Public Safety Canada
Sécurité publique Canada

ARCHIVED - Archiving Content

ARCHIVÉE - Contenu archivé

Archived Content

Information identified as archived is provided for reference, research or recordkeeping purposes. It is not subject to the Government of Canada Web Standards and has not been altered or updated since it was archived. Please contact us to request a format other than those available.

Contenu archivé

L'information dont il est indiqué qu'elle est archivée est fournie à des fins de référence, de recherche ou de tenue de documents. Elle n'est pas assujettie aux normes Web du gouvernement du Canada et elle n'a pas été modifiée ou mise à jour depuis son archivage. Pour obtenir cette information dans un autre format, veuillez communiquer avec nous.

This document is archival in nature and is intended for those who wish to consult archival documents made available from the collection of Public Safety Canada.

Some of these documents are available in only one official language. Translation, to be provided by Public Safety Canada, is available upon request.

Le présent document a une valeur archivistique et fait partie des documents d'archives rendus disponibles par Sécurité publique Canada à ceux qui souhaitent consulter ces documents issus de sa collection.

Certains de ces documents ne sont disponibles que dans une langue officielle. Sécurité publique Canada fournira une traduction sur demande.

Canada

Police Leaders and Leadership Development

A Systematic Literature Review

Mitch Pearson-Goff

Victoria Herrington

2013

AUSTRALIAN INSTITUTE OF POLICE MANAGEMENT

Contact Details

Authors

Mitch Pearson-Goff
mgoff@aipm.gov.au

Dr Victoria Herrington
vherrington@aipm.gov.au

The Australian Institute of Police Management can be contacted by:

Post:
PO Box 168
MANLY NSW 1655

Telephone: AIPM Reception Switchboard Number: (02) 9934 4800

www.aipm.gov.au

Acknowledgements

We would like to extend our thanks to Professor Joseph Schafer of the Southern Illinois University, and Greg Linsdell of Charles Sturt University for their insightful comments on an earlier draft of this document.

Summary

The purpose of this document is to report on a systematic review of the research literature pertaining to police leadership, and specifically to report on what the academic literature tells us about police leadership and leadership development. In doing this, this review provides a consistent, replicable, and transparent approach to identifying and synthesising the existing body of knowledge, and will provide a foundation on which further research can be built. In order to orientate our analysis of the literature we asked three questions.

- Who are police leaders?
- What do police leaders do that makes them leaders?
- What is the best way to develop police leaders?

A systematic literature review uses systematic, explicit and accountable methods to review research literature. This has the benefit over a non-systematic literature review of ensuring that undue weight and attention is not paid to a small, and potentially biased, collection of studies. Central to a systematic review is the setting of a series of appropriate inclusion and exclusion criteria in order to specify the nature of the literature to be collected and to assist in distinguishing relevant works. We searched five academic databases for literature pertaining to police leadership by using terms and truncations relating to policing and leadership. A total of sixty-six empirical articles were identified through this process, published between 1990 and 2012 in Australia, the UK, Canada, New Zealand or the US. Fifty seven articles were of suitable quality to be analysed as part of this review. Through our review we identified that a key limitation of the literature was the absence of objective measures of *successful* leadership practice and development, with the bulk of the research focusing on the *perceptions* of good leadership from the perspective of police and stakeholders instead.

Across the literature there was broad agreement about what individual characteristics are necessary in order to be regarded as a good police leader, with good leaders perceived to be:

- Ethical
- Role models
- Good communicators
- Critical and creative thinkers
- Decision makers
- Trustworthy
- Legitimate

The activities that good police leaders were seen to undertake were varied, and included:

- Problem solving
- Creating a shared vision
- Engendering organisational commitment
- Caring for subordinates
- Driving and managing change

Our review of the literature pertaining to police leadership development was less fruitful, and there was little in the body of work we analysed that covered this. Nonetheless we were able to conclude

that there was a perception, at least, that good leadership was best encouraged through a combination of:

- Formal education
- On the job experience
- Mentorship

In concluding this review we note that the quality of the studies analysed herein is mixed, which is at least partly due to the complexity of the topic and the difficulties facing researchers in accessing police departments and police leaders with whom to conduct robust research. Thus the majority of the research is based on convenience samples and perceptions of what constitutes good leadership, or on small case studies, with even fewer studies that address objectively what is needed from police leaders, and how leaders might be best developed. The literature does not provide a strong case for what objectively measured successful leadership looks like, or how this might be measured. This conclusion should spur researchers to add to this body of work and answer these crucial questions.

Contents

Authors 1

Acknowledgements 1

Summary 2

Introduction 5

  Definitions 5

Methodology 5

  Analysis of the literature 9

Who are police leaders? 11

  Ethical 12

  Role model 12

  Good communicators 13

  Critical and creative thinkers 13

  Decision makers 14

  Trustworthy 15

  Legitimate 16

What do police leaders do? 17

  Problem solving 20

  Creating a shared vision 20

  Engender organisational commitment 21

  Care for subordinates 23

  Drive and manage change 24

Ineffective leadership 25

What is the best way to develop police leaders? 27

Do these leadership questions vary by rank? 29

Do these leadership questions vary by country? 30

What do police organisations want from their police leaders? 30

Limitations of the systematic review 32

Conclusion 33

References 34

APPENDIX A - Bibliography of Studies 36

APPENDIX B - Details of 57 empirical sources included in review 41

APPENDIX C – Quality appraisal questions 44

Introduction

Police are required to understand and effectively operate in a complex social, political and organisational environment (Casey and Mitchell, 2007). Good leadership is widely considered fundamental to high performance in such realms (Dobby et al., 2004; Boedker et al., 2001) and as such the need for good police leadership is greater than ever (Meaklim and Sims 2011). But how do we define good police leadership? What are the characteristics of good police leaders, what activities do good leaders undertake, and is being a good leader the same as being effective? In attempting to answer these questions the AIPM undertook a systematic review of the research literature pertaining to police leadership.

In order to orientate our analysis of the literature we asked three questions. First, who are police leaders? This question allowed us to look at what police leaders are like and to identify what characteristics they possess. Second, what do police leaders do that makes them leaders? Allowing us to identify the behaviours or actions that successful police leaders undertake. And third, what is the best way to develop police leaders? Our analysis will be presented in response to these three questions.

Definitions

In setting the parameters for this review, it was important consider how we defined the key terms of *policing* and *leadership*. The terms policing and law enforcement are often used interchangeably, but variously describe those agencies involved in maintaining the law. Typically, the term law enforcement refers to a broader range of police and policing related agencies, including intelligence organisations and crime commissions. Policing, on the other hand, refers to a much narrower group of organisations, although in the age of plural policing, can include organisations that are not part of the traditional state-sponsored policing endeavours (Stenning and Shearing, 2012). In this review, we confine our self to studies relating to state-sponsored policing, that is public policing undertaken at local, state and federal level. We do not include private policing agencies, nor agencies that are captured under the broader term law enforcement. We do this for parsimony, although future research may wish to consider these too.

Leadership is another term requiring the setting of parameters and in particular it is important to clarify who we mean when we talk about police leaders. Does this include frontline officers who provide leadership in their communities, or first line supervisors who lead teams of front line staff? Or does it relate only to executive leaders at the upper echelons of police organisations? It is common sense that the expectations we have of leaders at each rank will differ, as would their day to day activities, but does the essence of good leadership? To find out we included research that examined leadership at all ranks, from the frontline to the senior executive.

Methodology

A systematic literature review is an evaluation of research using methodical, explicit and accountable methods (Gough et al., 2012). It allows for a comprehensive assessment of the body of knowledge, limiting the difficulties faced by non-systematic reviews, which may place undue weight and attention on a small snapshot of research findings, potentially biasing the conclusions drawn. Systematic reviews have been developed and widely utilised in medical sciences in order to establish a solid evidence-base for policy making and practice. Such reviews typically draw the findings of many studies together – for example a series of small studies on a particular drug's effectiveness – and through meta-analysis synthesise each of the smaller studies together to draw more robust conclusions.

The use of systematic reviews in the social sciences is increasing, although there are some differences to those conducted in the medical domain. For one, social science research includes that which is qualitative in design, and as such not easily subjected to complex quantitative meta-analysis. To get around this many social science reviews have restricted their remit to studies of a quantitative bent, and those that have utilised robust research designs such as a randomised control trial procedures. The down side of such an approach is that research findings emanating from qualitative studies, or quantitative studies that have not used a robust approach, are excluded. As such whilst a focus on randomised control trial designs in social science reviews may increase the confidence with which the review findings are regarded, valuable information that can be drawn from qualitative designs would be lost. For this reason we decided not to limit our systematic review to a particular methodology.

Central to a systematic review is the setting of a series of appropriate inclusion criteria in order to specify the nature of the literature to be collected and to assist in distinguishing the relevant works. Determining appropriate inclusion criteria can be a delicate balancing act between inclusion and sensitivity. For example, whilst there is extensive research related to policing, the overwhelming majority of this literature does not focus on police leadership and as such would not be of interest to this review. For the purpose of our review, we wanted to be broad enough to capture all of the literature pertaining to police leadership, but narrow enough to ensure that the research we identified was not predominately about other aspects of policing. We set out with an international scope, drawing on research conducted in the US, UK, Canada, New Zealand as well as Australia. We only included literature published in English, and between January 1990 and December 2012, so that our search returned contemporary work on policing. As noted above, unlike many systematic literature reviews which include and exclude research based on methodology, we decided against this to capture as broad a range of studies as possible. This was partly because we wanted to include findings from qualitative research, and partly because our initial pilot searches of the literature suggested little in the way of robust experimental and quasi experimental designs. However, we only included empirical[1] pieces published in peer reviewed journals in order to provide some initial measure of quality assurance[2].

Five electronic databases were searched for this review: Emerald, Taylor and Francis, Wiley, EBSCO and Sage. These databases were chosen because they include key policing and management journals relating to Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the US and UK. Strict search terms were used to search these databases. We developed these search terms through a series of scoping searches to assess each term's sensitivity and inclusivity before agreeing on a final set of terms and search field options to be used. These search terms are presented in table 1.

---

[1] Empirical works are those that are based on observations or experiences of reality and involve analysis of collected data (Dahlberg, 2010).

[2] This review was conducted by a research team comprising a chief investigator and a research assistant. The searches were conducted by the research assistant along with the application of the screening criteria (discussed below). The quality appraisal process, data extraction and thematic analysis were undertaken by both the chief investigator and the research assistant to ensure consistency.

Table 1. Systematic Review Search Terms

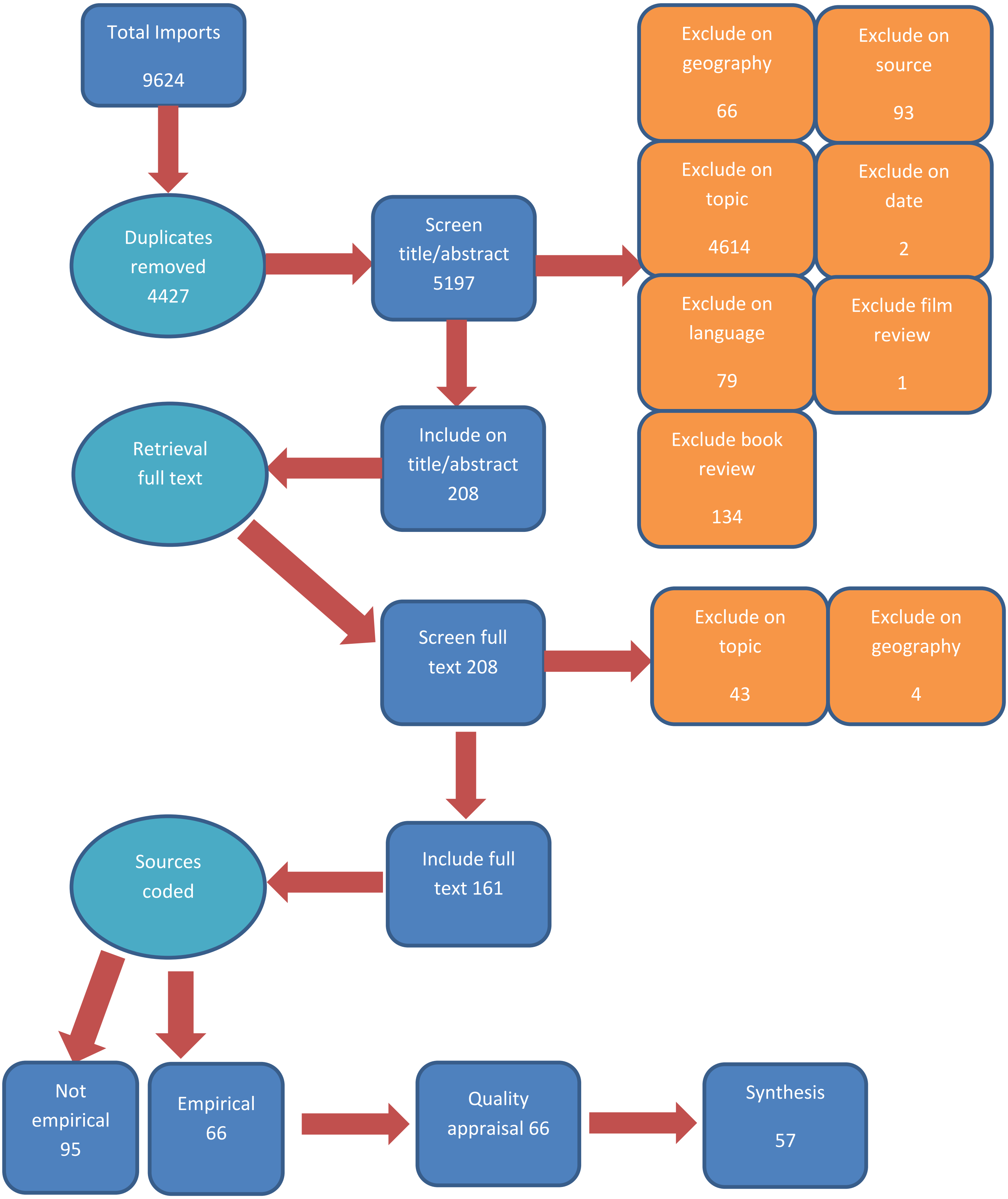
Tier 1 Target Sample Terms	**Tier 2 Leadership and Associated Terms**
Police	leader*
Law enforcement	commissioner
Policing	Manag*
	executive
	senior
	Administrat*

Truncations were used in order to find multiple iterations of a particular word stem with a single search term. Tier one was designed to retrieve literature relating to policing organisations as opposed to other public or private sector leadership material. Tier two was designed to find leadership related literature. The systematic searches involved pairing each word in tier one with each word in tier two and searching once in the field 'abstract', once in the field 'keyword' and once in the field 'article title'. A third tier could have been used to narrow the search further and, for example, specify the study design of included literature; however, we decided against this for the reasons set out above. In total, 270 searches were completed across the five databases which returned 9624 pieces of literature. These records were then imported into EPPI Reviewer 4 for further analysis, duplicate removal and application of the screening criteria to exclude items not relevant to the review[3]. Research literature was excluded on the basis of geography if it was from a country other than the US, UK, Canada New Zealand and Australia. Literature was also excluded on the basis of topic; if the articles returned were not relevant to the field of police leadership. Further exclusions were made for items not published in English, published outside 1990-2012, published book reviews or film reviews and inapplicable sources such as contents pages from books or journals. One of the final steps in screening the literature was to exclude the non-empirical pieces and only include empirical works. This process is set out in figure 1.

---

[3] EPPI Reviewer 4 is software developed and maintained by the EPPI-Centre at the Social Science Research Unit at the Institute of Education, University of London. The software provides the necessary tools to undertake the steps of a systematic review, including reference management, study classification and data extraction, synthesis and overall review management.

Figure 1. Review Flow Diagram



Total Imports
9624
Duplicates removed
4427
Screen title/abstract
5197
Exclude on geography
66
Exclude on source
93
Exclude on topic
4614
Exclude on date
2
Exclude on language
79
Exclude film review
1
Exclude book review
134
Retrieval full text
Include on title/abstract
208
Screen full text 208
Exclude on topic
43
Exclude on geography
4
Sources coded
Include full text 161
Not empirical
95
Empirical
66
Quality appraisal 66
Synthesis
57

Analysis of the literature

For every database search that was conducted and imported into EPPI Reviewer 4, a record was established specifying the database searched, date of the search, the search terms used, the search field used, any limiters used and the total number of records returned. Duplicate articles were removed using the duplicate removal function in the software. This function compares all the imported search records and calculates a score based on author, title and journal. If the score is equal to one, then the items are regarded as a match. Individual articles were then assessed provisionally for their relevance to the research questions set out above. By considering an article's title and abstract we were able to ascertain whether the research referred to police leaders, police leadership or police leadership development and a judgement could be made about the relevance of the article to the systematic review. Where a determination could not be made by viewing the title or abstract alone, the full text of the article was reviewed. Any articles that were deemed potentially relevant were progressed to the next stage of the literature analysis. This resulted in 208 articles of interest to the review. The full text of each of these articles was considered and 161 were deemed relevant to the review, 66 of which referred to empirical pieces of research. These 66 articles were then subject to a quality appraisal. Most of the 66 studies were published between 2002 and 2012, and largely in the US, followed by the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada and then New Zealand. Table 2 sets out these characteristics.

Table 2. Breakdown of the studies by country and year of publication

Year of publication	Country				
	US	UK	Australia	Canada	New Zealand
1992-2001	12	5	4	0	2
2002-2012	18	13	6	6	0

We adopted a quality appraisal framework adapted from the National Centre for Social Research [4]. This adapted framework posed nine questions of any given piece of research; from details around sample selection to the degree with which the conclusions drawn by the authors were generalizable beyond the immediate study (a full list of questions is available in appendix c). In each of these nine domains a determination was made as to whether the research article scored high, medium, or low. Each ranking had an associated numerical score which was then summed across the nine domains to calculate an aggregate quality score. Each article was double-appraised by both reviewers in order to ensure consistency. In situations where a piece of literature was scored differently by each reviewer, scores were debated and where necessary reconsidered. Typically the lower quality score was adopted. Most of the studies included in the systematic review were of medium quality, with only three receiving a high quality rating, as shown in table 3. This was largely due to study design. None of the pieces of literature utilised a traditionally robust design, for example a randomised control trial or effective comparison or control groups, with survey designs, mixed methodology and case studies characterising the body of work (as illustrated by table 4). This is not surprising given that access to police leaders is often difficult, conditions are difficult to manipulate, and as such police leadership research does not easily lend itself to such experimental designs. The flow-on effects of this quirk of the research literature is, though, that conclusive "what works" conclusions are difficult to achieve.

---

[4] The research undertaken by the National Centre for Social Research to devise the framework involved a comprehensive review of the literature on qualitative research methods relating to standards in qualitative research. A review of qualitative research methods used in Government funded evaluation studies was also undertaken. In addition, a review of existing frameworks for assessing quality in qualitative research and exploratory interviews with key stakeholders was conducted.

Table 3. Breakdown of study quality

Quality rating	Total No. of Studies
High	3
Medium	52
Low	11

Table 4. Breakdown of study methodology

Methodology	Total No. of Studies
Survey	27
Interviews	6
Mixed Methods	12
Content Analysis	3
Observational Study	1
Case Study	11
Secondary Data Analysis	6

Once a quality score had been calculated we also calculated a secondary relevance score, based on a full text assessment of an article's relevance to our three key research questions: who are police leaders, what do police leaders do, and what is the best way to develop police leaders? This relevance score was assigned after the full article had been considered (in comparison to the provisional relevance score that was assigned based on the title and abstract of the piece). A relevance score of high, medium or low was cross tabulated with an article's quality score and low quality low relevance articles excluded from further analysis. Nine articles were excluded in total (illustrated in table 5).

Table 5. Quality-Relevance Cross-tabulation

	Relevance Score		
Quality Score	High	Medium	Low
High	3	0	0
Medium	14	22	16
Low	1	1	9

Once the research articles had been appraised, we undertook a thematic analysis of the remaining 57 articles to draw out key findings. The framework for this thematic analysis was the research questions that we set out at the start of the systematic review: namely

1. Who are police leaders? (What are their characteristics and traits?)
2. What do police leaders do that makes them leaders? (What activities do they undertake?)
3. What is the best way to develop police leaders?

In the following sections we deal with the findings from each question in turn.

Who are police leaders?

There were several studies, utilising a range of methodologies across the five countries of interest, which specifically looked at what characteristics leaders possess**.** There was evidence that the qualities found amongst police leaders were not different to those found in leadership populations outside of policing. For example, in the US, Miller et al. (2009) used the California psychology inventory 260 (a psychometric tool) with top executives in a police sample and found very similar scores for this group when compared to the inventory's non-police normative sample.

Dantzker (1996) asked police chiefs to rank the skills that they thought a potential police chief should have. Findings indicated that *leadership* was the most important skill - although Dantzker does not offer further insight into what is meant by this - followed by *communication* and *decision making*. Dantzker (1996) also notes the importance of organisational skills and staffing skills, but again neglects to offer a definition of what is meant by each of these. Interestingly Dantzker also noted that respondents placed political skill as the eleventh most important skill for a chief, which is relatively low in importance despite contradictory evidence and a received wisdom that most police chiefs must be politically astute. For example, O'Leary et al. (2011) found that their sample of patrol officers, command officers, community leaders, youth advocates and constitutional officers unanimously noted that political awareness was a central requirement for a police chief.

Gaston (1997), drawing on data from a total of 148 executives and 364 non executives from multiple federal, state and local jurisdiction agencies, primarily police (although also corrective services), found that certain management, personality, cognitive and "Type A" variables were significantly more widely represented amongst populations considered to be effective managers than amongst non-executives. In particular Gaston found that critical thinking ability, commitment to ongoing education, career commitment, original thinking ability, a competitive drive, vigour, ambition, emotional stability, sociability, self-esteem and ability to develop personal relations were key. A similar group of characteristics were identified by O'Leary et al. (2011) who, drawing on focus groups with police and external stakeholders, found that these groups believed a police chief was required to have integrity and a strong moral character, a strong leadership personality, good communication skills, and creative thinking ability. Also drawing on the perceptions of stakeholders, Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) found that municipal managers in the US were significantly more positive about the leadership skills of police chiefs who had some college credits, had graduated from the FBI National Academy, and had been promoted from within the organisation. Schafer (2010a) makes an interesting observation in his work which surveyed 1000 police leaders attending the FBI's National Academy, that the most frequently observed elements of success for effective leaders were closely tied to personality and interpersonal skills such as being caring, communication and having a good work ethic, rather than more technical aspects of the role such as decision making, competency and knowledge.

Taking the findings from these studies along with others examined as part of this review, there is broad agreement about what makes a good leader. Importantly all of these findings were based on perceptions of one sort or another from subordinates, senior leaders or stakeholders, rather than objective measures of *success*. As such there is still some debate as to whether the findings presented here represent the characteristics of objectively successful police leaders rather than those characteristics that are favoured by subordinates, peers and other stakeholders. This is a key limitation to the literature and we return to it later in this document. Nonetheless, based on our review of the literature we can summarise that good leaders are perceived to be characterised as:

- Ethical
- Role models
- Good communicators
- Critical and creative thinkers
- Decision makers
- Trustworthy
- Legitimate

We will deal with each one in greater detail below.

Ethical

The importance of a leader being *ethical* was noted throughout the literature and was generally defined as exhibiting a sense of integrity and honesty, and being able to demonstrate and generate a sense of trustworthiness amongst one’s subordinates (Schafer, 2010a; Vito et al., 2011; Schafer, 2008; 2009; Bryman and Stephens, 1996; O’Leary et al., 2011, Fleming, 2004; Murphy and Drodge, 2004). In this sense being ethical can be regarded as a cross cutting issue, then, underpinning the need to generate trust, and to be regarded as legitimate, both of which are considered in further detail below. Whilst it could be argued that the notion of ethics and trust could be combined into a single theme, we feel that whilst they overlap, they are conceptually different and are referred to independently of one another in the available literature. We reflect this in this review by considering them as two distinct themes.

For one Australian police commissioner interviewed by Fleming (2004) being ethical meant having the conviction to speak out when government policies may not be right. For others this meant adopting a style of leadership such as servant leadership, defined as an ethical style of leadership that looks beyond the individual leader to satisfying the needs of followers. For example Vito et al. (2011) surveyed 126 police managers who defined their ideal police leader as one that expresses the values of servant leadership. Further to this, and according to research by Schafer (2010b), focussing on oneself over others was considered a key trait of ineffective leaders, which we will return to later in this document.

Role model

Related to being ethical, good leaders were perceived to be those who understood their responsibility to be a role model (Atwater et al., 2000; Johnson, 2006; O’Leary et al., 2011; Densten, 2003; Andreescu and Vito, 2010; Engel, 2000; Murphy and Drodge, 2004; Singer and Singer, 1990). This required leaders to accept responsibility for their role as a leader, to lead by example and emulate the behaviour they were asking of their subordinates. This was sometimes termed *idealised influence*, which is a characteristic of transformational leadership and refers to behaviour where a leader instils pride, faith and respect, has the ability to see what is important, and transmits a sense of vision (Densten, 2003). In a survey of 480 Australian senior police, for example, Densten (2003) found that senior sergeants, inspectors and chief inspectors viewed their leaders as effective if they were observed using behaviours consistent with idealised influence. Johnson (2006) identified that modelling of expected behaviour by a patrol officer's supervisor was one of the key factors that influenced the behaviour of that patrol officer.

Good communicators

The third characteristic found across the literature relates to communication and in particular that good leaders were seen as good communicators. Importantly communication was conceptualised not only in terms of communication within the police organisation and communication with one's subordinates (Beck and Wilson, 1997; Bryman and Stephens, 1996; Dantzker, 1996; Densten, 2002; Dick, 2011; O'Leary et al., 2011; Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2010; Silvestri, 2007; Schafer, 2010b; 2008; 2010a; Duncan et al., 2001; Murphy and Drodge, 2004), it included also the need to communicate across organisations, and to be an active voice in government and stakeholder policy development (Butterfield et al., 2004; Butterfield et al., 2005; Meaklim and Sims, 2011). Schafer's (2008) work, which asked a cross sample of mid-level managers from a range of US police departments, concluded that effective police leaders recognised the importance of good communication skills and the need to be able to explain a decision or action in order to gain support. This notion of communicating the reasons for decisions to stakeholders was also linked to gaining the respect of officers (Murphy and Drodge, 2004), which we deal with in further detail under the section on legitimacy below. Communication was also seen as an important factor in determining organisation commitment (also discussed in further detail below). Specifically, Dick (2011) found that both constables and senior ranks valued good communication regarding their job requirements and performance, which in turn shaped their level of commitment. This is an interesting finding, as it suggests that police at all ranks prefer a degree of certainty about their role from their leaders, which of course may not always be possible, and not always desirable. We return to this later in this document.

The importance of communication interleaves with a key activity undertaken by leaders, being to drive and manage change (discussed in further detail below). Butterfield et al.'s (2005) semi structured interviews with sergeants, their peers and reportees, noted that police leaders needed to communicate a whole range of issues from decentralisation or devolution to the values of innovation, enterprise, management and problem solving. Thus whilst communication was seen as important in and of itself, of particular consequence was what leaders chose to do with their communication.

Critical and creative thinkers

Thinking ability and in particular critical, strategic and creative thinking ability were regarded as key attributes of successful leaders (Davies, 2000; Gaston, 1997; Meaklim and Sims, 2011; O'Leary et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2009; Coleman 2008). For Gaston (1997), critical thinking ability involved having the capacity to recognise problems and to have evidence to draw on when asserting something as fact. In Gaston's study critical thinking was the most significant variable for demonstrably effective managers, with more than 60 per cent of the executive sample scoring in the highest decile of critical thinking ability. Davies' commentary on police restructuring in the UK noted that finding time and having the ability for strategic thinking and leadership was difficult for some leaders (Davies, 2000). Meaklim and Sims (2011) in their qualitative review of a leadership program for police and partner agencies concluded that police leaders needed to be able to think on their feet, make tough choices, recognise patterns among different types of problems, search for facts to prove or disprove their hypotheses, draw on their knowledge and knowledge of others and work collaboratively with one another in imagining and then shaping the future of their team, unit or organisation. They noted that solving problems entailed trade-offs, and that leaders constantly needed to test and re-test whether the choices they made were consistent with their personal and collective moral and ethical stances, reinforcing the notion that leaders need a strong ethical and moral compass.

Decision makers

Decision making is an interesting characteristic of police leaders that emerged from the research literature, and on the one hand can be regarded much more as a leadership activity rather than a leadership characteristic, although we consider it a characteristic here. This is because the literature focuses on the ability to be able to make decisions rather than the content of those decisions per se. Decision making, and in particular being able to make decisions that lead to the achievement of goals was a recurrent theme (Schafer, 2008; 2010a; Andreescu and Vito, 2010; Atwater et al., 2000; Dantzker, 1996; Densten, 2003; Metcalfe and Dick, 2000; Dick, 2011; Murphy and Drodge, 2004). This may reflect a peculiarity about police perceptions of good leadership, and it is certainly intuitive that a key skill required in a *can do* profession like policing would be the ability to be decisive and achieve tangible outcomes. For example, Hoque et al. (2004) noted that in the advent of New Public Managerialism as a way of conceptualising the role of the public sector, that police forces in Australia had experienced a significant reshaping of organisational practices towards a greater emphasis on accounting and performance evaluation, with the police now more focussed on outputs, strategic goals, budgetary targets and performance indicators (Hoque et al., 2004). In short making decisions with tangible outcomes. Interestingly in a Canadian study by Murphy and Drodge (2004) the ability to make decisions and demonstrate leadership was not confined by rank. For example, one of their interview participants noted:

> "*You don't have to have rank. Ranks means nothing in the RCMP when it comes to actual leadership because that person sitting in that chair may have 3 stripes, 4 stripes or whatever, but they will get bypassed to go to the person that actually comes up with the solid decisions*". Murphy and Drodge (2004: 7)

Further, this study reported that the way leaders made their decisions played a role in their proving themselves through knowledge and action, in order to gain the respect of officers (Murphy and Drodge, 2004). Densten (2003) found that police executives, superintendents, and senior sergeants viewed their leaders as more effective when they did not abdicate responsibility or delay decision making. According to Schafer (2008), in his study with a cross section of middle managers in the US, it was not just the ability to make decisions but also the ability and willingness to make unpopular yet correct decisions that was important, although such decisions needed to be well informed and based on appropriate research. Moreover, in making their decisions police participants reflected that the process of leading change successfully "could not be achieved with command authority alone" (Meaklim and Simms, 2011: 28). This stands in interesting contradiction, it would seem, to the findings of Dick (2011) noted in the previous section, who found that certainty about the requirements of one's role was an important consideration for constables and senior ranks when evaluating good leadership. Whereas Meaklim and Simms' (2011) results suggest that leaders do not necessarily know the requirements of their subordinates' roles themselves, and that they engage in an iterative and experimental process of testing and re-testing their decisions, rather than committing with certainty to a given path.

Involving officers in the decision making process was regarded as a characteristic of good leadership, with the flow on benefit of increased organisational commitment (Metcalfe and Dick, 2000; Dick, 2011; Beck and Wilson, 1997; Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2010). Davies (2000) found that including officers in decision making led to greater job satisfaction. Wheatcroft et al. (2012) found that their sample of senior police noted that both participative and transactional leadership styles created a unified team approach where decisions could be collectively agreed. Following on from this is the notable finding from Silvestri (2007) that female police leaders engaged in a participative style of decision making intuitively, with an emphasis on consultation and delegation. She notes that this particular style conflicts with the traditional culture of police management that demands quick decision making. The police women interviewed by Silvestri acknowledged that consultative styles of decision making inevitably take longer, and that one consequence of this in a police setting was that it could lead to perceptions of their being inefficient or ineffective. Thus there seems to be a tension between what some police officers want from their leaders, and what the literature tells us about best practice in decision making.

Trustworthy

Trust and trustworthiness were often cited as important characteristics of a leader, with a need for leaders to act in ways to develop trust. In this sense trust is both a characteristic and an activity of police leaders. Discussions of trust in the literature extended to creating and promoting trust within the police organisation, as well as between the police and the community (Schafer, 2008; 2010b; Atwater et al., 2000; Beck and Wilson, 1997; Wheatcroft et al., 2012). Wheatcroft et al. (2012) concluded that trust was vital for creating effective working relationships in policing, and that the development of trust in an organisational relationship was influenced by the knowledge and experience of the leader (Wheatcroft et al. 2012). Echoing the findings reported in the preceding sections - and underscoring the overlap between the categories that we have chosen to report here - others found that the development of trust was engendered by interpersonal communication, leadership style, with an emphasis on debate, discussion and participation in decision making (Murphy and Drodge, 2004). Similarly, Bryman and Stephens (1996) defined leadership trust as having integrity, credibility and respect, meaning that it is closely related to being ethical and a role model.

Being trustworthy allows one to better benefit from having good communication skills, and to be able to have one's decisions adhered to. For example, Butterfield et al. (2004) noted that leaders needed to be able to implement and enact policies, and that this was dictated by the way they exercised their leadership in terms of communicating, problem solving, listening to suggestions, asking people's opinions, coaching and guiding, controlling lateness, absence, and quality. Schafer

(2008) echoed this point and noted that trust ensured that officers followed the vision and direction of their leaders, and that leaders who exude honesty and integrity demonstrate their trustworthiness (see also comments in O'Leary et al., 2011; Schafer 2010a).

Trustworthiness is a quality that goes both ways, however, and Vito et al. (2005), in assessing the exam answers of police middle managers attending a leadership program, noted that several claimed that they were unable to trust the ability of patrol officers to make community problem-solving decisions because they are too young and inexperienced. This, the authors concluded, inhibited community policing with little, if any, autonomy given to the individual police officer, and mistakes, when made, being punished rather than used as a basis for training and effective supervision. Wheatcroft et al. (2012) acknowledged that police leaders are faced with a difficult balancing act between trusting the knowledge and abilities of staff and managing the perceived or actual threats to the reputation of the organisation and individual. Beck and Wilson (1997) go further to note that trust plays an important role in fostering organisational commitment, and organisational commitment can be enhanced if police leaders demonstrate trust *in* their subordinates, for example by providing visible support for officers against malicious allegations made by the public. Thus there is a need for effective leaders to be both trustworthy and trusting as well.

The centrality of trust in leadership in this research drawing on police samples is unsurprising, considering the operational requirements faced by police to trust, implicitly, their superiors and peers for safety as they go about the inherently dangerous activities that make up policing in the 21st Century. Bryman and Stephens (1996), for example, conclude that the prominence given to leaders with integrity, credibility and the ability to inspire others is a reflection of the everyday exigencies of police work, which place a considerable premium on teamwork and commitment to the leader in what sometimes might be very difficult conditions.

Legitimate

Closely related to trust is the notion of legitimacy. We frequently hear about the need for legitimacy in terms of the organisation, with the need for policing to be seen as legitimate by the public, with flow on benefits for confidence in and cooperation with the police (see for example Murphy et al., 2008). But police leaders also need to be seen as legitimate inside the police organisation. This is most frequently described as the need for leaders to be seen as *good coppers* (Rowe, 2006; Schafer, 2008; 2010b; Silvestri, 2006; Duncan et al., 2001), knowing that a leader is able to *pound the beat*, and do the job of a front line officer. And in doing so illustrate that s/he truly understands what is involved in policing on a day to day basis, and can stand shoulder to shoulder with the front line staff s/he is charged with leading. The implications of an absence of this are alluded to by Duncan et al. (2001) who looked at the police leadership from the perspective of the rank and file and noted that in reforms in New Zealand police, the managers responsible for enacting the changes were perceived as being removed from the demands of day-to-day policing, which resulted in a lack of confidence and trust in management. Legitimacy in this sense is related, then, to *credibility*, and without this leaders were thought to have little hope of influencing behaviour and enacting change within their organisations. Rowe (2006) noted, for example, that improving the calibre of the individuals in senior positions will not, in and of itself, promote effective reform if those in subordinate positions do not recognise the legitimacy of those leaders and in failing to do so refuse to subscribe to the changes such leaders seek to make.

In this section we have summarised the literature assessed as part of this review, and have identified seven characteristics that are perceived to be key to effective leadership. These are being ethical, being a role model, having good communication skills, being a critical and creative thinker, being a decision maker, being trustworthy and being regarded as legitimate. In Table 6 we summarise these findings, and the research papers from which these key themes were drawn.

Table 6. Overview of research findings

Traits	**No. of Studies**	**Countries**	**Methodologies**	**Samples**
Ethical	13	UK, US, AUS, Canada	surveys; interviews; focus groups; observations	multiple ranks within the police organisation, civilian professionals and external stakeholders
Role Model	8	UK, US, AUS Canada, NZ	Surveys; focus groups; systematic observations; structured interviews	multiple ranks within the police organisation, civilian professionals and external stakeholders
Good communicators	16	UK, US, AUS, NZ, Canada	surveys, interviews, focus groups and mixed methodologies	multiple ranks within the police organisation both male and female officers; external stakeholders
Critical and creative thinking	6	UK, US, Canada	including survey, observations, interviews and focus groups	multiple ranks within the police organisation; external stakeholders
Decision making	10	US, AUS, UK, Canada	Survey, case study, interviews and mixed methodologies	multiple ranks within the police organisation
Trustworthiness	6	UK, US, AUS, Canada	case studies, surveys and interviews	multiple ranks within the police organisation
Legitimacy	6	UK, US, NZ, AUS, Canada	surveys; case study; interviews; observations	multiple ranks within the police organisation

What do police leaders do?

The second question we asked of the literature was *what do police leaders do?* What are the activities that set police leaders apart? There is some overlap between this question and the preceding one, and in answering it we consider not only the activities of police leaders but also the activities associated with various leadership styles. Thus whilst part of the answer, we do not focus solely on the typical day to day activities of police leaders, such as routine management oriented tasks, attending meetings or resolving personnel issues, and instead also consider the more visionary activities that police leaders carry out.

The activities undertaken by police leaders cited in the literature were wide and varied. Vito and Higgins (2010) noted that senior police leaders should spend their time developing and sharing their vision for the organisation, charting the journey by establishing strategic objectives and practising collaboration and delegation of tasks. In their study of police managers *enabling others to act* was the most dominant leadership practice. Thus police leaders should seek to empower their subordinates, sponsor their development and prepare them for excellent performance. In a similar vein O'Leary et al. (2011), drawing on focus groups with police and external stakeholders, noted that participants believed that leaders needed to demonstrate a commitment to a participatory style of management, commitment to community partnerships, be politically savvy but not politically motivated, and be inspirational. Atwater et al. (2000) conducted interviews with police to define good leadership behaviour and found that among other things being open to different perspectives and opinions, being able to accept feedback without becoming defensive, being aware of how behaviour affects others were important considerations. Further creating an atmosphere where subordinates felt free to say what they thought, and recognising the potential of others' ideas and trusting people to do their jobs were important behaviours.

Much has been written about the various leadership styles exhibited by police leaders. Engel (2001) identified four supervisory styles of sergeants in a sample of police from two departments, and concluded that a single style could not be regarded as ideal. Interestingly, when perceptions of effective leadership activities were compared by rank it emerged that different ranks required different things of their leaders. And that what passes for leadership at a senior level may not necessarily pass muster on the street (Bryman and Stephens, 1996). An Australian study by Densten (2003) found differences between ranks as to what constitutes an effective leadership style, taking *effective* to be when individuals exerted extra effort. Densten (2003) found that executives and superintendents exerted extra effort when their leader was absent (i.e. adopted a laissez-faire leadership approach), chief inspectors and inspectors exerted extra effort when their leader negotiated and clarified a reward system, chief inspectors, inspectors and senior sergeants exerted extra effort when their leaders encouraged creativity and innovation, and executives, superintendents, and senior sergeants all exerted extra effort when their leaders instilled a sense of mission and vision. Finally Densten (2003) found that senior sergeants exert extra effort when their leaders acted as a strong role model. Echoing this, Bryman and Stephens (1996) conclude that lower ranking officers overwhelmingly endorsed an instrumental leadership approach, which was one that focussed on the task at hand and provided sufficient resources to achieve that task by clarifying expectations, assigning specific tasks, and specifying procedures to be followed. This, they argue, is most relevant to a street-level role, which is inherently dangerous and unpredictable. They contend that street-level officers are suspicious of activities that are not properly resourced or explained by their supervisors. Bryman and Stephens conclude that the attraction of instrumental leadership is that it promises clear, attainable objectives and a perception that one is able to maintain effective operational control of the task with danger and unpredictability lessened. They go on to say that street level officers will only give their wholehearted support where a chief's vision does not interfere with the continuance of instrumental leadership at the sharp end of policing (Bryman and Stephens, 1996). By comparison, Singer and Singer (1990) found that leadership behaviours in a New Zealand police sample were significantly more transformational than transactional, and that police officers preferred the transformational leadership style. Murphy and Drodge (2004) in Canada and Andreescu and Vito (2010) in the US reported similar findings in samples of higher ranking officers, indicating that this preference was not just amongst the rank and file. Andreescu and Vito (2010) identified three leadership styles in their analysis of survey responses from police managers: transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership. Characteristics of transformational leadership proved more popular than the other two among the police middle managers who responded to the survey. Andreescu and Vito (2010) conclude that police managers want the best of both worlds from their leaders: they want leaders to reconcile conflicting demands for subordinates, to assume a leadership role, to be persuasive, to define expectations from followers, to take care of their followers and recognise their contributions, to predict future outcomes effectively, but not to push followers for higher levels of productivity.

An Australian study by Densten (1999) concluded that police leaders relied too heavily on transactional leadership, and in particular management-by-exception. Management-by-exception is a style that concentrates only on correcting deviations from the status quo. On the one hand this leadership style is of value in a process-driven organisation such as the police, where deviations from set out processes and procedures need to be corrected to maintain organisational order. But such leadership arguably restricts policing's ability to change, because leaders are focused on maintaining the status quo. This means they are unable to be responsive to community demands, and are unable to generate the extra effort required by employees to address these. Moreover, transactional styles of leadership, where a leader rewards or disciplines followers dependent on the adequacy of their performance requires leaders to have enough resources (e.g. time) to either ensure all the job requirements are achieved, or to negotiate all aspects of the job requirements for their followers (Densten, 1999). Thus despite there being a relatively high follower satisfaction with the certainty found in such a leadership approach, Densten (1999) concludes that it is less likely to significantly influence rank and file officers and any process of change within their organization. Densten favours instead a transformational leadership style, focusing on inspiring followers to put their self-interest aside for the good of the organisation, emphasising the value of organisational goals, mobilising the efforts of followers to implement change, and setting a moral example that builds on the ethical motives of followers (see Bass, 1983; Bass and Riggio, 2006).

We have already noted that Vito et al. (2011) provide another view, noting that when they surveyed police middle managers, a servant leadership style was the leadership style they most preferred from their own leaders, above an autocratic (command and control) leadership, and laissez -faire (hands-off) leadership approach. This leadership style involves satisfying the needs of followers, establishing positive relationships based on respect and trust, consultation with subordinates and valuing subordinates ideas and input. Servant leaders are less concerned with their personal power and devoted to leadership through the provision of service to others. Servant leaders put the needs of their followers above their own and avoid taking advantage of followers. Offering another view, Girodo (1998) compared leadership styles amongst police managers engaged in different roles and found that a Machiavellian style of leadership was more frequently reported by managers in administration compared to managers in training and community-oriented shift positions, which exhibited features consistent with a more transformational style. Machiavellian leadership can be regarded as a manipulative leadership style in which 'the ends justify the means', where a leader does whatever is necessary for their own personal success (see Minett et al., 2009). Girodo concluded that different leadership styles are used where different opportunities call for them. As we have already alluded, but it bears repeating here, that there are gender differences too in leadership styles. In interviews with senior police women, Silvestri (2007) uncovered that participants reported that they were more likely to engage in a transformational style, which valued participation, consultation, inclusion and communication.

Whilst this discussion about preferred leadership styles is important, it does not provide insight into the activities that good leaders undertake. Despite the variations across the research literature, we can distil findings into five activities that are characteristic, being:

- Problem solving
- Creating a shared vision
- Engendering organisational commitment
- Caring for subordinates
- Driving and managing change.

As before, we deal with each one in turn.

Problem solving

A hoped for corollary of decision making (discussed earlier) is problem solving – assuming of course that the decisions an individual is making are designed to solve problems. Nonetheless problem solving was an oft-cited activity required of leaders (Silvestri, 2007; Butterfield et al., 2004; Butterfield et al., 2005; Miller et al., 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011; Atwater et al., 2000; Meaklim and Sims, 2011; Davenport, 1999; Davies, 2000; Davies and Thomas, 2003). This could be a negative as well as a positive, however, with recent research with police command officers in the US noting a leadership focus on cleaning up problems rather than preventing crime (O'Leary et al., 2011). This, the authors argue, emphasises the reactionary approach to problem solving, or *firefighting*, whereas problem solving in the format that we mean it here refers to proactive problem solving. Davies and Thomas (2003) noted that as a result of the New Public Management (NPM) agenda, police leaders needed to be more 'problem-oriented' meaning that they needed to emphasise mentoring, coaching, and facilitating. As such, NPM had dictated new core leadership and managerial competencies, including following correct procedure, striving for high standards of performance, having strategic and leadership skills, as well as being ethical. They say a need for a new type of police manager, with skills for managing performance and managing people instead of the historical focus on managing incidents. That problem solving should be a collaborative affair was noted by Atwater et al. (2000), who concluded that good leaders involve subordinates in problem solving and decision making. As noted previously, Silvestri (2007) found that this was intuitive for many female police leaders, who engaged in a different type of problem solving to their male counterparts. Specifically they engaged in a more participative and collaborative approach.

Creating a shared vision

Creating a shared vision - also referred to in the literature as *inspirational motivation* - is one of the key activities within a transformational leadership approach. This involves setting, developing and sharing a vision for the organisation that creates a sense of purpose for followers (Vito and Higgins, 2010; Andreescu and Vito, 2010; Bryman and Stephens, 1996; Butterfield et al., 2005; Densten 1999; 2002; 2003; 2005; Engel, 2001; O'Leary et al., 2011; Schafer, 2008; Vito et al., 2011; Davies, 2000; Miller et al., 2009; Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2010; Murphy and Drodge, 2004; Duncan et al., 2001). This rests heavily on the good communication characteristic mentioned in the previous section, as it requires individuals to be able to communicate their vision and engender buy in amongst subordinates. Creating a shared vision shares similarities too with being a role model, because it involves a leader acting as a role model to effectively articulate a vision through their actions as well as their words.

Engender organisational commitment

Related to creating a shared vision is engendering organisational commitment. Organisational commitment is the degree to which individuals identify with their organisation and its goals, show willingness to invest effort and internalise managerial values (O'Reilly, 1991). Organisational commitment was found to be a strong and reliable predictor of job satisfaction, performance and retention (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005), whilst it is notable that low levels of organisational commitment are a problem for many police forces (Beck and Wilson, 1997). Densten (2002), drawing on data from a survey of senior officers who were asked about their supervision by other senior leaders, concluded that leaders should consider using image-based inspirational motivation more frequently to encourage extra effort from followers, by using image-laced words such as 'sweat' 'heart', 'frontier' 'imagine' and 'explore'. Certainly, as noted by Beck and Wilson (1997) in their large survey of an Australian police force, communication is key, and they concluded that in order to improve organizational commitment senior management needed to concentrate on improving their own image, while enhancing personal communication with first line supervisors, who are the most disenfranchised yet had responsibility for setting the tone amongst the rank and file.

In a follow up to his 2002 paper, Densten (2005) compared two facets of inspirational motivation, being concept-based and image-based. Concept-based inspirational motivation involved the use of language to communicate bottom-line goals or standards and provide a strategic focus for followers. Whereas image-based inspirational motivation involved using language to create vivid ideas, visions or images in the minds of followers to provide a sense-making focus (Densten, 2005). Densten concluded that concept-based inspirational motivation reduced emotional exhaustion by clarifying the roles followers are required to play, and that image-based inspirational motivation aided the ability of individuals to cope with burnout by improving their feelings of personal accomplishment. To say the same thing another way, clarifying what constitutes accomplishment helped individuals cope with the inaccurate and inappropriate 'professional mystique' of their occupation, and reduced disillusionment. Thus the promotion of a realistic image or understanding of a job is a 'powerful preventive strategy' for burnout (Densten, 2005: 114).

Metcalfe and Dick's (2000) study of one British police force found that constables had lowest level of organisational commitment, with senior ranks having higher levels, although higher commitment was consistently found in officers with strong management and organisational support. They found that management support was heavily influence by the effectiveness of a supervisor's or line manager's interpersonal skills, which takes us back again to the key characteristic of good communication skills noted earlier. A subsequent paper by Metcalfe and Dick (2001) found that for constables and senior staff, organisational commitment was determined most strongly by organisational support (the opportunity to participate in decision making), followed by management support (feeling one had the support of one's seniors) and performance appraisal (getting satisfactory feedback on performance). According to Metcalfe and Dick (2001) management support was heavily influenced by the management approach of supervisors or line managers, including actions such as encouraging teamwork, participation, personal development as well as providing feedback on role and performance. They concluded that this has implications for policing:

> *In contrast to senior officers the majority of constables, special constables and cadets report lower levels of commitment indicating more negative work experiences. This should concern police managers because where commitment levels are low this often means that individuals have a negative attitude towards the organisation and are less likely to change or identify with the goals and values of the organisation. (Metcalfe and Dick, 2001: 824)*.

Peterson et al. (2012) found that in order to reduce negative emotions amongst followers, leaders needed to utilise an authentic leadership style. Police leaders and followers who worked for an authentic leader reported more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions than those who worked for a less authentic leader (Peterson et al. 2012). The study concluded that authentic leaders created the conditions of emotional social support by encouraging the questioning of decisions in an open and transparent fashion, displaying self-awareness, building trusting relationships, and promoting authentic behaviours in followers. Dick (2011) also found that the way in which officers were managed had the strongest influence on their organisational commitment, finding that constables and senior ranks valued the opportunity to participate in decision making; to receive good communication of job requirements; and good communication on job performance, and that these factors contributed to shaping their organisational commitment. Similarly, Murphy and Drodge (2004) found that leaders who adopted a transformational leadership style had particular relationship strengths that served to elevate levels of commitment, work satisfaction, and motivation. And Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008) found that collaborative leadership practices that involved employees in decision-making increased commitment and productivity. This study identified improvements in employees' perceptions of work conditions, labour-management relations, commitment, and community-oriented policing, as well as increases in discretionary police activity. The authors also found that the introduction of a shared leadership approach improved officers' perceptions of senior management, improved vertical communications and led to employees displaying more motivation and pride in their agency. In particular employees regarded organizational processes as more predictable and transparent and felt they had more opportunity to participate in agency decisions and that their input was seriously considered (Steinheider and Wuestewald 2008). In 2004 which was the first full year of the new leadership approach, patrol officers made 24 per cent more arrests of all types, issued six per cent more traffic citations, and carried out 51 per cent more field interviews compared to the preceding four-year mean. Detectives cleared 34 per cent more cases in 2004 compared to the mean of the preceding four years, and a comparison of citizen survey data from 1998 to 2006 indicated steadily increasing levels of citizen satisfaction with the police, rising from 58 per cent in 1998 to 93 per cent in 2006 (Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008).

In summary, then, by considering the way officers are managed, and by providing support to subordinates, promoting collaboration and giving them a voice in decision making, empowering subordinates, and providing appropriate feedback about their job role and performance managers can influence organisational commitment, which is closely related to productivity, and furthering the organisation's objectives (Vito and Higgins, 2010; Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008; Metcalfe and Dick, 2000; Beck and Wilson, 1997; Dick, 2011; Johnson 2012a; 2012b).

Care for subordinates

Care for subordinates – sometimes referred to as *individualised consideration* – is another important transformational leadership skill that was widely reported in the literature (Andreescu and Vito, 2010; Schafer, 2010a; Bryman and Stephens, 1996; Densten, 1999; 2003; Metcalfe and Dick, 2000; Vito and Higgins, 2010; Davies, 2000; Davies and Thomas, 2003; Butterfield et al., 2004; Moore, 1994; Murphy and Drodge, 2004; Singer and Singer, 1990). This involves exercising leadership that is concerned with subordinates as individuals, requiring leaders to seek out and provide development opportunities for staff, as well as engage in coaching and mentoring (Densten, 2003). Also of importance was displaying concern for the comfort, wellbeing, status and contribution of followers, demonstrating compassion and respect and seeking to create connectedness through collaboration, and the modelling of a good work-life balance (Fleming, 2004). We have already noted that productivity is related to the way in which individuals are managed, and Beck and Wilson (1997) conclude that organisational commitment could be increased by recognising the performance of subordinates, providing praise and feedback, involving subordinates in decision making, and by demonstrating confidence in staff in the public arena (for example in response to malicious complaints and bad media coverage).

There seems to be some variation in the literature about whether there is a difference between the ranks in the relative importance of care for subordinates. In a study from Canada, Murphy and Drodge (2004) interviewed police at multiple ranks from constable to superintendent and concluded that leaders must be genuinely concerned for the needs of their followers. Similarly, in a study from the UK, Bryman and Stephens (1996) interviewed police at all ranks from constable through to middle managers and chief constables, and found that in the opinion of these groups, the degree to which a leader considered the needs of each follower was an important factor consideration when making judgements about effective leadership, and an important omission in examples of ineffective leadership (discussed in greater detail below). By comparison, drawing on a survey of police officers in Australia about the leadership they experienced Densten (2003) found care for subordinates to only be an important consideration at the rank of senior sergeant, and in particular in relation to providing opportunities for coaching and mentoring.

Fleming (2004), in reporting an interview with a (then) serving police commissioner from the Australian Federal Police, noted that there was a need for police leaders to see policing more holistically, and that in considering the wellbeing of individuals, organisational objectives could be better reached. The police commissioner in question - Mick Keelty - noted that the average age of the policing executive in his force was 40, with 20 years of working life still ahead of them. There was a need for the organisation to provide effective stimulation for this group who would not all progress to being a commissioner. The commissioner noted further that 70 per cent of the workforce in this jurisdiction had tertiary qualifications and that, therefore, the role of the leader was to stimulate a highly educated workforce in new ways: "We will need to look for opportunities for them to build on their existing skills" (Keelty, cited in Fleming, 2004: 322). A similar comment was made by Moore (1994) in the US, who noted a key challenge for management was to ensure that policing was sufficiently satisfying to keep the best younger members in the department.

Somewhat related to care for subordinates is care for oneself, and work-life balance was noted in some of the literature reviewed as an important consideration for leaders. For example, Davies (2000) noted that long working hours or *presenteeism* was found among superintendents, and was thought hard to resist without being considered a *shirker.* In their research, Davies and Thomas (2003) concluded that presenteeism was not limited to sworn staff, and that civilian managers also feel the pressures to conform. Similarly Rainguet and Dodge (2001) in their interviews with ten police chiefs explored reasons for short tenure and high turnover in the US, and concluded that this was because of health concerns, stress, political and personal issues, and that given this there was a high need for resilience. It is debateable whether we should consider resilience as a separate category under the characteristics required of police leaders, and in this document we have not chosen to do so because of the relatively small number of articles in which it was noted.

Drive and manage change

The final activity characteristic of leadership found in the literature was driving and managing change, which moves the role of the leader from one of managing the status quo to enacting and achieving reform (Densten, 1999; Davenport, 1999; Bryman and Stephen, 1996; Butterfield et al., 2004; 2005; Davies, 2000; Fleming and Lafferty, 2000; Miller et al., 2009; Silvestri, 2007; Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2010; Vito et al., 2005; Brodeur, 2005; Duncan et al., 2001; Clarke 2006). How well leaders take on new roles and responsibilities such as change agent, facilitator, and motivator can have a major impact on the success of any change effort, and is linked to the ability of a police leader to exercise influence (Densten 1999). An important note made by Schafer (2009) is that efforts to enhance or change police agencies is predicated on the abilities of leaders to properly manage, engage, and monitor subordinate personnel. Duncan et al. (2001) noted that in order to have a successful change program, police leaders needed to develop and align a shared mindset by communicating a vision that appealed to the organisation’s culture, returning us to the notion of communication and generating a shared vision that we discussed earlier. The authors concluded that in order to enable institutionalisation of change it was critical that leaders motivate and encourage ownership of the change process and outcomes (Duncan et al. 2001). Further, Vito et al. (2005), in their analysis of exam answers submitted by middle managers attending a leadership program, note that it is not just the responsibility of chief executives to enact change, and that organisationally it is the middle managers who have the responsibility of operationalizing the goals and objectives handed down. Lafferty and Fleming (2000) make the point that organisational change may not be well received amongst rank and file officers and may have the impact of coalescing this group against management. They go on to describe such a situation occurring in Victoria in 1999, when the Police Federation of Australia passed a no confidence motion against the police commissioner whose attempts at organisational change had been opposed by rank and file officers. Lafferty and Fleming (2000) go on to conclude that as a result, senior police may be unwilling to implement reforms that they perceive as potentially undermining their positions, with a preference, perhaps, for the easier route of maintaining the status quo.

In this section we have considered what it is that police leader's do that makes them leaders. The literature we reviewed suggested five activities of successful leaders: Problem solving, creating a shared vision, engendering organisational commitment, caring for subordinates, and driving and managing change. Table 7 below summarises these findings and provides information on the literature from which these conclusions are drawn.

Table 7. Overview of research findings

Actions	No. of Studies	Countries	Methodologies	Samples
Problem solving	9	US, UK	surveys, interviews, secondary analysis, focus groups and mixed methodologies	multiple ranks within the police organisation
Creating a shared vision	16	US, UK, AUS, Canada, NZ	surveys, interviews, focus groups, case studies, secondary data analysis	multiple ranks within the police and external stakeholders
Engendering organisational commitment	12	US, UK, AUS, Canada	Surveys, interviews, case study using archival data	multiple ranks within the police organisation
Care for subordinates	13	UK, US, AUS, Canada, NZ	surveys, focus groups, interviews and case studies	multiple ranks within the police organisation civilians
Drive and manage change	20	UK, US, AUS, NZ, Canada	surveys, questionnaires, case studies, secondary data analysis and interviews	multiple ranks within the police organisation

Ineffective leadership

Following the foregoing discussion about good leaders and good leadership, it makes sense to consider the literature in terms of what is known about ineffective, or poor, leaders. In some regards ineffective leadership can be considered the absence of the aforementioned characteristics and activities that make up good, or effective, leadership (see for example Schafer, 2010a). For example, Bryman and Stephens (1996), following their conclusion that effective leadership was regarded by the rank and file to be instrumental leadership, conclude that the absence of instrumental leadership is defined as ineffective leadership amongst their sample. Thus an ineffective leader is regarded by junior police as one who does not give clear direction as to how work should be done, and does not provide the resources to undertake that work. Densten (2003) concluded that chief inspectors viewed leaders as less effective when they negotiate reward for effort, although along with inspectors he also found that chief inspectors expended extra effort when their leader negotiated with them and clarified the effort required for specific rewards. This tells us more about the leadership preferences of chief inspectors and inspectors, perhaps, than it does about effective and ineffective leadership, suggesting that whilst a reward system of leadership might not be popular amongst these ranks, it seems to be effective in generating additional effort from them.

Schafer (2008) noted that his sample of middle managers at the FBI National Academy saw ineffective leaders as having poor communication skills, a lack of interpersonal skills or compassion for others, a rigid leadership style, no vision, and to not include others in decision making, spending their time managing and micromanaging. Schafer (2008) goes on to talk about the intrinsic motivation of ineffective leaders, noting that they tend to be motivated by their personal self-interests, and seek positions of authority because they enjoy the power, prestige, status, or money not because they have the desire to serve the needs of the organisation. In subsequent research Schafer (2009) concluded that ineffective leaders demoralised subordinates and co-workers, presented a poor image of the agency within the community, and served as poor role models for future generations. This led him to conclude in his 2010 paper (Schafer, 2010b) that ineffective leaders exhibited behaviours that undermined and eroded followers’ sense of trust, legitimacy, and confidence.

Sometimes ineffective leadership can be less about the leadership style per se and more about the management and leadership *climate*. Davenport (1999) noted that external environmental factors influenced the ability of leaders to be effective in achieving their goals, arguing that performance was in part constrained by external conditions that could not be altered by managers. Butterfield et al. (2004) consider the role that New Public Management (NPM) had on delivering leadership outcomes, and concluded that the political control of resources meant that centralist performance indicators were used to control the activities of sergeants. The consequence of this was that sergeants and their constables were unable to display the flexibility, customer focus and leadership and entrepreneurial behaviours extolled by the advocates of NPM, with the application of generic standardized performance indicators adversely affecting the ability of sergeants to react to local issues and demands effectively. Moreover the introduction of NPM in policing led to sergeants spending more time as front line management and less time *supervising* constables on the street with the introduction of performance measures encouraging sergeants to spend time on those aspects of their role that were measured. Butterfield et al. concluded that because of the time constraints that NPM put on sergeants, the ability of sergeants to provide leadership and support for their constables was limited, and police constables instead relied upon their peer group as a source of training, mentoring and support (Butterfield et al., 2005). Similar comments were made by Moore (1994) with regards community policing, wherein he concluded that there was tension between “the sources of authorisation for police power, the perceived goals of any police agency, the current structure, administration and culture of that agency, the public demands made of police, the economic, technological and political environment in which the public police agency operates, the tactics chosen to achieve the agency's goals, and the outcomes actually achieved” (p206).

What is the best way to develop police leaders?

The third question asked of the literature was what do we know about the best ways to prepare leaders for their role? There was little in the research that we reviewed that shed light on this, which is a limitation well documented in the literature itself. For example in a review of police leadership and training in the UK, Neyroud notes that the "research on training…showed an uncomfortable lack of evidence on the effectiveness of police training approaches" and that there was "a lack of systematic studies looking at different approaches to police training" (2010: 40). In our literature, research found that good leadership development was perceived to be best encouraged through a combination of education, experience, and mentorship (Schafer 2009; 2010a). Specifically building an understanding of leadership principles (education and training), providing constructive experiences (mentoring and feedback) and showing officers how effective leaders operate (modelling) were considered powerful influences on leadership development (Schafer 2009). In earlier research by Schafer (2008) middle managers concluded that having the opportunity to practice as a leader and encounter some failures was a fundamental component of development, although this of course requires that current leaders provide subordinates with the freedom to practice and make mistakes, which is not always comfortable to do.

Murphy (2006) examined the motivations of rank and file officers to become executives in a large Canadian police force and the efficacy of the succession management system. Interestingly, it was found that officers felt they did not receive the coaching and mentoring they needed and that this affected their chances of success in the executive development program. This study identified that one of the key challenges in developing future leaders was to provide officers with a clear understanding of the impact and role that they play as executives (Murphy, 2006). Murphy concludes that this understanding should be taught at basic training, with recruits trained in some of the intricacies and challenges associated with managing a diverse organisation at a strategic level. Thus, implicitly, this study proposed that leadership development start early in the career of a police officer, rather than waiting until officers have already achieved higher ranks. In a similar vein, Gaston and King's (1995) survey of sergeants in one police force discovered that whilst valuable leadership skills could be gained from acting in a higher duties capacity, sergeants would like a break between this and being formally promoted, to allow time to reflect on the experience. Gaston and King (1995) also noted that sergeants would like the opportunity to attend a *newly promoted officer's course* as close as possible to their promotion, whereas in practice this tended to come some months after the promotion itself.

One source of evidence about what works in leadership development not assessed as part of this systematic literature review, but which bears noting here nonetheless, is a Rapid Evidence Review undertaken by Kodz and Campbell in 2010. This rapid evidence review was similar in set up to the systematic review we have undertaken here, although the focus of the review was "what works in leadership development?" Presaging the conclusion drawn by Neyroud (2010), Kodz and Campbell concluded that there were two key limitations in the research literature examining what works in leadership development: that there was a lack of robust leadership development evaluations, with data relating to police leadership training limited to perception evidence only; and that evidence from other public sector organisations related to such a wide variety of leadership development activities it was difficult to draw definitive conclusions. Nonetheless, Kodz and Campbell conclude that the available evidence suggests that leadership development increases an individual's knowledge about leadership, and can have beneficial outcomes for organisational performance, behaviour change and career progression, and are generally regarded by those attending and evaluating them to be effective. Echoing the findings presented by Schafer (2009; 2010a) in the US, promising learning methods drawn from this Rapid Evidence Review included reflective learning and action learning in particular, learning from peers and leaders, and facilitated learning in syndicates.

The value of syndicates and learning from one's peers was also noted in Meaklim and Simms' (2011) qualitative assessment of a leadership program. They noted that their entire sample appreciated learning alongside other relevant disciplines, as this reflected the reality of their work situations, and increased their understanding of how other agencies thought and acted. Overwhelmingly, participants were keen to see an even greater diversity of organisations represented on the program and felt that they needed to increase their understanding of other organisations' perspectives in order to be best placed to negotiate and influence situations. Gaston and King (1995) too noted the importance of learning about organisations outside the law enforcement family in their survey of sergeants in one police force, who acknowledged the potential benefits to be gained from learning about managerial practices and training found in organisations other than their own. In addition to working in syndicates, Devine (2012) advocated the use of a case study approach for leadership development. By undertaking an evaluation of a leadership program at Westpoint, Devine concluded that a case study approach in addition to the application of an intellectual procedure model was the best way to undertake leadership development and training. The intellectual procedure serves as a model for processing a case study in a rational manner by following a series of defined steps. Devine (2012) found that 91 per cent of graduates believed that the case study methodology enhanced their ability to learn leadership. In addition, 86 per cent perceived that the application of the intellectual procedure to the case studies facilitated learning.

Darr and Catano (2008) suggest that managers who receive multi-score feedback as part of their development, pay most attention to the feedback they receive from supervisors and peers. Atwater et al. (2000) assessed the impact of a 360 degree style feedback loop on supervisors' self-rated leadership and commitment to staff. Supervisors who received feedback from subordinates about their leadership subsequently lowered their self-ratings of leadership, suggesting that feedback from subordinates can result in more realistic self-assessments of leadership ability. There were no improvements in subordinate ratings following this feedback, however, suggesting that any changes made as a result of this *upward feedback loop* did not lead to noticeable improvements in leadership behaviour in their eyes. Interestingly Atwater et al. (2000) noted that commitment to subordinates could be predicted by the type of feedback a leader receives. Lower ratings from subordinates provided as *upward feedback* to the leader resulted in lower subsequent commitment to subordinates. Whereas higher subordinate ratings resulted in higher commitment to subordinates. This suggests that negative feedback given to a leader by his/her subordinates can have a negative impact on subsequent attitudes to those subordinates, which should be borne in mine when undertaking 360 degree style evaluations of leadership in policing. This is particularly important in light of research suggesting the importance that demonstrating care for subordinates can have for effective leadership. That said, there was also a correlation in Atwater et al.'s work between commitment to subordinates and the way in which feedback was received, suggesting supervisors committed to their subordinates were more likely to take feedback seriously and react in a positive manner irrespective of whether that feedback was positive or not (Atwater et al., 2000). Feedback from supervisors and senior officers was also important, as Beck and Wilson (1997) note in concluding that their sample were clear in their desire for more positive feedback from those to whom they report.

We have spent the last few pages reporting on what the research literature says about police leaders and police leadership. We have asked who are police leaders, what do police leaders do, and what is the best way to develop them? The literature is complex, and often contradictory, so with this in mind we spend the next couple of pages consolidating findings in terms of two further questions: Do these questions about leadership vary by rank? And do these questions about leadership vary by country?

Do these leadership questions vary by rank?

Leadership is a dynamic process and effective leadership is exercised by police managers in different ways, depending on their rank (Baker, 2006). Differences exist in relation to what constitutes effective leadership and also preferred leadership styles at each level. There were commonalities too however. For example, Andreescu and Vito's (2010) sergeants listed role assumption as the second most important characteristic of an ideal leader, relating to the need for leaders actively exercising the leadership role rather than surrendering it to others, although higher-ranking police managers in this sample found nine other characteristics more important. In a similar vein, Densten (2003) found that police executives, superintendents, and senior sergeants viewed leaders as more effective when they did not abdicate responsibility or delay decisions, suggesting that based on this research, leaders assuming the role of a leader is an important consideration for higher ranking officers also.

Creating a shared vision was a finding where there was some inconsistency across the ranks. For example, Bryman and Stephens (1996) found that constables and sergeants placed very little importance on the attributes of vision. They concluded that vision had its place but it is the property of the most senior ranks, and that what passes for leadership at this higher level may not translate to the street. Supporting this, Densten (2003) found that senior sergeants, inspectors and chief inspectors viewed their leaders as effective if they are observed using behaviours consistent with idealised influence, which is linked to creating and sharing a vision. This importance of vision for senior ranks was further reinforced by Densten's finding that executives, superintendents, and senior sergeants all exerted extra effort when their leaders instilled a sense of mission and vision.

Managing and driving change - featuring in 20 studies from the US, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand - was another area with differences noted between the ranks. Bryman and Stephens found that constables and sergeants placed very little value on 'change orientation' as a characteristic of effective leadership, referring to ways in which leaders are responsive to wider changes, looking for new ways to operate and embracing innovation. This was not the case for senior police. Densten (2003), who equated effective leadership with follower's ability to exert extra effort, found that chief inspectors, inspectors and senior sergeants exerted extra effort when their leaders encouraged creativity and innovation. Admittedly there is a methodological difference here between Bryman and Stephens' perceptions of effective leadership, and Densten's measure of effectiveness through the exertion of extra effort, but it is noteworthy that Bryman and Stephens conclude that change orientation was not a valued characteristic of leaders unless the change that they sought to introduce suited the purposes of the rank and file. This reflects the different preoccupations of rank and file and senior managers, we think, and Bryman and Stephens conclude that a low emphasis on change orientation is not surprising in an organisation that is hierarchical, respects authority, rank and command. Instead the organisation at this low level values getting the job done, common-sense and leading with bravery (Bryman and Stephens, 1996).

Do these leadership questions vary by country?

With a few exceptions, the findings from our systematic review are broadly reflected across the United States, UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada (see tables 6 and 7 above). That said, the notion of leaders engaging in problem solving was only found in literature from the UK and US; there was no research from New Zealand that reported on the leadership characteristics of ethical leadership, trustworthiness, critical and creative thinking, decision making, and engendering organisational commitment; and critical and creative thinking was not reflected in the literature from Australia. It would be erroneous to conclude, however, that these characteristics were not important for leadership in these countries. For example, there are only two studies from New Zealand, six studies from Canada and only ten from Australia. Given the small sample it is difficult for these studies to be comprehensive and reflect all of the aspects of leadership found in the literature elsewhere. This does, however, highlight an area for further research, and underscores the fact that much of what we know about police leadership across the world comes from research undertaken in the US.

What do police organisations want from their police leaders?

Before we conclude our review it is prudent to draw attention to work being undertaken in the Australian and New Zealand context by police jurisdictions to better define what is required from police leaders at all levels of policing organisations. There are two prongs to this work. The first is driven by police jurisdictions in line with the Australian and New Zealand Police Leadership Strategy (ANZPLS). The second relates to complementary work around Police Practice Standards being undertaken by the Australian and New Zealand Police Advisory Agency (ANZPAA). The ANZPLS is a development program for senior police, to ensure that there is a crop of senior police available across Australia and New Zealand. As part of this strategy a capability framework has been developed, with the support of the commissioners across the region, to ensure that the expectations of police in one jurisdiction at a given rank are the same in another. This, it is thought, will facilitate greater movement between organisations. This capability framework is essentially a list of activities that are required of police leaders. The framework consists of six core competencies:

- Employing policing skills
- Shaping strategic direction
- Achieving results
- Building and managing relationships
- Communicating with influence
- Exemplifying personal drive and integrity

Each of these competencies has a number of indicators (see table 8 below) that further elaborates on what is wanted from police leaders. The findings from our review largely reflect that found in the ANZPLS capability framework. For example, exemplifying personal drive and integrity encapsulates notions that are consistent with our review findings in terms of role modelling, demonstrating legitimacy and encouraging ethical, honest and professional behaviours. Further, the ANZPLS maintains that police leaders need to be able to shape strategic direction, which is consistent with our findings in terms of creating a sense of vision, establishing partnerships, problem solving, and driving and managing change.

Table 8. Comparison of ANZPLS and findings from this systematic review

ANZPLS CAPABILITY FRAMEWORK FACTOR	ANZPLS INDICATORS	REVIEW FINDINGS
Shapes strategic direction	Inspires a sense of purpose and direction; focuses strategically; initiates and drives change	Engages in problem solving, creates a sense of vision, drives and manages change, acknowledges role of the community, increases organisational commitment through communication of vision
Achieves results	Drives service delivery; manage work area and resources; builds organisational capability	Drives and manages change, achieves results through decision making, builds organisational capability through developing staff
Builds and manages relationships	Treats everyone with respect; facilitates cooperation and partnerships; guides, coaches and develops people	Demonstrates care for subordinates and encourages organisational commitment, acknowledges the importance of partnerships, importance of coaching staff and providing feedback
Communicates with influence	Communicates clearly and effectively; adapts communication to audience; negotiates persuasively	Good communication both within the organisation and externally, the ability to communicate vision and use communication to inspire and motivate others, engaging in problem solving by communicating with others
Exemplifies personal drive and integrity	Demonstrates and encourages professionalism; demonstrates self-awareness and a commitment to personal development; displays resilience; manages all official information appropriately and securely	Good leaders are perceived to be ethical, trustworthy, act as a role model and exemplify legitimacy. The importance of modelling honest, ethical and professional behaviours. Modelling work-life balance.

The second area of work being undertaken in the Australian and New Zealand context is the work of ANZPAA, who are developing Police Practice Standards for each level of policing, to inform training curricula and provide a degree of consistency between organisations. This work is in its early stages, and as such we are unable to report on it here, but it remains an area to watch for those interested in how police organisations articulate what it is that they want from their police leaders.

It bears noting here also that a related piece of work is being undertaken by the authors at the AIPM, examining, through qualitative interviews with police leaders across the world, what is needed from them in practice. This work is ongoing, and findings will inform the further development of the ANZPLS, as well as the police leadership development opportunities offered at the AIPM. Findings from this research will be available in 2014.

Limitations of the systematic review

In concluding our systematic literature review, it is important to note the limits of this work, both in terms of the literature reviewed, and the approach that was adopted. Within the literature there was a heavy reliance on surveys for the collection of data, and reliance within these on officer perceptions about leadership, rather than objective measures of leadership per se. There were no studies containing robust research designs such as randomised control trials. On the one hand this is not unexpected as leadership research does not tend to lend itself to this type of design, although such designs are not impossible to achieve. This does mean, however, that within the current literature, establishing *what works*, or what good leadership is, beyond individual perceptions, is difficult to ascertain. There was also a lack of outcome research, and that which assessed the impact of leadership on operational or organisational outcomes, as well as a lack of clarity about how we might measure leadership and the performance of leaders. Is it sufficient to measure this through subordinate opinion? Should measures of organisational productivity be used instead? In a policing context is it as simple as measuring reductions in crime? We think that the intervening variables limit the utility of such measures.

A further limitation of the literature was its focus, and specifically that there was little that talked about leadership in policing from the unsworn perspective. Unsworn or civilian staff are a key part of policing organisations and this is a valuable area for future research. On a similar note, there was little commentary about women leaders in policing, with the literature largely male dominated, which may not be surprising given the slow pace with which women have entered executive ranks within the police (Moore, 1994). Nonetheless this represents an area for future research, particularly if Silvestri (2007) is correct when she notes that leadership undertaken by women is qualitatively different to that undertaken by men.

There are also limitations to the methodology we adopted for this systematic review. First, when collating the literature we chose to focus on that relating to policing only. We could have drawn on the vast body of work examining leadership in the public and private sectors more broadly, but took the decision to focus on policing to establish what is known about this particular domain. Future reviews of the literature may want to address this gap and focus on the public and private sectors as well. Second, in relation to the search terms selected for the review, additions could have been made here to increase the breadth of the systematic searches. For example, the terms “police chief”, “chief of police”, “sheriff” and “chief constable” could have been valuable terms for the most senior ranks in the US, Canada and the UK. Also arguably a limitation is that we chose not to exclude papers based on the methodology used, which is often a way systematic reviews filter papers, because our pilot searches suggested that there was little in the way of literature utilising a robust research design such as a randomised control trial, or suitable control groups. Thus excluding research that utilised convenience samples or qualitative methods would have meant that little literature was returned and that findings from qualitative studies would be excluded. As a proxy measure of research quality, however, we only included studies that were published in peer reviewed journals. We did not include book chapters and books in our search parameters, which is another limitation of this systematic review, and there are several books that relate research undertaken with senior police that might have been important for our understanding. For example, Caless in his book *Policing at the Top* (The Policy Press, Bristol) relates his research with senior police in the UK; Fischer, in his edited collection *Leadership matters: Police Chiefs talk about their Careers* (Police Executive Research Forum, Washington DC) talks to police chiefs in the US; as does Isenberg in his work *Police Leadership in a Democracy* (CRC Press, Boco Ratan). These are potentially valuable sources of data, and a future review may wish to focus specifically on material in formats other than those contained in journals as we have done here.

Conclusion

This systematic review has reported on the findings from 57 articles contained in peer review journals that relate specifically to police leadership in the last two decades. Seven key characteristics emerged as important for leadership from this review: ethical behaviour, trustworthiness, legitimacy, being a role model, communication and decision making. Five key activities emerged as important for leaders to engage in: creating a shared vision, problem solving, engendering organisational commitment, caring for subordinates and driving and managing change. The review revealed relative consistency across countries and across ranks of the organisation. With that said, the quality of the studies is mixed, which is at least partly due to the complexity of the topic and the difficulties facing researchers in accessing police departments and police leaders with whom to conduct robust research. Thus the majority of the research is based on perceptions of what constitutes good leadership, or on small case studies, with even fewer that address objectively what is needed from police leaders, and how leaders might be best developed. There is some evidence that a mix of formal education, mentorship and role modelling may be perceived as most effective. Nonetheless, these are findings from only a small number of research articles, which is surprising considering the amount of money organisations invest in leadership development and the importance of leadership development for succession planning, organisational renewal, alignment and performance. The literature does not provide a strong case for what objectively measured successful leadership looks like or how this might be measured. Does the absence of failure suffice, or the absence of unfavourable media reports? Is subordinate satisfaction the best measure of effective leadership? Further, no research assessed the impact of leadership on organisational or operational outcomes. Establishing a link between leadership and organisational outcomes is essential for measuring the value of leadership activities. So to conclude, there is a need for further, robust, research. We hope that researchers are spurred into undertaking research to establish objective measures of good and effective leadership, to link leadership behaviours to organisational outcomes, and to expand on our understanding of the best ways that individuals can be prepared for the leadership tasks they face ahead

References

Baker, T. E. (2006). *Effective police leadership: moving beyond management*. Flushing, NY: Looseleaf Law Publications.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M., and Riggio, R.E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Boedker, C., Vidgen, R., Meagher, K., Cogin, J., Mouritsen, J. and Runnalls, M. (2011). Leadership, culture and management practices of high performing workplaces in Australia: The High Performing Workplaces Index. Society for Knowledge Economics: Sydney.

Casey, J and Mitchell, M. (2007). Requirements of police managers and leaders from police sergeant to commissioner. In M. Mitchell and J. Casey (Eds) *Police leadership and management*. Sydney: The Federation Press.

Collins, D. B., (2003). The effectiveness of managerial leadership development programs: A meta-analysis of studies from 1982-2001. A dissertation submitted to the School of Human Resources Education and Workforce Development, Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College.

Cooper-Hakim, A., and Viswesvaran, C. (2005). The construct of work commitment: Testing an integrative framework, *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(2) 241–59.

Dahlberg, L. and McCaig, C. (2010). Introduction to Research and Evaluation Basics. In L. Dahlberg and C. McCaig (Eds.) *Practical Research and Evaluation*. London: Sage Publications.

Dobby, J., Anscombe, J., and Tuffin, R. (2004). *Police leadership: expectations and impact*. Home Office: London.

Friedmenn, R.R. (1992). *Community Policing: Comparative Perspectives and Prospects*, Harvester, Wheatsheaf, New York, NY.

Gough, D., Oliver, S., and Thomas, J. (2012). Introducing Systematic Reviews. In Gough, D., Oliver, S. and Thomas, J. An introduction to systematic reviews. Sage: London.

Jayaratne, S. (1993). The antecedents, consequences, and correlates of job satisfaction. In R. T. Golembiewski (Ed.). *Handbook of organizational behaviour*. New York, NY: Dekker.

Kajewski, K., and Madsen, V. (2012). Demystifying 70:20:10 White Paper. DeakinPrime: Melbourne.

Kodz, J., and Campbell, I. (2010). *What works in leadership development? A rapid evidence review.* London: National Policing Improvement Agency.

Meaklim, T., and Sims, J. (2011). Leading powerful partnerships – a new model of public sector leadership development. *The International Journal of Leadership in Public Services*, 7(1), 21-31.

Minett, D., Yaman, R., and Denizci, B. (2009). Leadership styles and ethical decision-making in hospitality management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 486-493.

Murphy, K., Hinds, L. and Fleming, J. (2008) Encouraging public cooperation and support for police. *Policing and society,* 18(2), 136-155.

Neyroud, P. (2010), *Review of Police Leadership and Training*, London: Home Office.

O'Reilly, C. (1991). Corporations, control and commitment. In R. Steers and L. Porter (Eds.), *Motivation and Work Behaviour*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Tang, T.L., and Hammontree, M.L. (1992). The effects of hardiness, police stress, and life stress on police officers' illness and absenteeism. *Public Personnel Management*, 21(4), 493-510.

APPENDIX A - Bibliography of Studies

Alpert, G., and MacDonald, J. (2001). Police use of force: An analysis of organizational characteristics. *Justice Quarterly*, 18(2), 393-409.

Andreescu, V., and Vito, G. (2010). An exploratory study on ideal leadership behaviour: The opinions of American police managers. *International Journal of Police Science Management*, 12(4), 567-583.

Atwater, L., Waldman D., Atwater, D., and Cartier, P. (2000). An upward feedback field experiment: Supervisors' cynicism, reactions, and commitment to subordinates. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(2), 275-297.

Beck, K., and Wilson, C. (1997). Police officers views on cultivating organizational commitment: Implications for police managers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 20(1), 175-195.

Brodeur, J. (2005). Trotsky in blue: Permanent policing reform. *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 38(2), 254-267.

Bryman, A., and Stephens, M. (1996). The importance of context: Qualitative research and the study of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly,* 7(3), 353-371.

Butterfield, R., Edwards, C., and Woodall, J. (2004). The new public management and the UK Police Service. *Public Management Review,* 6(3), 395-415.

Butterfield, R., Edwards, C., and Woodall, J. (2005). The new public management and managerial roles: the case of the police sergeant. *British Journal of Management*, 16, 329-341.

Clarke, C. (2006). Proactive policing: Standing on the shoulders of community-based policing. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 7(1), 3-17.

Coleman, T.G. (2008). Managing strategic knowledge in policing: Do police leaders have sufficient knowledge about organisational performance to make informed strategic decisions? *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 9(4), 307-322.

Dantzker, M.L. (1996). The position of municipal police chief: An examination of selection criteria and requisite skills. *Police Studies*, 19(1), 1-17.

Darr, W., and Catano, V.M. (2008). Multisource assessments of behavioural competencies and selection interview performance. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 16(1), 68-72.

Davenport, D. (1999). Environmental constraints and organizational outcomes: Modelling communities of municipal police departments. *Police Quarterly*, 2(2), 174-200.

Davies, A. (2000). Chang in the UK police service: The costs and dilemmas of restructured managerial roles and identities. *Journal of Change Management*, 1(1), 41-58.

Davies, A., and Thomas, R. (2003). Talking COP: Discourses of change and policing identities. *Public Administration*, 81(4), 681-699.

Densten, I. (1999). Senior Australian law enforcement leadership under examination. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 22(1), 45-57.

Densten, I. (2002). Clarifying inspirational motivation and its relationship to extra effort. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal,* 23(1), 40-44.

Densten, I. (2003). Senior police leadership: Does rank matter? *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 26(3), 400-418.

Densten, I. (2005). The relationship between visioning behaviours of leaders and follow burnout. *British Journal of Management*, 16, 105-118.

Devine, J. (2012). Case-study-driven leadership training from West Point. *The Public Manager*, Winter 2012, 25-29.

Dick, G. (2011). The influence of managerial and job variables on organisational commitment in the police. *Public Administration*, 89(2), 557-576.

Duncan, M., Mouly, S., and Nilakant, V. (2001). Discontinuous change in the New Zealand police service – A case study. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 16(1), 6-19.

Engel, R. (2000). The effects of supervisory styles on patrol officer behaviour. *Police Quarterly*, 3(3), 262-293.

Engel, R. (2001). Supervisory styles of patrol sergeants and lieutenants. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 29, 341-355.

Fleming, J., and Lafferty, G. (2000). New management and techniques and restructuring for accountability in Australian police organisation. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 23(2), 154-168.

Fleming, J. (2004). Commissioner Mick Keelty, Australian Federal Police. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 5(4-5), 317-326.

Gaston, K., and King, L. (1995). Management development and training in the police: a survey of the promotion process. *Journal of European Industrial Training,* 19(7), 20-25.

Gaston, A. (1997). Recognizing potential law enforcement executives. *Corrections Today*, 59(3), 106-109.

Girodo, M. (1998). Machiavellian, bureaucratic, and transformational leadership styles in police managers: Preliminary findings of interpersonal ethics. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 86, 419-427.

Hoque, Z., Arends, S., and Alexander, R. (2004). Policing the police service: A case study of the rise of new public management within an Australian police service. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 17(1), 59-84.

Johnson, R. (2006). Management influences on officer traffic enforcement productivity. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 8(3), 205-217.

Johnson, R. (2012a). Police officer job satisfaction: A multidimensional analysis. *Police Quarterly*, 15(2), 157-176.

Johnson, R. (2012b). Police organizational commitment: The influence of supervisor feedback and support. *Crime and Delinquency*, XX(X), 1-26.

Krimmel, J., and Lindenmuth, P. (2001). Police chief performance and leadership styles. *Police Quarterly*, 4(4), 469-483.

Meaklim, T., and Sims, J. (2011). Leading powerful partnerships – a new model of public sector leadership development. *The International Journal of Leadership in Public Services*, 7(1), 21-31.

Metcalfe, B., and Dick, G. (2000). Is the force still with you? Measuring police commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(8), 812-832.

Metcalfe, B., and Dick, G. (2001). Exploring organisational commitment in the police: Implication for human resource strategy. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 24(3), 399-420.

Miller, H., Watkins, R., and Webb, D. (2009). The use of psychological testing to evaluate law enforcement leadership competencies and development. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 10(1), 49-60.

Moore, D. (1994). Views at the top, down under: Australian police managers on Australian Policing. *Policing and Society*, 4, 191-217.

Murphy, S., and Drodge, E. (2004). The four I's of police leadership: A case study heuristic. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 6(1), 1-15.

Murphy, S. (2006). Executive motivation: From the frontlines to the boardroom? *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 8(3), 232-245.

O'Leary, D., Resnick-Luetke, S., and Monk-Turner, E. (2011). Holding out for a hero: Selecting a chief of police. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 12(5), 435-449.

Peterson, S., Walumbwa, F., Avolio, B., and Hannah, S. (2012). The relationship between authentic leadership and follower job performance: The mediating role of follower positivity in extreme contexts. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23, 502-516.

Rainguet, F., and Dodge, M. (2001). The problems of police chiefs: An examination of the issues in tenure and turnover. *Police Quarterly*, 4(3), 268-288.

Rowe, M. (2006). Following the leader: front-line narratives on police leadership. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 29(4), 757-767.

Schafer, J. (2008). Effective police leadership: Experiences and perspectives of law enforcement leaders, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin,* July, 13-19.

Schafer, J. (2009). Developing effective leadership in policing: Perils, pitfalls and paths forward. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 32(2), 238-260.

Schafer, J. (2010a). Effective leaders and leadership in policing: Traits, assessment, development and expansion. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 33(4), 644-663.

Schafer, J. (2010b). The ineffective police leader: acts of commission and omission. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 38, 737-746.

Silvestri, M. (2006). 'Doing time': Becoming a police leader. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 8(4), 266-281.

Silvestri, M. (2007). 'Doing' police leadership: Enter the new 'smart macho'. *Policing and Society: An International Journal of Research and Policy*, 17(1), 38-58.

Singer, M., and Singer, A. (1990). Situational constraints on transformational vs. transactional leadership behaviour, subordinates' leadership preference, and satisfaction. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 130(3), 385-396.

Steinheider, B., and Wuestewald, T. (2008). From the bottom-up: Sharing leadership in a police agency. *Police Practice and Research*, 9(2), 146-163.

Vito, G., and Higgins, G. (2010). Examining the validity of the leadership challenge inventory: The case for law enforcement. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 12(3), 305-319.

Vito, G., Suresh, G., and Richards, G. (2011). Emphasising the servant in public service: The opinions of police managers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 34(4), 674-686.

Vito, G., Walsh, W., and Kunselman, J. (2005). Community policing: The middle manager's perspective. *Police Quarterly*, 8(4), 490-511.

Wheatcroft, J., Laurence, A., and McGrory, D. (2012). The influence of trust on senior investigating officers' decision making in high-profile critical incidents. *Police Quarterly*, 15(4), 386-413.

APPENDIX B - Details of 57 empirical sources included in review

Ref.	**Loc.**	**Method**	**Sample**
Alpert and MacDonald (2001)	US	Collected departmental use of force data via survey	265 law enforcement agencies consisting of municipal and county police sheriff's departments
Andreescu and Vito (2010)	US	LBDQ Form XII survey tool used	126 police managers (Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain, Major, Deputy Sheriff)
Atwater, Waldman, Atwater and Cartier (2000)	US	Survey designed by interviewing staff on good leadership	110 police supervisors (sergeant, lieutenants, captains) and 511 subordinates
Beck and Wilson (1997)	AUS	Designed a qualitative survey based on previous research on improving commitment	739 police officers ranking from constable to commissioned officer
Brodeur (2006)	Canada	Secondary data analysis	US and Canadian Policing
Bryman and Stephens (1996)	UK	Semi-structured interviews, transcripts then analysed according to 12 leadership styles.	146 police officers (80 officers of all ranks from two constabularies, 66 chief inspectors attending staff college).
Butterfield, Edwards and Woodall (2004)	UK	Semi-structured interviews and focus groups	92 interviews with police officers from varying ranks (two separate interview stages no indication of exact number of participants)
Butterfield, Edwards and Woodall (2005)	UK	Semi-structured interviews and focus groups	92 interviews with police officers from varying ranks (two separate interview stages no indication of exact number of participants)
Clarke (2006)	Canada	Secondary data analysis	Edmonton Police Service
Coleman (2008)	Canada	Survey	Chiefs of police and chief constables
Dantzker (1996)	US	Content analysis, survey, questionnaire	122 police chiefs randomly selected from a directory of police chiefs
Darr & Catano (2008)	Canada	360 degree feedback tool and behavioural structural interview	77 Senior managers (approximately 75% police and the remainder civilian personnel)
Davenport (1999)	US	Uses police agency data	170 Texas municipal police departments
Davies (2000)	UK	Survey and detailed case study involving focus group discussions and structured interviews	710 survey responses from superintendents, 17 focus groups, 36 semi-structured interviews with either chief officers, superintendents or chief inspectors
Davies and Thomas (2003)	UK	Semi-structured interviews	Police and civilian professionals from three constabularies
Densten (1999)	AUS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	480 senior officers (senior sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, chief executives)
Densten (2002) Data from 1999 research	AUS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	480 senior officers (senior sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, chief executives)
Densten (2003) Data from 1999 research	AUS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)	480 senior officers (senior sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, chief executives)

Densten (2005)	AUS	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI)	480 senior officers (senior sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, chief executives)
Devine (2012)	US	Qualitative interviews and quantitative surveys	Police officers
Dick (2011)	UK	Designed a survey based on research by Metcalfe and Dick (2001)	670 police officers of varying ranks (constable, sergeant, inspector, chief inspector, superintendent and above)
Duncan, Mouly and Nilakant (2001)	NZ	Case study	9 front-line police officers
Engel (2000)	US	Systematic observations and structured interviews	Patrol officers and supervisors (sergeants and lieutenants) from two police departments
Engel (2001)	US	Systematic observations and structured interviews. Uses underlying construct of 6 factors drawn from leadership theories and research	Patrol officers and supervisors (sergeants and lieutenants) from two police departments
Fleming (2004)	AUS	Qualitative interview	1 Police Commissioner
Fleming and Lafferty (2000)	AUS	Case study	Police organisations in QLD and NSW
Gaston and King (1995)	UK	Survey	128 police officers who had reached the rank of sergeant within a recent four year period
Gaston (1997)	US	Randomised survey	134 police executives and 364 police nonexecutives from 13 federal, state and local jurisdiction agencies. Consisted of police and corrections.
Girodo (1998)	US	Questionnaire based on leadership systems described by Hitt (1990)	197 police managers representing federal, state and local police organisations from North America, Europe and Pacific countries
Hoque, Arends and Alexander (2004)	AUS	Case Study	QLD Police
Johnson (2006)	US	Survey of multiple self-selecting agencies	320 Patrol officers and 79 patrol supervisors (sergeants and lieutenants)
Johnson (2012a)	US	Secondary data analysis of survey data collected by Harr (2003)	292 Patrol officers
Johnson (2012b)	US	Secondary data analysis of survey data collected by Harr (2003)	292 Patrol officers
Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001)	US	Survey comprised of positive and negative leadership traits and styles	205 Municipal managers
Meaklim and Sims (2011)	UK	qualitative evaluation of program using observation and interviews	Participants of a leadership develop program for senior leaders in the police service
Metcalfe and Dick (2000)	UK	Survey based on factors drawn from interviews	1243 police officers of varying ranks (special constables, cadets, constables, sergeants, inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, and executive officers)
Metcalfe and Dick (2001)	UK	Survey based on factors drawn from interviews (as above)	1243 police officers of varying ranks (same as above)

Miller, Watkins and Webb (2009)	US	Uses California psychology inventory 260 to evaluate leadership competencies of individuals undergoing training	102 top executives in a Federal law enforcement agency
Moore (1994)	AUS	Questionnaire based on interview schedule used by Robert Reiner in the UK	31 senior police (assistant commissioner rank) from various Australian jurisdictions
Murphy and Drodge (2004)	Canada	Case Study	28 police personnel (Constable, Corporal, Sergeant, Staff Sergeant, Inspector, and Superintendent).
Murphy (2006)	Canada	Survey	719 Rank and file officers
O'Leary, Resnick-Luetke and Monke-Turner (2011)	US	Focus groups and web-based questions	Patrol officers, command officers, community leaders, youth advocates, constitutional officers
Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio and Hannah (2012)	US	Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)	162 Sergeants and 54 Lieutenants
Rainguet and Dodge (2001)	US	Case study collected via interview	10 police chiefs
Rowe (2006)	US	Observations	Junior police officers (probationary constables)
Schafer (2008)	US	Survey and additional interviews with some participants	Mid-level police managers attending the FBI National Academy
Schafer (2009)	US	Survey	769 Mid-level police managers attending the FBI National Academy (NA)
Schafer (2010a)	US	Survey	1042 police supervisors attending the FBI National Academy, convenience sample
Schafer (2010b)	US	Survey	304 police supervisors attending the FBI National Academy, convenience sample
Silvestri (2006)	UK	Semi-structured interviews	30 senior police women
Silvestri (2007) Data from previous research used	UK	Semi-structured interviews	30 senior police women
Singer and Singer (1990)	NZ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire	60 police officers (constables and sergeants)
Steinheider and Wuestewald (2008)	US	Case study collected via survey, interviews and archival data	Broken Arrow Police Department
Vito and Higgins (2010)	US	Leadership Challenge Inventory (LCI) administered to managers, their subordinates and line-manager	576 police officers multiple ranks (managers and subordinates)
Vito, Suresh and Richards (2011)	US	LBDQ Survey	126 police managers (sergeants and lieutenants)
Vito, Walsh and Kunselman (2005)	US	Content analysis of essays completed by police middle-managers attending training college	68 police middle-managers from multiple police agencies
Wheatcroft, Alison and McGrory (2012)	UK	Semi-structured interviews	9 senior police

APPENDIX C – Quality appraisal questions

	Appraisal Questions	Quality Indicators	Rating
FINDINGS	1. Is the research valuable?	Findings have presented new insights	**High (3)** - Clearly stated relevance/importance of research supported by a literature review and discussion of limitations **Medium (2)** - Relevance/importance is somewhat clear, limited review of literature and discussion of limitations **Low (1)** - Not clearly relevant/importance and not supported by literature review **NA (0)**
FINDINGS	2. How well does the research address its original aims/objectives/purpose?	Aims and objectives are clearly reported	**High (3)** - Explicit and detailed aims/objectives/purpose, with which findings are clearly linked **Medium (2)** - Aims/objectives/purpose reported to a satisfactory level with limited ability to link findings **Low (1)** - Unclear aims/objectives/purpose with no linkages made with findings **NA (0)**
FINDINGS	3. Scope for drawing wider inferences	Discussion of how findings may relate to wider theory	**High (3)** - Explicitly discusses how findings relate to wider theory **Medium (2)** - Limited application to wider theory **Low (1)** - No acknowledgement of how findings relate to wider theory **NA (0)**
DESIGN	4. How defensible/justifiable is the research design?	Limitations discussed	**High (3)** - Research design is explicitly justified/defended and clearly meets aims of study **Medium (2)** - Research design is somewhat justified/defended and can be linked to aims of study **Low (1)** - Research design is not justified/defended or linked with aims of study **NA (0)**

SAMPLE	5. Is the sample selection appropriate and credible?	Description of sample type	**High (3)** - Sample is randomly selected **Medium (2)** - Sample is systematically selected **Low (1)** - Sample selection is opportunistic **NA (0)**
TOPIC	6. Is the research topic relevant?	Does the research focus on police leadership	**High (3)** - Research focuses explicitly on leadership in the context of policing **Medium (2)** - Research focuses on policing practices or public sector with detail of implications for police leaders **Low (1)** - Research does not focus on police leadership **NA (0)**
DATA COLLECTION	7. To what extent do the data collection tools allow the research to be free from bias?	How reliable are the data collection tools?	**High (3)** - Data collection method utilised standard scales **Medium (2)** - Data collection method utilised interview questions and surveys **Low (1)** - No new data collected **NA (0)**
ANALYSIS	8. How clearly has detail, depth and complexity of the data been reported?	Is the analysis data analysis appropriate?	**High (3)** - Extensive inferential analysis **Medium (2)** - Some analysis undertaken, goes beyond description **Low (1)** - Purely descriptive analysis **NA (0)**
FINDINGS	9. Accumulative Score		**High: 19-27** **Medium: 9-18** **Low: 0-8**
VALUE	10. How valuable is the research to us?		**High (3) Medium (2) Low (1)**