EMBEDDING BEHAVIOURS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP INTO A POLICING ORGANISATION

A Thesis submitted by

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ABSTRACT

Police are not only leaders within their organisation but also within the community they serve. However, despite this requirement, the development of effective leadership with law enforcement agencies around the world has proven to be problematic. In the current policing environment, particularly in a global pandemic, police leadership is more important than ever. Many police agencies have cited that they have difficulty in developing future leaders due to in part, there not being one sole style of leadership identified that encompasses all the circumstances that police officers face. What then are desirable police leadership behaviours? What are the types of leadership styles suited to policing? What model is suited to implement leadership development? How can desirable leadership behaviours be embedded into a police training continuum? In answering these questions, I undertook a systematic review of literature pertaining to police leadership and further analysed data from a total of 163 Queensland police officers who participated in research that I helped initiated on behalf of the Queensland Police Service with the University of Queensland (UQ) in 2020. This research builds on the UQ study and explores deeper into the behaviours of police leadership and how these can be embedded into training.

CERTIFICATION OF THESIS

This Thesis is entirely the work of **Brett Hampson** except where otherwise acknowledged. The work is original and has not previouslybeen submitted for any other award, except where acknowledged.

Principal Supervisor: **Associate Professor Marcus Harmes**

Associate Supervisor: **Dr Yvonne Findlay**

Student and supervisors' signatures of endorsement are held at the University.

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ABBREVIATIONS

MDP – Management Development Program

Lead4Qld – Lead for Queensland

QPS – Queensland Police Service

Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Leadership styles for policing organisations require regular review so they arebest placed to meet future challenges that traditional police leadership styles may not be able to address (Schafer, 2009). The importance and distinctiveness of police leadership are recognised in literature but there is limited supportive evidence that oneparticular police leadership style leads to an improved individual or organisational performance (Dobby et al., 2004). The Queensland Police Service (QPS) is striving tomeet these future demands through the revitalisation of officer development programs. Embedding leadership training into the QPS training continuum is essential so future leaders are equipped to meet demands that will be placed on the service in the years to come.

In 2019, I identified that current QPS leadership programs were not meeting the expectations of QPS members during my time as a facilitator at the Queensland Police Leadership Centre. There had been previous program reviews conducted internally by the QPS over the previous decade, however, they largely failed to instigate any meaningful change to course redesign. To rectify this, I was key in commissioning a review of leadership programs currently delivered by the QPS. I recommended the QPS employ the University of Queensland Business School (UQ) to conduct a systematic review of leadership programs within the QPS. This commenced in 2019. UQ delivered a report to the QPS in January 2020 titled “Leadingto Serve: A Community-Centered Approach to Leadership in the Queensland Police Service”. This present study directly links and builds on the recommendations contained within that research. As practitioner and researcher, I am intrinsic to both and provide a natural bridge between the UQ data and the findings and discussions in this thesis.

1.1 Background

Traditional command and control foundations are centered on

establishing and maintaining power and control of people and resources. This style of leadership can inhibit the leader from making real-time corrections during complex situations (Anderson & Anderson, 2010) because often leaders may not listen to the input of others, which limits their decision options. This is not ideal in fast-paced and rapidly changing environments. The challenge of future leadership within the QPS will be to transition from traditional views of leadership into new styles of learning and development.

The QPS is currently undergoing a period of significant change where all facets of the organisation are being reviewed to maximise efficiency. This has included a review of officer developmental programs. The Queensland review has identified a disconnect between frontline officers and the executive leadership. This finding is supported by the Working for Queensland Survey, which is an annual survey which measures Queensland public sector employee perceptions of their work, manager, team and organisation. Annually, this survey highlights that most employees are reasonably happy with their immediate manager but lose trust in managers who are above the rank of their immediate supervisor. This trend is across all government agencies and is not just specific to the QPS (Queensland Government, 2020).

Some literature (Owen et al., 2019) has identified that further research is necessary to thoroughly explore the identification of desirable leadership behaviours for officers to operate effectively and how these can be embedded into the QPS. The anticipated outcome of this research will form the basis to implement broader and more systematic change in leadership development within the QPS.

1.2 Context

The QPS is seeking to redefine leadership development to ensure officers are equipped to meet future challenges. Leadership is the key to an organisation's performance and improving police leadership is on many law enforcement agenciesagendas (Dobby et al., 2004). This research will further explore the 'what', and address 'how' the QPS can embed desirable leadership

behaviours within the culture of the QPS. The outcome of the research will suggest ways to improve leadership training of officers as they progress through the ranks during their career.

1.3 Purpose

The QPS is striving to improve police leadership within this organisation. The main purpose of this thesis is to answer the following questions related to this goal:

- RQ 1: How can desirable leadership behaviours be embedded in the QPS training continuum?

The sub-questions given below contribute to answering the overarching research question.

- Sub – RQ 1*:* What are the desirable leadership behaviours in the QPS?
- Sub – RQ 2: What are the types of leadership suited to policing organisations
- Sub – RQ 3: What model is suited to implement leadership development?
- Sub – RQ 4: How do people learn new skills?

1.4 Significance Scope and Definitions

The principal aim of this research is to assist the QPS to identify ways to modernise police leadership development in order to meet the current QPS reform agenda. Leadership success is achieved when the leader can influence subordinates to achieve higher outcomes. The behaviour of a leader, either negative or positive will be regarded as leadership behaviours.

Key factors which needed to be considered when deciding on the direction of theresearch were:

- Police leadership has come into question in recent years within the QPS, andindeed across the globe. There has been however, no broadly accepted modelto implement police leadership development.

- There was a view that leadership styles such as transformational andauthentic leadership may be appropriate in every policing context.

- The impact of leadership would have flow on effects through every rank.

- The view amongst QPS members was that the current professionaldevelopment program was not meeting their needs or expectations.

The main objectives of the research are:

- To examine the knowledge, skills and behaviours required by QPS officersfrom Constable to Chief Superintendent and to provide high-level recommendations for enhancing QPS leadership;

- To gather evidence on the impact of styles of leadership; and,

- Explore ways to modernise leadership development for the QPS and makerecommendations on curriculum development.

1.5 Thesis Outline

The research approach in this thesis is positioned within the pragmatic paradigm. The pragmatic design embraces a mixed-method approach to applied research questions (Giacobbi et al., 2005). Pragmatic approaches emphasise the practical problems experienced by people, the research questions posited, and the consequences of inquiry. The intention of applyinga

a pragmatist paradigm was to collect, analyse and interpret qualitative data to explore how leadership is currently viewed within the QPS and how to improve future leadership development. The research used the mixed tools to collect data including individual and small group interviews, surveys, work-based decision-making exercises and semi-structured focus groups. In this thesis, I draw knowledge from my fifteen years as a police officer in the Queensland Police Service, including three years that I have been ina training capacity at the Queensland Police Service Academy as a Senior Facilitator at the rank of Senior Sergeant.

Chapter 2 consists of a literature review to describe the styles of police leadership and common leadership behaviours. The literature review is used to discover literature on desirable leadership traits, development of leadership behaviours and how leadership may be implemented into a police training continuum. Similar policing organisations such as the Queensland Police Service (QPS) were considered in the review. This chapter assists in answering;

- RQ 1: How can desirable leadership behaviours be embedded in the QPS training continuum?
- Sub – RQ 1: What are the desirable leadership behaviours in the QPS*?*

Chapter 3 explains and justifies the methodology and research design used in this study, members who participated in the study, tools used to collect the data and how the data was analysed. Further explanation is provided as to how data was collected which included individual and small group interviews, surveys, work baseddecision-making exercise and focus groups. This section provides information as to the questions and scenarios that were proposed to the participants and summarises theirresponses.

Chapter 4 dives deeper into the results of the data collected and looks specifically at the results and current perceptions of the policing environment by officers of varying ranks. This section is broken down by combing relevant

ranks. This includes; Assistant Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner perspectives; Inspector, Superintendent, Chief Superintendent perspectives; Senior Constable, Sergeant and Senior Sergeant perspectives; Recruit and Constable perspectives. This chapter cumulates by exploring leadership effectiveness and provides a conclusion. This chapter assist with answering:

- Sub – RQ 1: What are the desirable leadership behaviours?

Chapter 5 discusses the results and identifies desirable leadership behaviours, leadership styles, contingency theory and I present a conceptual model to support police when deciding on what leadership style to implement in a given situation. This chapter also addresses the nature of learning and how officers are currently assessedfor promotion within the QPS. This chapter addresses:

- Sub – RQ 1: What are the desirable leadership behaviours?
- Sub – RQ 2: What are the types of leadership suited to policing organisations?
- Sub -RQ 4: How do people learn new skills?

Chapter 6 explores how the identified leadership behaviours can be embedded intothe QPS. This chapter also identifies models for developing police leadership programs and recommends core modules to enhance leadership within the QPS. This chapter addresses:

- RQ 1: How can desirable leadership behaviours be embedded in the QPS?
- Sub – RQ 3: What model is suited to implement leadership development?

Chapter 7 is the final chapter of this study and it provides a conclusion to the research and addresses the limitations, including research that could be

conducted to complement and augment this research.

Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

For this literature review, it is first pertinent to define the terms 'leadership' and‘policing’ as they set the parameters for all subsequent inquiry. The focus of this thesisis embedding leadership and the focus of the literature review is on both leadership and the types of leadership that are enacted in policing organisations. Leadership is an observable and learnable set of practices. Leadership involves the ability to deal withchange and setting the direction of the change (Kotter, 2008). For police leadership, it will be considered to be a set of identifiable behaviours, acts and behaviours that are used to influence people to achieve common goals (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). This literature review then focuses on leadership within a policing organisation, from constables to the commissioned ranks. For this review, policing will be considered tobe the process of detecting crime, maintaining order and administering the law(Mawby, 2012).

2.2 Literature Review Methodology

A robust literature review was undertaken to describe the styles of police leadership and common leadership behaviours. The review sought to discover literature on desirable leadership traits, development of leadership behaviours and how leadership may be implemented into a police training continuum. Similar organisations to the Queensland Police Service (QPS) were considered including the New South Wales Police Force, Victorian Police, New Zealand Police and policing organisations located in the United States of America.

2.3 Leadership

Leadership has attracted wide levels of scholarly investigation from different angles for many decades (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Bass (1990) identified common themes that occurred across a wide range of literature,

stating that leadership involved influencing people through the leader's charisma, persuasion and power. These efforts were made to coordinate an effort in the hope of achieving a prescribed goal. Classical perspectives of policing leadership have tended to cast leaders as operating within a narrow range of styles. Due to the traditionally militaristic structure of policing organisations, policing entities tended to adopt a hierarchical model of officers and lower ranks. Implementing this approach, police leaders presumed that the appointment of rank would provide them with the authority necessary to direct and control police behaviour (Martin et al., 2017). Traditional policing leadership adoptedthe theory that one individual was firmly in charge, while the others were followers (Pearce, 2004). Through a review of the literature, common police leadership styles were further identified.

2.4 Transactional Leadership

The intersection of police with transactional leadership has been much studied. Transactional leadership is based on the principle of rewards and discipline, which areadministered according to the adherence or deviation from instruction (Bass & Bass, 1985; Densten, 2003; McCleskey, 2014; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013). Bass & Bass (1985) conceptualised that transactional leadership emphasised three factors: Contingent reward, management by exception and non-leadership (laissez-faire).'Contingent' refers to the efforts made by the leader to set expectations so that the followers understand what they need to do to receive a reward. 'Management by exception' is a less active approach (Bass & Bass, 1985). The leader informs the followers what is expected but does not have any further involvement unless the follower's performance deviates considerably from the expectations. 'Non-leadership' occurs when leaders avoid clarifying expectations, addressing conflict or making decisions.

Literature has identified that transactional leadership is used by many police leaders, but often they fail to correctly apply the behaviour (Densten, 1999). This is due to factors such as;

- time,
- inadequate opportunities to observe staff,
- not knowing how to conduct positive reinforcement, and
- a lack of relevant skills.

Transactional leaders stimulate the learning from their organisation's rules, procedures and experience (Vera & Crossan, 2004). There is evidence to support thattransactional leadership is effective (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass et al., 2003; Zhu et al., 2012) but it can also have a negative effect. Literature has identified that transactional leadership can have a negative association with the innovation of followers. This is due to followers often taking a proven path, rather than risking punishment by trying something new (Avery, 2004). Transactional leaders focus on consequences rather than rewards, it places a strong value on efficiencies and is strongly governed by an organisations rules and procedures (Avery, 2004; Bass & Bass, 1985; Vito et al., 2014). The literature supports that transactional leadership can be effective in a policing organisation.

2.5 Authoritative Leadership

This review of the literature has identified the authoritative leadership as commonly occurring and a recognised type of behaviour within law enforcement agencies. Authoritative leadership is more forceful than transactional leadership. Within the enactment of the authoritative style of leadership, subordinates are not involved in the decision-making process at all and there is little to no interaction between leaders and workers (Sarver & Miller, 2014). The leader will state the overallgoal and have little interaction with subordinates (Goleman, 2000). Authoritative leaders are demanding. They set high expectations for themselves and their team. Theycommunicate their standards and set examples for others to emulate (Dinham, 2007).

Authoritative leadership is considered effective when managing a crisis (Zhanget al., 2012). The authoritative leader states a clear vision, adopts a 'come with me' attitude and exudes self-confidence and charisma (Goleman, 2000). Behaviours of this type of leadership include; commanding staff and members of the public in times of crisis, decisiveness in decision making and coerciveness. Authoritative leadership is effective in situations where there are major issues to deal with and also when managing underperformers (Zhang et al., 2012). The key elements of authoritative behaviours consist of power, force and persuasion (Dunham & Alpert, 2015). The mere presence of a police officer in a police uniform with accoutrements (pistol, handcuffs, oc spray etc.), the threat of an officer using appropriate physical force, and the act of arresting offenders are all examples of authoritative behaviours used by officers when dealing with criminal elements in the community (Worden et al., 1999).

In a policing context, literature has highlighted that when a leader is managing subordinate police officers, subordinates are less responsive to the authoritarian style and they favoured a democratic/mutual shared style of leadership (Andreescu & Vito, 2010b; Krimmel, 2001; Silvestri, 2007). The literature identified that the risk with authoritative leadership was that the leader may be feared rather than respected (Dinham, 2007). Due to the demands placed on police leaders, particularly in highly volatile and stressful situations, authoritative leadership is effective in some aspects of policing but not others.

2.6 Transformational Leadership

The enactment of leadership recognisable as transformational has gained popularity in modern policing organisations particularly within Australia, the United Kingdom, and New Zealand. These organisations operate under a similar policing model and readily share information and theories on leadership development between each other. Transformational leaders rely on four characteristics; inspiration, charisma, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). A

transformational leader uses these characteristics to encourage performance (Vito et al., 2014). Transformational leadership is used by policing organisations to help achieve organisational goals by increasing staff commitment to the organisation (Yukl, 1999). Transformational leadership directly contrasts but also complements transactional leadership (Mazerolle et al., 2013).

Transformational leaders tend to be charismatic, behaving in ways which result in staff following them because they are inspired to rather than fearing them (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Bass (1997) highlights that these types of leaders are inspirational motivators, implementing a strategic direction that appeals to those under them. Bass (1997) further says the leader stimulates followers by taking risks and challenging preconceptions. Finally, a transformational leader acts as a mentor and a coach, assisting others to reach their full potential (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Literature (Krimmel, 2001; Martin et al., 2017; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Swid, 2014) supports thattransactional leadership is effective in a policing organisations when leading staff. This leadership style can inspire officers to strive toward the vison of their organisation, which can lead to organisational success.

2.7 Passive Leadership

Passive leaders do not involve themselves in the decision-making process andavoid using their authority to take responsibility (Bass et al., 2003). Passive leadershipnormally has a negative outcome (Densten, 2003) including for policing organisations. These type of leaders do not take action until a problem has become serious (Antonakiset al., 2003). Passive leadership rivals the positive impact that transactional and transformational leadership can provide to a work unit (Derue et al., 2011). There is evidence of passive leadership in policing organisations including the QPS, however, it is not relevant to explore this style of leadership further as it is generally considered to be ineffective especially in command situations and associated with negativeoutcomes (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

2.8 Adaptive Leadership

Adaptive leadership is a style of leadership that is becoming popular for policing organisations. This type of leadership style places problems into two distinctcategories, technical and adaptive (Heifetz et al., 2009). The most important step in adaptive leadership is 'diagnosis'. This requires the leader to have a holistic/aerial view of what is occurring. This aids in the most important aspect of adaptive leadership, diagnosing the exact nature of the problem. (Heifetz et al., 2009). With thistheory, the problem will fall into either of the two categories, technical or adaptive. Technical problems have clear definitions and known solutions. They can be addressed through the application of professional experts or organisations operating procedures (Wong & Chan, 2018). Adaptive challenges are ones without a clearly definedproblem and require further learning to find a solution (Wong & Chan, 2018).

Heifetz and colleagues (2009) state that the most common reason for leadership failure in practice is caused by treating adaptive challenges as if they were technical problems. The difference between the two is technical problems have a clear problem definition, a clear solution and authority to address the problem can come from a single leader. Adaptive challenges/problems require learning, when there is no known solution and involves stakeholders collectively working together to solve the issue (Heifetz et al., 2009). Adaptive leadership does not involve getting subordinates to follow the leader's every wish; rather it involves getting stakeholders to generate adaptive outcomes (Uhl- Bien et al., 2007). Adaptive leadership is cited in the literature as a modern style ofleadership which has been viewed positively by policing agencies (Martin et al.,2017; O'Neill, 2016; Schafer, 2010; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

2.9 Authentic Leadership

A common leadership theory being cited by senior police officers within the QPS is 'authentic leadership'. The Commissioner of the QPS recently stated in a mediainterview that she sees herself as an authentic leader. The origins of authentic leadership can be traced back to Greek philosophy as 'being true to oneself' and through twentieth-century modernism, behaviours can be attributed to a leader who displays self-direction, trustworthiness, and consistency (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). You cannot be authentic by trying to emulate someone else. You can learn from othersbut there is no way to be successful by trying to mirror another. People trust you whenyou are genuine and authentic, not a replica of another person (George et al., 2007).

Authentic leadership is associated with those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others the same way (Avolio et al., 2004). Authentic leadership is currently ranked highly in leadership theories because it has astrong focus on ethics and values and equips a leader to move beyond limiting beliefsto become more effective (George, 2012). Authentic leadership relies heavily on integrating leadership approaches to rationalise how a leader cultivates authentically over a career (George, 2012). Authentic leadership has gained popularity within law enforcement organisations due to its focus on self-awareness and ethics (Arnatt & Beyerlein, 2014). Authentic leadership has been shown to reduce subordinate dissonance during critical incidents, which can reduce the potential of critical use of force being actioned (Arnatt & Beyerlein, 2014).

2.10 Leadership Contingencies

Six leadership styles have been addressed in this literature review, each different from the other. This raises the question if one leadership style is suited to policing or should leaders use different styles of leadership depending on the situation, such as interactions with the community to

managing a siege situation? This question has prompted academic debate that can be traced through the literature. Some studies have shown that police leadership is situational, in whichthe leader changes their style depending on the condition (Baker, 2011; Campbell& Kodz, 2011; Haberfeld, 2006). Other studies indicate that one particular style can be demonstrated most often in policing organisations, but the studies fail to identify which style leadership predominates in law enforcement as a whole (Krimmel, 2001; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Sarver & Miller, 2014). This is the gap in the literature that needs to be further explored in order to identify if there is indeed a style of leadership that would be effective for police leaders to enact.

Identifying the behaviour of police leadership is essential to guidefuture leadership training as leadership itself is intrinsic to policing as officers lead at every rank within a policing organisation (Krimmel, 2001). All police officers will engage in a form of leadership in the performance of their duties (Kingshott, 2006). The literature identified a review that was undertaken regarding police leadership where common behaviours were explored. The findings from this review identified that seven behaviours were perceived to be behaviour of an effective police leader (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). This review identified that leaders should be ethical, trustworthy, legitimate, role models, should possess strong communication skills and be competent and effective thinkers. A study was undertaken by Schafer (Schafer, 2009) who also explored the concept of effective police leadership. This study identified the top five behaviours/behaviours contributing to police leaders' efficacy. These were: honesty and integrity, caring for the needs of employees, strong communication skills, strong work ethic and approachable & willing to listen.

Major studies have investigated leadership within law enforcement. Densten (2003) conducted a leadership survey within Australian law enforcement agencies to gather an insight into police leadership, behaviours and styles of leadership. The researcher surveyed 480 Australian senior police, researching the effectiveness of their leadership behaviours (Densten, 2003).

This study theorised the success of a leader is dependent on certain factors. These included: the reputation of the leader; the followers; the image built by leaders and the dependency leaders were upon the followers' completion of activities (Andreescu & Vito, 2010). Densten (2003) determined that leaders who had 'technical' skills and were seen by followers as having credibility and were respected. Importantly, the research also highlighted that superiors who moved up the ranks without technical experience were viewed as less qualified and less likely to be accepted by subordinates.

Police leadership studies have also been undertaken within the United States of America, looking at the complexities of leadership within a policing context and providing international perspectives to enrich study of Australian police organisations.Isenberg (2009) conducted a study of 26 police chiefs in the United States of Americaand interviewed the police leaders to discuss their leadership challenges, vision, and success. The research findings identified the need for leaders to be role modelsand unafraid to set goals that could be considered risky. Furthermore, the leaders recommend a leadership style that was inclusive and that supports its members and the organisation. Considering the recent upheavals in 2020 within the USA with the Black Life's Matter movement and the identification of overt and systemic racism within the police, the importance of inclusivity for policing organisations is strengthened. These recent developments would support Isenberg's (2009) findings from eleven years earlier, linking the importance of inclusivity and the need for leaders to be role models.

In summary, the common desirable police leadership behaviours clearly identified from the review of literature were:

- Having Honesty & Integrity
- Being Caring
- Being Strong Communicators

- Having a Strong Work Ethic
- Being Approachable
- Being Trustworthy
- Legitimacy
- Role Models
- Being Competent / Possessing Technical Skills
- Being Effective Thinkers

There are no recent case studies identified in literature where a review of leadership behaviours has been conducted within the Queensland Police Service (QPS). Thisis a gap identified in the literature and forms the basis of this research.

2.11 Police Leadership Development

This review of the literature has identified a gap in police leadership development related to the QPS, although some earlier studies have provided a general impression of police leadership. Schafer (2010) conducted research, with one facet of the study focusing on police leadership development. He determined through a review of academic literature that the best way to develop police leadership in law enforcement agencies is unclear. This study cited that understanding what effective and ineffective leaders do provides a

good starting point as it will identify what should be pursued in leadership development (Schafer, 2009). A review of police leadership development was undertaken by Person-Goff and Herrington (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). Their research identified that leadership development can be effective by building an understanding of leadership principles through education and training, providing feedback and modelling other effective leaders (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

To develop future leaders, many police jurisdictions rely on a written application followed by an oral interview. Research has suggested for some time that this process does little to evaluate the applicants' orientation toward leadership (Michelson, 2006) and more about evaluating the officers police technical ability. The challenge for many police agencies is to determine how to best develop their replacements into the future. A review of police leadership development was undertaken in 2010 by Kodz & Campbell (Kodz & Campbell,2010) for the National Policing Improvement Agency, United Kingdom. This review supports that it is not possible to make conclusive statements about 'what works' concerning police leadership development. This study identified that police officers believe there is a need for police organisations to provide training via an external provider. The research also identified many specific learning methods that are were deemed relevant and desirable to police leadership development, including:

- A range of learning methods should be implemented. Specifically, purely classroom-based learning is unpopular and ineffective;
- Informal learning, learning from peers and senior leaders are cited as beneficial; and,
- ‘Learning from doing’ was perceived as effective by the participants in the study.

2.3 Conclusion

The review of literature has evaluated the findings of the research, peer-review journals and articles on leadership behaviours, leadership styles and police leadership. This review demonstrates that police leadership is complex, and it is difficult to find relevant studies that pertain purely to police leadership. It is apparent that there is little literature that focusses on 'what works' for policing organisations for leadership development. There is a need to conduct research within the Queensland Police Service to determine if desirable leadership traits are common against other policing organisations and to determine what leadership behaviours are required at each level of rank. The outcomes can be used to shape future leadership for the QPS.

Chapter 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

In 2019, I identified that current QPS leadership programs were not meeting the expectations of QPS members during my time as a facilitator at the Queensland Police Leadership Centre. There had been previous program reviews conducted internally by the QPS over the previous decade; however, they failed to instigate any meaningful change to the course redesign. To rectify this, I was a key stakeholder in commissioning a review of leadership programs currently delivered by the QPS. I recommended the QPS work with the University of Queensland (UQ) Business Schoolto conduct a systematic review of leadership programs within the QPS. This commenced in 2019. UQ delivered its report to the QPS in January 2020. Titled 'Leading to Serve: A Community-Centered Approach to Leadership in the Queensland Police Service', this study directly links and builds on the recommendations contained within that research. As noted in the introduction, I am a conduit between the UQ report, and the original points raised in this thesis. The 2019 report indicates the desire from within the QPS to develop its leadership training and my initiative has been the catalyst for robust investigation. This present thesis now fulfils this desireby developing the findings of the original report.

The principal aim of this thesis is to assist the QPS to identify ways to contemporise and modernise police leadership development in order to meet the current QPS reform agenda. Leadership success is achieved when the leader can influence subordinates to achieve a higher standard of outcomes. Theory andmethods have guided the selection of the research questions and the research method used to answer those questions. The quest for knowledge requires grounded theory and theoretical references in empirical data (Cornelissen, 2017). The study uses qualitative methods and applies a pragmatist paradigm to answer the researchquestions.

3.1 Methodology and Research Design

3.1.1 Methodology

This research project uses the pragmatic paradigm. The pragmatic design embraces a mixed-method approach to applied research questions (Giacobbi et al., 2005). Pragmatic approaches emphasise the practical problems experienced by people, the research questions posited, and the consequences of inquiry. This allows the researcher to use a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Rahi, 2017). The pragmatic paradigm affords itself to empirical inquiry and orientates itself toward solving practical problems in 'real world' settings (Yvonne Feilzer, 2010).

The intention of applying a pragmatist paradigm was to collect, analyse and interpret qualitative data to explore how leadership is currently viewed within the QPS and how to improve future leadership development. In line with Denzin and Lincoln (1994), the research design must outline flexible sets of guidelines that connect theoretical paradigms to strategies of inquiry and methods for collectingempirical materials. By adopting this approach, my research design provides an appropriate way to address each research question (LeCompte, Preissle, & Tesch, 1993).

3.1.2 Research Design

The research was designed using qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data from over 160 police officers of all ranks across regional and metropolitan Queensland. This was conducted by the University of Queensland (UQ) during a commissioned body of work to review the current status of leadership within the QPS.The UQ research was commissioned to identify

members' views of police leadership, leadership behaviours and the effectiveness of current developmental programs.

The research used the following tools to collect data:

- Individual and small group interviews
- Surveys
- Work-based decision-making exercises
- Semi-Structured focus groups

The review team consisted of Dr Michael Collins, Associate Professor Bernard McKenna and Dr Ali Intezari. The members of the review team obtained ethics approval from the UQ Business School before commencing data collection. Participants were informed that their comments would remain confidential and they could withdraw from the review at any time (Collins et al., 2020).

3.2 Participants

A total of 163 police officers participated in the UQ leadership review, consisting of:

- 37 Recruits and Constable
- 90 Senior Constables, Sergeants and Senior Sergeants
- 19 Inspectors, Superintendents and Chief Superintendents
- 17 Assistant and Deputy Commissioners

Table 1. Participant Demographics					
Male	79%				
Female	21%				
Average Age	42 years	Min: 20 years		Max: 59 years	
Average length of service	16 years	Min: 3 weeks		Max: 42 years	
Average time in current role	4 years	Min: 3 weeks		Max: 21 years	
Rank (Acting: 6%)			**Location**		
Sergeant	30%		Brisbane	38%	
Senior Sergeant	25%		Townsville	17%	
Recruit	16%		Mount Isa	12%	
Constable	12%		Cairns	9%	
Senior Constable	10%		Rockhampton	8%	
Inspector	7%		Other (regional)	16%	
Role			**Education**		
Officer in Charge	20%		Bachelor	27%	
General Duties	13%		Associate Diploma	27%	
Supervisor	10%		Higher Degree[6]	11%	
Training	9%		Undergraduate Diploma	11%	
Investigator	8%		Skilled Vocational	11%	
Recruit	6%		Basic Vocational	8%	
Traffic Officer	5%		Postgraduate Diploma	5%	
Crime Officer	3%				
Intelligence Officer	3%				
District Duty Officer	2%				
Other	21%				

n = 135

3.3 Individual and small group interviews

The Review Team conducted individual and small group interviews that went for approximately 60 minutes. This was undertaken with commissioned officers fromSuperintendent to Deputy Commissioner level. A series of questions were asked during the interviews. They were:

- What are the top three challenges facing QPS front-line, middle and executiveleaders today?

- What are the top leadership strengths and gaps at each level concerning these challenges?

- In what way do you see this changing in five to ten years from now?

3.4 Surveys

A paper-based survey was undertaken that took approximately 15 minutes to complete. This was used to collect demographic data (see Table 1) and responses to the following questions:

- List the three most common policing situations or incidents (in priority order)that: (a) you face today; (b) someone in your role may face five years from today, and (c) your direct reports face today.

- List three to five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours (in priority order)that: (a) you need to do your job effectively today; (b) someone in your role might need to do their job effectively five years from today, and (c) your directreports need to do their job effectively today?

- In general, how would you rate your direct reports' leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours to do their job effectively today?

3.5 Work-based decision-making exercises

The Review Team designed two work-based decision-making exercises basedon contrasting police scenarios. The purpose of the activity was to gather an understanding of the leadership behaviours that determine effective decision-making under complexity and time pressure. The first scenario was a simplistic traffic incidentthat would be considered routine, while the second was a dynamic and unpredictable armed offender incident. Participants completed a personality and cognitive test before completing one of the

scenarios (either stable or dynamic). The total exercise tookapproximately 40 minutes to complete.

3.6 Focus Groups:

Semi-structured focus groups were conducted in groups of between five to twenty participants. These took about 60 minutes to complete. The following questionswere asked to prompt discussion:

- What are three to five typical policing situations that you face today?
- How confident would you feel to exercise leadership in either of these situations and why?
- How much discretion do you feel you can exercise as a leader in either of thesesituations?
- What knowledge, skills and behaviours does someone need to be an effectiveleader in the QPS?

3.7 Data analysis

The coding process began by creating cross-case display matrices for participant responses to questions concerning role-related five leadership knowledge,skills and behaviours. Displaying the data in cross-case matrices enabled the research team to generalize patterns across cases and deepen the understanding of the leadership phenomena (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In the cross-case display matrices, the rows represented individual responses while column one contained short answers to the question: “list the three to five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours that you need to do your job effectively today”. Column two contained short answers to the question: “list the three to five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours that yourdirect

reports need to do their job effectively today."

Using the matrices, we systematically recorded leadership competencies as they emerged from the ethnographic content analysis by looking explicitly for displays of knowledge, skills, or behaviours by QPS leaders. The matrix technique allowed us toassess the leadership competencies that evolved at each leadership level by reconstructing a narrative focusing on leadership between levels (i.e. a focal leader andtheir direct reports). Each entry was coded by the authors and a research assistant. Asdescribed by Miles and Huberman (1994), we used a double-coding process. With double coding, each researcher codes the same data and then the coding is discussed until the researchers come to an "unequivocal and common vision" of what the codes signify, thereby obtaining the best classification for each block of data. Also, during this process, codes are expanded and amended. As a research team, we worked jointlyto merge competency categories and to identify the relationships between competencies at each leadership level. This was an iterative process that involved the constant comparison of leadership theory to emerging competencies.

Chapter 4: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In a report provided to the Queensland Police Service, The UQ Review Teamprovided a detailed analysis of the data collected during the review. The findings werebroken into three parts. Part 1: (4.1) describes current perceptions of the policing environment and the impact that this has on police officers. The perceptions were drawn from survey data, which provides a prioritised perspective from officers from Recruit to Inspector level. Data was also derived from interviews with commissioned officers at the Superintendent level to Assistant Commissioner rank.

Part 2: (4.2) provided a view of the knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to be an effective QPS leader. This perspective was drawn from survey data and reflects the views of Recruits to Inspectors. Part 2 also presented a survey and focus group data from each rank level from Inspector to Recruit.

Part 3: (4.3) provided a high-level overview of leadership effectiveness perceptions derived from data obtained by the review participants.

4.1 Current perceptions of the policing environment (PartOne)

Recruits to Inspectors were asked to rate the top three policing activities that they typically experience in priority order. The collated responses to this question (n
= 135) are shown in Table 2. These police officers see the majority of their time spentresponding to an assault and domestic violence (13%), crime prevention (10%), and drug and alcohol-related crime (9%). Also, an equivalent proportion of their time (9%)is spent on HR and leadership related activities (managing people).

Table 2: Common Policing Activities				
Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Average**
Assault and domestic violence	16%	14%	9%	**13%**
Managing people	9%	7%	12%	**9%**
Crime prevention	8%	10%	13%	**10%**
Crime investigation	7%	4%	4%	**5%**
Drug and alcohol	4%	11%	11%	**9%**
Total	**44%**	**46%**	**49%**	**(46%)**

n = 135

Table Interpretation:

The average of each row is displayed in the Average column. This result represents the overall level of importance participants placed on the activity across a range of priorities listed in the table.

The sum of each column is displayed in the Total row. A result of over 40% indicates that the listed activities (or leadership KSAs) account for the majority of participant perspectives. (Note: the result in parentheses is the average of the bottom row).

The Review Team presented data that summarised the main policing environment themes derived from interviews with Superintendents through to DeputyCommissioners. Some of the themes identified were also raised by non-commissionedofficers during focus groups and were also included where they were deemed to be relevant.

Demand management in a resource-constrained environment

The data identified a consistent theme at senior commissioned officer level wasthe challenge of demand management in an environment of increasing workload and reducing resources. This was even more predominate in regional and remote areas. Much of the work demands were identified as being driven by things such as domesticviolence, assault, alcohol and drugs as well as youth and property crime. Many of theparticipants believed that criminal activities are becoming more sophisticated which has been enabled through advancements in technology.

The data also identified that the participants believe that the expectations and demands of the community have risen, driven in part by changing community responses to adversity and safety. The increase in community expectations could also be linked to previous widespread corruption that was identified during the Fitzgerald Inquiry in 1987-1989, resulting in greater transparency and accountability of the QPS.People are now more inclined to call on police services for everyday issues that wouldnot have been required a decade or more ago. Examples are noisy neighbours, illegally parked vehicles and so on. A senior officer described this as 'a lack of community resilience'.

Almost every front-line officer who participated in the data collection said thatmost of their work is social-related, primarily domestic violence, but also dealing with psychiatric and drug-related issues. These types of occurrences invariably require a hand-over to another agency at some stage (Department of Housing, Youth Services etc.). Police officers identified this as integral to their role in protecting the community.Some officers felt they were often left to deal with situations for which they had no training in or the resources to deal with the situation. However, many accepted that the QPS was often the only 24/7 response agency in many of these situations.

Officers identified that there are additional pressures on police, due to Queensland Government election promises such as reducing the rate of youth

crime and youth reoffending. This is placing strain on police resources, especially thosein regional and remote localities. Middle managers stated that they are increasingly working with other agencies to help address many different social issues, utilisingother agencies resources and expertise in their respective fields.

The identified issues collected through the data collection extend beyond whattradition policing roles encompass, being crime prevention and investigation. Many police officers identified that they are feeling the constant pressure to support the broader Queensland Government priorities which have made officers feel uncertain oftheir purpose and unable to determine what core police work now entails.

4.2 QPS leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours (PartTwo)

Recruits to Inspectors were asked to rate the top five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to do their job effectively. The collated responses to this question (n=112) are shown in Table 3. The survey results highlight a premium on communication skills (15%). The term ‘communication’ encapsulates a wide variety of communication abilities which includes giving and receiving feedback, providing recognition, influencing others and managing conflict. The survey identified thesecond most important capability was emotional intelligence (11%), which also has correlations to communication skills. This highlights the importance that officers placed on interpersonal skills and relationship building (over 25% of leadership capability). Honesty & integrity (10%) and technical capability (10%) were rated highly amongst the participants. This reinforces the view that technical capability (operational procedures, skills, tactics, legal knowledge etc.), rather than soft skills, isviewed as an essential element of what is perceived as an effective leader. Finally, decisiveness (6%) was seen as an important leadership capability.

Table 3: Overall Leadership Knowledge, Skills and Behaviours						
Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Fourth**	**Fifth**	**Average**
Communication Skills	36%	11%	12%	8%	9%	**15%**
Technical Capability	11%	19%	10%	5%	5%	**10%**
Honesty and Integrity	6%	8%	12%	11%	12%	**10%**
Emotional Intelligence	-	11%	12%	8%	11%	**11%**
Decisiveness	-	-	6%	8%	2%	**6%**
Total	**53%**	**50%**	**52%**	**41%**	**39%**	**(47%)**

n=112

4.3 Assistant and Deputy Commissioner perspectives

Six main themes from 17 Assistant and Deputy Commissioners interviews aredescribed below.

1. Technical capability

Non- Commissioned police (below the rank of Inspector) consistently associated technical knowledge and experience with effective leadership (50%). This view was shared to a degree at the executive level, yet it was more commonly believed that a senior leader could be effective without their technical capability if they were able to draw on the strengths, expertise and knowledge of others. To achieve this, it requires a combination of humility, inclusivity and being an effective listener. It was also greatly acknowledged that QPS leaders were traditionally promoted more on their technical capability and policing experience, rather on their leadership ability, however, most felt that this was changing.

2. Strategic thinking

There was a strong and consistent view in the UQ data on the need for leadersto find the space to think and act more strategically. Exploring this perspective, it identified that the view was many leaders focus too much on their area, which resultsin 'siloed delivery' but poor demand management. These types of leaders were seen toapproach all problems with a specialised mindset.

3. Flexible decision making

The ability to be comfortable with ambiguity and incomplete information wasa common theme through the interviews and focus groups. This reflected the view thatsenior leaders needed to be more flexible in their ways of thinking and leadership behaviours (such as adaptive leadership). There was a consistent view that decision- making was becoming increasingly difficult due to the technology advancements, such as social media which invariably interferes with the leader's ability to distinguish what's important and what's not.

4. Life-long learning

The senior leaders had a strong theme amongst them related to self-directed and life-long learning. Almost all of those who participated had undergraduate and postgraduate degrees with a common view that life-long learning is the key driver of organisational success. There was a strong desire to align QPS leadership training withhigher education pathways leading to undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications. Many expressed the view that this would reinvigorate leadership development beyondits current state as a requirement for pay point progression or a promotion-based activity.

5. Direction setting

A few participants identified the need for leaders to set a strong direction and hold people to account. A related and consistent theme was

the need to introduce concepts of command, leadership and management earlier in a police officer's career before they reached the rank of Senior Sergeant, looking at promotion to Inspector. Another consistent theme was that foundation leadership capability needs to not only be established in general duties officers but across specialist areas (Forensic staff, investigators etc.).

6. Humility and inclusivity

The final theme identified related to mutual respect. There was a strong consistency in valuing leaders who are inclusive and good listeners, but who can also challenge others and have frank and honest conversations. There was a clear element of servant leadership, as well as communication and emotional intelligence skills. This was particularly identified through the focus group phase of the data collection where many of the interviewees expressed that they had a strong desire to serve and saw themselves as a servant first before being a leader.

4.4 Inspector, Superintendent and Chief Superintendent perspectives

Six main themes form 19 Inspector, Superintendent and Chief Superintendent interviews are described next.

1. Strategic planning

This cohort raised the common theme of the increasing expectations that are being placed on the QPS to deliver more services than ever before and the tendency for people to seek assistance from police than previous generations. There was a common view that many frontline police officers are less resilient as a result of starting their shift with a backlog of jobs. According to this argument, the high volume of challenging work does not allow leaders to stop, think and plan the strategy for their shift that day. Hence, the ability to pause, reflect and plan was seen as a critical leadership competency that needed to be well developed by the time a police officer reaches this level.

2. Flexible Thinking

Several officers in this data group reflected on the value of postgraduate education in forcing them to think differently and outside of the box as opposed to those who had not undertaken higher education. Research, report writing and the ability to analyse non-policing case studies challenged their thinking about decision making and leadership. The officers articulated that postgraduate education hadprovided them with a broader and flexible set of thinking skills.

3. Building Partnerships

Senior officers who had been in regional or remote areas described the importance of community engagement. They stated that this was often driven by necessity as there was often a shortage of police resources. To achieve this, it requireda large focus on social engagement which often occurred outside of working hours (through sport etc.) as well as cultural awareness. The ability to build strong authentic relationships was considered the key to effectively managing the balance between community demand and scarce police resources in remote locations.

4. Feedback and learning

A constant theme at this level was the need, to be honest, and frank in giving constructive feedback. The theme of humility, respect and encouraging life-long learning was also mentioned by several participants.

5. Adaptive leadership

This cohort made the connection to adaptive leadership and the need to improve collaboration between individuals within and external to the QPS. This was also identified in the literature review.

6. Political judgement

A strong theme amongst the rank of Inspectors was the need to understand and operate in the internal and external political environment. There was a view that this would require a sophisticated set of skills including: navigating politics, setting and managing expectations, demonstrating transparency and consistency, situational awareness and building trust.

Inspector leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours

Inspectors were asked to rate the top five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to do their job effectively. The collated responses to this question (n=8) are shown in table 4. The survey results highlight the importance of decisiveness (60%). The second most important leadership capability is communication skills (38%), which resonates with the interview data. The final capability was a combinationof analysis, strategic thinking and planning skills (25%) which also reflected the data from the Inspector interviews. A notable absence at this level is technical capability, which is consistent with the view that an Inspector requires more strategic rather than technical skills.

Table 4: Inspector Leadership KSA

Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Fourth**	**Average**
Communication Skills	38%				**38%**
Analysis, Strategic Thinking and Planning		25%	25%		**25%**
Decisiveness				60%	**60%**
Total	**38%**	**25%**	**25%**	**60%**	**(37%)**

n = 8

4.5 Senior Constable, Sergeant and Senior Sergeant perspectives

Eight main themes from 96 Senior Constable, Sergeant and Senior Sergeant survey responses and focus groups are described next.

Senior Sergeants

Senior Sergeants were asked to rate the top five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to do their job effectively. The collated response to this question(n = 32) is shown in Table 5. The survey results highlight the importance of communication skills (24%). Technical capability is the second most important capability (21%). The third capability is motivating others (15%) while the fifth and final capabilities are honesty & integrity (14%) and emotional intelligence (12%) respectively.

Compared to the overall leadership KSA (Table 3), Senior Sergeants identifiedcommunication skills (24% versus 15%) and technical capabilities (21% versus 10%)as significantly more important to their role than other ranks. This point illustrates theimportance of the Senior Sergeant rank to the effective functioning of most QPS leadership teams. In effect, Senior Sergeants are the critical link between strategy andoperations and therefore require a high level of technical capability as well as advancedcommunication skills.

Table 5: Senior Sergeant Leadership KSA				
Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Average**
Communication Skills	35%	-	12%	**24%**
Motivating Others	15%	-	-	**15%**
Honesty & Integrity	9%	12%	21%	**14%**
Technical Capability	-	21%	-	**21%**
Emotional Intelligence	9%	-	15%	**12%**
Total	**68%**	**33%**	**47%**	**(49%)**

n = 32

1. **Building Relationships**

At the Senior Sergeant rank, there was a very strong and consistent recognition ofthe need to have highly developed relationship-building skills. These include; building trust, dealing with conflict in the workplace, and understanding the difference betweenlateral and vertical leadership. There was also the need to understand the 'why' as wellas the 'what' when communicating information from more senior leaders.

A theme of difficult conversations was highlighted, particularly how difficult theycan be. This was due to reasons such as some Senior Sergeants still feeling the need tobe 'one of the mates'. Done poorly, difficult conversations at this level expose leadersto claims of bullying and harassment. This creates a strong disincentive to have important conversations, which also creates a reluctance to develop lower-levelsubordinates.

2. **Honesty and integrity**

Several of the participants highlighted the importance of honesty and

integrity at the Senior Sergeant level. This reflects the influential role of Senior Sergeants,

particularly as an Officer in Charge. This includes being a mentor, leader, alibility tobrief up and brief down to their subordinates.

3. Accountability of results

One leadership capability that was raised by many participants was the importanceof taking accountability for achieving results. One high ranking participant describedthis as the need to 'manage consequences' and felt that this distinguished and effectiveor ineffective Senior Sergeant.

4. Strategic thinking

The need to make a noticeable shift from a technical/operational mindset to a broader strategic focus was highlighted at his level and by more senior sergeants.

Sergeants

Sergeants were also asked to rate the top five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to do their job effectively. The collated responses to this question (n=39) are shown in Table 6. In line with Senior Sergeants, this group highlighted theimportance of communication skills (16%). The technical capability was second in terms of importance (14%) and is consistent with Senior Sergeants. The importance ofemotional intelligence (10%) and honesty and integrity (11%) about leadership we also like the perspectives of Senior Sergeants.

There was a noticeable difference in the importance of technical capability at the Sergeant level (14% versus 21% for Senior Sergeants). Sergeants also saw the needfor additional leadership skills, specifically: leading by example (14%), coaching and mentoring (13%) and decisiveness (8%).

Compared to Senior Sergeants, Sergeants did not include motivating others (15% for Senior Sergeants) as one of their most important leadership capabilities.

Table 6: Sergeant Leadership KSA					
Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Fourth**	**Average**
Communication Skills	26%	18%	8%	12%	**16%**
Technical Capability	18%	10%	14%	-	**14%**
Emotional Intelligence	10%	8%	11%	-	**10%**
Coaching and Mentoring	-	13%	-	-	**13%**
Leading by Example	-	-	14%	-	**14%**
Honesty and Integrity	-	-	11%	-	**11%**
Decisiveness	-	-	8%	-	**8%**
Total	**54%**	**49%**	**65%**	**12%**	**(45%)**

n = 39

5. Technical capability

The Sergeant group made a clear recognition for the need for technical knowledgeand experience, but also well developed 'people skills'. Technical capability at this level also encompassed knowledge of policies and procedures, especially those relatedto human resources. This group expressed a preference to seek guidance/advice from a peer rather than a manager if they have less operational or technical experience. This underscored the value placed on technical capability and experience.

Many of the participants identified the biggest gap in leadership

development occurred between Senior Constable to the rank of Sergeant. A comment made was thisoccurred from going “from one of the troops to a leader of a team”. Many felt that there was too much emphasis on assessing technical skills on the Senior Constable development courses and not enough focus on developing them to sergeant through structured leadership programs.

6. Risk tolerance

Perhaps the strongest view, followed closely by the value placed on technical capability is the perception by frontline leaders of negative evaluation by senior leaders when they make a mistake. This view was also shared by Constables and waslinked to an attitude of risk avoidance because of fear of legal reprisal.

Frontline leaders attributed this factor to several factors. There was a strong and consistent view that social media had fundamentally changed the way police officers feel about doing their job. Many had an overwhelming sense that they were under scrutiny 24/7 and that their comments and actions were always being recorded and could be used against them. This has included bodycam which frontline officers are required to wear and activate when enforcing a power. Police officers do need to be accountable as they discharge significant powers and need to be held to a higher standard than others.

Some participants complained that the social media habits of younger police officers were encouraging this. There was a strong recognition that leaders at all levelsneed to improve their communication skills to counter this problem. One Sergeant made the point that “we can show restraint in the job, but not on social media!”.

Others related risk aversion to the challenges of 'distal command' where radio andmobile phones, rather than face-to-face communication is the norm in rural and remoteareas. These officers pointed out that there is less decision support for frontline staff who might be working as a single officer patrol.

Many contrasted this situation with metropolitan policing where this is more support and access to peers to 'bounce ideasoff'.

7. Emotional intelligence

Many participants felt that effective leadership required high levels of emotional intelligence. There was the view that emotional intelligence was more innate (like personality) and therefore more difficult to develop, whereas technical skills could bemore easily learned.

This group described the ideal leader as someone approachable and respectful of others. They suggested that leaders cannot rely upon rank alone and they need to be open to advice and be comfortable if they don't know the answer. This required a levelof humility, listening, speaking with respect, and not "coming in as the expert". However, it did not remove the responsibility of the leader to make a decision. Also, there was a view that effective frontline leaders cannot be too agreeable as they sometimes must disagree when making a decision.

Good situational awareness, perception and reasoning were also necessary for identifying and processing critical information. The ability to remain calm under pressure was also seen as particularly important when there is a need to "think on your feet" and make timely decisions. In summary, Sergeants recognised the need to be comfortable and flexible in ambiguous situations or in flux.

8. Coaching and mentoring

The final leadership capability described by Sergeants relates to motivating othersthrough coaching and mentoring. Many Sergeants related this to helping newlypromoted Constables and Senior Constables understand the challenges of the job. There was a heavy emphasis on the need to have meaningful conversations with others,especially junior police officers, regardless of rank.

Many commented that these conversations need to be regular, so they don't do not appear out of place.

There was a general acknowledgment that there was a lack of good mentorship andthat all leaders needed to better understand the strengths of junior police officers. Finally, the need to put the interest of the station, staff and community above self- interest was also raised and again relates to the key concept of servant leadership.

Constables and Senior Constables

Lastly, Constables and Senior Constables were also asked to rate the top five leadership knowledge, skills and behaviours needed to do their job effectively. The collated responses to this question (n = 25) are shown in Table 7. The importance of communication skills and technical capability (21% and 26%, respectfully) were aligned and consistent with Senior Sergeants (24% and 21% respectfully) and Sergeants (16% and 14% respectfully). Senior Constables, compared to Sergeants, also emphasised the importance of decisiveness (25% versus 8%), emotional intelligence (17% versus 10%) and leading by example (9% versus 14%). They also identified the need for additional leadership skills, specifically; confidence and assertiveness (24%) and time management (9%). However, unlike Sergeants, they didnot include coaching and mentoring (13% for Sergeants) or honesty and integrity (11%for Sergeants) among their most important leadership capabilities.

Table 7: Constable/Senior Constable Leadership KSA					
Priority:	**First**	**Second**	**Third**	**Fourth**	**Average**
Communication Skills	46%	9%	9%	-	**21%**
Confidence and Assertiveness	24%	-	-	-	**24%**
Technical Capability	-	30%	22%	-	**26%**
Emotional Intelligence	-	17%	-	-	**17%**
Time Management	-	9%	-	-	**9%**
Leading by Example	-	9%	-	-	**9%**
Decisiveness	-	-	-	25%	**25%**
Total	**70%**	**74%**	**30%**	**25%**	**(50%)**

n = 25

These results suggest that Senior Constables also see themselves as frontline leaders, but with a different focus than Sergeants. This distinction relates to the greaterimportance they place on decisiveness, and confidence and assertiveness. Senior Constables see themselves (as do others) as the frontline leader closest to the 'businessend' of policing. They are the most visible and exposed level of the formal leadershipstructure and therefore need to be confident, assertive, and decisive in their leadership.

Senior Constables also recognise the need for emotional intelligence and leading by example, which relates to both transformational and servant leadership. This approach to leadership is essential for engaging and motivating police officers, other agency personnel and members of the community, particularly during difficult, dangerous and stressful situations. The addition of time management at this level reflects the challenges of leading and managing in a high workload environment. Theabsence of coaching and mentoring, and honesty and integrity, arguably reflects the broad base of leadership capabilities needed at this level.

4.6 Constable and Recruit perspectives

QPS leadership perceptions were discussed with 37 Constables and Recruits over several focus group sessions. These discussions mostly focused on frontline leadership and the results are very consistent with previously described perspectives. A summary of the main themes is below.

Recruits and Constables identified the need for frontline leaders to be self- driven and to show initiative. It was also recognised that a first-year Constable may sometimes be the most senior police officer and only police officer in a regional or remote location and may have to manage the situation with little to no back-up or support. This underscored the need for resilience, innovative thinking and the ability to remain calm under pressure.

Frontline leaders were also expected to be good at briefing (i.e., communicating) and getting the community 'on-side'. This requires excellence in developing community relationships, particularly in regional areas, and a willingness to work outside one's comfort zone. Participants understood that regional police officers may be required to work one-up where the local community becomes their eyes, ears and a source of security.

Important leadership skills discussed at this level include: (1) dealing with difficult people; (2) emotional intelligence, especially self-awareness, empathy and self-regulation; (3) good communication skills like developing rapport, which helps maintain relationships; (4) (leading by example, and (5) giving recognition.

Finally, participants spoke about the need for high ethical standards because these will be tested as a frontline leader, particularly in remote communities. Where competing interests are common, e.g., privacy and confidentiality in a small-town environment.

4.7 Leadership effectiveness (Part Three)

The Review Team asked police officers from Senior Constable to Inspector level to rate the general level of leadership effectiveness demonstrated by their direct reports daily. The results, which are displayed in Table 8, indicate how each rank perceives the capability of the police officers that they directly or indirectly supervise.This identified that most officers view their subordinates as average or above average.

When considered as a collective (the column labelled ‘All’), it can be seen thatthe overall leadership effectiveness is skewed toward average and above average. However, moving down the ranks tells a slightly different story. For example, Inspectors tend to rate their direct reports (mostly Senior Sergeants) significantly higher than others. Senior Sergeants appear to be relatively balanced in their appraisal, as do Senior Constables. However, according to Sergeants in this sample, none of theirdirect reports is below or well below average in terms of leadership effectiveness.

The Review Team acknowledged the subjective nature of their assessment; however, the results may explain the general observation by many Senior Sergeants and above that frontline leaders are hesitant to provide constructive feedback or have regular conversations about performance with their staff. If the results from Sergeantswas taken at face value, then the Review Team stated they must conclude that there is little need for leadership development at Senior Constable or Constable level. This is highly unlikely, given the strong themes to the contrary in their overall review.

Table 8: Leadership Effectiveness of Direct Reports					
	All	**Inspector**	**Senior Sergeant**	**Sergeant**	**Senior Constable**
	(n = 93)	(n= 9)	(n = 34)	(n = 39)	(n = 11)
Well below average	**1%**	-	3%	-	-
Below average	**10%**	11%	15%	-	28%
Average	**42%**	44%	32%	51%	36%
Above average	**42%**	33%	44%	44%	36%
Well above average	**5%**	12%	6%	5%	-

4.8 Review Conclusions

The UQ Review Team concluded that there were six reoccurring themes form thesurvey data and focus group discussions. These views were common at most rank levels and form the basis of their recommendations.

1. Technical experience, credibility and trust

A vast majority of non-commissioned and many commissioned officers equated effective leadership with deep technical knowledge and extensive on-the-job experience. This was essential in their view to establish credibility and underpinning trust in the leader. An important implication of this perspective is the widespread criticism among non-commissioned ranks of those who are promoted without extensive technical knowledge and operational experience.

2. The Senior Sergeant: strategic-operational interface

The Review Team highlighted that it became clear during the review that the SeniorSergeant is the critical link between strategy and operations. They are central to translating information from their Inspector down the line to Sergeants and Senior Constables. Also, they are an important conduit for passing information upwards to the commissioned officer ranks. Almost every

participant noted that the SeniorSergeants were inadequately prepared before promotion. In most cases, they receivedimportant leadership technical training sometime after they were promoted to Senior Sergeant.

3. The Senior Constable: shaper of standards, culture and leadership

Senior Constables are important leaders in the QPS. They set the standards and shape the attitudes of those under their command. As frontline leaders, they are the face of the QPS and are directly responsible for the quality of QPS service delivery and community perceptions. They are also the pipeline for future QPS commissioned officers. Presently they are among the most disengaged members of the QPS and lackpractical leadership training even though they make up the largest rank cohort within the QPS.

4. Country and city policing

There was a consistent and strong theme hat regional and remote policing requiresfrontline leaders who are resilient, relationship orientated and capable of relatively independent thought and action. This is not to say that metropolitan policing can accepta lower standard, but that more resources, management support and oversight is generally available closer to Brisbane.

5. Resetting leadership development

Over 90% of the participants viewed the QPS leadership education as being overly theoretical, lacking in relevancy and recency, and simply a path to promotion rather than life-long learning. It became overwhelmingly clear that the QPS leadership curriculum needs to be updated as is suffers from a lack of strategic alignment with the vision and purpose of the QPS.

6. Reinvigorating performance, development and career planning

The final theme relates to several human capital systems, name the

performance management, career planning and promotion process. Few if any participants were supportive of the QPS performance and development process and most were critical of the current promotion system. The vast majority of non-commissioned officers seethe promotion process as an exercise in resumé writing that devalues technical knowledge and operational experience. Furthermore, the performance management and development process are undermined by a widespread tendency to avoid regular feedback and performance discussions. The leadership skills necessary to support these important processes are basics yet are not practiced sufficiently at frontline leadership levels.

Chapter 5: DISCUSSION

The collated data highlights common themes that occur concerning desirable leadership behaviours. There are many linkages between previous research that has been undertaken within Australia and by foreign policing jurisdictions. The analysed data did not return any unexpected themes about leadership. This raises the question of why are so many policing organisations unable to unlock the key to developing and delivering effective leadership training?

To explore this question, I will explain what is considered to be desirable leadership behaviours, leadership styles, explain how officers are currently assessed ontheir leadership ability when applying for a promotion within the QPS and provide a recommendation on how leadership training can be embedded into the QPS training continuum.

5.1 Behaviours of police leadership

Classical perspectives of policing leadership have tended to cast leaders as operating within a narrow range of styles. Due to the traditionally militaristic structureof policing organisations, policing entities tend to adopt a hierarchical model. Implementing this approach, police leaders presumed that the appointment of rank would provide them with the authority necessary to direct and control police behaviour(Martin et al., 2017). The hierarchical policing structure generates a culture which shapes many facets of the organisation including leadership (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). The quality of police leadership often comes into question and the QPS is no exception.

An observation on the absence of quality leaders in policing is that it is due in part to a failure to develop leaders (Schafer, 2009). Leadership behaviours have been widely examined in the literature. Upon examination, desirable leadership behaviours do not greatly differ between occupations/professions. For example, identified leadership behaviours that are

non-occupational specific have been identified but not limited to; credibility, knowledge, skills, eagerness to change, adaptability, flexibility, communication skills, ability to give feedback, praising and developing others, honesty and trustworthiness (Avolio, 2007; Bass, 1990; Bass et al., 2003). Not surprisingly, the perceptions of leadership behaviours identified by police who participated in this research include most of the behaviours abovementioned.

5.2 Communication, feedback and ethical leadership

The research participants within the QPS identified communication as the most important attribute. The term communication encapsulates a wide variety of communication-related abilities that include giving and receiving feedback, influencing others and managing conflict (Collins et al., 2020). Communication has been linked to the effectiveness of a leader (Bass, 1985) and is most effective when communication leads to a shared understanding (Neufeld et al., 2010). Effective leaders communicate with their followers regularly (Bass, 1990) and if done effectively, it guides, motivates and inspires others to take action (Barrett, 2006).

A leader's ability to give feedback is central to performance management. Feedback guides, motivates, reinforces positive behaviours and stops or limits negative behaviours (London, 2003). Individual feedback has long been used as a mechanism to improve organisational performance (Levy & Williams, 2004). To enhance communication within the QPS, it is evident that an investment must be made in the development of staff, providing them with the tools to deliver and receive effective feedback. This approach would create what is referred to as a feedback culture (London & Smither, 2002) and is achieved when both the manager and the employee feel comfortable giving and receiving feedback.

The QPS currently does not effectively equip officers to deliver performance feedback. This statement is supported by the data collected during this research. There are short modules meshed in programs such as the

Management Development Program(MDP) which is a requirement for officers to undertake to get promoted above the rankof senior constable, but the current training is limited. For this and other reasons, managers often find it hard to give or receive feedback (Buron & McDonald-Mann, 2011). The risk of officers not being able to provide constructive feedback comes at a significant cost. An officer who requires guidance may believe that everything is fineand continue to practice the same way if the feedback is not provided to them. This will lead to false perceptions of the officers' own skills and ability (Hardavella et al., 2017). Conversely, for some people, not receiving enough praise can be directly linkedto the effort they put into their tasks (Washakowski, 2015).

Managers need to be trained in the value of giving and receiving performance feedback (Rosen et al., 2006). People who work in supportive feedback environments report higher levels of leader-member exchange (Anseel & Lievens, 2007). The goal of performance feedback is essential to improve the individual, team andorganisational performance (Aguinis et al., 2012). Considering this statement and the value the officers placed on communication, it is evident that this skill of giving and receiving feedback is a desirable attribute of effective leadership and should be incorporated into leadership development as an officer progresses in rank.

Effective leaders can influence a range of organisational outcomes such as employee attitudes, commitment and performance (Robertson & Barling, 2013). A leaders' influence is enhanced by leaders doing what is right and becoming positive role models (Bass, 1990). Police are not only leaders within their organisation but are viewed by members of the public as leaders, irrespective of rank. Ethical behaviour isdirectly linked to the influence that the person has. In simplistic terms, ethics is the moral behaviour of a person or group in their surroundings (Johnson & Cox, 2004). Policing organisations place a great emphasis on ethics. The QPS is not dissimilar to other policing jurisdictions regarding having a code of conduct, integrity framework and an Ethical Standards Command, all of which are designed to guide officers to behave ethically. These frameworks ensure officers will have respect for each other and that the community has full confidence in the police. For example,

the College ofPolicing in the United Kingdom conducted a body of research involving 41 in-depth interviews with officers ranging from frontline staff to senior executive leaders. One of the findings from this research was that participants had a widespread belief that ethical behaviour was a natural consequence of effective leadership (Porter et al., 2015). This notion was also supported by the participants in this research.

Ethical leadership is described as having many underpinning behaviours whichinclude leaders having moral character, legitimate values and making ethical choices (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Ethical leadership has been linked to perceptions of a leaders effectiveness and job satisfaction (Brown et al., 2005), negative attitudes to workplace deviance and avoidance of anti-social behaviour (Resick et al., 2013) and cooperative workplace behaviours (Ogunfowora, 2014). Social learning theory highlights that individuals are influenced by observing role models and learn about what is acceptable by watching others and identifying what is rewarded and punished(Neubert et al., 2009). Employees are influenced by leaders, as leaders have the ultimate ability to reward good behaviour and punish inappropriate behaviours (Mayeret al., 2012). Therefore, it is important to teach and reinforce ethical leadership as officers continue to progress with their careers, as they have the ultimate ability to influence and guide their colleagues to behave in acceptable ways.

5.3 Managing conflict

Leading people will inevitably involve managing conflict at some stage. Tensions will occur naturally within organisations. It is the way that people respond to resolve conflicts that will either stimulate cooperative behaviours or conversely, stimulate antagonistic behaviours (Rahim, 2010). The most replicated categories for conflict management styles are avoidance, disruptive and the interrogative styles (Folger et al., 2015; Sillars et al., 1982; Wall Jr & Nolan, 1987). Avoidance, as the name suggests, is a style that limits or minimises addressing conflict (Sillars et al., 1982) either by changing the subject or ignoring the conflict. In contrast, a disruptivestyle confronts the issue

and results in one side conceding to the other. The tactics to achieve this include directive communication, a persistent argument of one's view andattempting to take control of the interaction (Kuhn & Poole, 2000). Thirdly, interrogative is a style that both parties involved demonstrate cooperative behaviours for a mutually beneficial purpose. The interrogative is a style of conflict managementrather than conflict resolution (Kuhn & Poole, 2000).

Task conflict, which is the conflict between team members regarding the taskat hand and also relationship conflict, which is interpersonal conflict, both have negative associations with team performance (Behfar et al., 2008). Leader may be required if there is too much or too little conflict in the workplace or if members are not handling their conflict effectively (Rahim, 2010).

To equip officers with this skill, a simplistic conflict model should be taught to police so they can effectively undertake a process to resolve conflict in the workplace before it has a detrimental effect.

5.4 Technical capability

Police organisations are generally led by officers who over their lengthy careers have been promoted based on their technical capability termed ‘police tradecraft’. This was the second most import attribute of leadership in this study. Policing jurisdictions tend to assess their officers against their experience rather than formal education in leadership (Roberts et al., 2016). Based on this notion,it was not surprising to see that the participants in this study placed a great emphasis on ‘technical ability’ and leaders who did not have what they considered currency in policing skills, were viewed as being non-credible. This was a strong sentiment felt byjunior officers and to a degree, senior members of the organisation also concurred with this notion. The importance of humility by senior police was also highlighted, with senior police recognising the importance of surrounding themselves with ‘technical experts’ who can provide advice while they focus on ‘leading’ their staff.

Technical skill/competence was and remains an important attribute of police leadership. Technical skills of a leader can be directly linked to the performance of a team (Grant et al., 1997). Technical expertise enables a leader to understand the concerns of subordinates on technical related issues (Kirkpatick & Locke, 1991). Competence is a key aspect of credibility, however, the leader does not need to have the same level of technical competence as subordinates (Kouzes & Posner, 2011).This view was supported by the more senior officers who participated in this study.

A common approach for policing organisations promoting officers is to assess their technical capability in policing skills. Expertise in leadership is another dimension of competence which is often not seen as important as the technical capability of the officer (Kouzes & Posner, 2011) such as knowledge of legislation, powers of arrest and so on. Credibility is earned when followers see leaders as forward- thinking, competent and trustworthy (Vigliotti & Gregory, 2013). Credibility needs to be continuous, built and renewed through effort if leaders are to gain the allegiance of their followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Kouzes & Posner theory resonates with the data collected in this study. A way for leaders to maintain their credibility would be to rotate between frontline and specialist areas to ensure efficiency is maintained in General Duties policing. Junior officers consider General Duties to be the core business of the police and gauge competence against this skillset.

5.5 Honesty and Integrity

The third-related leadership attribute in the UQ review was honestly and integrity. It has been argued that for a leader to be effective, they require the behaviours of honesty and integrity (Covey, 1992; Gardner & Gardner, 1993). This sentiment was also expressed by the participants and was cited as the third most important attribute of effective leadership overall. Researchers have linked integrity as being an essential trait of effective (Bass, 1990; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Honesty and integrity have a special

significance for leaders. These two qualities form the foundation of a trusting relationship between the leader and follower (Becker, 1998). The QPS places a great emphasis on integrity, as it is one of the four values of the organisation.

Honesty and integrity hold special significance for effectual leaders. Integrity is the correspondence between word and deed, while honesty refers to a leader being truthful, which allows the follower to determine if the leader is worthy to trust (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Leaders who embrace the moral perspective value integrity, honesty, fairness and trustworthiness (Engelbrecht et al., 2017) whichdrives follower performance (Leroy et al., 2012). The integrity of a leader is important as it has a positive influence on the leadership process and also for organisational outcomes (Moorman & Grover, 2009).

5.6 Emotional Intelligence

The fourth leadership attribute cited was emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is a set of abilities associated with managing emotions and emotional information (Mayer &Salovey, 2007). According to Dulewicz & Higgs (2005), emotional intelligence comprises:

- Self -awareness – The awareness of your feelings and the abilityto identify and manage them:

- Emotional resilience – the ability to perform consistently well in a range of different situations and while under pressure;

- Motivation- The drive and energy the person has to achieve results, balance short, medium and long-term goals and continue to pursue those goals if challenged or rejected;

- Interpersonal sensitivity – The ability to recognise the needs andfeelings of others and to use this effectively when interacting with them;

- Influence – Ability to pursued others to change their point of view ona problem or issue;

- Intuitiveness – Ability to use insight to arrive at and implement decisions; and,

- Conscientiousness and integrity – Ability to act consistency and in line with ethical requirements.

Employees with high emotional intelligence levels are better adept at regulating their own emotions which supports them being confident and in control of tasks (Sy et al., 2006). Policing generally is considered a stressful occupation as it involves dealing with people and often requires a decision to be made quickly which could have an impact on the health and safety of people and have subsequent social impacts (Kyriacou, 2001). Police officers are exposed to emotional situations such as deaths, illness, accidents and crimes regularly, which requires them to regulate their emotions under pressure (Bakker & Heuven, 2006). There is a linkage between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, which has a flow-on effect such as well- being, engagement, organisational commitment and turnover rates of staff (Brunetto et al., 2012). Emotional intelligence can be developed but it requires a significant effort. It can be enhanced through experiential learning, habitual self- reflection and long term meditative work (Saville, 2006). There is support for the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership in policing organisations, providing it is accompanied by genuine morality and low levels of narcissism (Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009; Yocum, 2007).

Emotional intelligence has been cited as being of benefit for occupations where there is contact with other people, either within or external to their organisation, whichforms the core business of policing. There is support that emotional intelligence is important for officers to possess, given the nature of

policing and the situations officers encounter, they are required to manage their own and others' emotions as part of their employment (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005). Police duties also include the building of relationships with the community, dealing with aggressive offenders, interviewing witness or victims of crimes, all of which requires communication and interpersonal skills (Kaczmarek & Packer, 1996).

An important skill for a police officer to have is the ability to conduct an appraisal of and expression of emotion in others. This skill is linked to an officer beingable to 'read the situation' which in turn can enhance officer safety. This skill can be described as having the ability to recognise what a person may do, through facial expressions and posture (Mayer et al., 1997). Officers with higher emotional intelligence also are better equipped to determine if a person is being honest or dishonest which is important when deciding whether to arrest or release a person(Al Ali et al., 2012). Appraising the components of emotional intelligence is favourable for officers to enhance their operational capability and most importantly, increase their safety by having the ability to assess a situation and take appropriate action.

5.7 Decisiveness

An important hallmark of leadership is the ability of a leader to make a decision. A leader's ability to make decisive decisions enhances the effectiveness of the leader. By setting a clear direction, a decisive leader focuses people on relevant tasks which drives organisational success (Kerns, 2016). Courageous and decisive leadership can inspire an organisation to overcome difficult situations (Appelbaum etal., 1998), which is the consensus amongst QPS officers as highlighted in the collecteddata and the Working for Queensland Survey results.

For a leader to feel comfortable in making a decision, they must be empoweredand trusted to do so. This is a major pinch point for policing organisations as there is a strong emphasis placed on the 'chain of command'

and officers state they feel that they are unable to make a decision based on the fear of getting it wrong and being reprimanded. Police officers are required to have the ability to make timely and decisive decisions while under stress (Trofymowych, 2008). Many officers can do this based on recognition prime decision making (RPD), meaning they have learnt from previous exposure to situations (Klein, 1997) and can quickly formulate a response. The RPD increases for an officer the longer they are exposed to situations as they progress in their career.

A common complaint amongst followers is about having a leader unable to make a decision (Anderson, 2003). A lack of decision-making causes followers to become frustrated and diminishes their faith in the leader. Decision avoidance is a tendency to avoid making a decision or choice by postponing it to seeking an easy wayout (Anderson, 2003). This is problematic for followers who are looking to their leaders for guidance. Police officers can be nervous when they need to make a decision, due in part to a culture that has taken away their ability to make a decision and the need for constant 'reporting up'. The results from this study identified that this is a major cause of leadership indecisiveness and why officers are reluctant to make a decision, even in the everyday operation of their teams.

5.8 Leadership Styles

Leadership styles were identified it the literature review that were cited as being most utilised by policing organisations globally. QPS leaders have been taught these leadership styles throughout their professional development. Each leadership style has is pros and cons. Table 9 “Table of Leadership Styles” highlights the differences between them.

5.9 Table of leadership styles

Table 9: Table of Leadership Styles

Transactional	Authoritative	Transformational	Passive	Adaptive	Authentic
Leadership is responsive	Leadership is responsive	Leadership is proactive	Denial of leadership responsibility	Leader categorises the problem – technical or adaptive	Involves others, can be reactive and proactive
Works within the organisational culture	States a clear vision	Work to change the organisational culture by implementing new ideas	Followers lack focus towards goals	Involves employees to help solve technical style problems	Strong focus on ethics and values
Makes employees achieve organisational goals through punishment and reward	Motivates people towards a vision	Motivate and empower employees by appealing to higher ideals and moral values	Subordinates have authority to set their own goals	Motivates people by involving them in the decision-making process	Motivate employees to follow the leader based on trust and the leaders' honesty
Motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest	Motivates employees by a “come with me” style of leadership	Motivates followers by encouraging them to transcend their interest to those of the group	This style can be both motivating and demotivating depending on the work unit	If the problem is a recognisable, implements solution quickly based on experience	A leader is self-aware (emotional intelligence)
Can harm staff motivation due to it being associated with rule and procedure-based	Works best in times of crisis and managing underperformers	Can be used to help followers reach their full potential by the leader acting as a mentor/coach	Not suited to policing	Works best when decisions are not time-critical	Works best when motivating/inspiring others to achieve a common purpose

5.10 Contingency Leadership

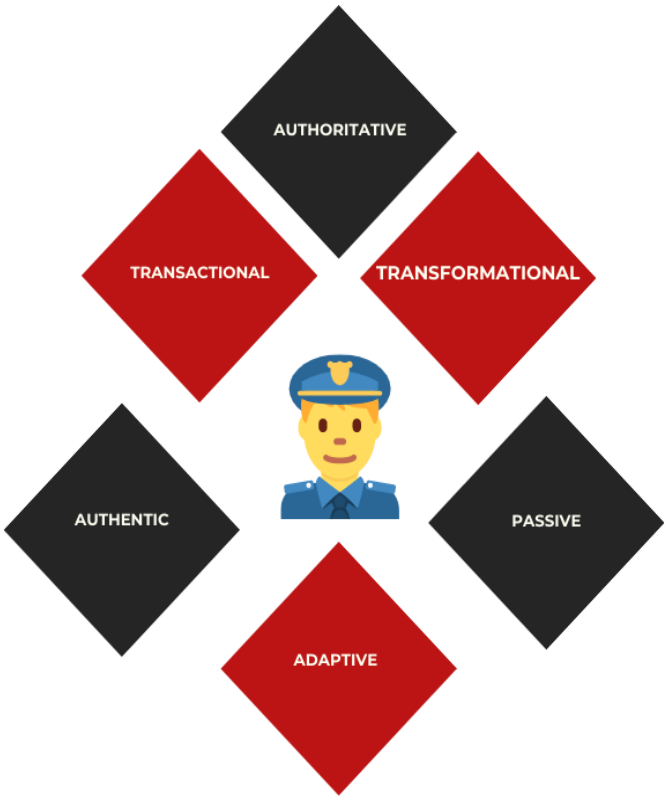
Numerous leadership styles have been addressed in order to highlight their difference and to demonstrate how they can be useful in certain policing situations. Asa result of my research, I contend that a leader should be able to utilise different leadership styles dependent on the situation that they are confronted with. As highlighted in the review of literature, there is currently not a single type of leadership style that has been proven to improve police effectiveness (Dobby et al., 2004). Due to the complexities involved with policing and the various situations that police encounter, this could indeed be the reason why one style has not been identified as being wholly suited for law enforcement.

Contingency leadership theories hypothesise that a leader should adapt to the situation and undertake a corresponding leadership style (Toor et al., 2007). Leaders may have to change their leadership style dependent on the situations or combine elements of different leadership styles until the right balance is obtained (Shanmugam et al., 2006). Police officers in critical situations require the ability to 'command and control' and in non-critical times, be effectual in participative and supportive style leadership behaviours (Campbell & Kodz, 2011b). One leadership style may be effective in one particular situation and a different leadership style in another (Yukl etal., 2002) and this is why leaders need to be able to adapt to the situation and modify their leadership style to suit the requirement.

To apply this theory, I have conceptualised a model that depicts leadership styles available to officers depicting an officer standing in a circle where they can choose the leadership style relevant to the situation. This supports contingency theory, where an officer can choose a style of leadership dependent on the situation. This is depicted in Table 11.

5.11 Conceptual Model

Table 11.



5.12 The Nature of Learning

People learn leadership skills both formally and informally. Leadership programs often focus on the skills associated with leadership such as thinking strategically, developing teams giving constructive feedback and so on. All of these skills need to be taught as part of leadership development (Gardenier et al., 2020) butby teaching these skills, does it make someone a leader? Frohman argues that becauseleadership is not a skill, it cannot be taught (Frohman, 2013). If this is the case, why do organisations invest so heavily in leadership development? I will argue that leadership is developed through a combination of different ways. Firstly, for a person to develop leadership capabilities, they must be taught the explicit knowledge of leadership (Metz, 2015). This should start early in an officer's career and continually be enhanced through education and training (Schafer, 2010). It is therefore important to explain how people learn new skills, so organisations are best positioned to decide how they implement leadership and other developmental training into their learning curriculum.

The nature of learning has been researched for decades with numerous theories being proposed. Kolb first published his cycle of experiential learning in 1984. Kolb (1984) theorised that learning is the process where knowledge is created through the transformation of Furthermore, Kolb stated that learning is both an experimental and reflective process (Kolb, 2007). Kolb's (1984) experimental learning cycle suggested that learning occurs in four stages. They are; experience, reflection, conceptualise and test. These elements reflect the fundamentals of learning. Jarvis is not a strong proponent of Kolb's theory, stating that it is too simplistic, and the outcome of learning is not always knowledge (Jarvis, 2012). Jarvis's definition of learning is quite complex, but he argues that a whole person learns, and the person learns in a social situation. Jarvis expands his theory stating that learning must involve several disciplines, including sociology, physiology and psychology (Jarvis, 2008). Simplifying Jarvis's conceptual model, he hypothesises that a person is in the whole world (body, mind, self) when at a point of a disjuncture, will have an experience. As

a result of the experience, the person can do certain things. At this point, Jarvis highlights that a person learns from the experience and the result from the learning isthe changed person (Jarvis, 2008).

Illeris (2008) defines learning as any process that leads to a permanent capacity change which is not solely due to ageing or biological maturation (Illeris, 2008). Illeris(2008) further theorises that learning occurs by an external interaction and an internal psychological process. This aligns with Jarvis (2008), as he conceptualises thatlearning causes change to the conscious and subconscious levels, rather than just an experimental and reflective process as Kolb suggests (Kolb, 2007). Illeris (2008) positsthat there are three dimensions to learning. He proclaims that content, incentive and interaction are vital for the learning process. For a person to learn, the teacher must have the skills and knowledge to deliver lessons with meaning. Strategies need to be employed so the learner can build up an understanding. The incentive provides and directs the mental energy required for learning (Illeris, 2008) and interaction between teacher and student provides the stimulus that initiates and drives the continual learning process (Illeris, 2008).

Cumulative learning is a basic form of learning. Cumulative learning consistsof the gradual development of skill and knowledge over time (Lee, 2012). This type of learning is most evident in young children as many experiences are new and the child cannot link them to the known. Building on cumulative learning, Kolb identifiesfour learning modes. They are;

- concrete experiences,
- reflective observation,
- abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (Richmond & Cummings, 2005).

Within these “learning modes”, Kolb further suggests four different types of learning styles, being, assimilative, accommodative, convergent and

divergent (Richmond & Cummings, 2005). Kolb idealised this concept in 1984 and developed atable that represented what learning style aligned with which learning modes. The nature of learning and concepts proposed by Kolb, Illeris and Jarvis are widely accepted along with other adaptations.

Wenger (2008) has a different perspective on learning. Wenger (2008) queries the above-mentioned theories of learning and asks us to consider learning in the context of lived experiences and participation. Wegner (2008) proposes that learning is a natural part of human nature and learning occurs as part of social participation. The concept of social learning is not new. Bandura conceptualised this theory in 1971. Bandura (Bandura & Walters, 1977) identified that new patterns of behaviour can be acquired through direct experiences and also by observing others. Wenger (2008) hasrevisited this theory and added his interpretation. When considering the learning patterns sited by Bandura and Wenger's interpretations, social learning categorises what work-based learning aims to achieve. That is, learning in a social context throughdirect experiences and by watching others.

5.13 Theoretical foundations of work-based learning

The practice of the workplace being governed by procedures, instruction and logical analysis has given way to improvisation, where the answer is not necessarily in an instruction manual (Cremers, 2012). Technology advances have enabled peopleto be connected at the click of a mouse, and in terms of learning, internet deliverable courses are present at all levels of education (Adam, 2019). The days of a person beingthe sole holder of the information in the workplace has passed, as employees have multiple avenues for acquiring knowledge quickly. Learning occurs in every workplace; it can be specific for the employer or applicable to numerous situations (Bailey, Hughes, & Moore, 2004). The theoretical foundations of work-based learning involve action research and action learning being interwoven. Formal work-based learning combines universities and workgroups to generate learning opportunities in the workplace (Boud & Solomon, 2001). This concept

incorporates adult learning principles, including critical thinking and experimental learning (Gregory, 1994). Work-based learning is independent learning through work, it is self-managed and allows for continual development (Johnson, 2001). Work-based learning gives the learning meaning, as opposed to a hypothetical scenario (Armsby, 2000).

5.14 Professional Studies

Professional study is a term used to describe research that is undertaken in the workplace. This type of learning allows the professional to choose a project, making it practitioner lead and recognises the professionals' prior professional learning. Professional studies are usually small scale resulting in a useful outcome (Armsby, 2000). The attraction of professional studies is that the practitioner can choose an area of study that is relevant to them, and it allows for work and study to be combined (Johnson, 2001). Professional studies combine work-based knowledge with theoretical knowledge (Armsby, 2000) as opposed to traditional university styles of learning. Professional studies can be experimental, involving the study of a real situation, underpinned by a learning pedagogy (Gregory, 1994).

Evolving organisations have seen the benefits of continual learning for their staff. Lifelong learning is essentially an all-purposeful learning endeavour embarked on in an ongoing way to cultivate knowledge, skills and competence (Bezanson, 2003).The profession that a person works within is their area of practice. Professional practice involves understanding skills, relationships, and identity to accomplish particular activities within a person's work environment (Grossman et al., 2009). Professional studies, professional practice and personal development are intrinsically linked. Professional studies heighten professional practice, as it is designed to be applied and multi-disciplinary focused. Meaningful research can be conducted in a real environment, within an area that has been identified and of interest to theresearcher that addresses an identified problem.

The aim of professional studies is to develop individual professionalism, culminating in students becoming scholarly professionals (Van Der Lann, 2019). Professional practice will ultimately be enhanced by professional studies, as itallows students to implement change as a result of research. Career development can be defined as a lifelong method of controlling learning, work and transition to proceed toa personally determined preferred future (Bezanson, 2003). To adopt Bezanson's (2003) definition, career development is linked to lifelong learning and it defines a person's career direction which is meaningful to them. Professional studies provide students with the mechanism to enhance knowledge and skills to manage to learn and assist in personal development, which can support future career aspirations.

5.15 Key Concepts of work-based learning

The key concepts of effective work-based learning are that it is independent learning through work (Johnson, 2001). Work-based learning is an everyday learningprocess that arises within the work routine and involves the worker being flexible andhaving the ability to reflectively analyse and make decisions in the work environment(Nilsen & Ellstrom, 2012). Furthermore, work-based learning aims to find solutions to problems in the workplace which are applicable and situational specific.A feature of work-based learning is that it focusses on practice-based knowledge, using the knowledge of the learner which has been developed over some time (Nilsen& Ellstrom, 2012). For work-based learning to be effective, there must be a partnership developed between the learner's organisation and a university, a learning plan needs to be developed for each learner, the program needs to be derived fromthe needs of the workplace, the learners work forms part of the curriculum, the learner's current competencies are identified, learning projects are undertaken in the workplace, and finally, programs are constructed from any activity in support of learning projects (Boud & Solomon, 2001).

5.16 Reflective Practice

Dewey conceptualised his theory of reflective practice almost a century ago. There have been many adaptations to his theory since that time, but most scholars who follow Dewey's philosophy define reflection as a process of making meaning from one experience into the next, with a deeper understanding of its relationship with andassociations to other experiences and thoughts. Reflection supports thinking systematically about an area of professional practice and learning from the experience (Rodgers, 2002). In 1983, Schon hypothesised the concept of the "reflective practitioner". An important aspect of his work highlighted a theory that there are two types of reflection, on action (after the event) and in action (thinking while doing) (Finlay, 2008). This approach is supported by Westberg and Jason (Westberg & Jason,2001), who define reflection as having awareness during and after an event and learning from it. There are many benefits for undertaking reflective practices in a person's professional practice. Reflection can enable a learner to increase their knowledge, apply experiences to later situations, develop a new understanding of experiences and increase the rate at which learning can occur (Westberg & Jason, 2001). Action research supports reflective practice as it is undertaken by practitioners looking to improve their comprehension of events, circumstances and difficulties to increase the effectiveness of their practice (McKernan, 2013). Thisprovides organisations with the knowledge of how people learn to enable them to decide how they should implement their methods of training and develop training curriculums. This will be further explored in the latter part of this thesis.

5.17 How officers are assessed

5.18 Leadership Competencies for Queensland

The QPS has aligned position descriptions to the "Leadership Competencies for Queensland" (Lead4Qld) for commissioned ranks (Inspector and above). The non-commissioned ranks position descriptions are currently aligned to the Queensland Police Leadership Framework (QPLF). Of note, at

every commissioned rank, the position descriptions are generic but at the non-commissioned ranks, there are numerous positions descriptions associate with each rank.

The Lead4Qld competencies aims to translate the Queensland public sector's expectations about what highly effective, everyday leadership looks like, into clear behavioural terms. Lead4Qld has a strong focus on:

- Participatory leadership
- Collaboration and customer engagement
- Stewardship
- Distributed authority
- Efficiency and being data-driven

The Lead4Qld has been developed into leadership streams, to reflect the balance between leadership and technical skills required of an individual. Currently, the QPS has only aligned three of the five leadership steams, from the rank of inspector upwards. These are;

Program leader (Inspector)

Responsible for leading team leaders and/or multiple projects of areas of work, typically under broad direction by an executive or more seniorprogram leader.

Valued for the ability to lead program strategy and/or guide team leadersto deliver outcomes.

Executive (Superintendent)

Responsible for leading service delivery, policy, regulatory or strategic advisory function(s) or a geographical area.

Valued for the ability or lead program leaders or other executives and influence

within the organisation and with external parties to ensure outcomes

Chief Executive (Superintendent to Assistant Commissioner)

Responsible for leading and administrating a government agency to effectively deliver on government priorities.

Valued for the ability to lead executives and the organisation andinfluence through sector and system leadership.

The Lead4Qld framework is further broken down into three distinct competencies;

- Vison
- Results
- Accountability

An officer wanting promotion must firstly submit a résumé which addresses these competencies. Résumés are ranked on the officer's ability to meet the criteria andranked against other applicants. An officer will progress to an assessment centre depending on their ranking above the threshold set by the QPS (Lead4Qld, 2020). Assessment Centres for the QPS are currently administered by Hudson Recruitment Agency. Officers are assessed using several assessments. These are;

- Cognitive ability assessment
- Personality questionnaire
- Motivational drives questionnaire
- 180-degree feedback survey
- Structured conversation

- Behavioural simulation exercise

- Job experience survey

Officers are assessed using a rating scale. This is predominately done against a five-point rating scale, with the higher scores indicating greater alignment of behavioural preferences (behaviours) or higher level of capability (knowledge and skills) (Hudson, 2020). At the conclusion of the assessment centre, officers are placed in merit order. The QPS sets the number of officers that will progress to the third and final stage, the interview, depending on position vacancies.

The interview panel comprises a Deputy Commissioner, and three others at the rank of Assistant Commissioner or equivalent. Officers are given thirty minutes to respond to three questions, which are structured to assess the officer's suitability against the position that they have applied for. Questions are developed by the interview panel and all applicants respond to the same questions. The questions often vary between operational based questions and emotional intelligence type questions such as a question on humility. At the conclusion of the interview, officers are deemed suitable or not suitable. Suitable officers are then offered a position based on their operational fit and requirement for specific skillsets.

5.18.1 Queensland Police Leadership Framework

The ranks of senior constable to senior sergeant are assessed against the Queensland Police Leadership Framework (QPLF). The QPLF is used as the standard for individual performance and it is applied across a range of activities including recruiting and selection, performance appraisal, learning and

development,talent identification, and career & succession planning. The QPLF describes five corecapabilities around;

- Strategy;
- Results;
- Productive working relationships;
- Personal drive and integrity; and,
- Communication.

The framework is made up of;

- core capabilities, which each have
- 3-5 components, which each have
- Behavioural indicators

The capabilities are the same or closely aligned with similar frameworks used in other Australian and New Zealand public sector and law enforcement jurisdictions. The core QPLF capabilities appear in position descriptions noted above, and there arenumerous at each rank depending on the role that the position entails.

Officers can apply for an advertised position in the following manner; A vacancy is advertised in the *Police Gazette*, which is an electronic online document that is published every Friday available to all police to view. The advertised position will beaccompanied by a position description (PD) which is a Human Resources (HR) approved document, compiled from the QPLF guidelines. Officers are afforded the opportunity to apply for the position with a closing date of two weeks from the following Monday of the advertisement in the gazette. Officers are required to addressthe five capabilities that are outlined in the PD in a written response, two pages maximum in length.

Applicants are also required to submit a standard Police resumé (QP0073), where they outline their job history, courses undertaken, as well as addressany key selection criteria. The written responses and resumé are assessed by a panel, normally comprising three personnel. The panel rate the applicant's responses againstthe key selection criteria and QPLF description. The panel will meet to moderate theirmarking and then decide how many officers they will shortlist to progress to the interview stage.

The interview can take on many different forms unlike the process described above. The panel convener will develop questions that give the applicant the opportunity to demonstrate their ability via verbal response to the panel. This normally consists of three to five questions and the interview traditionally will take approximately thirty to forty minutes. The panel scores each applicant’s responses andgrades them against the QPLF. The panel will convene again following the interview stage and one successful applicant will be chosen for the position. The panel convener formalises the position by writing a report. Vetting of the applicant takes place and a formal offer is presented to the successful applicant. If the applicant accepts the position, the appointment is published in the Police Gazette.

There are some shortfalls with the QPLF system. Many officers complain that thereis no standardised way to write a QPLF response and the panel can choose an applicantbased on their previous knowledge of them. This can be perceived as a lack of accountability and benchmarking. This does open the QPLF to perceived cronyism, where sometimes other applicants review appointments to an independent and externalreview commissioner. To reduce this from occurring, the QPS is currently establishinga central body known as the "Central Panels" where all applicants will be graded by agroup of officers for every advertised position within the service. This may slow

down the shortlisting process but will ensure objectivity across the board for the whole of service.

5.19 How to embed leadership behaviours into the QPS

The data has identified what leadership behaviours were cited as desirable at eachlevel of rank. It is imperative to take this information into consideration when determining the structure of any future leadership course development within the QPS. Understanding the behaviours of effective and ineffectual leaders is an important starting point in the process (Schafer, 2010) which have been highlighted throughout this study. Literature suggests that leadership development is a challenge for many agencies, irrespective of their size and location (Adlam, 2002; Haberfeld, 2006). Leadership development is best achieved through a complementary mix of education,reinforced by practical application with constructive feedback (Schafer, 2010). The QPS could benefit from officers learning about leadership from organisations outsideof the police service (Gaston & King, 1995) such as universities or similar institutions.

Officers would benefit from a blended model of education to maximise their learning experience and continual development. There will always be a need to focus on police centric skills, such as firearms training, emergent driving, incident command and so on (Bayley & Bittner, 1984), but the concept of continuous learning should be implemented that supports incremental leadership development as an officer progresses with their career. There would be a great educational benefit to develop core mandatory modules at each level of rank supplemented by a bespoke style package where officers select their own subjects based on interest and need (Huey et al., 2019). Police organisations should maintain the responsibility to develop and implement 'technical' police courses, due to the intricate knowledge police have in this field. External leadership development courses would be an effective alternative as these courses have academic rigor, trainer quality and they provide the opportunity to learn alongside participants belonging to non-

policing organisations (Huey et al., 2019). The QPS has a limited capability to develop curricula, due to the skillset of officers and time. The truth is that the development of curriculum is often done by officers who have had no previous experience in this area or the lack of academic credentials to undertake this task effectively. Due to this reason alone, I propose that it is viable to implement a blended approach to leadership training and development.

5.20 Models for developing police leadership

Five models that address leadership development gaps within police organisations are listed below (Hanson & McKenna, 2011). These models provide a basis to align career and leadership development with recognised police competencies such as the QPLF and Lead4Qld as beforementioned:

1. Status Quo Model (SQM), which entails no change from the existing approaches currently adopted by the QPS, being, in house curriculum development;

2. Internal Capacity Building Model (ICBM), which relies on in-house leadershipdevelopment programs and initiatives;

3. Delegated Capacity Building Model (DCBM), which is based on the completion of some agreement with an external educational institution for career and leadership development programs;

4. Education and Development Single Partnership Model (EDSPM), includes a partnership with a university or community college for leadership development; and,

5. Education and Development Nodal Partnership Model (EDNPM), involves partnerships with various educational institutions for the collaborative leadership development initiatives.

To modernise leadership training within the QPS, the DCBM, EDSPM or EDNPMmodel should be implemented to embed leadership training within the organisation asthere is direct evidence to support this through this research data and the review of literature. The collected data clearly highlights that current leadership training methodology is falling short within the QPS, so an alternative should be implementedto help bridge the current capability gap. There should also be a greater emphasis placed on qualifications that officers possess or modules of study they have already undertaken as an alternate pathway to leadership development. For example, inAustralia, Charles Sturt University offers a Master of Leadership and Management in Police and Security and a Master of Business Administration (MBA) in Law Enforcement and Security. The University of Southern Queensland offers the Master of Professional Practice (Research). There are other Australian universities that also offer police relevant studies. A greater emphasis should be placed on giving officers an opportunity to have a recognition of prior learning (RPL) credited to them for promotional courses based on the higher education pathway they have chosen to undertake.

5.21 Core modules

Curricula for police leadership programs should be centred on building foundational knowledge linked to core competencies (Huey et al., 2019). Leadership could not only be developed through education and incremental learning as an officerprogress through the ranks, but also through practical work experience and mentorship(Schafer, 2010). The data collected during this study has identified what the core competencies should consist of at each level. To refresh;

Constable to Senior Constable

Communication Skills
Confidence and Assertiveness
Technical Capability
Emotional Intelligence
Time Management
Leading by Example
Decisiveness
Incident Command
Introduction to leadership (leader – follower)

Senior Constable progressing to Sergeant

Communication Skills
Emotional Intelligence
Coaching and Mentoring
Leading by Example
Honesty and Integrity
Decisiveness
Leading Others

Sergeant progressing to Senior Sergeant

Communication Skills
Motivating Others
Honesty & Integrity
Emotional Intelligence
Leading Leaders

Senior Sergeant progressing to Inspector

Communication Skills
Analysis, Strategic Thinking and Planning
Decisiveness
Building Relationships
Ethical Leadership
Leading Business Units

Inspector to Superintendent

Strategic Planning
Flexible Thinking
Decisiveness
Building Relationships
Political Judgement
Leading Commands/Divisions/Districts

Superintendent and above

Direction Setting
Analysis, Strategic Thinking and Planning
Decisiveness
Building Relationships
Humility & Inclusivity
Leading Organisations

It has been highlighted that the current development programs within the QPS are not meeting organisational expectations. This has caused a review to be undertaken so leadership development courses within the QPS can be contemporised. A fundamental error that police organisations continue to make is that they take on the task of developing curriculum within the organisation, i.e. in-house. The reality of undertaking this approach is that modules are developed by police officers who do not have the required skillset to undertake this task effectively. This is what is cited as the 'Status Quo Model' (SQM) or the 'Internal Capacity Building Model' (ICBM) (Hanson & McKenna, 2011) approach which are no longer considered contemporary.

The development of core leadership modules for the QPS should be undertakenusing one of the three models as cited by Hanson et.al (2019):

1. Delegated Capacity Building Model (DCBM), which is based on the completion of some agreement with an external educational institution for career and leadership development programs;

2. Education and Development Single Partnership Model (EDSPM), includes a partnership with a university or community college for

leadership development; and,

3. Education and Development Nodal Partnership Model (EDNPM) involves partnerships with various educational institutions for the collaborative leadership development initiatives.

Building co-collaboration partnerships to develop leadership programs with universities has numerous advantages. This approach is considered effective as the course content has academic rigor (Campbell & Kodz, 2011b), it helps to improve what and how students learn (Wheller & Morris, 2010) and students' level of confidence increases compared against conventional training methodologies (Hanson & McKenna, 2011). Universities not only have the requisite capacity to build curricula, they are up to date in teaching methodologies and importantly, have the resources to maintain and update literature, ensuring programs remain contemporary. To reduce the reliance on external entities once programs have been designed, a 'Train the Trainer' model could be adopted, where a university academic teaches police facilitators how to deliver the training modules and provide detailed facilitator guidesto ensure consistency of the program.

To complement leadership development, technical police courses should remain under the control of police as they are the subject matter experts in this field. Incident command should remain a compulsory module for each level of rank as the need is linked strongly to several coronial recommendations, specifically, the inquest into thedeaths of Anthony William Young, Shaun Basil Kumeroa, Edward Wayne Logan, Laval Donovan Zimmer, and Troy Martin Foster. Elective modules could include rostering practices, internal auditing, business continuity plans and so on. To maximisethe effectiveness of learning, officers should have the capability to select their own subjects based on interest and need (Huey et al., 2019). These modules may complement an officer's current role within the QPS which would enhance efficiency. The teaching of technical skills does little to promote the non-technical skills such as judgement, leadership or problem solving (Birzer, 2003), however, as illustrated in the collected data, non - Commissioned police (below the rank of Inspector) consistently associated technical knowledge and experience with

effective leadership. This view was shared to a degree at the executive level, yet it was more commonly believed thata senior leader could be effective without their technical capability if they were able to draw on the strengths, expertise and knowledge of others (Collins et al., 2020).

Chapter Six: CONCLUSIONS

Police leadership is complex to enact and interpret, and there are few relevant studies that pertain purely to police leadership development. It is apparent that there is limited literature that focusses on ‘what works’ for policing organisations for leadership development. The findings in this study suggest that desirable leadership behaviours have commonality across professions. However, it has become evident that‘in house’ training alone will not be enough to deliver appropriate leadership development for the QPS into the future. Leadership training courses often address different leadership styles, but this needs to be backed up by practical applications of the theory and delivered in flexible and bespoke style packages. Importantly, when developing training packages, the developer must also have an extensive knowledge of how people learn.

To enhance leadership development, members need to be taught a mixture of ‘soft skills’. This should include communication such as giving and receiving feedback, having difficult conversations, complemented by learning about emotional intelligence. There is evidence to suggest that a mixed mode of training development would be advantageous, such as partnering with universities to develop course content.Technical policing skills development should remain the responsibility of the QPS asthese types of courses cannot be outsourced.

Police leadership is ultimately about ensuring that individuals, the community and the State of Queensland get the best that is reasonably possible from the men andwomen who enforce the law. If leadership development is done correctly, it increasespolice legitimacy and makes organisations like the QPS become an “employer of choice”. There is a necessity to update current leadership curriculum based on the suggestions contained within this research. This is also strengthened by the 2019 Working for Queensland Survey results where officers their concerns over the currently developmental programs no meeting their expectations. The immediate need to enhance

developmental courses exits at Senior Constable, Sergeant and Senior Sergeant levels as a priority as the data has identified that they are the most disengaged but also the most influential ranks within the service. The research highlights thatleadership programs should focus on;

- Being experimental rather than entirely classroom-based learning;
- Equipping participants with next level leadership capabilities;
- Exposure to different styles of leadership theory and how contingencytheory of leadership is a viable option for the QPS
- Developing competence is technical skills such as incident commandand crisis leadership.

This research did not seek to compare models of police leadership or take an all-embracing view, instead it provides some evidence for a link between leadership behaviours, leadership development and options to enhance leadership programs withinthe QPS. The research findings have demonstrated what police are seeking from theirleaders and it has provided options to further explore, including more granular research into the composition of core leadership modules, bespoke technical modules and building co-creation partnerships with external providers which would include linkingprograms to higher education pathways.

6.1 Limitations

Development programs need to do more than simply expose student's to leadership theories. A combination of in-house and external provider model of developing and delivering curriculum may be of benefit. Major barriers to the redevelopment of effective leadership programs are not easily or quickly overcome, complicating the long-term prospects of enhancing the

quality of leadership within the QPS. The limitations of this study do however offer several interesting opportunities for future research. These include but not limited to:

- Exploration of a blueprint for leadership that links to leadership capabilities and program outcomes;
- Exploration of a higher education pathway with micro-credentials linked to QPS leadership programs; and,

- The design of a QPS leadership developmental architecture.

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