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Early Identification of Police Leadership Potential in Alberta Police Service

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation explored the early identification of leadership potential within municipal policing in the province of Alberta. The municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police participated in this mixed methods sequential exploratory research design consisting of two phases. Phase 1 consisted of a number of face-to-face interviews which were analyzed using Creswell's (2009) method for analyzing qualitative interviews. The results of Phase 1 formed the basis for an E-Survey deployed in Phase 2 of this research, which included the utilization of a modified Thurstone Scale. The results of Phase 1 and Phase 2 were combined and four criteria were identified by participants in their identification of early leadership potential: a) five identified indicators of leadership potential, b) leadership potential as seen by others, c) leadership potential as seen from within, and d) leadership potential as perceived by leaders. These four criteria established the foundation for the development of the Police Leadership Potential Model. When the criteria are used in conjunction with one another, it describes the exemplar junior officer with leadership potential in Alberta. The Police Leadership Potential Model may have utility in succession planning, and human resource practices within the Alberta municipal police sector.

Key words: *police leadership, succession planning, leadership potential, Police Leadership Potential Model, competency frameworks*

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Genesis

> I was promoted early in my policing career. I have seen
> other officers around me promoted early in their careers.
> Each time I have seen early promotions, there were those
> who stated we will fail. On the other hand, in each case,
> someone recognized our potential. Someone observed in us
> what others did not. What did they see?
> (Inspector Graham Abela, 2010)

During my twenty years in law enforcement, I have seen many police officers come and go. I have seen promotions, transfers, appointments, and secondments of police officers, early in their careers, to positions of supervision, leadership, and rank. In the past, without any insight or knowledge of processes or procedures, I have taken for granted the authority of those of higher rank, to have the requisite abilities and training to properly select people to be the next police leaders. However, as I have grown professionally, experientially, and academically, I have started to view these leadership selection processes from a more critical perspective.

Police officers have the right to apply for promotion or advancement within their police services. However, beyond the individual officer's desire for promotion, does the formal leadership system within police services have a method of identifying, and indeed nurturing, officers with clear potential for leadership before a formal application for promotion has been made by the officer? In my experience, the answer to that question is "no". In fact, in some cases, rank and file police officers are often critical of each other and can act informally to inhibit the advancement of their colleagues who exhibit the potential for leadership.

Indeed, in my ten years of experience in a formal leadership role, I have observed that police supervisors often 'give the nod', an expression used to informally sanction leadership potential, to younger officers. But what is it that these superiors see, or think they see? Are police supervisors unknowingly seeking to promote individuals who are like themselves? Is there an exemplar for a promotable police officer in Alberta? If the former situation (i.e., promoting individuals who are like themselves) is the case, have the supervisors created an informal set of criteria for promotion in the institution of policing in Alberta? If so, what does this mean for the future of police leadership in the province? A preliminary review of the available literature on this topic has indicated that there is little formal research on the topic of the early identification of leadership potential in junior police officers prior to their application for promotion.

The above experiences and observations were the catalysts for my seeking to understand the phenomenon of the early identification of leadership potential in Alberta's police officers. What follows is an explanation of why this topic is of significance, and to whom, followed by the stated purpose of the research, the relevant research questions, method and methodology, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, and definitions.

Significance

There are several reasons this research had the potential to be significant. First, it examined uncharted territory, and as such, had the potential to inform future practice. The second reason is related to the demographics of current police officers in Canada. The third reason is related to police officers' contractual employment arrangements that are binding in Alberta law. The fourth reason is related to academic potential, and the fifth

and final reason is related to economics. Each of these reasons is discussed in more detail below.

Uncharted territory. The significance of the current study is that it has the potential to improve upon information available about the existing leadership selection practices that are in place within Albert police services, and the potential to lay the groundwork for future police leadership studies in Alberta. Generally, there is a dearth of police leadership research (Haberfeld, 2006; Murphy, 1999; Schafer, 2009) and, therefore, research into the early identification of police leadership provides the opportunity to advance police leadership studies in Canada.

Demographics. Secondly, according to the Police Sector Council (2007), in 2005, there were 1524 senior officers within the policing sector in Canada of which, conservatively, 500-700 will likely retire within the next five years (p. 173). The leadership void created by this mass exodus of senior officers provides the opportunity for police organizations to fill this leadership gap; however, it also established "a sense of urgency to the issue of leadership succession planning and development" (Drodge & Murphy, 2002, p. 420). Police organizations could or should have likely foreseen this problem as a significant number of officers were hired from 1986-1991 in Canada and, therefore, will be retiring between 2010-2015 (Police Sector Council, 2007). However, since police services in Canada have found it increasingly difficult to hire entry level positions, and also since much of the human resource capacity is spent completing this primary task, the police chiefs recognize that, "developing leadership and succession planning is the greatest issue facing their organization today and will continue to be at least their second most important issue in the future" (Police Sector Council, 2007, p.

173). This leadership gap will need to be filled, the question is by whom? Therefore, research that assists in the early identification of leadership potential is both timely and significant.

Contractual matters. Thirdly, in Alberta, municipal police officers are employed by their respective municipalities and subject to collective agreements which are legislated through the Police Officers Bargaining Act of Alberta (2000). Although this may be a benefit to officers who work within the collective agreement, there are also problems that emerge from this formally structured relationship. One of the problems was identified by Harish, Singh, and Agocs (2000), in a study of 13 of the larger police services in Canada. Their research indicated that in most private organizations, persons are often able to be hired at differing positions within an organization, based on their abilities, training, and suitability for the job. In policing, however, except for a few police chiefs that may have been hired from outside of the organization, most police officers are currently hired at the constable level. Figure 1, provides a visual representation of Harish, Singh and Agocs' (2000) model of this current employment phenomenon in a hypothetical municipal police service in Alberta. This model was created by this author in attempt to increase the understanding and clarity of this important concept in Alberta policing.

Police services are not, however, able to attract leaders from the private industry, nor are they able to identify senior talent from other policing organizations and aggressively recruit due to the restriction within the current collective agreements (Police Officers Collective Bargaining Act, 2000). The collective agreements, in place between municipalities and police associations in Alberta require that experienced police officers

be hired at the rank of constable, and that they spend up to five years at that rank before

they can be promoted. All newly appointed police officers in Alberta must, therefore,

start at the 'recruit' level, and as a result, parachuting a private industry leader into a

position of police leadership is not possible. Instead, police services are required to

identify, develop, and select their leaders *from within*. Therefore, a framework or model

which identifies and nurtures potential leaders early on from within any given police

service is essential if the police organizations are to develop and maintain their

organizational effectiveness.

Figure 1.
Diagram outlining the flow of promotion within a hypothetical medium-sized police
service in Alberta. (Approximate number of officers currently at each rank noted in
brackets).
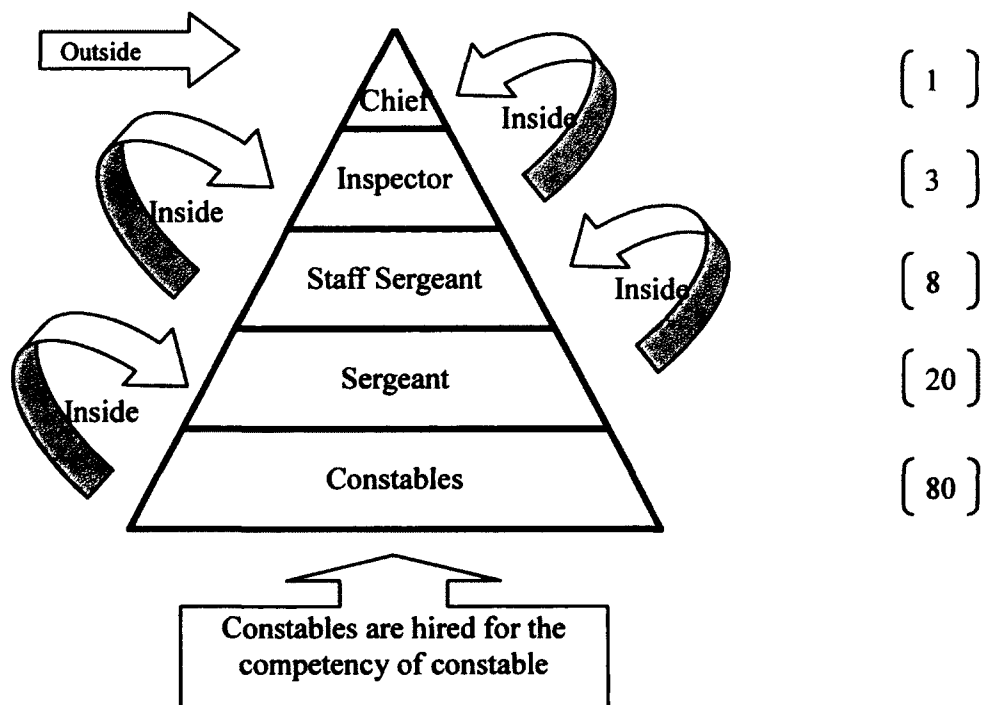
As the candidates within the leadership pool are selected from police officers within, it is essential that some officers are hired with the necessary foundational criteria to eventually take future leadership roles within the police service. Since, currently, police officers are hired for the role of patrol constable and not as future police leaders, police services may or may not be inadvertently screening out those who are best suited to lead. Former Police Chief Terry Coleman, and a former Deputy Minister in the Saskatchewan government, reiterated this concern in a study of human resources issues in Canadian police services (2004). Coleman found that police leaders generally believed that their staffing of positions within police services was sufficient; however, they pointed out that, "their expectations may have been inappropriate considering many did not understand strategic human resource management and the concept of an organizational strategy" (Sec. B, ¶ 2).

Academic potential. The Police Sector Council (2009b) is a Canadian organization that researches best practices in human resource management and development for Canadian police. The Council has developed a police competency framework for the ranks of constable, sergeant, staff sergeant and inspector. The hope is that by defining the competencies for specific roles, which are considered to be universal across the country, it will be able to assist the human resource function of policing services with competency development, succession planning and performance appraisal systems (Police Sector Council, 2009a) of their officers. This competency framework will no doubt prove useful if implemented within police services. Of note, however, is that leadership is not mentioned as a competency in the constable profile. This is due, in some part, to the fact that police constables' tasks in Canada, as per the Police Sector

Council (2009a), are not associated with the demonstration of leadership, although some academics would argue that constables, to some degree, practice leadership every day (Anderson, 2000; Haberfeld, 2006). The Police Sector Council recently released its leadership frameworks for the ranks of Superintendent through Chief of Police, and this framework is explained later in this study.

There is also debate over the organizational effectiveness and use of competency frameworks, and the literature (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; National Police Improvement Agency, 2009; Salaman, 2004) appears to be moving beyond competency frameworks, in general. Therefore, this research has the potential to significantly contribute to the understanding of the early identification of leadership potential within Alberta police services.

The economic issue. Finally, in Canada, policing costs are increasing, and the cost of leadership development often takes second (or third) place to the public having higher expectations of police and the requirement to ensure public safety. On average, within policing organizations, $65.00 (Police Sector Council, 2007, p.181) per year is spent per employee on leadership development. This level of expenditure means that small police services are unable to pay the costs of developing their own leadership personnel and mid-sized services cannot achieve the same economies of scale that larger police services in Canada have (Police Sector Council, 2007, p. 181). Since the available money for leadership identification and development is limited, and is likely to remain limited for the foreseeable future, the identification of early leadership potential from the point of entry is crucial, while also making the most responsible use of public funds. All these factors, therefore, provided significance to this study. As Williams (2008) pointed

out in a recent doctoral dissertation, "Although the financial cost of recruitment and

selection can be high, the impact to an organization of recruiting and selecting the wrong

individual to a critical leadership role can be a much greater cost" (p. 13).

Purpose of this Research

In general, the purpose of social science research can be broken down into two

broad categories: the desire to improve and the desire to understand the phenomenon

under study (Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 2007). While this research did potentially

include elements of both purposes, there were three specific purposes: First, this research

attempted to understand how leaders currently identify leadership potential in Alberta's

police officers. Second, this research recommends ways to improve leadership

development among junior police officers. Finally, this research reviewed current police

leadership concepts, practices, and definitions.

Understanding the early identification of leadership potential. The primary

purpose of this research was to understand the factors involved in the early identification

of leadership potential in Alberta's junior police officers. As a result, this research had

the potential to provide the foundation for a framework or model, for use within Alberta

police services, to assist in the early identifying, nurturing, and selection of police leaders

in the future. Since the early identification of leadership potential has not yet been done

in Alberta's police services, this research had the potential to add to the field of policing,

in general, as well as to contribute to the literature on the specific topic of potential police

leadership identification.

This research examined the identification of leadership potential during the initial

stages of a police officer's career, which occurs between his/her employment and his/her

eligibility for promotion within a police service. A person who is at this stage of progression within his or her career is normally identified as a junior police officer. To clarify, a police officer's career in Alberta commences with employment with a police service, followed by attendance at a police academy, recruit field training, and then street deployment. Once this initial stage of a career is undertaken, a police officer's career path can take many routes, which includes promotion. In Chapter 2, there is a review of the current literature on the topic of police leadership that further describes this process.

A municipal police officer in Alberta is eligible to retire and receive his or her pension after 25 years of service. So, for the purposes of this research, the average police officer's career was taken as being 25 years in duration. The size of the police service, in terms of the number of officers on staff, also has significant impact on the duties in which a police officer can become engaged during his/her career. In Alberta, municipal police services range in size from the smallest, 14 police officers with the Taber Police Service, to the largest, over 1800 police officers with the Calgary Police Service. However, in all municipal police services, the first stage of a police officer's career is the same and, therefore, provides the foundational career timeline for this research.

Public safety and leadership development. A secondary purpose of this research is personal, and is based on my own leadership experience and progression from the entry position in a police service to my current position of Inspector of a police service in a rural area of Alberta. I have a professional and personal interest in seeing individual police officers succeed and would argue that any research that delves into police leadership, with a purpose of furthering that end, improves public safety, as well as enhances an individual officer's life and/or career.

At an organizational level, this research attempted to understand and describe the influences and informal leadership identification and selection systems that are currently used in Alberta police services. It is evident that early identification of potential is the first, and potentially, the most important step that must be undertaken if succession planning and organizational success is to occur (Barnett & Davis, 2008; Bratton, 2008).

Concepts, practices and definitions. Finally, this research reviewed current police leadership concepts, practices and definitions so that individual officers who might want to progress in their careers as police leaders are then able to better understand the complexity of early leadership selection and scan for opportunities which exist within their personal and professional lives to prepare themselves for such roles. Perhaps most significantly, this research had the potential to increase police supervisors' understanding of how their own beliefs, attitudes, and actions potentially influence their leadership selection.

Research Questions

Several interconnected research questions formed the basis for this research, specifically:

1. How do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) define police leadership?

2. What do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) articulate as indicators of a junior police officer's potential for leadership?

3. When and where do the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police see or experience these indicators of leadership potential in junior police officers?

Methodology and Method

Mixed methods. This study used a mixed method sequential exploratory strategy (Creswell, 2009) which, according to Yin (2009), "can permit investigators to address more complicated research questions and collect a richer and stronger array of evidence than can be accomplished by any single method alone" (p. 62). Other researchers have pointed to the merits of mixed methods research, since it uses both qualitative and quantitative research, working in tandem, and, therefore, provides greater strength to a study (Creswell, 2009). Some authors have argued that the, "rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient, by themselves, to capture the trends and details of a situation" (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006, p. 3). As context is important in research (Yin, 2009), mixed methods research affords, "special opportunities to use multiple sources of information from multiple approaches to gain new insights in the social world" (Axinn & Pearce, 2006, p. 1). Since the intent of this research is to obtain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of the early identification of leadership potential in Alberta's junior police officers, mixed methods research provided a greater opportunity to increase this understanding than could be determined from one method alone.

Following ethics approval from the Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board of the University of Calgary, and a pilot study described below, this research employed a two phase approach within a mixed method sequential exploratory design. The first phase

was 10 face-to-face interviews with a purposive sample of the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police. These interviews provided the basis for the second phase of the study, which was an E-survey sent electronically to each municipal member of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police. The results from both phases of research were analyzed and discussed within the Results section of this dissertation.

As a means of promoting validity, 'peer debriefing' as espoused by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007, p. 245) was undertaken by an experienced researcher who is familiar with the police leadership literature. Peer debriefing can be described as 'keeping the researcher honest' by posing difficult questions and by questioning assumptions and findings. From the combined data sources, a framework or model to assist in the early identification of potential police leaders was developed. This framework or model has the potential to guide leadership selection practices and assist current police leaders in Alberta with future leadership identification, selection and the nurturing of potential future police leaders.

The interview protocol designed for the primary study was also used during the pilot interviews and, as noted earlier, is attached in Appendix A.

Research Methodology

Theoretical framework: social constructivism. The pragmatist world view (Creswell, 2009) is often associated with mixed methods research. In this case, although the concepts of pragmatism are considered and have some bearing in this research, social constructivism (Crotty, 1998) forms the theoretical framework on which this research is grounded. This research considered the opinions and views of the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) who were the participants

interviewed for this study. The complexity of leadership as a concept, and the multifaceted subjective views of individuals who select junior officers for future leadership positions, fit well with the social constructivist paradigm. Social constructivists often look at the processes that occur amongst individuals (Creswell, 2009), and the early identification of leadership potential is a process that still needs to be explored, examined and studied. Furthermore, it is the experiences and culture that the AACP members bring, as participants within this research, which provide the depth and significance to this study.

Assumptions

This research assumed that the participants, municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP), have knowledge of the early identification of leadership potential in Alberta's police officers. This is a critical assumption and, if incorrect, has the potential to limit the findings of the study.

This research also assumed that there is enough commonality among leadership roles within Alberta municipal police services to allow for the shared opinions of current police leaders to be considered valid.

Delimitations

1. This research included only opinions of the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police, and although there are several other groups within the province of Alberta, namely, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP), the Alberta Association of Police Governance (AAPG), and the Alberta Federation of Police Associations (AFPA) who may also have stakeholder positions, they were not included in this study.

2. The researcher is a police officer in Alberta and an associate member of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP). Careful thought regarding the research method was undertaken in an attempt to eliminate bias. However, being a researcher from *within* the AACP could have potentially affected the willingness of participants to be involved in the study, as well as the potential receptivity of the Chiefs of Police and others to the findings of this research.

3. As noted above, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) was not included within this study. The RCMP is a federal police service that is contracted to the province of Alberta as well as with dozens of municipalities within Alberta. The structures of the RCMP are such that its governance and headquarters are in Ottawa, it has centralized training in Regina, Saskatchewan, and leadership selection and staffing are completed regionally. Its federal mandates mean that junior police officers may not undertake similar duties to those of police officers employed by municipal police services in Alberta. A decision was made to not include the RCMP, so as to improve the generalization of the research findings to municipal police services in Alberta.

Limitations

The purposive sample selected for this study was the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police. Results from purposive sampling techniques place constraints on generalizing the results to the larger population (Teddlie & Yu, 2007, p.84).

Definitions

For the purposes of this research the following definitions were the systematic language used in this research (Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 2007):

Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP):	The AACP is an organization which is comprised of regular and associate police leaders who work within the province of Alberta who hold the rank of Inspector or above. The AACP Membership is also comprised of commissioned officers within the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, and Honorary Members; however, they are not participants in this research. The regular and associate members who work for municipal police services are the only participants considered within this study. This includes: the Medicine Hat Police Service, Taber Police Service, Lethbridge Regional Police, Calgary Police Service, Lacombe Police Service, Camrose Police Service, Edmonton Police Service, Blood Tribe Police Service, Tsuu T'ina Police Service, and North Peace Tribal Police Service.
Attribute	Any aspect of a person's character, values, beliefs, competencies or behaviour which may or may not be used for the purposes of evaluation and assessment (Centrex, 2006, p.32).
Belief	A conviction or opinion about life which is held by the individual to be true.
Career	A municipal police officer in Alberta is able to retire after 25 years of service. For the purposes of this

research, a career is deemed to be 25 years.

Constable

The appointment of constable is the first rank assigned to individuals hired in Alberta's municipal police services. A constable can be promoted to a higher rank or assigned specialized duties within the rank of constable, without being promoted. In Alberta, the consecutive ranks above constable are as follows: Sergeant, Staff Sergeant, Inspector, Superintendent, Deputy Chief and Chief of Police.

Competency

A skill or ability of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance. (Centrex, 2006, p. 32)

Junior Police Officer

A junior police officer is a constable who has been employed by a municipal police service in Alberta and has less than five years of service.

Indicators

The term indicator is used in this dissertation to mean those descriptors of human behaviour which point to qualities, values, beliefs, competencies, and attributes, manifested by individuals who, in the eyes of the observer, suggest leadership potential.

Leadership Potential

Behavioural characteristics which meet the evidence for police leadership as defined under 'Police Leadership' hereafter.

Police Leadership

Police leadership refers to the varied nature of the

interpersonal and reciprocal relationships that allow people, within a policing community, to find purpose together and effectively make decisions that promote public safety.

Promotion	An advancement of rank within a police service.
Quality	A personal trait that describes or determines an individual's personality or character (Centrex, 2006, p.32).
Value	A personal trait that describes or determines an individual's personality or character (Centrex, 2006, p.32).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Review of Literature

A literature review should provide a context for the research in question and describe why it is both timely and important (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Rudestam & Newton, 2007). For the purpose of this study, the literature review was comprised of two overarching themes: leadership followed by succession planning. Within the theme of leadership, a short overview of leadership theory was examined, followed by a review of leadership theory and its application in police organizations. Current literature on police leadership was explored with the intent of establishing a definition of police leadership and to indicate where in the literature this study could potentially contribute to the academic dialogue.

The second literature review theme, succession planning, focused on current practices of police leadership succession planning followed by a discussion of the widely held usage of competency frameworks in police services. Next, the current literature on identifying leadership potential was examined to further contextualize this study and also to provide the impetus for future research in this field and/or to assist in guiding leadership selection practice.

Leadership Theory Overview

For as long as the human race has existed, there have always been leaders, "although those leaders have not always emerged from the same background, nor practiced the art of leadership in the same way" (Centrex, 2006, p.20). The term leadership often "connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires...or shape the course of nations" (Yukl, 2002,

p. 1). Names of famous leaders such as Ghandi, Winston Churchill, Caesar, and Alexander the Great have all been noted for their leadership skills. However, it was not until the 20th century that the scientific study of leadership began (Yukl, 2002). Since that time, the study of leadership has steadily increased, resulting in an, "increasing complexity and comprehensiveness of theoretical orientations" (Anderson, 2000, p. 302). Since the study of and the history of leadership could consume volumes, in recent articles, some researchers have chosen to commence their discussions on the emerging theories of leadership (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). For the purpose of this research, a basic overview of leadership theories was explored and provided.

Police leadership theory can be examined by reviewing several schools of thought about leadership, particularly as they relate to policing (Anderson, 2000; Centrex, 2006; Haberfeld, 2006). These schools of thought are grouped into seven categories: Great Man Theories, Trait Theories, Behaviourist Theories, Situational and Contingency Leadership, Path-Goal Leadership Theory, Transformational Theory, and Emergent Theories. The following discussion is a summary of these categories of leadership.

Great man theory. Thomas Carlyle (1888) is credited with coining the term 'Great Man Theory' and suggested that leaders are born with inherent qualities and features that set them apart from their followers (Bass, 1990a; Rogers, 2001). These qualities were described by Anderson (2000) as being "stronger, more intelligent and able to lead" (p. 308). The great leaders of the time, usually found within royalty, nobility and the military, were found to have these inherent abilities due to their positions in life which made them emerge as great leaders. As leadership theories evolved over time, it is

likely no surprise that the trait theories of leadership developed in the 1920's were founded on similar principles.

Trait theory. Trait Theory is based on the premise that some individuals have certain inherent characteristics that make it more likely that they will, "seek and attain positions of leadership and be effective in those positions" (Yukl, 2002, p.53). Although as Anderson (2000) suggested that, "these theories were sometimes intermixed with racial, sexual and class discrimination to promote supremacy of one race over another, one sex over another, or one social or economic class over another"(p. 308), it was this is the first time that persons in organizations, such as the military, were included in discussions of leadership and were able to identify the traits of people who, "could then be recruited, selected, and installed into leadership positions" (Centrex, 2006, p. 21).

The early Trait Theorists believed that scientific research could determine the qualities that leaders possessed. For the most part, this research, according to Yukl (2002) focused on "physical characteristics (e.g., height, appearance), aspects of personality (e.g., self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability) and aptitudes (e.g., general intelligence, verbal fluency, creativity)" (p. 55). However, there was "little consistency in the results of the various trait studies" (Centrex, 2006, p. 21) and the Behavioural School of Leadership emerged.

Behavioural school. The Behavioural Theories of leadership could be seen as evolving from trait theories but were not based on the characteristics or traits of the leaders, but instead, on what the leader does. McGregor's (1960) The *Human Side of Enterprise* spoke about Theory X & Theory Y, in that, "Managers' strategy of effectively-used participative management had a tremendous impact both on leadership

and management, and in this case the words leader and manager seem equivalent" (Centrex, 2006, p. 22).

According to Anderson (2000), "Theory X" Managers believe that their followers are "self-oriented and uncaring about the needs of the organization, and so attempts are made to directly influence and motivate them in the direction of accomplishing organizational goals" (p.301). Furthermore, leaders of 'Theory X' leaders believe that their followers do not like to work and need to be coerced and or punished into doing their jobs in order to meet organizational objectives.

In contrast, "Theory Y" leaders were understood to be those who are, "self-motivated and self-actualizing by nature and that leaders should arrange the organizational environment to capitalize on those internal motivations to help employees reach organizational goals" (Anderson, 2000, p. 310). 'Theory Y' leaders were thought to believe that their workers wanted to work, that they were imaginative and ingenious and wanted to assist in solving organizational problems. Furthermore, 'Theory Y' leaders were understood to believe that the "intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized under the conditions of modern industrial life" (Centrex, 2006, p. 22).

Other Behavioural School theorists believed in a humanistic approach to the work place, in which managers could put into practice certain arrangements to meet not only the organization's goals and objectives but also those of the worker. Blake and Mouton (1964), created a "grid to illustrate the relationship between concern for people and the concern for production" (Anderson, 2000, p. 311) and indicated that "a high concern for

both employees and production, is the most effective type of leadership" (Centrex, 2006, p. 22).

Situational and contingency leadership. There is an argument that one leadership theory in itself is not a panacea for all of the challenges/rewards of leadership. However, the situational and contingent theorists believe that there are certain leadership practices that can be utilized, given the contingent situations the leader may encounter. The most well-known situational model is the Hersey-Blanchard Model of Leadership. The Hersey-Blanchard model "posits that the development level of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviors) are most appropriate" (Centrex, 2006, p.23). The argument follows that as the subordinate matures in the workforce, the leaders are required to be less assertive. However, as new tasks are given to even mature employees, the leaders may have to revert to more assertive leadership responses, until the worker has gained sufficient competence in the task.

The Leadership Contingency Model was described by Fiedler in 1967 (Anderson, 2000), and it "postulates that there is no single best way for managers to lead. Situations will create different leadership style requirements for a manager" (Centrex, 2006, p. 23). According to the Leadership Academy for Policing (Centrex, 2006), there are three factors which affect managerial tasks as they relate to leadership:

1. Leader member relations: How well do the manager and the employees get along?

2. Task Structure: Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between?

3. Position power: How much authority does the manager possess? (p. 23)

Fiedler also spoke about the fact that leaders are not always able to change to meet the needs of their organizations, and, instead, in some cases the leader needed to be able to shape the organization to meet his or her leadership style.

Path-goal theory of leadership. This theory was "developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates" (Yukl, 2002, p.90). House (1996) in citing his original work on the theory asserted that,

> ...the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route. (p. 325)

Initially, there were two leadership behaviours identified within the path-goal theory; these were supportive leadership and directive leadership (Yukl, 2002). Yukl (2002) stated that, "despite its limitations, the path-goal theory has made an important contribution to the study of leadership by providing a conceptual framework to guide researchers in identifying potentially relevant situational variables" (p. 94).

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theory postulates that leadership occurs when people within an organization embrace the organization's mission and vision and when they place the objectives of the organization over their own self-interest. Transformational leaders are often charismatic and or have the ability to stimulate employees through their keen interest in the employees' welfare and attention to their emotional needs. The transformational leader has influence over the organization and "employees want to identity with them and they have a high degree of trust and

confidence in them" (Bass, 1990b, p. 21). Transformational leaders gain this trust by paying attention to the little things and showing personal interest in the successes of each and every employee. The transformational leader has the employee's interest at heart and can inspire the employee towards greatness. Mentorship and coaching abilities are trademarks of the transformational leader, and these leaders become a presence within their organization.

Emerging leadership theories. In a recent publication, Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) examined the "recent theoretical and empirical developments in the leadership literature" (p. 421), and suggested that there are several recent theories that are still being scrutinized by academia and leadership practitioners alike. These recent leadership theories will be reviewed to give insight into the evolution of leadership in policing, as well as how it must evolve to keep up with this emerging field. The following definitions of leadership identified by Avolio et al. (2009) will be used to structure the review of the organizational and leadership literature for this study.

> *Authentic Leadership*: a pattern of transparent and ethical leader behavior that encourages openness in sharing information needed to make decisions while accepting followers' inputs.

> *Cognitive leadership*: a broad range of approaches to leadership emphasizing how leaders and followers think and process information.

> *New-genre leadership*: leadership emphasizing charismatic leader behaviour, visionary, inspiring, ideological and moral values, as well as transformational leadership such as individualized attention, and intellectual stimulation.

Shared, distributed and collective leadership: an emergent state where team

members collectively lead each other.

E-leadership: leadership where individuals or groups are geographically

dispersed and interactions are mediated by technology.

Broaden-and-build theory: suggests positive emotions expand cognition and

behavioural tendencies, and encourage novel, varied, and exploratory

thoughts and actions.

Positive Organizational Behaviour: literature that is focusing on positive

constructs such as hope, resiliency, efficacy, optimism, happiness, and well-

being as they apply to organizations.

Ethical leadership: the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct

through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of

such conduct to followers.

Nomological Network: a representation of a construct, its observable

manifestation, and the relationship between the two.   (p. 421)

In summary, theories and writings about leadership have evolved and changed

over time. Whereas leadership was seen, at one time, as requiring or encompassing a

static set of competencies, it is now understood to include both static and dynamic

qualities which are modified and changed in response to the requirements of the situation,

the organization and the individual with whom a leader is working; this is especially

relevant in policing (Sopow, 2009). It is apparent that police leadership practitioners have

much to learn from the multitude of leadership theories found within the current

literature. It is clear that in the for profit sector, leadership theories and their application

within industry have provided returns on investment (Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009). However, in policing, profit margins are not and should not be a measure of success, and therefore, the for-profit business model should not apply.

There are few vocations, such as policing, whereby people are asked to make quick decisions often based on very little information, that can have such far reaching consequences to those involved. This tactical approach to leadership is learned by every constable who adorns the uniform early in his/her career. With promotion and the responsibility that accompanies promotion, tactical leadership becomes less critical and a shift towards strategic leadership practices. This should not mean that tactical leadership approaches should be forgotten by those officers who are promoted, as police officers can easily be re-assigned to positions where tactical leadership is required. Instead, a more cumulative application of police leadership learning and practice is necessary. As police officers are promoted and their responsibilities increase within a police organization, it is incumbent on the individual officer to understand the complexity of police leadership theory and its application. The following discussion moves from theory to practice and the application of leadership theory in policing.

Leadership and Policing – a Gap in the Literature

A review of the available literature indicates that there are "over 35,000 credible journal articles, books and other publications with over 2,000 definitions of leadership, leadership models, systems, and theories" (Sopow, 2009, p.3); however there is "an absolute dearth in the area of leadership training and leadership theories that are applicable for and within police environments" (Haberfeld, 2006, p.3). Furthermore, in reference to police leadership, "there is no generally accepted theory against which

practice can be tested" (Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004, p. 1). This is not to say that

the policing literature is void of the application of leadership theory to practice. Police

leadership frameworks have relied heavily on transformational leadership theory during

their development (Centrex, 2006; Golding & Savage, 2008). The International

Association of Chiefs of Police (IACP) considers itself to be the global voice of law

enforcement leaders and uses the theory of dispersed leadership within its leadership

framework (Viverette, 2005, President Message Section). Dispersed leadership, which

can be viewed as an, "approach, with its foundations in sociology, psychology, and

politics rather than management science, views leadership as a process that is diffuse

throughout an organization rather than lying solely with the formally designated

'leader'"(Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003, p. 6). The Royal Canadian

Mounted Police (RCMP) is Canada's National Police Service, and it has examined

leadership from the perspective of developing a leadership model designed to be a single

point touchstone for all leadership, supervisor, and management development programs

(Sopow, 2009). Although currently only in its draft form, the model is grounded in

leadership theory and applies a leadership matrix founded on the core values of the

RCMP. The RCMP has recognized that leadership within policing is situational. In some

cases, urgency is required to make split second decisions, while in other situations, police

officers may be required to lead groups of people in community problem solving

initiatives. As a result, Sopow (2009) suggested a matrix which bases leadership

approaches on two variables, urgency and control and is depicted in Figure 2.

There is also debate in the literature as to whether the application of leadership

theories as they apply to business and industry also apply within the policing context

(Haberfeld, 2006; Scrivner, 2008; Sopow, 2009; Swanson, Territo & Taylor, 1998). Influential police leaders in Britain, such as Sir Ian Blair, have argued that the skills required to lead a police services are common to all activities and professions (Centrex, 2006), and much of the police leadership literature references the works of Bass (1990a), which unifies many definitions of leadership, including those from business (Schafer, 2009). Others (Haberfeld, 2006; Scrivner, 2008; Sopow, 2009; Swanson, Territo & Taylor, 1998) have argued that the context and emergent nature of policing requires that police leadership must be viewed differently from leadership theories that have emerged from research conducted in the corporate sector (Golding & Savage, 2008; Schafer, 2009). In modern policing environments, leadership responsibilities, that were once in the purview of police supervisors, such as problem solving and the decentralization of command, have been downloaded to the front line officer (Haberfeld, 2006), and this finding supports the position, as espoused by Anderson (2000), and also by others (Haberfeld, 2006; Kingshott, 2006) that 'every officer is leader'. This belief fits well with the IACP model of dispersed leadership that was previously discussed within this proposal. Furthermore, dispersed leadership theory postulates that leadership should be exhibited by officers in their day to day duties. As a result outcomes or behaviour of leadership should be observable to supervisors, which provides a starting point to expand research in this field, such as is suggested in this proposal.

Figure 2.
Royal Canadian Mounted Police Matrix Leadership. (Sopow, 2009, p.4)

RCMP Matrix Leadership

	Transactional style -safety at risk -inexperienced team -few facts -high impact outcome -little immediate support	**Situational style** **Contingency style** -safety at risk -experienced team -many facts -high impact outcome -high immediate support
	Empowering style **Situational style** -no risk to safety -semi-experienced team -many facts -low impact outcome -moderate support	**Empowering style** **Transformational style** -no risk to safety -semi-experienced team -many facts -moderate impact outcome -moderate-high support

URGENCY: High ↑ / Low

CONTROL: Low → → High

Definitions of Police Leadership

A review of the current literature has produced only a few definitions of police

leadership, and none is specifically focused on a definition of police leadership in

Alberta. This should not be surprising as Golden and Savage (2008) indicted that, "there

are numerous attempts in management literature and elsewhere which seek to define

'leadership', though it is widely accepted that there is not one consensually agreed

definition of leadership, let alone of police leadership" (p. 727). The literature has come

to determine that police leadership is unique (Gibson & Villiers, 2007; Haberfeld, 2006;

Sopow, 2009) and is based on the, "large degree of discretion in police decision-making, which cannot be delegated, a wide range of responsibilities, and various other features including instant decision-making, the emotional demands of policing and reliance on individual skill, judgement and initiative" (Golding & Savage, 2008, p. 730). Although not providing a definition of her own, well known police leadership scholar, Maria Haberfeld (2006) stated, "that the definition of police leadership must include the ability to make a split-second decision and take control of a potentially high-voltage situation that evolves on the street" (p. 3). This tactical approach to a police leadership definition does not take into account the complexity of leadership at the higher ranks, where split second decision making is not generally encountered.

Others have defined police leadership as, "the ability to effectively influence and combine individuals and resources to achieve objectives that would be otherwise impossible" (Centrex, 2006, p. 6). This police leadership definition has been described within the literature as generic (Golding & Savage, 2008). On the other hand, Bradley (2009), indicated in a rather long definition that,

> Police leadership refers to the varied nature of the interpersonal relationships between police managers and supervisors and the impact of these upon organizational performance. It is also used to refer to the general influence that police chiefs and commissioners may have upon the performance and organizational commitment of the police officers within their agencies. The concept has further been used in reference to the influence police officers may have upon the wider polity and communities they serve and the effect of this on police-public relationships, police effectiveness and police legitimacy. (p. 187)

Although this definition is encompassing, it appears to be lacking the tactical police leadership requirements, as mentioned by Haberfeld (2006) and moved away from the concept that every officer is a leader, as was previously mentioned by Anderson (2000).

The Police Sector Council (2010) in Canada is an organization that examined police leadership competencies in an attempt to assist Canadian police services with its support and development of police leaders. A competency based framework was created and released in 2011 whereby they identified 14 leadership competencies, divided into three groups, a) performance competencies, b) partnering competencies, and c) accountability competencies (Police Sector Council 2011); however, to date, no police leadership definition is available.

The purpose of this study is not to provide an all-encompassing definition of police leadership. Rather, this study focused on what the Alberta Chiefs of Police define as police leadership, in an attempt to improve the police leadership identification practice in Alberta and identify leadership potential early in a police officer's career. The fact that there is no well accepted police leadership definition, or for that matter a text book available on the topic, (P. Neyroud, Personal Communication, September 25, 2010) provided the opportunity for this research to potentially add to the literature to and inform future police leadership identification practice, at least in Alberta.

Leadership theory, in general, has been applied within research into police leadership to differing degrees, and yet, it appears that finding a police leadership definition remains elusive (Schafer, 2009). So, while leadership theory and definitions of police leadership provide the context for guiding police practice, there is one gap in the police leadership literature that has not been examined. As Collins (2001) has pointed

out, "first who....then what" (p. 41) is of utmost importance, and deciding "who" is

identified as a leader continues to be problematic within the policing culture and is the

subject of the next section of this review of the literature, succession planning.

Succession Planning

Succession planning has been defined as, "a structured process involving the

identification and preparation of a potential successor to assume a new role" (Garman &

Glawe, 2004, p. 120). Others have considered succession planning to be, "special efforts

to invest in the best, highest performance, or highest potential talent at any organizational

level or function" (Barnett & Davis, 2008, p. 721). Its roots can be found in writing about

the transition of powers that have occurred within the aristocracy, royalty, and other

situations in which power changes hands (Garman & Glawe, 2004). In more recent years,

succession planning has become the domain of human resources within business,

industry, and organizations throughout the world.

Garman and Glawe (2004) identified that little peer reviewed research has been

conducted in the field of succession planning, specifically in establishing a business case

for its use. Furthermore, a critique of current succession planning models indicated that

most are replacement-oriented processes towards replicating and replacing current

leadership (Barnett & Davis, 2009). There has, however, been no research to assess the

current effectiveness of this approach. Bernthal and Wellins (2006) conducted a study of

over 4500 leaders from over 900 organizations and found that, "about one-third of

internally sourced leaders fail" (p. 33). Charan (2005), reports that 34% of Chief

Executive officers hired from within companies were forced to resign; both of these

studies indicate that there is something wrong with the processes involved in succession planning in North America.

Within organizations, the need for succession planning has been well identified within the literature (Barnett & Davis, 2008; Garman & Glawe, 2004; Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009; Murphy, 2006; Police Sector Council, 2007; Government of Canada, Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 2009, March), which includes available literature about police services (Murphy, 2006; Oppal, 1994). Succession planning, according to Barnett and Davis (2008), accomplishes two things: it provides, "the process and structure for identifying and understanding the leadership talent in the organization, and ... they emphasize and facilitate ongoing learning and development for the organization's most talented leaders" (p. 722). PriceWaterhouseCoopers (2006) completed a White Paper for the United States federal government entitled, *The crisis in Federal Government succession planning: What's being done about it.* The first step that was identified to assist the Federal Government in this crisis was to "identify leadership talent early and cultivate it" (p. 4). Similarly, Bratton (2008) identified that the first step for police chiefs in their organization's succession planning processes is to "identify your talent" (p. 2). Accordingly, the purpose of this research, to identify early police leadership potential, fits well into the concept of succession planning and also provided the rationale for completing this study.

Many organizations have within their strategic or business planning documents the strategic goal to plan for the succession of their leaders. However, there are few organizations that provide the process or guidelines that are used to achieve desired results. The reasons for this may be due to the processes existing within their policy

documents, therefore, not being publically accessible, or it may be due to a general lack of a process. There are two companies that have been recognized as having highly successful succession planning processes; these are PepsiCo and Caterpillar (Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009).

The policing context. Within Canada, the Police Sector Council (2007), reported that:

> Approximately one-third of public sector organizations have a formal process for identifying leadership potential (compared to 60% of private sector companies). Almost half of the police organizations (45%) have programs to accelerate potential, but only 25% actively manage the careers of future senior leaders.
>
> (p.172)

The Police Sector Council (2007) nationwide study indicated that approximately 85% of Police Chiefs interviewed in Canada reported that they undertake succession planning, however, only one in five have a formal process in place (p.175) for doing so. Over 65% of the Chiefs believe that their succession planning systems are not working, and only 30% of the Chiefs reports that their organizations have processes to identify leadership potential, mainly at the first commissioned rank and above (p.175). The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) "has three separate development programs that identify and develop high-potential employees at several organizational levels" (GAO-04-127: Succession Planning, 2003, p.4) and seem to have the best understanding of a process for succession planning within Canadian police services. However, even the RCMP has recognized that to reform the RCMP, they will have trouble, "identifying those with leadership potential and providing appropriate opportunities for education, training and

developmental experiences throughout their careers" (Government of Canada, RCMP

Reform Implementation Council, 2009, p. 14). This review demonstrates that in Canada,

many police services have not developed an overall plan for preparing the next

generation of police leaders.

A critique of current succession planning practices in policing indicates that most

are based on the presumption that a person's past behaviour is indicative of future

behavior. However, it is clear, as pointed out by Bernthal and Wellins (2006), that, "new

leaders need to be assessed relative to new job requirements" (p. 33). This concept

requires further exploration, as it allows those not familiar with the police culture, to see

how the current promotional systems in policing fails to prepare police leaders for future

challenges. Generally, in Canadian policing, promotions are based on performance

assessment and behavioral descriptive interviews which give weight to past behaviour

being indicative of future practices. This is a practice that has been identified by Silzer

and Church (2009) as the "performance – potential paradox" (p. 388). How is one to

know that a good police officer may be well suited to be a coach and mentor for those

under his or her command once promoted especially, for the most part, he/she has been

previously measured only on crime fighting and community problem solving?

Succession planning in policing, as in organizations overall, involves identifying

early high potential police leaders followed by a course of training, mentoring and action

that "should be shaped to correspond with the emerging leadership needs of the future"

(Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009, p. 17). There is no point in preparing future leaders for

issues that are rooted in the past, "rather, the emerging …environment now demands a

new set of leadership skills, which require traditional leadership competencies, to be realigned to the future" (O'Brien & Robertson, 2009, p. 372).

In the United Kingdom, the National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA) has constructed a model that allows for succession planning within Britain's police services. Specifically, the NPIA has developed what they have named the High Potential Development Scheme (National Police Improvement Agency, 2009). The NPIA describes the scheme as, "a programme for police officers delivered with an academic partner, resulting in a nationally recognized Masters qualification. It uses a range of innovative approaches to challenge and equip future leaders" (National Police Improvement Agency, 2009, ¶ 1). The School of Business at Warwick University has partnered to create such a preparatory program. The program is aligned with the NPIA's leadership strategy for policing and the Police Leadership Qualities Framework. Angela O'Conner (2008), Chief People Officer at the National Policing Improvement Agency, indicated that,

> There are three domains that our research suggests should be at the core of policing education: Professional policing – this is the operational and tactical area. While currently reasonably well delivered, it needs to encompass a broader understanding of the strategic issues evolving in a shrinking world. Executive policing – includes personal leadership, governance and partnership working. There are improvements needed here such as the ability to connect with communities. Policing leaders need to engage with partners and stakeholders to understand issues, concerns and priorities. There is also a need to develop different leadership styles and flexibilities for different circumstances.

Business skills – this is the area with most need for improvement and focuses on

running an efficient and effective business. (¶, 15)

The National Police Improvement Agency (NPIA) has brought about a radically different

model for leadership development, training, and succession planning and is considered

cutting edge. Its approach was recently outlined at the 17th annual Interpol Training

Symposium held in Edmonton, Alberta, June 15-17, 2009 by Shelagh O'Leary of the

NPIA. Unfortunately, according to Peter Neyroud, Chief Constable at the National Police

Improvement Agency in Britain, (Personal communication, September 25, 2010), the

NPIA is being disbanded because of budgetary considerations.

A search for different succession planning models in Canadian Police Services

has turned up very little information. If the statistics from the Police Sector Council

(2007) study are to be believed, this should not come as a surprise.

Therefore, for the purposes of this research, it is evident that early identification

of potential is the first and potentially the most important step that must be undertaken if

succession planning and organizational success is to occur (Barnett & Davis, 2008;

Bratton, 2008). Since early identification is lacking in police succession planning, it

provides the opportunity for research such as the context for this study. Current practices

in Alberta rely on police officers' competencies to decide who is promoted within police

services; as a result, the discussion will now turn to a discussion of competency

frameworks.

Competency Frameworks

It is obvious to say that policing services require leadership, and further that no

other position comes under greater scrutiny as public safety is at stake. Crisis is not the

only time when effective police leadership is considered to be important. Millions of

public dollars are entrusted to police leaders and a community's level of safety is often

gauged by the effectiveness of the police and their ability to command respect and

maintain order. Poor police leadership may be easily identified however, "whenever there

are concerns about performance within the public sector, and leadership 'comes under the

microscope', there is no generally accepted theory against which practice can be tested"

(Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004, p. v). The complexity of measuring police

leadership effectiveness is compounded by the ever-changing trends in policing, unique

and public safety challenges, staff turnover, demographic issues and the effects of

globalization that the police leader must constantly address (Haberfeld, 2006). In an

attempt to ensure that police services of all sizes have people prepared to take on the

leadership of these important roles and specific priorities, several agencies, governments

and non-governmental organizations have taken it upon themselves to create new police

leadership competency frameworks.

The IACP police leadership framework is predicated on the following guiding

principles:

- Leader development is a career-long process:

- Organizations need a leadership system:

- Leader development should be sequential and progressive:

- Core leadership practices vary based on organizational level.

- Leader development is a leadership role and responsibility.

- Senior leaders must create and maintain a culture supportive of dispersed leadership.

- Formal education and training

    In-Service

    Collective

    Individual

- Learning through experience on the job

- Self-development (reading, reflection and peer interaction)

(IACP, 2008, Leadership Model Section)

Police leadership frameworks were also created by those groups who govern policing as demonstrated by the Cepol - European Police College (2006). Cepol undertook to create a senior police officer competency framework which would allow for a cooperative policing agenda to better assist in the fight against international crime, specifically within the European Union. The framework was developed within the competencies of; Professional Competencies, Contextual Competencies, Social Competencies and, Individual Competencies. (p. 8)

The Federal Bureau of Investigations (FBI) in the United States has extensive research in most facets of policing in North America, including its leadership development programs. A search for literature that identifies their leadership framework, however, reveals little information that is publically accessible. The Police Sector Council (2007) in Canada reportedly interviewed people within the FBI's Leadership Development Institute, however, and determined that they, "use a leadership development continuum consisting of a wide array of contemporary and relevant training

opportunities to continuously develop their current and emerging leaders" (p. 183). Furthermore, the FBI uses a competency-based program which utilizes the following eight competencies in their development, plans and promotions: Leadership, Interpersonal Abilities, Liaison, Organizing and Planning, Problem Solving and Judgment, Written and Oral Communication, Flexibility and Adaptability and Initiative.

The FBI is known not only for training its own personnel, but also for its extensive training and development opportunities for law enforcement agencies throughout the United States. It has a global strategy and law enforcement personnel from police agencies throughout the world, including Canada, often providing leadership development through the Leadership Institute.

In Australia, the New South Wales Police (NSW Police) are world-renowned for their research into competency-based human resources management systems. In March of 2009, the government of New South Wales (NSW) announced the opening of the New South Wales Police Leadership Centre at Hawkesbury, NSW. Police Minister Tony Kelly reported that,

> the Leadership Centre would mark a new era for the education and training of
>
> future leaders within the NSW Police Force.... In any community, police are
>
> symbols of leadership and authority, and it is vital that we continue to develop
>
> strong leaders into the future. (Government of New South Wales, 2009)

The Police Sector Council (2007) reported that the New South Wales police have a complete competency dictionary, competency models, resource guides etc. and that the competencies have been developed for all ranks within the police organization. The New

South Wales police believe that "linking competency acquisition to a career and performance development plan is essential" (Centrex, 2006, p. 184).

The National Police Service of Canada is the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. Its mandate, however, does not focus solely on national policing priorities. In several provinces, such as Alberta, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, provincial governments contract the RCMP to police their province. Also, many municipalities contract with the RCMP to address their policing needs.

In order to meet their responsibilities, the RCMP has created a list of eight core competencies:

- Leadership

- Planning and Organizing [Action Management]

- Personal Effectiveness and Flexibility

- Continuous Learning

- Communication

- Interpersonal Skills

- Thinking Skills

- Client-Centered Service

      (GRC-RCMP, 1998, Introduction to the Core Competency Section)

The competency of leadership in the RCMP is further broken down into four subcategories, each with a list of descriptors. The four subcategories are based on the level of responsibility each officer possesses and starts with the officer him or herself. The four subcategories are as follows: performs job function (individual contributor),

supervises a unit of work, manages multiple units of work, and corporate responsibility. It should be noted that each of the competencies is meant to build upon itself, meaning that as one masters the self or the individual contribution, it is presumed that he/she will also have mastered the competencies as listed in the previous work level. These competencies are also meant to encompass all individuals within the RCMP, including both sworn and civilian personnel.

In the United Kingdom, they have implemented the *Police Leadership Qualities Framework*, (PLQF) completed by the Central Police Training Authority (Centrex) (2006). The central purpose of this leadership framework is, "as a tool to help all police leaders begin, or continue to become, an effective leader ... to make British Police the best in the world" (Centrex, 2006, p. i). The framework is grounded in and has thoroughly examined the current and past theories and literature on leadership to create the PLQF model.

The British model starts by defining terms that often cause problems when associated to leadership theory.

> Competency: a skill or ability of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance. In the ICF, a competency is constructed such that it comprises an identified standard of performance in a given work-related activity where achievement of the standard is a result of displaying critical behaviours.

> Quality: a personal trait that describes or determines an individual's personality or character.

Value: a personally-held moral principle which is used to make judgments about

right and wrong, good and bad.

Belief: a conviction or opinion about life which is held to be true.

Attribute: any aspect of a person's character, values, beliefs, competencies or

behaviour which may or may not be used for the purposes of evaluation and

assessment. This is the all-embracing term. (Centrex, 2006, p. 32)

The Integrated Competency Framework (ICF) model, which has been in existence since

2001, has been rolled out within most of the policing organizations in Britain, especially

within the human resources function. The *Police Leadership Qualities Framework*

(PLQF) utilizes the same 12 core competencies as the ICF and they are considered its

foundation.

The Police Sector Council (2011) in Canada has developed a competency

framework that includes 14 leadership competencies that are divided into three

categories: performance, partnering, and accountability competencies. The council

described these competencies as follows:

Performance competencies require basic knowledge of business management,

including strategic, financial, and human resource management and the

ability to apply it. They enable police leaders to achieve public safety

goals through effective and efficient service delivery.

Partnering competencies enable leaders to foster relationships with others in and

outside their organizations, and engage them in working together toward a

common goal.

Accountability competencies enable leaders to make ethical decisions and be

accountable for activities in their areas of responsibility. They must

sustain the trust of police members and the public.

(Police Sector Council, 2011, p.5)

The performance competencies are as follows: change management, decision making,

financial management, human resource management, information technology

management, and strategic management. The partnering competencies are community

relation and media management, fostering relationships, interactive communication, and

organizational awareness. The accountability competencies are ethical accountability,

public accountability, public safety, and valuing diversity.

These competencies fall within an overarching competency based approach to

human resource practices which include 20 more behavioural competencies and two

technical competencies. Each of the ranks that exist within most Canadian police services

has an assigned competency profile which correlates the competency to a role level. In

other words, the level of competency required of a rank, changes between ranks,

depending on the role that officers are required to fill. Within the police constable

competency profile, there are nine competencies that are listed, two of which are

leadership competencies. These competencies are interactive communication and

organizational awareness. There are several agencies in Canada that are using the

competency based model as espoused by the Police Sector Council; however, a search of

the literature provided no publications in reference to the models efficacy.

Critiques of competency frameworks. It is evident that competency

frameworks have been the mainstay of police promotional systems in policing for some

time and apparently will be in Canada for the foreseeable future (Police Sector Council,

2010). However, there are those who are critical or have moved beyond utilizing

leadership competencies (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Conger & Ready, 2004; NPIA, 2009)

in leadership succession management.

Bolden and Gosling (2006) indicated that there are five commonly cited

weaknesses associated to the effectiveness of competencies:

1. The reductionist way in which this approach fragments the management role

   that than representation it as an integrated whole.

2. The universalistic/generic nature of competencies that assumes a common set

   of capabilities no matter what the nature of the situation, individual or task.

3. The focus on current and past performance rather than future requirements.

4. The way in which competencies tend to emphasize measurable behaviours and

   outcomes to the exclusion of more subtle qualities, interactions and situational

   factors. And,

5. The rather limited and mechanistic approach to education that often

   results. (p.150)

Some have argued that competencies in the policing world have become a

substitute for thought (P. Neyroud, Personal Communication, September 25, 2010) and

that, "competency models are complicated, conceptual and built around current realities"

(Conger & Ready, 2004, p. 44), and to some extent, they have been misused within

organizations (Bolden & Gosling, 2006). The use of competency frameworks is also

predicated on the fact that the people assessing the competencies have the sufficient

ability to identify competencies in others.

For the purposes of this research, it was expected that several competencies would be identified by the members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police as indicators of leadership potential. After all, competency frameworks and behavioural descriptive interviews, which are reliant on competencies, have become the mainstay of recent promotional processes in police services in Alberta. The word 'competency' has become part of the policing lexicon in Alberta, and therefore, was raised within this study. The benefit of this research is in the future focus of the research questions, and the research method had the potential to allow for the identification of subtleties in understanding and description. This has the potential to allow hypothesis and frameworks to emerge and be explored and to advance the literature and possibly to inform police practice.

Identifying Potential: What the Literature Says

Silzer and Church (2009) have been credited for establishing a framework for and thoroughly summarizing the literature on identifying high potential employees (Delal & Nolan, 2009; Henson, 2009; Robinson, Fetters, Riester, & Bracco, 2009). The rationale behind the identification of high potential persons is driven by the ever-pressing need to manage talent within organizations and provide the competitive advantage in business (Silzer & Church, 2009). It has been recognized that, in the past, potential has been based on a person's previous past work record (Robinson et al., 2009), however, as already discussed, this 'performance potential paradox' is clearly problematic. The need to establish a framework from which to operate is simply this, "today there is significant pressure on organizations and their leadership teams to ensure they have well-validated and useful measures of potential" (Silzer & Church, 2009, p. 378). In an attempt to understand the current practices in business for identifying potential, Silzer and Church

conducted an extensive literature review, examined nine different models identifying

potential that already existed in successful organizations and conducted two corporate

surveys. They compiled their findings and several key categories or themes emerged

from within the various models which are detailed below in Table 1.

Table 1.
Key Themes Across Current Models of Potential (Silzer & Church, 2009, p. 400)

Cognitive abilities

- Conceptual or strategic thinking, breadth of thinking

- Intellect, cognitive ability

- Dealing with complexity/ambiguity

Personal Variables

- Interpersonal skills, sociability

- Dominance

- Maturity, stability, resilience

Learning Variables

- Adaptability, flexibility

- Learning orientation, interest in learning

- Openness to feedback

Leadership Skills

- Leadership capabilities, managing and empowering people

- Developing others

- Influencing, inspiring, challenging the status quo, change management

Motivation Variables

- Drive, energy, engagement, tenacity

- Aspiration, drive for advancement, ambition, career drive, organizational commitment

- Results oriented, risk taking

Performance Record

- Performance track record

- Leadership experiences

Other Variables

- Technical/functional skills, business knowledge

- Qualifiers – mobility, diversity

- Cultural fit

Some researchers have argued that the Silzer and Church (2009) framework is lacking in that it does not provide for the identification of "derailers, such as dark side personality traits" (Delal & Nolan, 2009, p. 434), which arguably could potentially improve the model. Dark side personality traits are, "undesirable attributes that have been shown to predict career derailment across a variety of organizations....and can include arrogance, mischievousness, and rigidity" (Delal et al., p.434). Within policing, Schafer (2010) examined poor leadership within policing contexts recognizing that there is a growing scholarly literature in the public sector but little examination of the dark side of leadership within the policing context. Schafer's review of the literature concluded that;

Police departments, like many other organizations, too often failed to identify those with a strong potential to be effective leaders. Given the multiple and

competing definitions and measurements of leadership, too often agencies

defaulted toward "safe" methods of assessing those seeking promotion. The

tendency to base promotion assignments on performance on exams measuring

mastery of bureaucratic rules and protocols (i.e., "book smarts" and "bean

counting"), as well as the interfering influence of departmental politics and

personalities, contributed to the gap often observed between "street cops" and

their supervisors. (p. 738)

The outcomes of Schafer's research provided a laundry list of terms which described

poor police leadership. Comparative analyses of juxtaposing results from this research to

Schafer's may be of interest and the subject of future research by this author. Although

not the intent of this research, identification of the dark side of police leadership does

offer an alternative means from which to study police leadership and may provide the

context for future police research in Alberta.

Silzer and Church (2009) themselves believe that the summary of themes in Table

1 are, "a laundry list of components or potential" (p. 399) and are not practical for

organizational use. As a result, they developed what they refer to as 'potential

dimensions' and list them as follows: a) foundational dimensions, b) growth dimensions,

and, c) career dimensions (p. 399). These dimensions of 'potential' enable organizational

leaders to better understand the complexities of leadership potential.

Foundational dimensions are described as being, "consistent and hard to

change…they are relatively stable across situations, experiences and time…and are

unlikely to develop or change much without extraordinary intervention and support from

others" (Silzer & Church, 2009, p.399). They suggested that these characteristics, as one

matures, become more stable and are commonly reported on during performance

assessments or reviews.

Growth dimensions are, "intervening variables to learning and can be good

indicators of whether a person will develop further and learn other skills...they can

facilitate or hinder a person's growth and development" (Silzer and Church, 2009, p.

399), and appear to strengthen when someone is learning in a field of interest or in a

nurturing environment.

Career dimensions are, "early indicators of later end-state skills needed in specific

careers...these dimensions can be learned and developed provided the person has some of

the growth dimensions that can be leveraged"(Silzer & Church, 2009, p. 400), and is

properly placed within their career to experience them.

In Conclusion: Setting the Stage for this Study

A review of the literature on leadership theory, police leadership, definitions of

police leadership, succession planning, competency frameworks, and identifying

potential has resulted the identification of a base from which the specific research

questions within this research have emerged. It is evident that police services have

recognized the need to implement leadership theory and practices into police originations.

Furthermore, steps have been taken to implement in Canada (Police Sector Council,

2011), best practices that have been attempted in police services in other countries. It is

apparent that outside of Canada, some police services have moved beyond competency

frameworks; however within Canada, and for that matter Alberta, the contextualizing of

leadership competency frameworks is in its infancy. It may be the case that police

services need to experience the application of leadership competency frameworks as they

evolve from past practices to that which is occurring, for example in Britain. It is also clear that in Alberta, the definition of "what" is required for police leaders, as in what job specific requirements and competencies are required, has been investigated and activities are currently underway through the Police Sector Council (2011). The early identification of "who" has the potential for leadership in police services has not been examined and provides the gap in the literature from which this study was framed.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

Mixed Methods

This study used a mixed method sequential exploratory (Creswell, 2009) strategy. Mixed methods research has been utilized for some time and credit is given to Campbell and Fiske's work from 1959 which formalized multiple method research (Creswell, 2009; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). According to Johnson et al., (2007) social scientists, such as Webb, Campbell, Schwartz and Sechrest (1966), were given credit with advancing multiple method research by introducing the term triangulation. Denzin (1978) is credited with outlining how to use triangulation within research, developing four types of triangulation;

    a)   data triangulation (i.e.), use of a variety of sources in a study),

    b)   investigator triangulation (i.e., use of several different researchers),

    c)   theory triangulation (i.e., use of multiple perspectives and theories to interpret the results of a study), and

    d)   methodological triangulation (i.e., use of multiple methods to study a research problem). (Johnson et al., p.114)

Following Denzin, Jick (1979) explored the quality that triangulation can provide in research designs demonstrating that triangulation allows, "researchers to be more confident in their results … it can stimulate the creation of inventive methods … triangulation may also help to uncover the deviant or off-quadrant dimension of a phenomenon" (p.609). Johnson et al. (2007), credited Morse (1991) with first exploring simultaneous and sequential methodological triangulation. Five broad-based reasons for using mixed method research were provided by Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989):

a) triangulation (i.e., seeking convergence and corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon),

b) complementarity (i.e., seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with results from the other method),

c) development (i.e., using the results from one method to help inform the other method),

d) initiation (i.e., discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a reframing of the research question), and

e) expansion (i.e., seeking to expand the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components).

(Johnson et al., p. 115-116)

Mixed methods research, according to Yin (2009), "can permit investigators to address more complicated research questions and collect a richer and stronger array of evidence than can be accomplished by any single method alone" (p. 62). Other researchers have pointed to the merits of mixed methods research as the utilization of both qualitative and quantitative research, working in tandem, providing greater strength to a study (Creswell, 2009). Some authors have argued that the, "rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient, by themselves, to capture the trends and details of a situation" (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006, p. 3). As context is important in research (Yin, 2009), mixed method research affords, "special opportunities to use multiple sources of information from multiple approaches to gain new insights in the social world"

(Axinn & Pearce, 2006, p. 1). The intent of this research was to obtain a deeper understanding than could be determined by one method alone.

Creswell (2009) indicated that visual models can assist in the understanding of mixed method approaches, in this specific case; Figure 3, the sequential exploratory approach used in this study.

Since 1973, the AACP has been the voice of police leaders in the province of Alberta. Although disbanded for a few years after its initial inception, in 1985 the group reformed and has been active ever since. The original AACP was made up of the Chiefs of Police of the Municipal Police Service and the Commanding Officer of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police in "K' Division (Alberta).

However, through the late 80's and early 90's, the membership list grew to include Commissioned Members of the RCMP, First Nations' police services and municipal police services throughout Alberta, including the rank of Inspector. Recently, law enforcement leaders from organizations other than police services have also been permitted membership. Without a doubt, the AACP contains the most current and serving police leadership knowledge and expertise and its potential for application within Alberta. Although the size of the membership of the AACP ranges in numbers, according to Merle Fuller, who is the executive officer of the AACP, the AACP currently consists of approximately 60 active and associate members (personal communication, May 3, 2010). The membership is divided into four groups: active, associate, corporate and honourary members. The active membership is comprised of Alberta police leaders who hold the rank of Chief of Police or are RCMP Officers who hold position comparable to that of a Chief of Police, for example, the Commanding RCMP Officer of the City of Red

Deer. Associate members are those Alberta police leaders who are commissioned and apply for membership; however, they have no voting authority. Corporate members are not police officers but work closely with the police.

Figure 3.
Mixed method sequential exploratory design (Adapted from Creswell, 2009)
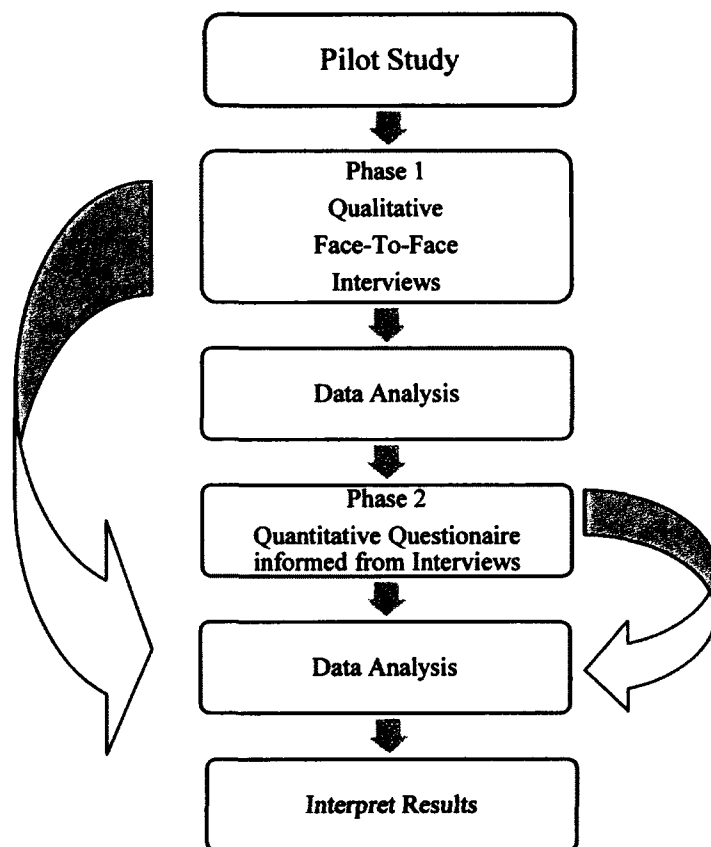
Honourary members are mostly those in government who work with the Police such as the Director of Law Enforcement. For the purpose of this study, only active and associate municipal members of the AACP will be invited to participate. Regular membership allows for voting privileges, and this is reserved for the people who are designated as Chiefs of Police within their organization. There are currently seven municipal Police

Chiefs in Alberta, two First Nations' chiefs, and 15 RCMP regular members who are

Commissioned RCMP Officers who command larger detachments in the province,

including the Commander of RCMP K Division (Alberta).

Description of Research Study Process

The pilot study. As mentioned previously, a pilot study was completed prior to

the commencement of the research project. The purpose of a pilot study was to refine the

research instruments, assist in recognizing potential research problems, and prevent data

collection errors (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Sampson, 2004), within the primary study.

The pilot study consisted of a number of interviews (N=3), that were conducted with

police officers who hold the rank of Staff Sergeant at midsized police service in Alberta.

The final number of interviews conducted during the pilot study was determined by the

findings from the initial 3 interviews. The interview protocol designed for the primary

study was used during the pilot interviews and, as noted earlier is attached in Appendix

A.

Phase 1: the primary study: interviews. Following the pilot study, and once

ethics approval was obtained from the Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board of the

University of Calgary, the first phase of this research was a series of face-to-face

interviews with a purposive sample of the regular and associate municipal members of

the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP). Face -to-face interviews are relied

upon extensively in qualitative research (Marshall & Rossman, 2006) and, "many of the

disadvantages of questionnaires are handled admirably by the interview" (Palys, 1997, p.

154). Face-to-face interviews provide for higher rates of participation, and the quality of

data is improved through the interaction between the interviewer and the participant

(Palys, 1997). In a qualitative interviews, the structure is generally open ended and the few questions asked are presented in such a way as to, "elicit views and opinions from the participants" (Creswell, 2009, p. 181).

A purposive sample (Teddlie & Yu, 2007) of the regular and associate municipal members of the AACP was interviewed. All of the regular and associate municipal members of the AACP were invited to participate in the interviews by email. The number of interviews conducted with of the participants was determined by the number of responses received. Teddlie and Yu (2007) suggested that there are, "no clearly established standards for how large the interview sample should be to generate trustworthy results" (p. 88). Furthermore, they suggested this problem is not uncommon in qualitative research; however, to ensure validity and reliability, the researcher must be cognizant of this fact to ensure that the appropriate number of interviews are conducted (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). In total, 14 participants responded to the interview requests and 10 participants were interviews from 19 regular and associate municipal members of the AACP.

The three research questions that guide this phase of the study are as follows:

1. How do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) define police leadership?

2. What do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) articulate as indicators of a junior police officer's potential for leadership?

3. When and where does the municipal members of the Alberta Association of

   Chiefs of Police see or experience these indicators of leadership potential in

   junior police officers?

An interview protocol (see Appendix A) (Creswell, 2009) was established using

the three research questions above as the basis for inquiry, and each of the interviews was

audio taped and transcribed. Measures were taken to ensure that the data is secured by

saving the transcriptions in an electronic file that is on a secure server and password

protected.

This study also incorporated the process identified by Creswell (2009) for

analyzing the qualitative data from the face-to-face interviews.

Step one:	Requires that the data be transcribed and prepared and arranged in such a way that the researcher can analyze the information.
Step two:	The data is read through in its entirety in order to obtain a general sense of the content and make notes about the overall depth, credibility and usefulness of the information.
Step three:	Coding of the data commences by attempting to organize the material in to workable segments. Listing the segments of significance will be completed which will allow for a systematic process of analyzing the existing data.
Step four:	The final step will be to analyze the data from the perspective of interpretation or meaning making. This could include analyzing how the findings are relevant to

existing theories or literature or from the researchers own

understanding of the concept under study.

Once the data was analyzed, the results from phase 1 of this research formed the

basis for the development and implementation of the second phase of this study, an E-

Survey.

Phase 2: the primary study an e- survey. Following phase 1, and also

following a second approval from Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board of the

University of Calgary, an E-survey (See Appendix B) was developed and distributed to

all regular and associate municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of

Police using **Fluid Surveys** (2010), as the software provider. The web-based survey was

self-developed, and the software itself had been previously tested within other research

conducted by the author. The software is secure and is Canadian based, therefore, not

subject to the privacy laws of the United States. Web-based surveys are deemed to be an

acceptable way of conducting research as they provide, "a user-friendly interface that

allows respondents to view questions, input their answers, and easily submit the forms

after completion by simply hitting a "send" button" (Hewson, 2008, p.551). The web-

based survey allows the opportunity to obtain higher response rates from individuals who

necessarily may not have the time to complete a pen and paper questionnaire. Hewson

(2008) indicated that there are other benefits of using web-based surveys: the ability to

access a large number of participants, the ease of use of statistical software as the data

collected is already in a digital format, lower costs than traditional pen and paper

questionnaires, and the online communication associated with the web-based survey

assists with issues of anonymity. The permission to conduct this research was granted by

the Board of the AACP in writing, and the participants were advised to expect the surveys to arrive through their email at work.

The online E-survey commenced by asking several demographic questions that provided the data necessary to gain better insight into the current picture of the participants, who were municipal members of police leadership in the province of Alberta. Participants were also asked to provide their age, gender, years of service as a police officer, length of service within their current employer, current rank, and years of service within their current rank.

The online survey asked participants to confirm and/-or validate the results from the qualitative phase of this study.

Within this study, a purposeful sample (Teddlie &Yu, 2007) was used, and the possible total population N = 19. As a result of the small number of potential participants, all persons within the population received the survey by email. In order to protect the identity of the participants, the names of the participants were not requested nor released, and each individual who responded was assigned a number, within the software, for the purpose of analysis and identification. Permission was also sought from participants to permit the researcher to use some direct quotes from the interviews, which would not identify the interviewee, within this dissertation.

The data from this quantitative phase of the research was used to extend, elaborate, add depth, and specificity to the qualitative findings.

As noted earlier, a detailed ethics application was completed and submitted to the University of Calgary prior to any research being conducted. Also, while the AACP had already agreed to participate and have endorsed this research, it is recognized that each

individual participant would be required to give consent to participate in this research. It is also noted that individuals could withdraw their consent to participate at any time during this study and that steps would be taken to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the results.

Researchers are required to identify potential internal and external threats to validity within social science research (Creswell, 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Palys, 1997) so as to minimize the likelihood that the potential threats would occur. As this is a study that utilized a qualitative method followed by quantitative method, measuring the validity from both perspectives was considered (Creswell, 2009).

Addressing limitations or threats in the research. Creswell (2009) described eight internal threats (p.163) which need to be considered in quantitative research. With regards to the participants, there are five potential threats which are described as follows: history, maturation, regression, selection and mortality. He also described three internal threats that relate to the, "use of an experimental treatment that the researcher manipulates" (p. 162): diffusion of treatment, compensatory/resentful demoralization, and compensatory rivalry. Furthermore, there are two internal threats that have to do with the procedures used in an experiment: testing and instrumentation (p.163).

Within this research, history, maturation, regression, selection, diffusion of treatment, compensatory/resentful demoralization, compensatory rivalry, testing and instrumentation were not perceived to be an internal threat to validity. The only internal threat which requires discussion is mortality.

Mortality occurs when, "participants drop out during an experiment due to many possible reasons" (Creswell, 2009, p. 163). In examining this threat, some steps were

taken to mitigate this problem. The purposive sample and method was chosen specifically because the participants have a vested interest in the outcomes of this research. The municipal members of the AACP are part of an organization that was created to promote police leadership concepts and discuss current policing issues in the province of Alberta. This research was supported by the AACP board and had been discussed at several of their meetings. The sample itself was selected as a means of decreasing mortality. Although some non-responses were expected, the steps indicated above minimized the likelihood of this threat.

Creswell (2009) also identified three external threats to validity: interaction of selection and treatment, interaction of setting and treatment, and interaction of history and treatment. These three external threats all existed within this specific study. It is also recognized that the results from this study cannot be generalized to another population. Although the study is replicable within other Chief of Police Associations in Canada, a limitation of this study is its external validity. A restriction of the claims made within the study sets the parameters for the reader to understand prior to any conclusions being made. This is not to say that this study is not useful, but that its limitations are recognized and acknowledged.

Creswell (2009) also indicated that validity within qualitative research does not mean the same thing as validity within quantitative research. In quantitative research, validity, "means that the researcher checks for accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures" (p. 190). Yin (2009) explored the concepts of construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability in examining qualitative research. Internal and external validity were considered in the discussion above; however,

construct validity and reliability also needed to be addressed. In this study, the approach

itself, using a mixed method sequential exploratory design followed by document

analyses, provided multiple sources of evidence which maximized the construct validity.

Reliability was difficult to assess as the opinions of the municipal AACP

members as they exist today, regarding future leadership capacity and early identification

of leadership potential, due to the very nature of the phenomenon, is expected to change.

While replication of this study is possible and encouraged, it was not the intent of this

researcher to generalize any results from this study to a larger population other than that

which was purposively chosen within this study. Creswell (2009) agreed with this

delimitation by stating that, "the intent of this form of inquiry is not to generalize findings

to individuals, sites, or places outside of those under study" (p. 193). Creswell suggested

that several steps can be taken to improve reliability within a study: ensuring transcripts

are correctly transcribed and that the definition used to code data remains constant

throughout the analyses phase of the research. Reflecting on the researcher's potential

biases, as was done in this study, also provided for greater reliability within the

qualitative part of this research (Creswell, 2009).

It is recognized that the scope of this research included only opinions of the

municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police, and that several other

groups within the province of Alberta, namely the Alberta Association of Police

Governance (AAPG), the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) and the Alberta

Federation of Police Associations (AFPA) may also have stakeholder positions, but are

not included in this study. Although the AAPG, RCMP and the AFPA are not considered

for this specific research, future research initiatives may undertake a comparative analysis of these police leadership stakeholders in Alberta.

As noted earlier, it has been recognized that this study would be difficult to replicate and therefore, is less rigorous than studies which are replicable. This is not to say that this study could not be undertaken in another province and then a comparative analysis completed. In fact, the author would suggest that this would be rationale for another study as mentioned above.

Finally, the focus of this research was to obtain the opinions of the participants and to assume that the participants had knowledge about the topic. This is a critical assumption and if wrong, had the potential to limit the findings of the study.

Researcher's Position

The researcher is a police officer within the province of Alberta and an associate member of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police AACP. There was careful thought given regarding the research methods in an attempt to eliminate bias. However, the researcher's position and familiarity with the population of officers surveyed for this study potentially affected the willingness of participants to be involved in the study, as well as the potential receptivity of the Chiefs of Police and others to the findings of this research. However, measures were taken to reduce the likelihood of the researcher's position having the potential to bias the results of interviews or the questions used in the surveys, which included peer review and following Creswell's analytical model.

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) indicated that there are steps that a research can take to prevent researcher bias in qualitative research. In this study, as previously mentioned, the mixed method sequential approach, in itself, was a means of removing

bias, and promoting rigor (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003), as the data from the first

phase was utilized to form the basis of the questions in survey in phase 2. Therefore, if

the participants disagree with the findings from phase 1, those results should be

demonstrated in phase 2. Therefore, phase 2 becomes a check and balance for the results

found in phase 1.

For the purposes of this research, "Peer Debriefing", as recommended by

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007, p. 245), was undertaken by the researcher to increase

qualitative validity. "Peer Debriefing" is a form of inter-rater reliability and provides for

an external assessment and evaluation of the data that is logically based not empirically

(Onwuegbuzie et al). They described the peer as someone who keeps the researcher

honest by posing difficult questions and by questioning assumptions and findings. A

researcher with previous face-to-face interview research experience was used to peer

debrief this study's findings with the researcher. The researcher was also experienced in

conducting face-to-face interviews, as this method was used during his graduate research

for a Master's Degree in Leadership and Training (Abela, 2004).

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

Social Constructivism

The policing context is well suited to the heroic, transformational, and trait theory studies of leadership. It is evident that the paramilitary, positional authority structure of command and control within policing, would contribute to leadership research within these paradigms. However, within the past 30 years, the move away from patrol based policing towards more complex policing systems, such as community based policing, problem-based policing, intelligence lead policing and crime reduction models, have changed the context of policing and, as a result, new opportunities for police leadership research to be explored. Social constructivist methodology has been considered and undertaken within the police training environment (Glasgow & Lepatski, 2010; ISEP, 2010), and there is some research that considers constructivist methodology in the development of leadership capacity with police services (Martyn & Scurr, 2007).

In this dissertation, a group of subject matter experts was interviewed and subsequently surveyed to provide their opinions on the identification of early leadership potential. Each of the subject matter experts was asked to provide a narrative that is positioned from his/her own perspective. This perspective was based on a lifetime of constructs, experiences, and beliefs that have shaped the subject matter experts' knowledge and understanding of leadership. Each individual's idea or sense-making of leadership, as a construct, was different, however, this added to the depth of understanding that can potentially emerge from mixed methods research, such as the method used here (Creswell, 2009).

This research is theoretically grounded in the position that, "leaders need to be encouraged to develop their understanding of themselves and their social and organizational communities and imperatives" (Iles & Preece, 2006, p. 324), as such, leaders and learning are codependent (Lambert, 2002; Sackney & Mergel, 2007). This codependency fits well into the Social Constructivist epistemology as constructed by Dewey, Piaget, and Vygotsky (Sackney & Mergel, 2007). Drawing further on the work of Bruner (1990), and Brown, Collins and Duguid, (1989), Social Constructivists postulate that, "learning involves the learner in sense-making activates that are shaped by prior knowledge and experiences that occur through social interaction and that are contextually situated" (Sackney & Mergel, 2007, p.75). Social Constructivists, "hold assumptions that individuals seek understanding of their world in which they live and work" (Creswell, 2009, p. 8), and furthermore that, "learners construct their own reality based upon previous experiences, mental structures and beliefs that are used to interpret social reality" (Sackney & Mergel, 2007, p. 75), and this understanding, according to Crotty (1998), is based on several assumptions;

1. Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting.

2. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives.

3. The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of the interaction with a human community.

(Creswell, 2009, p.8)

This research, positioned within the Social Constructivist paradigm, will potentially allow police officers to consider themselves as leaders and build, "leadership capacity through broad-based, skillful participation in the work of leadership" (Lambert, 2003, p.421). Police officers in Alberta will potentially learn and, therefore, from a Constructivist's view, build upon their leadership capacity and develop as leaders. Several scholars (Alban-Metcalfe & Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010; Parker and Carroll, 2009), utilized the terms human capital and social capital to discuss leader and leadership development. Human capital, in their research, referred to leader development as a focus, "on intra-personal competence in terms of self-awareness, self-regulation and self-motivation. It is predominantly individualistic and akin to programs of personal development" (Parker & Carroll, 2009, p. 263). Leadership development "in contrast is universally presented as inherently relational, social and collective and correspondingly drawing from three sets of capacities: structural (social and network ties), relational (interactions and relationships), and cognitive (shared representation and collective meaning)" (Parker & Carroll, 2009, p. 263). Some scholars (Cervani, Lindgren & Packendorff, 2010; Grint, 2005; Iles & Preece, 2006, Parker & Carroll, 2009), have pointed out that recent leadership studies have focused primarily on leader specific theories, such as trait theories, transformational leadership, and heroic leadership, as is the case in policing. Others, specifically in educational leadership studies (Lambert, 2002; Sackney & Mergel, 2007), have focused on shared or dispersed leadership approaches which are supported within the Social Constructivist paradigm.

Leadership, according to the Constructivist, is a social construct and within a social constructivist epistemology can theoretically be applied to many current and past

leadership theories. For example, trait or great man theories from the 1930's were predicated on the theory that leaders possessed personal traits that fostered their leadership ability. Social Constructivists would argue that a trait, although a personal characteristic that some may have, and others may not, is a social construct. In order for a trait to be of use within leadership, someone else must recognize, consciously or subconsciously the trait, and as such, give it meaning. This sense of meaning must be shared by the community in order for it to be understood. A leadership trait, for example charisma, is useless to a person who is stranded alone on a desert island. A trait only has leadership context when the trait is understood by two or more people; therefore, social constructivists would not discount trait theory within a constructivist paradigm. A Social Constructivist argue that leaders, who experience leadership through inquiry, participation, and relationships, including interacting with those who display charismatic traits, are learning, and gaining knowledge to make sense of the construct of leadership. As such, the accumulation of leadership knowledge, from a constructivist perspective, is premised on the assumption that someone, individually or within community, will benefit from the acquisition of the knowledge. From this perspective, leadership research is not done for the creation of new knowledge alone, as is found within other epistemologies, such as Positivism (Creswell, 2009).

Police leadership scholars have the benefit of learning from leadership studies in disciplines other than policing, such as the research literature found within educational leadership studies. Social Constructivists, within education, believe that, "leadership is the reciprocal processes that enable participants in a community to construct meanings that lead toward a shared purpose" (Lambert, 2000, ¶ 16). Police leadership, especially

within dispersed leadership theory, as espoused by the International Association of Chiefs of Police, within a social constructivist epistemology, have similar goals. People who work in police services in Alberta participate in communities of practice with similar goals and functions. Police leaders also need to work together in establishing a meaning-making process to develop police leadership capacity, and to fill the leadership space (Martyn & Scurr, 2007) that has been created for numerous reasons in Alberta. This research began with a discussion with current police leaders to obtain their opinions on how to identify those who will eventually lead (Lambert, 2003). The context of policing, with its culture, beliefs, networks, relationships, values and norms, provides an excellent arena for the study of leadership and the Social Constructivist epistemology is well suited as the theoretical framework to guide this research.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

The Pilot Study

Once the University of Calgary Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board

approved this research, a municipal police service in Alberta was contacted to provide

participants for the pilot study. In April of 2011, three staff sergeants from a medium

sized municipal police service in Alberta were contacted by email and asked to

participate. All agreed to be interviewed on the understanding that they were volunteering

to assist with a pilot study and that none of their individual responses would be used

within the cumulative data from within the main study. The participants were interviewed

separately at their offices and the discussions were audio taped and transcribed. Each

participant in the pilot study also signed a consent form indicating agreement to

participate in the pilot study. As stated earlier, the purpose of a pilot study was to refine

the research instruments, to assist in recognizing potential research problems, and to

attempt to prevent data collection errors (Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Sampson, 2004).

Transcription of the interviews was completed, and the time frames for the

interviews and the time to transcribe the interviews were consistent with pre-study

expectations. As anticipated, these pilot interviews confirmed that the questions for the

Phase 1 interview protocol were understood by the participants and only minor changes

were required in the working of a few questions before proceeding to Phase 1 of the

research.

Phase 1: Face-to-Face Interviews

In May of 2011, a current list of the membership of the Alberta Association of

Chiefs of Police (AACP) was received from the Executive Officer of the AACP. The list

was examined, and the names of the municipal members of the AACP were identified

(N= 19) which became the pool of participants for the purposes of this study. These

municipal members were employed by one of the seven municipal police services in

Alberta. An email was sent to each of the potential participants and 15 of the 19 potential

participants responded, all of whom agreed to participate in the research. From the pool

of 15 respondents, there were three respondents who were not available during the

interview time frame, and another of the participant's background was not as a municipal

police officer in Alberta. A third possible participant was not interviewed due to a

conflict of interest. As a result, 10 of the 15 responding municipal members of the AACP

were interviewed. Each of the participants was contacted by email to arrange a date and

time for an interview. In all but four cases, meetings were scheduled and the interviews

conducted with little problem. In two cases, participants asked to be interviewed by

telephone rather than face-to-face. The participants requested this as they were not at

work during the times the interviews were established or their schedules did not allow for

face-to-face meeting times. As a result, a request was made to the University of Calgary

Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board for an amendment to the originally approved

research methodology to allow for some of the interviews to be conducted by telephone.

Approval was granted and the telephone interviews were conducted with the respondents

who requested them. In the final two interviews, meetings were scheduled and an hour

before the interview they were cancelled due to emergencies that arose for the

participants. As a result a request was made by the participants for telephone interviews

instead. The final two interviews were, therefore, conducted in June and July of 2011.

All of the interviews, conducted both face-to-face, and by telephone, were transcribed shortly after they were conducted. After all the interviews were transcribed, the 10 interviews were assigned a random number of 1 through 10 as a means of providing anonymity to the participants and for use in referencing their comments during the analyses. All 10 of the interviews were then analyzed using the Creswell (2009) model which consisted of the following:

Step one:	The data was transcribed and prepared and arranged in such a way that the researcher can analyse the information.
Step two:	The data was read through in its entirety in order to obtain a general sense of the content and make notes about the overall depth, credibility and usefulness of the information.
Step three:	Coding of the data commenced by attempting to organize the material into workable segments. Listing the segments of significance will be completed which will allow for a systematic process of analyzing the existing data.
Step four:	The final step was to analyze the data from the perspective of interpretation or meaning making. This included analyzing how the findings are relevant to existing theories or literature or from the researchers own understanding of the concept under study.

The results of the analyses from Phase 1 are discussed in detail, below.

Results of Phase 1.

To reiterate the purpose of Phase 1, as described earlier, the three research

questions that guided this phase of the study were to determine the following:

1. How do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of

    Police (AACP) define police leadership?

2. What do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of

    Police (AACP) articulate as indicators of a junior police officer's

    potential for leadership?

3. When and where do the municipal members of the Alberta Association

    of Chiefs of Police see or experience these indicators of leadership

    potential in junior police officers?

In addition to these questions, the researcher also collected some general demographic

details of those interviewed, as well, which are summarized below. To reiterate, the

purpose of Phase 1 of this mixed-methods research, these interviews were also conducted

in order to provide the basis for the second phase of this study which was an E-survey

that was sent electronically to all municipal members of the Alberta Association of

Chiefs of Police.

Demographic details. Of the ten participants interviewed n Phase 1, the average

age of the participants was 51 years with an average length of service as a police officer

of 30 years. The average length of service as a police executive was 6.5 years.

Educationally, as Table 2 indicates, the highest level of education achieved by the

participants was also determined within Phase 1 of this study.

Table 2.

Educational Levels Achieved by the Municipal Members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police. (N=10)

No Post-Secondary	College	Undergraduate Degree	Graduate Degree	Doctoral Degree
1	4	4	1	0

The interviews themselves, both those conducted face-to-face and by telephone, were divided into three sections and each participant was asked questions surrounding three themes, a) how they became a police leader, b) definitions of police leadership, and c) the identification of police leadership in others. The results from each section are summarized below, based on the themes that emerged from the structured analyses of the three main questions that were the focus of the interviews.

How you became a police leader. Section 1 questions commenced by asking the participants to reflect on their own leadership journey and how, in their opinion, they became a police leader. There were four distinct themes that emerged from the data: a) opportunity, b) self-identification, c) mentorship, and d) demographics.

Opportunity. There was consensus that municipal members of the AACP believed that their leadership potential was recognized by their supervisors, mostly sergeants and staff sergeants, when they were given or self-initiated opportunities within the police organizations that allowed them to display their potential for leadership. Although there were several areas where opportunities presented themselves,

investigations and special projects were seen as the venue where leadership potential was mostly displayed. This was especially the case when the officers were able to demonstrate success or achieve results within the given opportunity. This opportunity allowed the officers to get noticed, especially within the larger police services where competition and sheer numbers were seen as barriers to being noticed by a supervisor or superior officer. It was noted that once success was recognized within a role, senior staff kept giving more and more opportunities for participants to succeed (Participant 10, Section 1).

As mentioned above, investigative ability was seen as a means from which officers could demonstrate leadership potential and most opportunities presented themselves in the investigative role. Participant 7 indicated, "You are not going to be looked at as a leader unless you are looked on as a good investigator initially" (Section 1). Direct supervisors may be better positioned to assess potential through first-hand knowledge of investigative prowess; however, senior officers often only measure leadership potential only by the written police reports that cross their desks, "often the written word is the only means that police executive are able to assess the potential of junior officers" (Participant 10, Section. 1). Therefore, being able to communicate effectively in the written word was a skill that allowed officers to be identified with leadership potential.

It should be noted that investigative ability, and being noticed in that regard by senior officers, was also seen as potentially problematic, especially when promotions to leadership positions are not generally based on investigative prowess. Participant 7 identified that the police culture was seen to accept those who are promoted, who have

been identified by the police culture as promotable, due to their investigative prowess (Section 1). However, when the board making the decision to hire, does so based on criteria that is not in keeping with the police culture, a disconnect occurs and police officers will negatively critique the promotional process and show dissatisfaction. Participant 2 supported this notion indicating that,

> 15 years ago I would have said, if you can't do basic police work, then you shouldn't be a leader. I don't believe that anymore. However these people don't always have the cultural credibility from those they are expected to lead. Sometimes really good investigators make horrible managers, leaders and administrators. They can't save on overtime, they can't sit down as focus on a documents that speak to budgets etc., they just want to go out and catch bad guys and put them in jail, good thing, but that doesn't make you an inspector, staff sergeant or patrol sergeant for that matter. (Section 1).

Self-identification. Most participants agreed that once they self-identified their personal desire to become a leader, they started career planning, took on opportunities, gained confidence, and became more proactive in self-directing their career. They did not wait for it to come to them, they sought it out. Self-identification and the desire to advance in order to take on a leadership role in policing were identified as important steps in several participants' leadership journeys.

> "It's a personal choice to become a leader" (Participant 9, Section 1).

"I would have a personal policy never to say no, never turn an assignment

down, never say it's someone else's job, or that's not my role or position"

(Participant 8, Section 1).

Some recognized that the organization was not responsible for police officers'

advancement and described it as a partnership between the police officer, and the police

service. Police officers need to be responsible for their own career aspirations and put the

effort in to getting there. Some recognized that reasons to desire leadership changed as

their careers progressed.

I guess what I am saying is that at different levels it was different,

different motivation and I think as you mature in the position you reflect

on that leadership. It became a way of getting something in the beginning

and maybe self-serving, it was more about doing your best and

challenging yourself, but as I got more and more into my career I saw

leadership as a responsibility that I needed to take on and it was more of

my duty if that makes sense. (Participant 9, Section 1)

Mentorship. Mentors were recognized as important people in the participants'

careers for those who identified they had mentors. Mentors were described as leaders

within an organization who saw potential and provided opportunities and suggestions for

growth. They also provided input at critical points in the participant's careers. Not all

mentors were recognized as being police officers (Participant 1, Section1), and some

participants agreed that informal mentorship occurred prior to getting into a career in

policing (Participant 9, Section 1; Participant 10, Section 1). It was apparent that the

police executives, who had formally identified mentors, spoke positively of those

relationships. However, there were several participants who indicated that they clearly had no formal mentorship from people within their police organizations (Participant 6, Section 1; Participant 10, Section 1).

There were no formal mentorship programs identified by any participant. The participants who were mentored themselves believed that their supervisors simply took an interest in them as a person with potential, or perhaps simply they were liked by the group identified as the "old boys club" (Participant 9, Section 1). The process was described as being taken under one's wing and taught how to be a police officer.

A lot of it was by osmosis. I suppose observing and doing what you want and receiving that coaching and mentoring without even calling it coaching and mentoring earlier and later as you progress. (Participant 9, Section 1).

I think early on you make that decision yourself where you want to go and the first couple years of a career you just wanted to learn to be the best policeman, and you know I think that it's that unofficial competition that happens, who can get the most tickets, or the most arrests, who can solve or find the biggest crime, and as you step forward and you start to realize the potential in yourself I think, and where your coaches and mentors come forward and tell you good job and have you thought about doing this. (Participant 9, Section 1)

Some believed that they made a conscious decision to enter into relationships with those people in the organization with police cultural credibility, indicating, "Who you chose to surround yourself with helped make me who I am, step up, don't sit back, make a

difference" (Participant 9, Section 1). Personal relationships and the ability to get along with other people were also credited with being important for leadership development, specifically in speaking about the old boys club, "if they liked you, you got promoted, or if they liked you, you got special jobs" (Participant 9, Section 1).

Demographics. The participants believed that timing within a police officer's career has significance in the identification of his/her leadership potential. For example, in several interviews, the participants agreed that when they were initially hired, there was time spans early on in their careers where there were few people hired within municipal policing in Alberta. As a result, although leadership identification may have occurred, there were few promotional opportunities available. This issue was considered problematic as the lack of opportunity interfered with the self-identification for leadership. In some cases, where advancement within the organization was not possible due top demographics, the participants participated in opportunities outside of policing, such as education, to ready themselves for when the demographic changed.

One of the participants indicated that police officers with potentially much more ability had to wait much longer due to the demographic (Participant 6, Section 1), and therefore, the organization missed the out on their potential leadership influence. Others commented that although timing played an important role, leadership identification and promotions occurred sometimes simply by happenstance; "Most of the roles in which I was placed were due to circumstances out of my control. They kind of just fell into place" (Participant 10, Section 1).

One of the participants captured the essence of his leadership journey in the following quote,

I think early on you make that decision yourself where you want to go and the

first couple years of a career you just wanted to learn to be the best policeman,

and you know I think that it's that unofficial competition that happens, who can

get the most tickets, or the most arrests, who can solve of find the biggest

crime...as you step forward and you start to realize the potential in yourself, I

think, this is where your coaches and mentors come forward and tell you good job

and have you thought about doing this. (Participant 9, Section 1).

Definitions of police leadership. The second section of the interview dealt with

asking the participants about their understanding of the definitions of police leadership.

During the analyses, key words and concepts were captured as a means of describing the

exemplar qualities of a junior police officer with leadership potential. The purpose of

collecting these key words and concepts was to use this data in Phase 2 of this research to

identify which key words and concepts are, in the opinions of the municipal members of

the AACP, significant and applicable to junior officers with leadership potential, Table 3

represents those key words and concepts captured from the narrative.

Table 3.

Key Words and Concepts of the Municipal Members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police.

Foresight	Caring	Good Communicator
Solid Operational Skills	Empathetic	Dreamer
Ethical Decision Making	Takes Responsibility	Willingness to learn
Accountability	Integrity	Creative Thinker
Stability	Respectful	Well Versed
Honesty	Dynamic	Flexible
Predictability	Sincerity	Team Builder
Common Sense	Polite	Business Acumen
Logic	Passionate	Initiative Beyond
Organizationally	Self-Reflective	years of Service
Supportive	Desire to Influence	Ability to Deliver
Approachable	Enthusiastic	Going Above and Beyond Expectations
Preparedness	Selflessness	Big Picture Thinker
Vision	Politically Astute	Quality in work
Higher Level Thinker	Work Ethic	Career, Not a Job
Current	Self-Aware	Non-Confrontational
Enthusiastic	Diligent	Organized
Creative		

Most participants struggled with a response to this question and could not concisely articulate a police leadership definition. Participant 9 stated, "It's easier for me to tell you what a good leader is rather than define leadership" (Section 2). However, one participant was concise in his answer,

> Leadership for me is two parts. It's having the vision – at every level and then conveying that vision to others in a way they understand and can follow. To operationalize [sic.] the vision. There are a lot of police officers with one or the other, but few with both.   (Participant 10, Section 2).

As a result, often key words or themes were used to describe competencies, skills, or behaviours (see Table 3) that police leaders display or possess rather than defining police leadership. Several participants articulated that they previously had not been required to consider a formal definition for police leadership, and one participant in particular stated that much more time should be spent by police leaders contemplating police leadership and talking about it. (Participant 4, Section 2).

Two general themes emerged from the participants that were identified as a) common definition concerns, and b) application of business leadership definitions.

Common definition concerns. Questions were asked as to whether or not there should be a shared definition of police leadership in Alberta municipal police services. There was consensus that there are certain leadership competencies that will be shared among Alberta police leaders and the police services, but that there are too many difference among communities to rely on one standard definition of police leadership.

> There can be a shared definition of leadership but it will have to be generic
>
> and open...each community will be different; expectations of each
>
> community look a bit different. (Participant 9, Section 2).

> Can't be a common definition, each community is different. (Participant 3, Section 2)

Connecting the leadership profile to the community was a theme that emerged strongly within the interviews.

Application of business leadership definitions. Most of the participants agreed that definitions of leadership that exist within the business sector are applicable to police leadership. Police leaders were described by one participant as simply, "human beings making decisions on behalf of other people" (Participant 2, Section 2), recognizing that

with the police culture, police organizations tend to segregate themselves from other organizations as different. This was supported by Participant 3 who stated, "Police executive are in the business of policing, not really policing anymore" (Section 2).

There were a few participants that agreed that police leaders could function well in private industry leadership role; however, the police leaders were reluctant to say vice versa. Participant 2, said,

> Police leaders have specific knowledge of our industry and it requires us being
> familiar and knowledgeable about policing, procedure, legislation, but that's
> about it. There is no real definition of police leadership. We happen to be called a
> police organization and someone has to lead the police. (Section 2).

In referring to business leadership definitions, Participant 10 stated,

> I wouldn't discount them, but I wouldn't rely exclusively on them...I think as a
> police leader it's important to know the nuances of policing and be able to lead
> within that role. (Section 2).

Others wanted to ensure the discussions did not get caught up in the formal definitions of police leadership as the complexity of the police environment requires flexibility, which may interfere in the creation of a specific leadership definition. There was also concern that as soon as the Chiefs of Police got together to create a shared definition, it would be quickly out of date and, therefore, less useful.

However, alternatively, few participants disagreed that police leadership really is that much different than any other form of leadership. Leaders in private industry make split second decisions concerning safety and employees all of the time. All that is

different is that police leaders are in a police environment, with special rules and equipment, asserting that the leadership skills required are still the same.

The identification of police leadership in others. The third section of the interview protocol asked participants several questions to describe a junior police officer who demonstrated leadership potential. There were three themes that emerged from the interviews: a) attitudinal potential, b) strategic potential, and c) demonstrated leadership potential. A secondary line of questioning within this section dealt with the identification of leadership potential through visceral responses or 'gut feelings', and the themes that emerged from that data will be addressed following the discussion of the three thematic areas identified above.

Attitudinal potential. It was recognized by the participants that junior police officers with leadership potential were those who have the right attitude with regards to the career of policing. For some of the participants, the right attitude was described as a proper mindset. Junior officers with leadership potential did not display the media driven false image and persona of policing. The junior police officers with leadership potential entered policing for what was described as the 'right reasons', which meant that they were service oriented and wanted to give back to the community. The participants were quick to point out that this did not mean that the junior officers with improper mindsets would never be able to become great leaders; it was simply that the junior officers with leadership potential generally displayed their leadership attitude and mindset early in their careers. The junior officer with leadership potential was described as selfless, and as one participant stated, "It's not about what they can personally gain from their work, but

how they can bring others along with them. I think you start to see that when they are

very junior" (Participant 10, Section 3).

Actually observing the demonstration of appropriate attitude was recognized as a

problem within the police organizations. Often, the performance assessment systems do

not look for attitudinal congruence with leadership potential; therefore, leadership

potential may be missed within formal assessment systems (Participant 6, Section 3).

Junior officers with leadership potential seem to be able to make the best of any

opportunity that they are given, which is difficult in an organization where, "police

leaders want creativity in an organizational system that makes you colour between the

lines" (Participant 2, Section 3). The mentoring of those junior officers who portray

leadership potential was recognized as being important for the participants. However, it

was pointed out that there were few, if any, formal mentorship programs within policing

in Alberta. The respondents indicated that informal or unofficial mentorship does occur

for some; however, there are officers whose careers and personalities are not conducive

to the unofficial mentoring or leadership identification opportunities that currently exist.

Some officers were not comfortable with the informal golf course conversations and

social interactions with each other outside of work, settings that were identified as the

places where trust building relationships are created that can last for a police officer's

career. It was also identified that police organizations marginalize those who are a little

different. By this, they mean officers who are not the keen investigators or the

policeman's policeman. These officers are sometimes not included in certain activities,

events on duty or off duty. Gossip and rumours start, and other police officers start

believing the rumours without having firsthand knowledge of the junior officer's

potential (Participant 2, Section 3). It was identified that policing has a history of erroneously accepting the opinions of others, *about* others, and police executive are required to be cognizant of this fact during leadership selection and identification.

Leadership potential was also described as being demonstrated when dealing with people in challenging situations and with the most challenging of individuals. Junior officers with leadership potential are empathetic, caring, and are known to rise to the top in such situations. Junior officers demonstrate leadership potential by being professional and courteous, knowing how a call should be handled, providing applied expertise, and demonstrating knowledge of the law. Junior officers with leadership potential have the respect of people who work around them, they show others respect, and have genuine concern for others. (Participant 10, Section 3). This question was further explored by Participant 10 when speaking about the attitude of junior officers with leadership potential, "Do we create leaders or do we just identify leaders who are already there and just provide opportunities to succeed" (Section 3). Attitude was recognized as being difficult to teach to junior officers, but hiring those with the proper attitude was something that was seen to be achievable.

Strategic potential. Junior officers with leadership potential were described as having an understanding of the organizational mission statement of the police service and demonstrating the vision of the police organization in their daily activities. Participant 10, in describing one junior officer with leadership potential stated, "the officer stood out because of her ability to share a vision and participate in developing that vision; she saw things in a bigger light than most people" (Section 3). It was apparent that big picture thinking was clearly used in identifying potential.

Junior officers with potential also demonstrate that their actions are congruent with organizational expectations; they have a sense of responsibility, and are not afraid to respectfully hold others, or themselves, accountable. A potential leader understands how one's own behaviour affects the behaviours of others including peers and supervisors; he/she understand their environment and have dynamic personalities. Potential leaders understand that they have power within a patrol team, but use that power to advance the organizational objectives, not for subversive purposes. Teaching others was also identified as an indicator of leadership potential as well as instructing at a high level (Participant 4, Section 3).

Demonstrated leadership potential. There was consensus that junior officers, first and foremost, were identified as having leadership potential due to their high level of performance as a patrol constable. These officers were seen to stand out and were noticed by their peers and supervisors. Potential leaders were respected and identified as being good at what they did at the ground level, which was considered a baseline from where leadership potential commenced. Potential leaders were able to recognize this and understood that, "establishing your reputation early is an important means of demonstrating leadership potential" (Participant 8, Section 3). Leadership potential was identified when the officers started doing things for the organization and demonstrated some proactive involvement. They proactively sought learning opportunities and experiences and did the job well; they were considered most likely to succeed.

> The basic job allows you to display leadership. Wherever you land within
>
> the organization you can be a leader, it's a choice...Leadership is
>
> displayed in policing when police officers are empowered... If you are

> looking for the officer making a difference working with the team, taking
>
> on committee projects, you just stack those up in your brain. It's a
>
> cumulative effect. (Participant 9, Section 3).

A gap in the identification process was also noted by the participants. The participants

noted that leadership identification can occur, but that police organizations have a

responsibility to create the opportunities and place officers into situations where they can

allow junior officers to succeed and to demonstrate their leadership potential. Often, the

day-to-day pressures of policing and the lack of capacity within the police organizations

were identified as issues that prohibit potential leaders from developing, or from

presenting behaviors that allowed them to be identified. It was recognized the police

organizations have a role to play here and more has to be done in that regard.

Furthermore, it was identified by Participant 6 that there is a real lack of leadership

training for constables and sergeants in Alberta and that, demographically, these officers

are going to make or break Alberta police organization in the future. Participant 9

extrapolated on this point and indicated,

> The fault in policing is what we do with the officer once we recognize
>
> them, to avoid the perception of the old boys club, we may have become
>
> too sensitive to that. You have to avoid knighting these officers.
>
> (Section 3)

The 'knighting' of police officers promotes a belief of unfairness in a competitive

promotional process within a police organization that is, in fact, based on fairness and

objective criteria. 'Knighting' an officer can be seen to be detrimental to the officer with

leadership potential; in a common mantra used in policing circles, "When eagles fly, out come the archers."

Visceral responses. The participants were asked about whether or not gut feelings or visceral responses played a part in the early identification of leadership potential. Eight of the 10 participants agreed that visceral responses are used when assessing potential for leadership. The participants agreed that most visceral responses occurred when they were observed interacting, or were directly interacted with a junior police officer. As a result of that interaction, the participant has an emotional response, or a gut feeling about the junior officer.

The participants were able to identify certain actions or contextual situations of junior officers where they observed or which generated these visceral responses about their leadership potential:

- consistency of body language with the spoken word

- demonstrating charisma

- sensing a significant trait

- trustworthiness

- demonstrating self-confidence

- command presence.

One participant commented that,

> Visceral responses to me are the ability to get along with others. You get
>
> that feeling when you are speaking to others. The caring people, you can
>
> hear it in their voice, the way they speak, the way they are talking. We

don't often measure that. I know we don't. I think it's an important part of

leadership. (Participant 10, Section 3)

Visceral responses were seen to have something to do with a comfort-ability or a

confidence you perceived by watching or interacting with other people. Furthermore,

these visceral responses also have a tendency to build upon themselves. Visceral

responses were perceived to occur as one participant indicated, when people are engaged,

leadership potential is observed in junior officer's actions, communications, behaviours,

and attitude.

Some of the participants recognized that personality assessment is an important

part of visceral response, implying that likeability has something to do with visceral

responses. When assessing personality, some participants agreed that junior officers they

identified as potential leaders through visceral responses were similar personality types to

the participant. Trustworthiness also produced a visceral response, and it was noted that

people tend to gravitate towards people who they instinctively trust. Alternatively, the

lack of self-confidence was identified as a negative visceral response by one interview

participant.

The participants were, however, quick to address potential issues surrounding the

application of visceral responses in the processes of identifying leadership potential in

junior officers. Some of the interviewees argued that officers have to be careful with gut

feelings, claiming that they are easy to go with and can also be pervasive. Furthermore,

they noted that some junior officers can be seen to fail in one environment and then thrive

in the next. Some argued that visceral responses need to be explored, but that they are not

always correct, as one participant stated, "I've been wrong as much as I've been right" (Participant 4, Section 3), when assessing leadership potential.

One participant recognized that they he frequently relied on emotional responses in his assessment of individuals, to the point that he speaks about it in executive meeting so as to alleviate the bias emotional responses can have on his own leadership identification processes. The current selection and promotional processes within the police services was identified as a means to remove the subjectivity and biases that can occur within a promotional process. However, at the end of the day, the decision to promote or select still comes down to a board of people who make a decision, and it would be naive to believe that visceral or emotional responses do not play a part, at least subconsciously, into the decision making process.

Summary of learning and next steps, based on results from phase 1. As detailed above, the results of Phase 1 were used as the basis for the development of an E-survey that was administered to all Municipal Members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police.

The researcher also learned more about both the interview process itself and about the identification of leadership potential from the interviews with the 10 Chiefs of Police who participated in Phase 1 of this research.

With respect to the interviews themselves, there were several lessons learned from the pilot study. It was apparent that several questions within the interview protocol used language that was not familiar to the pilot study participants, specifically with reference to the contextual questions. Secondly, there was not enough room on the interview protocol forms themselves to allow for note taking by the researcher. The third issue dealt

more with the interruptions that occurred while the participants were being interviewed. As police officers work in a dynamic environment, there is often commotion, phones ringing, and background noise. As these staff sergeants were working when they were interviewed, there was an expectation that they would be cognizant of their surroundings in case they were called into service. This included looking at cell phones to ensure they were not required for emergencies and answering the phone when it rang. It was clear that this was not a slight on the importance of the pilot study research, but that there may have been an emergency response required by the participants that would take precedence over the interview at hand. As a result of these lessons, slight changes were made to the interview protocol, which included the requirement for flexibility on the part of the interviewer to deal with the unforeseen circumstances that may arise when interviewing police officers in their own environment. Also, the changes in the wording of the questions that were required to permit and enable discussions during the interviews were also incorporated into the questionnaires for Phase 2 of the Study.

With respect to the areas and topics that will be explored in Phase 2, using an electronic survey that was developed and distributed to all regular and associate Municipal Members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police, the areas and themes identified and validated by the interviews with respect to how police leadership is identified were also used as the basis for questions on the electronic survey. These Phase 1 interviews, therefore, definitely resulted in valuable and important insights themselves, insights that will be further explored in Phase 2.

Phase 2: E-Survey

Once the data from the interviews were analyzed, an E-Survey was created using Fluid Surveys (2010). The survey template (See Appendix B) used the themes and statements made by participants that were developed from the face-to-face interviews in Phase 1 of this research. In Phase 2, these specific statements were used as specific items for scales that were grounded in the opinions of Phase 1 participants (Creswell, 2009). In this way, Phase 2 of this study was designed to add depth and validity to the data that emerged from the interviews. Once the survey instrument was developed, an application was made to the University of Calgary Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board for approval to conduct the survey. Approval was granted on September 2, 2011, and the E-survey was launched on September 28, 2011. The link to the E-survey was contained within an email that was sent to all 19 municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police. Of the 19 possible participants, 14 completed the E-survey. A final report (see Appendix C) was generated by the Fluid Survey software and was then analyzed.

There were four sections within the E-survey instrument in which a series of questions were asked and identified:

1. Demographics

2. How You Became a Police Leader

3. Police Leadership Definitions

4. The Identification of Leadership in Others.

Within each section, statements, and concepts that were provided in the Phase 1 interview data were identified and Likert (1932) item questions were created to assess the

relative opinions of the participants to each statement. Within each Likert item, the participants were asked to rate the statement or concept on a five point scale, from strongly disagree to strongly agree: the mid-point of the scale being neutral.

Within one specific question in section 3 of the survey, a slightly different approach was utilized. There were 46 key concepts and statements that were identified by the participants in the Phase 1 interviews. (See Table 3) Thurstone (1928) developed a scaling method, commonly used in criminal justice, to quantify certain abstract concepts, such as opinions and attitudes, into a form that is statistically significant. Most recently, Guffey, Larson, Zimmerman, and Shook (2007) utilized a Thurstone method to identify the traits that subject matter experts believed would best predict police officer career success. As a result of this method, five statistically significant factors were developed to help with recruitment and retention of police officers. Within the current research, a similar method, as utilized by Guffey et al (2007), was also included in an attempt to further determine the early identification of leadership potential among junior police officers in Alberta.

The Thurstone method "relies upon judgments of content experts (rather than samples of a more general target population) to rate scale items in terms of importance" (Guffey et al, 2007, p. 2). Therefore, the same subject matter experts were asked to rate the statements on a scale from 1-11 in terms of how favorable they believe the variable or statement to be. In this case, a number 1 would represent an extremely unfavorable opinion or attitude in relation to the statement and an 11, an extreme favorable opinion or attitude towards the statement. Following the method as outlined by Guffey et al (2007), each statement had the median and inter-quartile range computed with,

the first quartile being the value below which 25% of the cases fall and the third

quartile the value above which 75% of the cases fall. The interquartile range is the

difference between the first and third quartile... A variable with a higher median

(6+) and a small inter-quarter range would show stronger agreement of

favorability among the judges and vice versa for less agreement of favorability.

(p. 4)

The data was then inputted into SPSS 18 statistical software to determine which

statements or concepts, if any, were statistically significant. The purpose of this analysis

was to identify which variables were rated as police leaders as being a statistically

significant means of early identification of leadership potential, and on the other hand,

which statements statistically, were not. Analyses within SPSS were conducted for

descriptive and non-parametric statistics of any statement made to determine median,

mean, standard deviation, chi square, degrees of freedom, and significance at the .01/.05

level.

Results of Phase 2.

Section 1. demographics results. The majority of the participants (43%) were

between 51 to 55 years of age and 57% had been serving as a police officer between 31-

35 years. Educationally, nine of the participants had completed a college diploma and

four had completed a university degree. None of the participants were in the progress of

completing or had completed Masters or Doctoral degrees. And, 29% of the participants

had been a police executive for 10 years, with a more or less even distribution of between

2 to 8 years of executive service; all of the participants were male. The complete results

from the E-survey are included in Appendix C.

Section 2. how you became a police leader. There were four distinct themes that emerged from the Phase 1: a) opportunity, b) self-identification, c) mentorship, and d) demographics. Within each of these themes, in Phase 2 of this research, the concepts or statements were identified and specific Likert items were rated on a five point scale. The following are the results of that analysis.

Opportunities. The participants agreed (38%) or strongly agreed (54%) that potential police leaders display their leadership potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities, with 84% agreeing (46%) or strongly agreeing (38%) that opportunities provided by the police service allow for the leadership identification to occur. Success within special projects or investigations allows junior officers within leadership potential to be noticed received 92% agreement with effective writing skills as a means of identifying leadership potential only received 62% agreement.

Self-identification. There were two variables within the self-identification themes which received particularly strong agreement from the respondents. The concept that self-directing one's own career is indicative of early leadership potential received 100% agreement, and 86% of the respondents agreed that a junior officer is responsible for his or her advancement. There was little consensus that the organization is responsible for a junior officers' advancement (57%), and only 50% of the respondents agreed that junior officers self-identify their own potential for leadership.

Mentorship. The next theme identified dealt with questions around mentorship; 64% of the participants agreed that they were mentored to become a police leader, with 30% either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing that they were not. When asked if their mentors were other law enforcement professionals, 64% disagreed. Interestingly, 100%

were either neutral (21%), disagreed (64%) or strongly disagreed (14%) when asked if

their police service had a formal mentorship program. However, 94% agreed or strongly

agreed that personal relationships with police leaders played an important role in their

own leadership journey.

Demographics. The participants agreed (79%) that timing played an important

role in their own leadership initiation. When asked whether few promotional

opportunities delayed the potential of leadership identification, 71% either disagreed or

strongly disagreed. Outside opportunities were seen as useful in assisting with the

identification of junior police officers leadership potential, and when asked whether

opportunities to display leadership potential occurred within their own control, 43%

agreed and 50% strongly agreed.

Section 3. police leadership definitions. As mentioned above, there were 46

variables that were identified from the Phase 1 interviews that were then posed to the

participants in Phase 2 as statements using the Thurstone method. Table 4 provides a

listing of the 46 variables from Phase 1 with the median, Quartile 1 (Q1), Quartile 3 (Q3),

Inter-Quartile Range (IQR), and significance levels indicated for each variable.

Following the method utilized in the Guffey et al (2007) study, the average of the inter-

quartile range was determined to be 1.99413 and was rounded to 2. The average median

was also determined to be 9.15 and was rounded down to 9. Therefore, an inter-quartile

range of 2 or less (2<) coupled with a median of greater than 9 (9>) was determined to be

significant. An increasing median and a decreasing inter-quartile range represented a

more significant variable.

Table 4.
Thurstone Scale Statistical Results Using Median and Inter-quartile Range.

Variable	Median	Q1	Q3	Inter-Quartile Range	Variable
	9> is significant			2 or < is significant	Significant
Foresight	9	8	10	2	No
Solid operational skills	8.50	7	9.25	2.25	No
Makes ethical decisions	11	10	11	1	Yes
Accountability	10.5	10	11	1	Yes
Honest	11	11	11	0	Yes
Predictable	7.50	5.75	8.25	2.5	No
Common sense	10	9.75	11	1.25	Yes
Logic	10	9	10.25	1.25	Yes
Organizationally supportive	8.5	7.75	10	2.25	No
Approachable	9	7	10	3	No
Preparedness	9	8	10	2	No
Vision	9	8.75	10	1.25	No
A higher level thinker	9	8	10	2	No
Current	9	8	10	2	No
Creativity	8.50	7.75	10	2.23	No
Caring	8.5	6.75	10	3.25	No
Empathetic	8	6.75	10	3.25	No
Takes responsibility	10	10	11	1	Yes
Integrity	11	10	11	1	Yes
Respectful	10	8	11	2	Yes
Dynamic	8	7	9	2	No
Sincerity	9	8	10	2	No
Polite	9	7	10	3	No
Passionate	9.5	8	10	2	Yes
Self-reflective	9	8	10.75	2.75	No
Desire to influence	8.5	7	9.25	2.25	No
Enthusiastic	9.5	9	10	1	Yes
Selflessness	8.5	7.75	10.25	2.5	No
Politically astute	8.5	6.75	9.25	2.5	No
Work ethic	10	9	11	2	Yes
Self-aware	9.5	8	10	2	Yes
Diligent	9.5	9	10	1	Yes
Good communicator	10	9	10.25	1.25	Yes
Dreamer	8	5	8.5	3.5	No

Willingness to learn	9	8.75	10.25	1.5	No
Creative thinker	9	7.75	10	2.25	No
Well versed	8	7	9.25	2.25	No
Flexible	9.5	8.75	10	2.25	No
Team builder	9	8	10.25	2.25	No
Business acumen	8	6.75	9.25	2.5	No
Initiative beyond years of service	9	7	10	3	No
Big picture thinker	9	8.75	10.25	1.5	No
Quality in work	10	9	11	2	Yes
Career, not a job	10	10	11	1	Yes
Non-confrontational	8	6	9	3	No
Organized	9	8	10	2	No

As was described by Guffey et al (2007), the Thurstone method usually interprets data simply by using the median and inter-quartile range. However, following their example, and also to provide another level of analysis and validity, the data were run through SPSS version 18 software to determine the mean, chi- square, and standard deviation of the variables. These extra statistical tests added rigor to the analyses and decreased the likelihood that the results of significance were obtained simply by chance. Table 5, depicts the 46 variable in rows, followed by the mean, standard deviation (SD), chi square (Chi), degrees of freedom, probability (Prob), and levels of significance (Sig.).

Table 5.

Thurstone scale statistical results using mean, standard deviation, and chi square.

Variable	Mean	SD	Chi Sq	Degree	Prob.	Sig.
	6> is significant			Freedom	P< .05/.01	
Foresight	8.79	1.626	3.143	5	.678	No
Solid operational skills	8.43	1.399	3.134	5	.678	No
Makes ethical decisions	10.57	.646	7	2	.03	Yes

Accountability	10.29	.914	7.714	3	.052	Marg
Honest	10.79	.579	17.286	2	.000	Yes
Predictable	7.07	2.056	4.000	6	.677	No
Common sense	10.14	.77	1.000	2	.607	No
Logic	9.71	.914	3.143	3	.370	No
Organizationally supportive	8.57	1.604	2.286	5	.808	No
Approachable	8.93	1.592	2.429	4	.657	No
Preparedness	9	1.109	3.857	4	.426	No
Vision	9.14	1.231	5.286	4	.259	No
a higher level thinker	8.79	1.369	4.857	5	.434	No
Current	8.92	.954	2.692	3	.442	No
Creativity	8.57	1.399	3.143	5	.678	No
Caring	8.21	2.119	3.143	7	.871	No
Empathetic	8.14	1.875	4.000	6	.677	No
Takes responsibility	9.79	.893	3.714	3	.294	No
Integrity	10.5	.76	6.143	2	.046	Yes
Respectful	9.5	1.557	3.143	4	.534	No
Dynamic	7.77	1.739	3.154	5	.676	No
Sincerity	8.85	1.405	4.077	5	.538	No
Polite	8.57	1.399	3.143	4	.535	No
Passionate	9.14	1.231	5.286	4	.259	No
Self-reflective	9	1.809	2.000	5	.849	No
Desire to influence	8.5	1.286	2.429	4	.657	No
Enthusiastic	9.43	.938	7.143	3	.067	Marg
Selflessness	8.79	1.626	2.286	5	.808	No
Politically astute	8.36	1.692	3.143	5	.678	No
Work ethic	9.86	.949	2.571	3	.463	No
Self-aware	9.14	1.46	4.857	5	.434	No
Diligent	9.5	.941	2.571	3	.463	No
Good communicator	9.71	1.069	3.714	3	.294	No
Dreamer	7.08	2.019	5.077	4	.279	No
Willingness to learn	9	1.754	8.286	5	.141	No
Creative thinker	8.57	1.651	7.000	6	.321	No
Well versed	8.29	1.437	3.143	5	.678	No
Flexible	9.29	1.267	3.857	4	.426	No
Team builder	9.21	1.311	1.714	4	.788	No
Business acumen	8	1.617	1.429	5	.921	No
Initiative beyond years of service	8.64	1.55	2.286	5	.808	No
Big picture thinker	9.21	1.311	5.286	4	.259	No
Quality in work	9.93	.997	2.571	3	.463	No
Career, not a job	9.79	1.188	2.615	6	.855	No
Non-confrontational	7.38	1.758	3.857	4	.426	No
Organized	9	1.177	3.857	4	.426	No

The data from Table 4 suggests that the following variables are significant when the participants were asked to identify the qualities that a junior officer with leadership potential: a) makes ethical decisions, b) accountability, c) honesty, d) common sense, e) logic, f) takes responsibility, g) integrity, h) respectful, i) passionate, j) enthusiastic, k) work ethic, l) self-aware, m) diligence, n) good communicator, o) quality in work, and p) career, not a job.

When Table 5 data were further analyzed using SPSS, the most significant qualities identified in those police officers with leadership potential were as follows: a) makes ethical decisions, b) accountability*, c) honesty, d) integrity, e) enthusiastic*. Both accountability and enthusiasm are marked with an asterisk, as they are two variables that fall just outside of the chi square parameters; however, for the purposes of this research, they were also included as being significant.

Common definition concerns. Section 3 of the Phase 2 survey asked the participants questions about definitions of police leadership in the province of Alberta. The responses provided were neutral, leaning towards disagreement when asked whether there should be a shared definition of police leadership, and 54% of the respondents agreed that differences in communities prohibited the use of a common definition for police leadership in Alberta.

The participants also agreed (64%) that it is much easier to describe excellent police leaders than to define police leadership, and 64% of respondents were either neutral, or disagreed that they found defining police leadership easy.

Application of business leadership definitions. The participants strongly supported (78%) the notion that leadership definitions from the business sector are

applicable to police leadership, and 86% either agreed (57%) or strongly agreed (29%) that police experience is essential for future police leaders. Of the respondents, 57% agreed that police leadership really is not much different from other leadership definitions, and there was a majority neutral response to the question of whether or not current police leadership definitions would quickly become out of date.

Section 4. the identification of police leadership in others. The next section of the survey asked the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police questions in relation to the themes that were developed from interview data regarding identifying leadership potential in others. As noted earlier, the three themes that emerged: a) attitudinal potential, b) strategic potential, and c) demonstrated leadership potential.

Attitudinal potential. The first two questions asked in relation to attitudinal potential resulted in overall agreement from the respondents: 93% agreed (85%) or strongly agreed (8%) that junior officers with leadership potential are service oriented and give back to the community. Furthermore, 86% agreed (57%) or strongly agreed (29%) that junior officers with leadership potential display an appropriate attitude early on in their careers. When asked whether or not their police services' performance assessment system evaluated attitude, 50% disagreed and 14% were neutral. Teaching appropriate attitudes was not considered a difficult task for 57% of the survey participants.

Strategic potential. Questions were asked about whether or not understanding the organization's mission statement or demonstrating the vision of the organization were important factors in the early identification of leadership potential; 64% of the respondents agreed that this understanding was important. Only 57% of respondents

agreed that big picture thinking was indicative of leadership potential in this context, with 36% of the responses being neutral. However, perhaps significantly, 92% of respondents agreed (71%) or strongly agreed (21%) that knowing how behaviour affects others is indicative of leadership potential.

Demonstrated leadership potential. Next, 64% of the participants agreed that high performance as a constable is demonstrative of leadership potential, and 50% agreed that establishing a reputation early is an important step in demonstrating potential for leadership. When asked if demonstrating or doing things for the organization was demonstrative of leadership potential, 86% agreed. The participants also agreed that the police organization has a responsibility to create opportunities that allow junior officer the ability to succeed within their organizations. The participants were asked whether the 'knighting' of a junior officer promotes unfairness in a promotional process; 57% of the respondents agreed. However, 21% disagreed and 21% were neutral.

Visceral responses. The Chiefs of Police were asked if visceral or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential for leadership in junior police officers, and 12 of 14 respondents answered, 'yes'. Several themes created from the interview data which indicated that there were six specific actions or situations where they observed junior officers or which generated these visceral responses:

- consistency of body language with the spoken word

- demonstrating charisma

- sensing a significant trait

- trustworthiness

- demonstrating self-confidence

- command presence.

The participants were then asked their level of agreement, within the E-survey, regarding whether the above actions or concepts are considered when assessing potential for leadership in junior police officers. The most significant variable was identified as being trustworthiness, receiving 100% agreement from the respondents. Demonstrating self-confidence and command presence both received 92% agreement from the respondents, and sensing a significant trait received 91% agreement. Body language consistency with the spoken word received 75% agreement, and charisma received 66%.

The Phase 2 participants were asked if visceral responses or gut feelings played a part in their own identification of leadership potential among junior officers; 67% of the respondents agreed, and 17% strongly agreed. Contextually, there was 75% agreement that observations and interactions are the locations where visceral responses are perceived, and 66% of the respondents agreed that likeability of an officer also played a part in the identification of leadership potential. Significantly, 83% agreed that police supervisors gravitate to junior officers who they believe they can trust, and 83% agreed that visceral responses need to be explored when assessing leadership potential. When asked how important the use of visceral or gut feelings are in the identification of leadership potential in junior officers, 14% indicated very important, 29% important, 7% were neutral, 50 % agreed that it was either somewhat important or not important at all.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research was conducted using a mixed method sequential exploratory design (Creswell, 2009), which permitted an in-depth look into the opinions of the group of experts, in this case the municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police, and their attitudes and opinions on the early identification of leadership potential among junior Albert police officers. The research was conducted during the summer and fall of 2011. The total potential number of participants within the population was 19 police executives. Of those 19 executives, 10 participated in the interviews and 14 participated in the E-survey. Some of those interviewed were also surveyed; however, since the E-surveys were anonymously answered, it is impossible to associate a person with a particular response. The homogeneity of the responses received from the participants, specifically within the E-survey, provided some clear insights into the Alberta executive police culture currently employed at such ranks. It was obvious that the respondents, in most cases, shared many of the same opinions on police leadership potential, as the results from the E-surveys demonstrated agreement in relation to their responses, as did the high level of validity of the thematic responses found within the interview data. If there had been little agreement, it could have been argued that the identified themes were not as valid or reliable.

The three research questions that grounded this research will be used as a framework for the discussion of the results.

Police Leadership Definitions

The first research question was as follows: "How do municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) define police leadership? It is clear from

the research findings that the participants had difficulty clearly defining what they understood to be police leadership. Of the 10 interviews that were conducted, only 1 participant clearly outlined what he believed to be a definition of police leadership. Other participants were more likely to attempt to describe police leadership or provide examples of persons they believed were great police leaders. The inability to define police leadership is not surprising as the literature itself (Golding & Savage, 2008; Schafer, 2009) does not provide a universally accepted definition of police leadership. However, it was not the purpose of this research to define police leadership, but rather to explore the identification of police leadership potential and to obtain the opinions of a group of participants who themselves are police leaders.

The fact that the participants did not identify with the concerns that were raised by Haberfeld (2006), indicating that definitions of "police leadership must include the ability to make a split-second decision and take control of a potentially high-voltage situation that evolves on the street" (p. 3), was of some surprise. There was general consensus from the participants in this research that police leadership was not overly different from leadership in the business sector or other forms of leadership. Most participants agreed that leadership definitions apply universally; however, the contextual practice of policing requires police leaders to have additional knowledge of the policing business if they are going to be successful.

While, as has been noted in chapter 2 of this dissertation, there are scholars who have attempted and are still attempting to define police leadership, this specific group of subject matter experts who participated in this research, although not unanimous, did not believe that defining police leadership would serve much purpose within Alberta.

Furthermore, the chiefs indicated that the efforts to define police leadership would take up far too much time, and that the end results would be open to scrutiny and require continuous updating. Defining police leadership was also seen to be encumbered by the differences that exist within different communities in Alberta. Each community may have a different set of leadership criteria that it wants in its leadership, and as such, a 'one size fits all' approach may not be the best solution. As a result, the answer to the first research question was not an agreed upon definition of police leadership. The participants did not attempt to define police leadership, however, they were able to provide concepts and words that described police leadership. This was useful as it formed the basis for the Thurstone method question in the E-survey and had information which is valuable for this study. It was noted that several of the participants had not given much thought to police leadership definitions nor to their own understanding of police leadership. Most agreed they, 'just do police leadership', without really needing to or wanting to understand a formal police leadership definition. As a result, asking the chiefs to define police leadership resulted in the finding that policing in Alberta has not addressed police leadership definitions as a priority, and, on the basis of the results of this study, it does not appear as though there is much appetite to spend precious police resources moving forward definitions of police leadership. Defining police leadership becomes an academic concept within the practical world of policing, and perhaps if necessary, defining police leadership in Alberta is better left to academics and/or educators.

There was consensus from the participants that the knowledge of policing is important to police leadership, even though there was agreement that police leadership definitions are not all that different from business definitions of leadership. This finding

begs the questions, what is the 'knowledge of policing'? What is the craft that police

leaders are attempting to master? The literature and the findings from this research

demonstrate that competency based assessment systems are the mainstay of police

services within the Canadian Police Sector, but is the craft of policing is addressed

through the assessment of competencies? These questions were not asked within this

study. However, until there is consensus about what the craft of professional policing is

in Alberta, it is difficult to lead it; therefore, attempting to define police leadership

becomes impracticable.

Leadership Potential – Police Leadership Potential Model

The second research question asked, "What do municipal members of the Alberta

Association of Chiefs of Police (AACP) articulate as indicators of a junior police

officer's potential for leadership?" Cumulative analyses of the interview data and E-

survey provided a wealth of data that informs the discussion of this question. The

extensive results, as already articulated in Chapter 5, were categorized into four themes

that are useful in describing an 'exemplar', or junior officers with leadership potential.

These four themes have been incorporated into the Police Leadership Potential Model,

seen below in Figure 4, created as a result of the findings from this research. The four

themes provided by the participants were as follows: a) indicators of leadership potential,

b) potential as seen by others, c) potential as seen from within, and d) potential as

perceived by police leaders. By combining these four themes, within the Police

Leadership Potential Model, police services may be able to identify those junior police

officers, in Alberta, with the potential for leadership. The following discussion provides

some of the specific details for each theme. The model uses a radial diagram to

demonstrate how each of the four major themes converges to describe a junior police

officer with leadership potential in Alberta (exemplar). This Police Leadership Potential

Model provides for current police leaders and human resource professionals within police

services in Alberta to create assessment systems based on the above criteria. By assessing

a junior officer against this research based model, the early identification of leadership

potential may occur.

Figure 4.
The Police Leadership Potential Model

INDICATORS OF LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL
Makes ethical decisions, Accountable, Honest, Integrity, Enthusiasm.

AS PERCEIVED BY LEADERS
Consistant body language to spoken word
Demonstrates charisma
Others sense significant traits
Demonstrates self-confidence
Has command presence

Junior Officer (Exemplar)

AS SEEN BY OTHERS
Attitudinal Potential
Strategic Potential
Demonstrated Leadership Potential

AS SEEN FROM WITHIN
Takes opportunities
Self-identifies
Understands demographics
Mentorship

A.) **Indicators of leadership potential.** The indicators of leadership potential were concepts and words that were mined from the interviews and then qualified and validated through the deployment of the Thurstone method in section 3 of the E-survey. The following words and concepts were indicated by the Chiefs of Police as being indicators of a junior officer in Alberta with leadership potential:

Makes ethical decisions*	Accountable*	Honest*
Common sensical	Logical	Takes responsibility
Integrity*	Respectful	Passionate
Enthusiastic*	Work ethic	Self-aware
Diligent	Good communicator	Quality in work
Career-not a job		

The indictors marked with an asterisk are the most significant and are included within the model. The remaining indicators have some significance and should not be discounted.

B.) **As seen by others.** The participants provided opinions about how they identify in others the potential for leadership among Alberta's junior municipal police officers. There were three themes that emerged: a) attitudinal potential, b) strategic potential, and c) demonstrated leadership potential.

a). Attitudinal potential: Junior officers with leadership potential are service oriented and want to give back to the community. They portray an appropriate mind set early in their careers, which included selflessness, empathy, and compassion

b).   Strategic Potential: Junior officers with leadership potential are aware how their behaviours affect others and understand the organizational impact of their actions. They are not afraid to hold others and themselves accountable.

c.)   Demonstrated leadership potential: Junior officers with leadership potential establish their reputations early in their careers, are proactive, and do things for the organization. They are identified due to their high performance as constables. They proactively seek learning opportunities and experiences which are congruent with organizational objectives.

C.)   As seen from within. The first interview questions asked participants to describe their own leadership journey. Themes were developed from the interview data and confirmed through the use of an E-survey. The four themes are described below to assist in the understanding of the Leadership Potential Model that was developed as a result of this research.

a.)   Takes Opportunities: Junior officers take opportunities that they are given by the organization, and more importantly, seek and take on self-initiated opportunities in which they can succeed and be noticed. Success within special projects and or investigations provides the best place for junior officer to take opportunities.

b).   Self-Identifies: Junior officers with leadership potential self-identify within their careers that they want to take on a leadership role. They self-direct their careers and take responsibility for them.

c).   Understands Demographics: Junior officers with leadership potential understand that timing and circumstances out of their control have much to do with leadership selection. Positing and understanding their place within the organization and

finding leadership opportunities outside of the police service, when few positional leadership vacancies are available, is indicative of leadership potential.

d). Mentorship: Junior officers with leadership potential develop relationships with persons, within policing, and exterior to the police environment, who have the ability to be mentors.

D.) **As perceived by leaders.** The participants stated that they have visceral or gut feelings when assessing leadership potential. There were six concepts, and consensus was reached, where the participants agreed that they perceived visceral responses when assessing for leadership potential. These were situations where police leaders observed or interacted with a junior officer and noted that the officer's body language was consistent with what the officers said. Furthermore, leadership potential is perceived when the officer displayed charisma or a significant trait. Trustworthiness, demonstrating self-confidence, and command presence were also concepts that provide for visceral responses.

The Police Leadership Potential Model provides a framework for those within the police sector in Alberta to have frank discussions about those who have the potential for future leadership. It demystifies the process in Alberta and allows for some clarity, within a phenomenon that in the past, has been gilded by police culture as subjective and the domain of the chosen few.

When and Where is Potential Experienced

The data used to create the Police Leadership Potential Model also provided some insights into the third research question that guided this research: "When and where do

the Municipal Members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police see or experience indicators of leadership potential in junior police officers?"

It was clear that many of the opinions that were provided by the stakeholders were informed by what the police leaders had experienced as their own reality, each of which was different. However, where consensus could be reached, it was evident that there were shared opinions as to when and where early identification of leadership occurs. It was clear that the assessment or identification of junior officers for their leadership potential is an ongoing process that happens within the structure of performance assessments and formal reviews, but also, almost subconsciously, through the visceral responses that are perceived by current police leaders. This research has demonstrated that the potential for police leadership is a socially constructed phenomenon that starts when information about junior officers was received by the assessor. In this case, information was mostly gathered through interaction with or through behaviours that were either observable or perceived. The influences of others, who have already assessed the potential, rightly or wrongly, do play a part in the establishment of the current assessor's reality. Junior officers have the ability to influence and establish, through their interactions and behaviours, the set of criteria that will be assessed by those in positions of power within the police organization. The lens through which they are viewed was largely constructed by the junior officer themselves. As such, junior officers should utilize the Police Leadership Potential Model as one way by which to guide their actions and behaviours if they want to be placed into positions of leadership in the future, or they want to be seen as having leadership potential.

It was also clear from the results of this research that junior constables display their leadership potential through their success at investigations, special projects, and self-initiated opportunities. It is at work where junior officers can establish their reputation early and get noticed by people who will eventually be the promotional decision makers and place junior officers into positions of leadership within the police service.

Therefore, while the three original research questions have been explored in this study, there are some other interesting findings that emerged from the research that will also be discussed in the following paragraphs. The first is the role of mentorship in Alberta policing; the second is to discuss the demographic results from the research.

The Role of Mentorship in Alberta Policing

One of the most interesting findings from this research is the acknowledgement by the subject matter experts (municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police) that mentorship, for many, played an important part in their own leadership journey. However, this research also pointed out that none of the participants worked in a police service in Alberta that had a formal mentorship program. This finding seems inconsistent with the opinions of the participants and, as a result, what is meant by mentorship and the role that is plays within police leadership selection and leadership preparedness, may need to be examined further.

It appears in municipal policing in Alberta, the only formal mentorship that occurs is at field training. Field training is the period of time between a recruit's graduation from the police academy to the recruit being able to be on his or her own in the field. During that time, a junior officer is paired with a senior officer to provide

guidance and support. There are few examples, in Alberta, where further mentorship

occurs and as a result, mentorship programming within police services is a

recommendation based on the results of this research.

Demographic Issues

The results were clear; 100% of the respondents were men. The fact that there are

no women respondents within this study, who are municipal members of the Alberta

Association of Chiefs of Police, is significant; however, when one looks at the literature,

this finding should also not come as a surprise. In the United States, according to the U.S.

Bureau of Justice Statistics (2011), there were 3,067 counties in the United States, of

which only 33 counties had a woman as its police leader. Research has shown that there

is structural discrimination within policing that hinders women advancing into police

leadership positions (Hughes, 2011). The same literature also pointed out that woman

have the leadership competencies that police services require (Hughes, 2011). The

participants in the research for this thesis suggested that compassion and empathy are

important leadership qualities. These qualities are often associated as feminine qualities

and are not what mainstream society would necessarily expect of the male dominated

police profession. However, it is interesting to find that the police chiefs identified these

qualities as being important for leadership. More research should be conducted within

the Canadian Police Sector to address the lack of women in leadership positions and/or to

attempt to understand why there are not more women in leadership positions within the

police services in Canada.

The education levels of the participants provided some interesting information.

University education is not a prerequisite for entrance to Canadian policing, and some

research has failed to recognize university education as a valid predictor of police officer effectiveness (Chan, 1997; Fitzgerald, 1989; Wood, 1997). This attitude may be reflected in the lack of educational credentials currently held by police chiefs in the province of Alberta, as only four of the participants in the E-survey had completed an undergraduate degree, and none had commenced or completed masters or doctoral level studies. Yet, these individuals are the chief executive officers of multimillion dollar organizations with thousands of employees. The police executives within this study were successful in being promoted to their positions due to the training and experiences they had received within the policing sector. One could argue that historically, the police sector must have done something right to prepare these police officers for leadership. Today the demographic situation is different; as the general population's education levels increase, so does the likelihood that police officers hired currently will have higher educational levels at the commencement of their careers. Although this adds even more complexities to recruit training, simply by sheer numbers, those who will be police leaders in the future may also have higher educational levels because they probably started with a higher education in the first place. This area is also one that could benefit from future study, both in terms of the credentials and the relative effectiveness of police leaders with different credentials.

The United States established goals relating to educational standards and the entrance qualifications for their police officers, indicating that by 1982, all police recruits would require a four year baccalaureate degree from an accredited university (National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, 1973). However, as of 2004, only about 1% of departments met this requirement (Roberg & Bonn, 2004).

There is debate within the literature, as to whether or not a college or university degree should be required for police officers (Roberg & Bonn, 2004). Research has demonstrated that college or university educated police officers are more likely to use discretion in the application of use of force (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010), and, based on a review of the literature in the field, police chiefs in Australia, agree that university education is beneficial to the professionalization of the police (Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Trofymowych, 2008). During the Oppal inquiry in British Columbia in the early 1990's, Justice Oppal clearly indicated that, "the need for advanced education, in the case of chief of police a university degree, is obvious in a career that demands skills ranging from problem solving, communication, diversity training, social work, problem analyses, to understanding criminal law"(Oppal, 1994, p. E56-57). The RCMP have also suggested that advanced education is an important step; however, the RCMP also noted that to make a university education a requirement of entry to the police force, they would limit the number of potential applicants. The potential lack of applicants appears to be a limiting factor in making advanced education mandatory for the RCMP (Royal Canadian Mounted Police, 2009). It is clear that some of the participants in this study spoke positively about advanced education's role in preparing them for leadership, and not surprisingly, it was the people with the advanced education who gave this opinion. It is again demonstrative of the constructivist lenses through which individuals see their own leadership journey.

Recommendations for Future Research

1.   This research was exploratory, in that the study attempted to understand the phenomenon of the identification of leadership potential among municipal police

officers in Alberta. Mixed method sequential exploratory research is often conducted in an effort to develop an instrument that can subsequently be administered to a given population (Creswell, 2009). The research and rationale behind the Police Leadership Potential Model provides a reliable and validated set of variables from which to assess current junior officers for their leadership potential in Alberta. These results require the further development of an instrument that can be administered to current junior officers and then subsequently tested, through longitudinal research, and potentially in other provinces or countries, to further validate its use. Although the model is accurate and reflects the opinions of the municipal membership of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police, there is no way of knowing for how long the accuracy of the model will continue. The speed of change and pressures affecting police leaders, which has been well laid out in the literature review within this study, creates a dynamic whereby any research that is conducted could be outdated very quickly. Keeping up with change and the requirements to ensure public safety are often pressures that prevent police agencies from implementing such research-based practices on top of their day-to-day activities even if they were aware of the results of research on best practices. However, the research design employed within this study does allow for the potential of future research and the replication of this study with a much larger group of subject matter experts, such as the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police and/or the RCMP. This would no doubt provide greater depth and understanding of the phenomenon of the early identification of leadership potential and provide for greater validity and reliability.

2.   A critical needs assessment should be conducted to examine the usefulness, and effectiveness of the continued search for a definition of police leadership

within the policing sector. Much time is spent attempting to define concepts that, at the end of the day due to their very nature, are difficult, if not impossible to define, especially concepts that are both changing and are as complex as police leadership. Much time has been spent looking at police leadership from the perspective of leadership as a noun or a position. Arguably, leadership studied as a verb, or as an action concept, might also provide much insight into the practical application of leadership, rather than relying solely on academic definitions.

3. The Police Leadership Potential Model may provide a framework from which to develop assessment tools, human resource practices, and training programs from which to identify and then create these tools and practices. The literature review conducted within this study demonstrated that countries other than Canada, have undertaken an approach to incorporate higher education into the leadership development of police officers, based on the leadership competency frameworks developed through their own research. The findings from this study may provide the basis from which to commence discussions between the Chiefs of Police in Alberta and academia to create a made in Alberta police leadership program for potential police leaders. This research assists in determining those with the potential for leadership development and may be able to identify those who should enrol in programs within higher education.

4. Research needs to be conducted within the Canadian Police Sector, in general, to determine if there are barriers, explicit or implied within police services, which may inhibit the placement of women into police leadership positions, or make such positions inaccessible to women.

In conclusion, many researchers studying any given phenomenon are often left asking more questions then they intended when they first commenced their original study. The ongoing conversation that social science research provides allows people to explore, examine and, eventually, come to understand reality, in this case, the phenomenon of the early identification of police leadership potential. While it is unlikely that social science research will ever completely understand leadership potential as a phenomenon, prior to this research being conducted in Alberta, there had been little research, action based or otherwise that has explored police leadership in particular. The hope is that this study begins this important discussion and that further research into police leadership and all of its facets, not only the early identification of leadership potential, will occur. Failing to at least attempt to understand this phenomenon leaves police services in a situation where they are potentially appointing police leaders based on a set of criteria that are neither bona fide nor validated. Evidence-based practice needs to be encouraged within the police sector in Canada, and this study has provided the opportunity for that conversation to occur. The efficacy of this Police Leadership Potential Model will no doubt be scrutinized over the foreseeable future, however, regardless of future; however, regardless of future outcomes, it is hopefully a place to start, and it may also have the potential to aid in the identification of future police leaders for some time to come.

Limitations

This research was conducted during the summer and fall of 2011, and relied upon the opinions of subject matter experts. In this case, the subject matter experts were executive police officers who were municipal members of the Alberta Association of

Chiefs of Police. This research was conducted solely in the province of Alberta, and included only municipal police officers (not the Royal Canadian Mounted Police). Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalized to any other province or country.

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Appendix A: Interview Protocol

<u>Interview Protocol</u>

This interview will take about 30 to 45 minutes. During the interview I will ask your opinions on the early identification of leadership potential within Alberta police services. You have been asked to participate because you are considered to be expert, based on your experience in this area. The interview itself is comprised of 3 sections: 1) self-reflection on police leadership, 2) defining police leadership, and 3) the identification of police leadership potential in others.

For the purposes of this research a junior police officer is defined as a police officer employed by a municipal police service that has fewer than five years of service. The context for this research is described as a junior police officer described within this research as a police officer employed by a municipal police service that has less than five years of service.

To commence this interview, please answer the following:
Age

Rank

Academic Achievement

Years of service

Years as a police executive

Introductory Comments:

> *You are police leaders by virtue of the leadership position you hold. Each person who obtains a position, such as yours, has a history or story of how they achieved the position they hold. The questions I will ask you will be related to your own police leadership journey. I would appreciate it if you would answer them as candidly as possible, and I may take a few notes to help me remember your responses, Is that alright with you? If you do not want to answer any of the questions, please just let me know and then we'll move on to the next question. . Is that alright with you? Thanks, then let's get started.*

1) Self-Reflection on Police Leadership
   The theme that I would like to start the interviews with is "self-reflection".
   a. How do you believe you were selected for leadership?
   b. When in your career did this leadership identification happen (probing)?
   c. Who recognized you as a leader? (probing)
   d. What situations were you involved where you believe you were recognized as having leadership?

2) Defining Leadership
   The next theme I will be exploring is how you personally define leadership and particularly police leadership.
   a. How do you define police leadership?
   b. Please elaborate on whether or not, within Alberta police services, there can or should be a shared definition of police leadership? (probing)
   c. Please discuss whether or not definitions of leadership from other fields, such as business, are useful to use within the policing context? Why or why not?

3) Identification of police leadership in others.
   In this final theme I will be exploring how you, personally, have or have or do identify those who you think have leadership potential.
   a. Describe a time when you identified a junior officer with potential for leadership?
   b. What was it about the context that made this identification of leadership potential possible? (probing)
   c. Can you provide me with a more detailed description of a junior officer who you think has leadership potential? What does leadership potential look like? How can you tell?
   d. What are the specific indicators of leadership potential within these junior officers?
   e. Where do junior constables' best demonstrate their leadership potential?
   f. When do junior constables' best demonstrate their leadership potential?
   g. What are the non-measurable indicators of leadership potential? Do you have visceral or gut feelings that you use in identifying potential?
   h. If so, when and where are the visceral responses perceived?

Appendix B: E-Survey Template

The Early Identification of Leadership Potential

Consent

Dear fellow member of the AACP, Thank you for taking the time to complete this e-survey to assist me in my doctoral research focusing on the early identification of leadership potential within Alberta Police Services. This research has been previously approved by the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police and your participation will hopefully benefit policing in the province of Alberta. Participation in this e-survey is voluntary and you may withdraw your consent at any time. If you do submit your e-survey and chose to withdraw at a later time, the submitted data will be included in the aggregate analyses. This e-survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. By clicking the submit button at the end of the survey, you are formally consenting to participate and your answers will be anonymously tabulated within the results. This data will be stored electronically for two years and then destroyed. The data will be used in completing my doctoral dissertation and in future journal articles. The questions posed in this e-survey were created, in part, from the analyses of a series of face-to-face and telephone interviews that occurred with municipal members of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police in June and July of 2011. You have been selected to participate in this research because you are a municipal member of the Alberta Association of Chiefs of Police and, as such, considered a police leader and a subject matter expert. This research has been approved by the University of Calgary Conjoint Faculties Research Ethics Board. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this research, please contact Mr. Burrows, Ethics Resource Officer of the Conjoint Faculties Ethics Board, at the University of Calgary at 403-220-3782 or at rburrows@ucalgary.ca. Thanks again. Inspector Graham Abela

Study Purpose

There are three specific purposes for this research. 1. This research is an attempt to understand how police leaders within municipal police services in Alberta currently identify leadership potential of Alberta police officers. 2. This research will recommend ways to improve leadership development among junior police officers. 3. This research will review current police leadership concepts, practices, and definitions. This e-survey is being used as a means to validate the responses from a series of interviews conducted on municipal members of the AACP during phase 1 of this research. For the purposes of this research a junior officer is described as a municipal police officer in Alberta with 0-5 years of experience. This survey is arranged into four sections; 1. Demographics, 2. How

you became a police leader, 3. Leadership definitions, and 4. Identifying leadership potential in others.

Section 1. Demographics

I would like to ask you the following questions to get a picture of the demographic of the police executives in Alberta.

Years of Service

How many years have you worked as a police officer?

○ 0-5 years

○ 6-10 years

○ 11-15 years

○ 16-20 years

○ 21-25 years

○ 26-30 years

○ 31-35 years

○ 36-40 years

○ 41-45 years

What is your age

○ 18-24

○ 25-30

○ 31-35

○ 36-40

○ 41-45

○ 46-50

○ 51-55

○ 56-60

○ 61-65

○ 66-70

Gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

Education

	In progress	Completed	Did not complete
Grade 12 Diploma	O	O	O
College Diploma	O	O	O
Undergraduate University Degree	O	O	O
Master's Degree	O	O	O
Doctoral Degree	O	O	O

Other Educational Opportunities

Please provide other educational opportunities that you have completed outside of the formal educational settings

☐

Executive Service

How many years have your served as a police executive (Inspector or above)?

O 1

O 2

O 3

O 4

O 5

O 6

O 7

O 8

O 9

O 10

Section 2. How you became a police leader

Municipal members of the AACP were asked to describe their own leadership journey. As a result of the analyses of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; opportunity, self-identification, mentorship, and demographics.

Opportunities

Please indicate in the following questions your level of agreement with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Potential police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities.	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities provided by the police service allow for the identification of early leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
Investigations are the best place where junior officers can display potential for leadership.	O	O	O	O	O
Successes within special projects or investigations allow junior officers with leadership potential to be noticed.	O	O	O	O	O
Effective writing skills are indicative of officers with leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
The police culture accepts those who are promotable by assessing their investigative ability.	O	O	O	O	O

Self-Identification

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Junior police officers self-identify their own potential for leadership.	O	O	O	O	O
Self-directing your own career is indicative of leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
The police organization is responsible for a junior officer's advancement.	O	O	O	O	O
The junior officer is responsible for his or her advancement.	O	O	O	O	O

Mentorship

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I was mentored to become a police leader.	O	O	O	O	O
I was not mentored to become a police leader.	O	O	O	O	O
All of my mentors were other law enforcement professionals.	O	O	O	O	O
My police service has a formal mentorship program.	O	O	O	O	O
Personal relationships with police leaders played an important role in my leadership journey.	O	O	O	O	O

Demographics

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Timing played an important role in my leadership identification.	O	O	O	O	O
When few promotional opportunities are available, the potential for leadership identification is delayed.	O	O	O	O	O
Outside opportunities are useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in junior police officers.	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities to display leadership potential occurred within my own control.	O	O	O	O	O

Section 3. Police Leadership Definitions: Key police leadership words and themes
The focus of this question is to assess the early identifiers or indicators of leadership potential among junior Alberta municipal police officers. Please indicate, in your opinion, how much each statement is indicative of leadership potential in junior Alberta police officers. 1 represents an extremely unfavorable opinion, and 11 represents an extremely favorable opinion. A junior officer with leadership potential has or is;

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Foresight	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Solid operational skills	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Makes ethical decisions	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Accountability	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Honest	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Predictable	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Common sense	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Logic	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Organizationally supportive	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Approachable	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Preparedness	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Vision	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
a Higher level thinker	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Current	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Creativity	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Caring	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Empathetic	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Takes responsibility	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Integrity	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Respectful	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Dynamic	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Sincerity	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Polite	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Passionate	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Self-reflective	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Desire to influence	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Enthusiastic	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Selflessness	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Politically astute	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Work ethic	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Self-aware	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Diligent	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Good communicator	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Dreamer	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Willingness to learn	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Creative thinker	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Well versed	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Flexible	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Team builder	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Business acumen	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Initiative beyond years of service	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Big picture thinker	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Quality in work	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Career, not a job	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Non-confrontational	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Organized	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Municipal members of the AACP were asked questions about police leadership and two themes emerged from the responses which have been arranged into two broad headings; common definition concerns, and the application of business leadership definitions within policing.

Common Definition Concerns

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
There should be a shared definition of police leadership in Alberta municipal police services.	O	O	O	O	O
Differences in communities within Alberta prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition.	O	O	O	O	O
The leadership profile of a police leader should be community specific.	O	O	O	O	O
Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership.	O	O	O	O	O
I find it easy to define police leadership.	O	O	O	O	O

Application of Business Leadership Definitions

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership.	O	O	O	O	O
Police experience is essential for future police leaders.	O	O	O	O	O
Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions.	O	O	O	O	O
Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date.	O	O	O	O	O

Section 4. The Identification of Police Leadership in Others

Municipal members of the AACP were asked several questions in an effort to describe how they identified leadership potential of junior police officers. As a result of the analyses of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; attitudinal potential, strategic potential, and demonstrated leadership potential. Questions were also asked about visceral responses or gut feelings in the early identification of leadership potential. Several questions have been asked below to assist in the validation of those responses.

Attitudinal Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Junior officers with leadership potential are service oriented and give back to the community.	O	O	O	O	O
Junior officers with leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers.	O	O	O	O	O
Selflessness demonstrates the potential for leadership.	O	O	O	O	O

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Our police services' performance appraisals evaluate attitude.	O	O	O	O	O
Teaching the appropriate attitude to junior officers is difficult.	O	O	O	O	O

Strategic Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Junior officers with leadership potential understand the organizational mission statement.	O	O	O	O	O
Junior officers with leadership potential demonstrate the vision of the police organization in their daily activities.	O	O	O	O	O
Big picture thinking is indicative of a junior officer with leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O

Demonstrated Leadership Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
High performance as a constable demonstrates leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
Establishing your reputation early is an important step in demonstrating leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
Doing things for the organization and being proactive demonstrates leadership potential.	O	O	O	O	O
Police organizations have a responsibility to create opportunities to allow junior officers to succeed.	O	O	O	O	O
The "knighting" of a junior police officer promotes unfairness in promotional processes.	O	O	O	O	O

I agree that visceral or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential for leadership in junior police officers.

O   Yes

O   No

If you answered yes to the above question, please answer the following question.

In the following question please respond if you agree that you perceive visceral or gut feelings in the following contextual situations or through your observations of junior police officers?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
When the junior officer's body language is consistent with his or her spoken word.	O	O	O	O	O
When they demonstrate charisma.	O	O	O	O	O
When I sense that the officer has a significant trait.	O	O	O	O	O
When they display trustworthiness.	O	O	O	O	O
When they demonstrate self-confidence.	O	O	O	O	O
When they display command presence.	O	O	O	O	O

Visceral Responses

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Visceral responses or gut feelings play a part in my own identification of leadership potential among junior officers?	O	O	O	O	O
Visceral responses or gut feelings are perceived when I observe or interact with a junior officer?	O	O	O	O	O
Likeability of a junior officer has something to do with gut feelings?	O	O	O	O	O
Police supervisors gravitate to junior officers who they believe they can trust?	O	O	O	O	O
Visceral responses or gut feelings need to be explored?	O	O	O	O	O

How important is the use of visceral or gut feelings in the identification of leadership potential in junior officers?

- O Very Important
- O Important
- O Neutral
- O Somewhat Important
- O Not at all Important
- O N/A

Appendix C: E-Survey Results

Final Report

The Early Identification of Leadership Potential
Section 1. Demographics

Years of Service

Response	Chart	Percentage	Count
0-5 years		0%	0
6-10 years		0%	0
11-15 years		0%	0
16-20 years		0%	0
21-25 years		14%	2
26-30 years		21%	3
31-35 years		57%	8
36-40 years		0%	0
41-45 years		7%	1
		Total Responses	14

What is your age

	Chart	Percentage	Count
Response			
18-24		0%	0
25-30		0%	0
31-35		0%	0
36-40		0%	0
41-45		7%	1
46-50		36%	5
51-55		43%	6

		Percentage	Count
56-60		14%	2
61-65		0%	0
66-70		0%	0
		Total Responses	14

Gender

Response	Chart	Percentage	Count
Male		100%	14
Female		0%	0
		Total Responses	14

Education

	In progress	Completed	Did not complete	Total
Grade 12 Diploma	0 (0%)	9 (100%)	0 (0%)	9
College Diploma	0 (0%)	9 (90%)	1 (10%)	10
Undergraduate University Degree	5 (50%)	4 (40%)	1 (10%)	10
Master's Degree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0
Doctoral Degree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0

Other Educational Opportunities
The 7 response(s) to this question:

#	Response
1.	Numerous in service trainings, certificate programs and information sessions
2.	Executive Development In Policing - CPC
3.	Canadian Police College
4.	I have completed a few business management courses at the local College
5.	Management Development for Police Services Certificate
6.	Some University level courses
7.	Extensive

Executive Service

Response	Chart	Percentage	Count
1		0%	0
2		7%	1
3		7%	1
4		14%	2
5		14%	2
6		7%	1
7		7%	1
8		14%	2
9		0%	0
10		29%	4
		Total Responses	14

Section 2. How you became a police leader.

Opportunities

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Potential police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	5 (38%)	7 (54%)	13
Opportunities provided by the police service allow for the identification of early leadership potential.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	6 (46%)	5 (38%)	13
Investigations are	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	7 (54%)	2 (15%)	13

the best place where junior officers can display potential for leadership.					
Successes within special projects or investigations allow junior officers with leadership potential to be noticed.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	9 (69%)	3 (23%)	13
Effective writing skills are indicative of officers with leadership potential.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	4 (31%)	4 (31%)	13
The police culture accepts those who are promotable by assessing their investigative ability.	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	7 (54%)	2 (15%)	13

Self-Identification

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Junior police officers self-identify their own potential for leadership.	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	6 (43%)	1 (7%)	14
Self-directing your own career is indicative of leadership potential.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	11 (79%)	3 (21%)	14
The police organization is responsible for a junior officer's advancement.	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	8 (57%)	0 (0%)	14
The junior officer is responsible for his or her advancement.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	8 (57%)	4 (29%)	14

Mentorship

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I was mentored to become a police leader.	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	9 (64%)	0 (0%)	14
I was not mentored to become a police leader.	2 (14%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	14
All of my mentors were other law enforcement professionals.	0 (0%)	9 (64%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	14
My police service has a formal mentorship program.	2 (14%)	9 (64%)	3 (21%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	14
Personal relationships with police leaders played an important role in my leadership journey.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	11 (79%)	2 (14%)	14

Demographics

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Timing played an important role in my leadership identification.	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	11 (79%)	0 (0%)	14
When few promotional opportunities are available, the potential for leadership identification is delayed.	3 (21%)	6 (43%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	14
Outside opportunities are useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in junior police officers.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	11 (79%)	0 (0%)	14
Opportunities to display leadership potential occurred within my own control.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	6 (43%)	7 (50%)	14

Section 3. Police Leadership Definitions: Key police leadership words and themes

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	Total
Foresight	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	14
Solid operational skills	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	14
Makes ethical decisions	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	9 (64%)	14
Accountability	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	7 (50%)	14
Honest	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	12 (86%)	14
Predictable	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	14
Common sense	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	6 (43%)	5 (36%)	14
Logic	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	5 (36%)	3 (21%)	14
Organizationally supportive	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	14
Approachable	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	14
Preparedness	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	4 (29%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	14
Vision	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	14
a Higher level thinker	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	14
Current	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	5 (38%)	4 (31%)	0 (0%)	13
Creativity	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	14
Caring	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	14
Empathetic	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	14
Takes responsibility	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	6 (43%)	3 (21%)	14
Integrity	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	9 (64%)	14
Respectful	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	5 (36%)	14

Dynamic	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	13
Sincerity	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	4 (31%)	1 (8%)	13
Polite	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	5 (36%)	0 (0%)	14
Passionate	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	6 (43%)	1 (7%)	14
Self-reflective	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	2 (17%)	3 (25%)	2 (17%)	3 (25%)	12
Desire to influence	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	14
Enthusiastic	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	6 (43%)	6 (43%)	1 (7%)	14
Selflessness	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	14
Politically astute	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	14
Work ethic	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	5 (36%)	4 (29%)	14
Self-aware	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	5 (36%)	2 (14%)	14
Diligent	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	5 (36%)	2 (14%)	14
Good communicator	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	6 (43%)	3 (21%)	14
Dreamer	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	13
Willingness to learn	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	14
Creative thinker	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	14
Well versed	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	14
Flexible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	5 (36%)	2 (14%)	14
Team builder	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	14
Business acumen	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	14
Initiative beyond years of service	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	14
Big picture	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	14

thinker												
Quality in work	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	4 (29%)	5 (36%)	14
Career, not a job	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	6 (43%)	4 (29%)	14
Non-confrontational	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	13
Organized	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	14

Common Definition Concerns

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
There should be a shared definition of police leadership in Alberta municipal police services.	0 (0%)	7 (50%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	0 (0%)	14
Differences in communities within Alberta prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition.	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	4 (31%)	6 (46%)	1 (8%)	13
The leadership profile of a police leader should be community specific.	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	7 (50%)	0 (0%)	14
Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership.	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	7 (50%)	2 (14%)	14
I find it easy to define police leadership.	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	6 (43%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	14

Application of Business Leadership Definitions

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	9 (64%)	2 (14%)	14
Police experience is essential for future police leaders.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	8 (57%)	4 (29%)	14
Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions.	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	2 (14%)	14
Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date.	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	8 (57%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	14

Section 4. The Identification of Police Leadership in Others

Attitudinal Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Junior officers with leadership potential are service oriented and give back to the community.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	11 (85%)	1 (8%)	13
Junior officers with leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers.	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	0 (0%)	8 (57%)	4 (29%)	14
Selflessness demonstrates the potential for leadership.	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	7 (50%)	0 (0%)	14
Our police services' performance appraisals evaluate attitude.	0 (0%)	7 (50%)	2 (14%)	5 (36%)	0 (0%)	14
Teaching the appropriate attitude to junior officers is difficult.	1 (7%)	7 (50%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	14

Strategic Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Junior officers with leadership potential understand the organizational mission statement.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	9 (64%)	0 (0%)	14
Junior officers with leadership potential demonstrate the vision of the police organization in their daily activities.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	9 (64%)	0 (0%)	14
Big picture thinking is indicative of a junior officer with leadership potential.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	7 (50%)	1 (7%)	14
Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of leadership potential.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	10 (71%)	3 (21%)	14

Demonstrated Leadership Potential

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
High performance as a constable demonstrates leadership potential.	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	1 (7%)	7 (50%)	2 (14%)	14
Establishing your reputation early is an important step in demonstrating leadership potential.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	7 (50%)	0 (0%)	14
Doing things for the organization and being proactive demonstrates leadership potential.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	11 (79%)	1 (7%)	14
Police organizations have a responsibility to create opportunities to allow junior officers to succeed.	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	10 (71%)	2 (14%)	14
The "knighting" of a junior police officer promotes unfairness in promotional processes.	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	3 (21%)	7 (50%)	1 (7%)	14

I agree that visceral or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential for leadership in junior police officers.

Response	Chart	Percentage	Count
Yes		86%	12
No		14%	2
		Total Responses	14

If you answered yes to the above question, please answer the following question.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
When the junior officer's body language is consistent with his or her spoken word.	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	2 (17%)	8 (67%)	1 (8%)	12
When they demonstrate charisma.	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	3 (25%)	7 (58%)	1 (8%)	12
When I sense that the officer has a significant trait.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (9%)	9 (82%)	1 (9%)	11
When they display trustworthiness.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (67%)	4 (33%)	12
When they demonstrate self-confidence.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	9 (75%)	2 (17%)	12
When they display command presence.	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	11 (92%)	0 (0%)	12

Visceral Responses

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Visceral responses or gut feelings play a part in my own identification of leadership potential among junior officers?	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	8 (67%)	2 (17%)	12
Visceral responses or gut feelings are perceived when I observe or interact with a junior officer?	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	2 (17%)	8 (67%)	1 (8%)	12
Likeability of a junior officer has something to do with gut feelings?	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (33%)	7 (58%)	1 (8%)	12
Police supervisors gravitate to junior officers who they believe they can trust?	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (17%)	7 (58%)	3 (25%)	12
Visceral responses or gut feelings need to be explored?	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	9 (75%)	1 (8%)	12

How important is the use of visceral or gut feelings in the identification of leadership potential in junior officers?

Response	Chart	Percentage	Count
Very Important		14%	2
Important		29%	4
Neutral		7%	1
Somewhat Important		36%	5
Not at all Important		14%	2
N/A		0%	0
		Total Responses	14