and are more likely to stifle the emergence of alternative people-oriented leadership philosophies (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Evidence suggests that police officers do not only employ authoritarian methods but

rather a wide variety of leadership or supervisory styles, including transactional leadership (Adlam, 2002; Schafer, 2009).

With an emphasis on using positional authority, rewards, and punishment to achieve results, transactional leadership is a common leadership style associated with policing (see Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014). Transactional leadership styles in policing have been linked to some beneficial outcomes, such as subordinates being satisfied because of the style's predictability (Densten, 1999), higher levels of appreciation and respect for leaders, and being useful in motivating some officers (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The proportional benefits of transactional leadership in comparison to other leadership philosophies have, however, been disputed (Neyroud, 2011) and have come under fresh attack (Cockcroft, 2014). This critique includes an excessive emphasis on reinforcing officer behavior that deviates from expected norms as well as the time-consuming nature of awarding awards and enforcing punishment on subordinates (Densten, 1999; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Recent scholarly discourse has rekindled interest in participatory leadership styles in law enforcement, especially transformational leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Moggré et al., 2017; Neyroud, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Vito et al., 2014). The main traits of transformational leadership are being values-driven and developing a vision; supporting people through personal growth and ongoing learning; and putting an emphasis on achieving group objectives (Campbell & Kodz, 2011: 3).

Research in policing has found some links between transformational leadership and positive policing outcomes (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; de Roever, 2012; Densten, 2003), including enhanced officer satisfaction and commitment (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Dobby et al., 2004; Silvestri, 2007) that fosters clearer goals for individuals (Davis & Bailey, 2018) within a supportive and stable environment (Drodge & Murphy, 2002a). According to some (Silvestri, 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008), this leadership style is ideally suited to officers at senior levels of law enforcement. Mastrowski (2004) observed a trend in policing whereby leaders are exerting greater control via legal means and relying less on using physical force to sway officer behavior. Police commanders who exhibited transformational behaviors were more likely to challenge the status quo (Murphy, 2008). Officers exhibiting transformational behaviors were viewed as being more successful leaders and had a greater favorable impact on their subordinates' performance when compared to officers displaying transactional behaviors (Lowe et al., 1996). Officers thought they easily engaged emotionally with transformative leaders (Murphy, 2008).

It has been questioned if transformational leadership is appropriate to use in the setting of law enforcement (Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017; Neyroud, 2011), with assertions that there is more marketing hype than credible

empirical data to back up claims of its success. There have been questions about how well transformational leadership will fit into police workplaces, which are known for having strong command and control features (Neyroud, 2010) and a high emphasis on rank (Silvestri, 2007). De Roever (2012) concluded through his research in the QPS that sergeants' transformational leadership behaviors did not have a substantial positive impact on the behavior of their subordinates.

While there is disagreement over the relative merits of transactional and transformational leadership styles in police (Neyroud, 2010), blended leadership styles have also been the subject of discussion. Some data supports the idea that more effective police officers exhibit behaviors derived from both transactional and transformational styles, as opposed to solely adopting transformational leadership behaviors (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Neyroud, 2010). As an alternative, it has been discovered that police officers frequently adopt a blend of transactional and autocratic leadership styles (sterlind & haake, 2010; silvestri, 2007). According to some data, senior police officers who combine transactional leadership with participatory leadership create stronger teams and achieve higher levels of decision-making consensus (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Wheatcroft, Alison, & McGrory, 2012). Personal toughness was connected to a blend of transactional and autocratic leadership behaviors in a navy training military environment, and mixed leadership styles were found to be effective there as well (Eid, Johnsen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2008).

Some academics are researching novel leadership approaches as a result of the apparent failure of standard leadership styles to meet current policing concerns (Zoller, Normore, & McDonald, 2014). More participative leadership styles, in which managers actively encourage employees to participate in decision-making, have drawn attention from academics recently (see Baker, 2011; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). The orthodox police culture, which demands that leaders be extremely decisive, has criticized participatory leaders for taking longer to make decisions (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Silvestri, 2007). As an alternative, some studies (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006; Herrington & Colvin, 2015; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Pearce & Sims, 2000) have examined the suitability of implementing a shared leadership style within policing. Shared leadership was defined as a "group process of shared responsibility and mutual influence in which team members lead each other towards their goals" by Herrington and Colvin (2015: 7).

Another more modern leadership approach that has lately been connected to the public sector (Jackson & Jones, 2018) and policing (Etter, 2010; Zoller et al., 2014) is adaptive leadership. One of the leadership philosophies used by the AIPM in their senior leadership development programs is adaptive leadership (Etter, 2010). Adaptive leadership, according to Heifetz and Linsky (2017), is the

capacity to mobilize people to face challenges and succeed. The previously mentioned risky and unexpected character of policing may be related to the contemporary scholarly interest in adaptive leadership, which requires leaders to be exceptionally adaptive and flexible in order to adapt to turbulent and unmanageable circumstances. Recent research by Davis and Bailey (2018: 20) shows the extent to which the context-laden nature of police effects on leadership methods. These academics discovered that unconventional leadership using "participatory, collaborative, and relationship leadership approaches" may only be appropriate in low-risk, regulated contexts with a high degree of predictability.

Linking agency-level results to police leadership presents additional difficulties for developing a winning leadership style, especially when performance indicators are impacted by various confounding factors (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The body of existing research on police leadership styles is mostly dependent on perception, and there is no solid empirical data that explains how the various leadership styles affect policing (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Therefore, it should come as no surprise that there are no established theoretical frameworks for police leadership (Fleming & Hall, 2008). A limited evidence basis links particular leadership styles to greater performance at a personal or organizational level, hence there is no agreement on what leadership style is "winning" or superior (Davis, 2017; Dobby et al., 2004; Mitchell, 2009; Wright et al., 2008). However, there is a lack of agreement among senior police leaders regarding fundamental, core, or essential qualities and behaviors (Caless & Tong, 2017), and there is no impartial evaluation of what is expected of leaders at the highest levels of policing (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009).

In conclusion, there is "no single right way to lead and no one style of leadership which can be guaranteed to work for leaders in all circumstances" within the contextually rich setting of police (Gibson & Villiers, 2006: 6). Instead, the solution resides in police officers' capacity for adapting multiple leadership philosophies to suit the varied policing circumstances (Neyroud, 2010).

However, there is a lack of agreement among senior police leaders regarding fundamental, core, or essential qualities and behaviors (Caless & Tong, 2017), and there is no impartial evaluation of what is expected of leaders at the highest levels of policing (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009).

The research (Caless & Tong, 2017; Miller et al., 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013) reveals that the key characteristics needed in police leaders are not dissimilar from those seen in leaders in non-police organizations, despite the distinctive contextual factors associated with policing. However, some research indicates that strong police leaders have been shown to share a few essential characteristics in common that set them apart from ineffective or mediocre leaders (see Schafer, 2010a, 2010b). In a relatively recent systematic review of the literature,

Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013: 2) identified five typical behaviors, such as problem-solving, developing a shared vision, fostering organizational commitment, caring for subordinates, and managing change, as well as seven common attributes attributed to good police leadership, including "ethical; role models; good communicators; critical and creative thinkers, decision makers, trustworthy, and legitimate." The following discussion begins by going through the six crucial characteristics that Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) identified.

➢ *Significant Characteristics*

The majority of the material that is currently available on police leadership focuses on outlining important qualities and desirable actions of good or effective leaders. The literature depends on either shaky evidence or a priori logic to support its claims because there is little empirical proof that any one characteristic or behavior is more successful than another. In fact, some of the traits, like "integrity," have practical definitions that are so broad that they are difficult to accurately assess. when having integrity is a must for all leaders, not all leaders have the authority to employ fatal force when working in such autonomous workplaces. Due to the enormous legal authority that police officers have, policing is a "integrity-based" profession (Oliver, 2013), and police personnel ought to be obliged to complete training in ethical leadership (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). The necessity for police leaders to possess integrity and have ethical values has been stressed in the literature (see Baker, 2011; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Devitt & Borodzicz, 2008; Garner, 2017; Goldsmith, 2001; Graves, 1996; Griffin, 1998; Macdonald, 1995; Morreale & Ortmeier, 2004; O'Leary et al., 2011; Oliver, 2013; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Schafer, 2010a; Stamper, 1992). Strategically speaking, police leaders must foster an integrity-centered culture that penetrates the entire organization (Graves, 1996; Lewis, 2010; Silvestri, 2007).

Good leaders were seen as officers who understood their responsibilities as role models, which was related to having integrity and ethics (see Andersson Arnten et al., 2017; Baker, 2011; Graves, 1996; Isenberg, 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011; Oliver, 2013). In his study of 480 senior Australian police officers, Densten (2003) discovered that effective leaders exhibited "idealized influence," which inspired pride, conviction, and respect in their followers. Caless (2011, p. 89) suggested that the ability to "encourage, mentor, develop, and motivate staff" was one of the essential qualities of a successful executive leader.

Another essential quality of police leaders that is frequently mentioned in academic discourse is effective communication (see Beck & Wilson, 1997; Bryman et al., 1996; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Dantzker, 1996; Davis, 2017; Garner, 2017; Knight, Bailey, & Burns, 2015; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; O'Leary et al., 2011; Schafer, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). Effective communication is one of several crucial characteristics that The British Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) has identified as essential for strategic police leaders (Caless & Tong, 2017). At the rank of chief officer, Caless (2011) highlighted that

communication was a crucial skill that needed to be used both "strategically and organizationally." According to two independent US surveys by Garner (2017) and Knight et al. (2015: 7-8), having strong communication skills was the most desired quality in police chiefs. The ability of senior leaders to communicate with influence is listed as a vital competency in the Australian and New Zealand Police Strategy (ANZPLS) capability framework (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Good conceptual skills, including higher order creative, critical, and strategic thinking, are another essential quality for police leaders to have (see Baker, 2011; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Council of Canadian Academies, 2016; Davis, 2017; Gaston, 1997; Martin et al., 2017; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; O'Leary et al., 2011). Senior leaders in the UK were found to require the ability to "analyse critically" by the College of Policing (2016: 16), which created a competency and values framework (CVF). Critical thinking skills were discovered by Gaston (1997) to be the most important predictor of success for police executives. This ability for police leaders is referred to as the conceptual capacity to harmonize higher order thinking with operational objectives, according to Martin et al. (2017).

Making decisions could be a generic skill that all leaders working in both the public and commercial sectors need. But academic discourse has repeatedly emphasized how important it is for police leaders to be capable decision-makers (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Caless, 2011). Knight et al. (2015) concluded that having the ability to make decisions was a critical component of a police chief's job performance. According to these writers, decisiveness is the "readiness to make decisions, render judgement, take action, and commit oneself" (Knight et al., 2015: 8). Caless (201: 97) examined key characteristics for senior executives in the UK and found that chief officers needed to make hard decisions and possess the confidence to "see them through". Making wise and timely judgments was cited by The ACPO (2011) as the primary criteria for top police managers.

Another quality that all police personnel should arguably have is trustworthiness, as the public's confidence in the police is crucial. Police by consent fails when trust is lost, and public safety suffers as a result (Goldsmith, 2005). Because of this, trust has frequently been emphasized as a crucial quality or characteristic of an effective police leader (Andersson Arnten et al., 2017; Wheatcroft et al., 2012). To improve interpersonal interactions, communication, and teamwork within police work environments, it is thought that officers must trust their supervisors (Martin et al., 2017). According to Par (2015), a leader's efficiency was correlated with the degree of mutual trust that was fostered between them. The discussion will now focus on desirable behaviors of good or effective police leaders outlined by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013), building on the fundamental characteristics of police leaders previously described.

➢ *Optimistic Behaviors*

There is a dearth of trustworthy data regarding what defines good police leadership behaviors, despite several studies studying desirable behaviors of police leaders (Davis, 2017; Dobby et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2008). However, as was already mentioned, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) identified the following frequently cited behaviors as desirable for good or effective police leaders: problem solving, developing a shared vision, inspiring organizational commitment, showing concern for subordinates, and leading and managing change. The analysis that follows will examine these behaviors.

Problem-solving skills are frequently cited as qualities of effective police commanders (Butterfield, Edwards, & Woodall, 2004; Caless, 2011; Miller et al., 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011). Miller et al. (2009: 54) assert that problem-solving requires being imaginative, diplomatic when dealing with delicate issues, and action-oriented. Top police commanders needed problem-solving skills that were proactive rather than reactive to temper a fire-fighting approach to problem-solving (O'Leary et al., 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Another highly praised activity of police executives, particularly at senior levels, is promoting an organization's vision (see Baker, 2011; Garner, 2017; Grant & Toch, 1991; O'Leary et al., 2011). Maintaining the vision required being self-assured, capable of handling change, influential, and at ease with being visible, according to Miller et al. (2009: 54). In today's complex policing contexts, executive level officers must develop a compelling vision for the organization, despite the emphasis on the need for foresight in senior police executives (Garner, 2017) (O'Leary et al., 2011).

The demonstrated ability to develop organizational commitment is another desired trait of successful police executives. Different definitions of organizational commitment have been offered by academic works, including the degree to which employees feel required to continue with the company (Yousef, 2017) and the psychological bond that employees feel with the company (Choi, Oh, & Colbert, 2015). Higher organizational commitment levels have been linked empirically to decreased absenteeism and staff turnover rates (Johnson, 2015).

Researchers like Garner (2017), Grant & Toch (1991), O'Leary et al. (2011), and others have found that leaders with strong communication skills (Beck & Wilson, 1997; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013) and those who inspire or motivate others are more likely to foster greater organizational commitment in the policing sector. According to a 2003 study by Australian researcher Densten, executive level officers view "inspirational motivation" as a crucial indicator of effective leadership. Metcalfe and Dick's (2001) UK research found a correlation between an officer's commitment to the police organization and their decision-making ability, managerial support, and ability to receive insightful performance reviews.

According to Andersson Arnten et al. (2017), Garner (2017), Martin et al. (2017), police leaders are drawn to individuals who are compassionate or show concern for their subordinates. A fundamental characteristic of transformational leaders is the treatment of subordinates with "individualized consideration," which is referred to in the literature that is currently available (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Davis, 2017; Densten, 2003; Schafer, 2010a; Vito & Higgins, 2010). A caring police commander, according to Andreescu and Vito (2010: 573), demonstrates "comfort, wellbeing, and status of followers while recognising their individual contributions." Senior sergeants believe that demonstrating a personalized sense of esteem is a hallmark of effective leadership, according to a survey of police commanders performed in Australia by Densten (2003).

According to Schafer's (2009) argument, the ability of the police commander to effectively manage, engage, and supervise subordinates is a key factor in how much major change may be accomplished. In conclusion, this debate looked at a variety of leadership-related topics in the context of policing as a whole, whereas the study that follows focuses on leadership in the context of Australian policing.

➢ *How Police Leaders Develop*

The lack of empirical research examining how police leaders develop their leadership is highlighted in the literature (Gaston & King, 1995; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a; Wedlick, 2012), as well as the lack of research examining the effectiveness of leadership development strategies (Herrington, 2014; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Miller et al., 2009; Neyroud, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a). When creating leadership programs intended to articulate preferred styles, qualities, and performance, the absence of consistent evidence in building a proven leadership style in police has proven difficult (Wright et al., 2008). According to Schafer (2009: 24), "lack of social science inquiry into the leadership development process" may be partially to blame for police organizations' inability to properly develop their leaders. The section that follows discusses contextual elements, such as police culture and organizational structures, procedures, and processes that have an impact on how police leaders develop.

➢ *Contextual Elements that Affect the Development of Leaders*

As was already said, a recurring theme in the body of writing on police is the various contextual elements that influence leadership. Naturally, academic writing has also emphasized how circumstance has consequently altered how police commanders are created. As was previously mentioned, police culture has a big impact on how leaders conduct themselves when policing (Crank, 1998). Additionally, detrimental features of police culture that may prevent or hinder the formation of successful leaders have been noted by researchers (Campbell, Stewart, & Kodz, 2011; Dobby et al., 20040.

Cultural barriers related to male-dominated police professions have also been connected to preventing female officers from rising in their careers (Dobby et al., 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Silvestri, 2007) and have been shown to impede some leadership styles. According to Schafer (2009), the risk-averse culture of the police, which was intolerant of failure, may have a negative effect on an officer's career growth, meaning brave cops who took risks had a higher probability of failing. Instead, promotions were given to officers who chose not to take any action and instead took the safest course (Schafer, 2009). Such a structure is fundamentally problematic because it supports leadership behaviors that are at odds with the organization's overarching strategic objectives.

It has been discovered that officers' time restrictions and workload pressures, as well as a lack of resources (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Schafer, 2009), hinder their development (Campbell et al., 2011; Herrington). Additionally, it was shown that a number of structural barriers and organizational politics within police organizations prevented officers from developing their leadership skills (Campbell et al., 2011; Herrington, 2014; Schafer, 2010b). The growth of officers has also been found to be hampered by people-related variables, such as weak leadership demonstrated by superiors (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Schafer, 2009) and a preference for management over leadership (Schafer, 2008, 2009). Advancement in police leadership has also been shown to be hampered by the inability to adequately identify or communicate a preferred leadership style (see Schafer, 2009, 2010b).

➤ *Customized Training for Police Leadership*
The relative benefits of implementing specialized leadership development treatments versus using general corporate type approaches have been discussed in scholarly discourse in police (Engel, 2001; Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997; Kingshott, 2006; Rowe, 2006). At the senior leadership levels, the argument over whether corporate style leadership development interventions are appropriate seems more relevant. For instance, Densten (2003) suggested that these variations may be explained by officers holding more senior level roles being more comparable to other levels in corporate organizations. As police executives move up the corporate ladder, tailoring leadership development may therefore become less important (Schafer, 2009).

The ongoing argument in academic circles about whether leadership in policing is a special or separate endeavor compared to other occupations can be linked to discussions about the need for specific police leadership development. Despite this, it has been discovered that cultural aspects of policing have a significant impact on the propensity for police-specific training meant to address the specific contextual variables visible in policing (Rowe, 2006).

According to the research, specialized leadership training is required to effectively address the needs of various ranks. For instance, Golding and Savage (2011) discovered that policing's numerous levels of leadership

make specialized development interventions necessary. Cultural differences have been found when compared management positions played by police officers with those played by street policemen (Reuss-Ianni & Ianni, 1983; Van Maanen, 1984). Therefore, the necessity for segregated development interventions would be explained by variations in the nature of the responsibilities played by management and street cops.

The benefits of exposing police commanders to corporate-style executives for their professional growth have been emphasized. Neyroud (2011), for example, said that police organizations would benefit from adopting a mixed or hybrid model that combines targeted internal leadership development with externally guided development. Although police have a monopoly on the best methods for developing and choosing leaders, leadership development poses substantial issues for both business and public service institutions (Caless & Tong, 2017).

The majority of scholarly opinion supports individualized or customized leadership development treatments for police, notwithstanding the lack of empirical support. It is now appropriate to investigate several leader development models and frameworks related to policing. This is because we know how significantly the organizational context affects the growth of police leadership.

➤ *Models and Frameworks for Developing Leaders*
Despite the relative significance of leader development models or frameworks in policing, little scholarly attention has been given to the subject. Military leadership development methods are mentioned in the literature that is currently available (see Cowper, 2000; Miller et al., 2009; Schafer, 2009), but there is no academic research to back up an empirically validated police leader development model. Instead, it was suggested (Schafer, 2009: 238) that the greatest way to improve a leader's talents is through experience mixed with education and mentoring, with modeling and mentoring being crucial components.

Schafer's ideas were repeated by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013), who promoted effective leadership development through three essential components: "formal education, on-the-job experience [and] mentoring." Poitras (2017) recently discounted the value of formal education and training, stating that officers acquired their leadership through "lived experiences," mentorship from superiors, and organizational culture.

Because they failed to see the value of learning leadership through "on-the-job" experience and being mentored by successful leaders, several police organizations were unable to train their leaders effectively (Schafer, 2009). In conclusion, the literature highlights the significance of police learning the art of leadership by experience — through doing, from practical application, or learning "on-the-job" (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2009; Wedlick, 2012).

Military leadership development strategies have been related to policing leadership development models (Neyroud, 2011; Schafer, 2010a). Military models adopt a somewhat different three-part strategy, contending that there are specific things you must "BE, KNOW, and DO" to be an effective leader (US. Military Academy, 2009: 16). The strategy also consists of five essential elements: "readiness," "developmental experiences," "reflection," "new capacities and knowledge," and, intriguingly, an element that refers to resources.

VI. PRACTICAL LEADERSHIP FINDINGS

- Training/education are the most often employed ways of leadership development by police organizations. Non-financial, cultural, structural, and political obstacles to the growth of successful leaders and leadership techniques received the highest ratings.
- The study discovered that there were several significant policy implications for police agencies and the field of policing. First, the study discovered that a number of highly regarded characteristics and behaviors may be linked to personality traits, which could hinder the ability of initiatives for leadership development to improve these behaviors.
- The study also revealed the need for additional research on the efficiency of various leadership development techniques. Third, the study discovered that increased cooperation between academic institutions and police organizations is required in order to create and implement successful leadership development initiatives.
- The findings of this study suggest that there is a need for a more comprehensive approach to leadership development in policing.
- This plan should incorporate experience, training, education, and feedback. Targeting political, structural, and cultural barriers to effective leadership is also important. If police organizations take a more comprehensive approach to leadership development, they can ensure that they have the leaders they need to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

- *Here are some Concrete Instances of Techniques, Regulations, and Procedures Related to Police Leadership Development:*

- ✓ Education/Training: Police organizations provide a range of education and training programs to help their personnel develop their leadership abilities. These courses can cover a variety of themes, from broad leadership to more focused training on problem solving, decision making, and communication.
- ✓ Experiential learning: Police officers gain leadership abilities through their experiences. As officers advance in their careers, they are assigned positions with a growing amount of responsibility, which provides them with the chance to develop as leaders.
- ✓ Feedback: An essential component of leadership development is feedback. To identify areas where they need to improve, police officers need to regularly obtain feedback on their performance. Supervisors, colleagues, subordinates, and even citizens may provide feedback.
- ✓ Cultural change: Police organizations must alter their cultures in order to foster an environment conducive to effective leadership. This could entail altering how officers are chosen, selected, and promoted. It can also entail altering how police personnel are educated and assessed.
- ✓ Structural change: By altering their organizational structure, police organizations can also foster a culture of strong leadership. Creating new leadership positions like a chief of staff or a deputy chief for training may be necessary to accomplish this. Decentralizing decision-making and granting officers more discretionary power may also be involved.
- ✓ Political change: Lastly, in order to create a conducive atmosphere for efficient leadership, police organizations need to collaborate with political leaders. This might entail advocating for amendments to laws and rules that obstruct effective leadership. Additionally, it can entail forming connections with political officials and educating them on the value of leadership development in law enforcement.

- *The approaches, regulations, and procedures related to police leadership development are always changing. Police organizations will need to continue to innovate and adapt their leadership development programs as the policing profession meets new difficulties. Governments can take a number of actions to encourage the growth of competent police leaders. These consist of:*

- ✓ Investing in education and training: Governments ought to fund police leadership development initiatives. These courses ought to cover subjects like leadership, ethics, and community relations.
- ✓ Fostering an environment of support: Governments ought to foster an atmosphere of support for police chiefs. This entails giving them the tools and power they require to perform their duties successfully. Additionally, it entails making them responsible for their deeds.
- ✓ Diversity should be encouraged by governments among police leaders. This will make it more likely that the police department reflects the neighborhood it serves.
- ✓ Establishing ties with the community: Governments ought to establish ties with the community. This will promote mutual respect between the community and the police.

- *These are all crucial actions that governments may take to aid in the training of competent police leaders. I'd also add that authorities should:*

- ✓ Governments should clearly define what is expected of police leaders in terms of their moral character, dedication to civic engagement, and capacity to foster a culture of trust and accountability within the police force.

- ✓ Give police leaders regular feedback: Governments should give police chiefs regular input on their performance, both good and bad. Police leaders will be able to pinpoint their areas for growth and hone their leadership abilities with the assistance of this feedback.
- ✓ Governments should provide chances for police officials to learn and develop, both via formal training programs and through informal mentoring and coaching connections.
- ✓ Praise the accomplishments of police leaders: Governments should both publicly and privately praise the achievements of police commanders. This will encourage police administrators to keep up their excellent work and serve as a role model for other cops.

Governments may contribute to ensuring that police commanders are effective and that the public has confidence in the police by implementing these actions. Governments can contribute to ensuring good police leadership and public trust in the police by implementing these actions.

VII. SUMMARY

The research that informed this thesis was described in this opening chapter. The background to this thesis, which supports the objectives of the research, is outlined. There is a brief introduction to leadership and leadership development in policing as well as a preview of the special police context. Research objectives are stated, and research questions based on the found gaps are described. The limits of doing the research are also described in this chapter, with a focus on the contextual difficulties that are unique to police. The chapter also defines the scope of the research. The three studies that were used in this research are described, and the essential words used in this research are defined.

Two sections made up the article's presentation. The first section included a general overview of policing, mentioning factors that had an impact on police organizations and outlining how the police function was changing. A synopsis of the major police reform initiatives was given together with an overview of the organizational structures of the police. Prior to the debate focusing on leadership in policing, a quick overview of the distinctive contextual environment of policing was presented. There was a discussion of various leadership theories in policing as well as a summary of the scholarly argument over whether or not policing is a singular endeavor ("police leadership verses leadership in policing"). A summary of numerous leadership paradigms and frameworks related to policing was given. The debate then focused on the different leadership philosophies related to police, as well as the crucial qualities and behaviors of strong or effective leaders.

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