Follow the Leader: A Critical Analysis of Leadership, Followership and Wellbeing in Policing

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Abstract

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This research investigates the extent to which police leadership would benefit from consideration of the concept of 'followership'. The research approach is influenced by Critical Leadership Studies (CLS) principles of challenging assumptions about asymmetrical power dynamics and leader-centric leadership styles. The research question asks how an appreciation of followership theory could contribute to the development of police leadership, in turn improving follower wellbeing**.** Four research aims informed the research approach. 1) Examination of police leadership through a CLS lens from the perspective of followers. 2) Analysis of the leader follower relationship. 3) Provision of an evidence base informing the development of leadership models to meet current policing challenges whilst satisfying the wellbeing needs of followers. 4) Analysis of the factors which effect leadership, followership and wellbeing. A mixed–method approach was designed to answer the research question and satisfy the research aims. Research method one featured quantitative analysis of a national online questionnaire, producing data on leadership style, followership typology and the relationship between leaders and followers. Research method two involved analysis of qualitative data from the questionnaire and a series of interviews conducted with practitioners and academics; expanding on the questionnaire findings whilst further exploring the individual, organisational, external and theoretical factors which influence the leader follower relationship in contemporary policing. The unique contribution of the study is the provision of the 'Ideal Follower Leadership' theoretical framework which reveals the most important factors informing optimal leader follower relationships. The thesis also maps, for the first time, the wide range of factors influencing the formulation of such relationships and how these factors could be enhanced, enabling better leadership, followership and wellbeing in the future. The potential impact of this study is to contribute to the design of police leadership training by developing an appreciation of followership from theory into practice.

Keywords

Leadership, Followership, Wellbeing, Police, Critical Leadership Studies

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Finally I dedicate this thesis to my long suffering wife Joy who bore the brunt of the countless hours I spent attached to a laptop. I hope one day my sons Matthew and Nicholas can look back on their careers with the humility and affection I now can, and feel that it was all worthwhile.

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Glossary of Abbreviations

ACPO	Association of Chief Police Officers
ACC	Assistant Chief Constable
APP	Authorised Police Practice
BAME	Black and Minority Ethnic
BPA	Black Police Association
BOS	Bristol Online Surveys
CC	Chief Constable
CI	Chief Inspector
CID	Criminal Investigation Department
CLS	Critical Leadership Studies
COP	College of Policing
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DC	Detective Constable
DI	Detective Inspector
DS	Detective Sergeant
DV	Domestic Violence
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EMPAC	East Midlands Police and Academic Consortium
FRL	Full Range of Leadership Model
FSQ	Followership Skills Questionnaire
HMIC	Her Majesties Inspectorate of Constabulary
HMICFRS	Her Majesties Inspectorate of Constabulary, Fire and Rescue Services
HM Govt.	Her Majesties Government
HPDS	High Potential Development Scheme
HRM	Human Resource Management
HQ	Headquarters
IPA	Integrated Peel Assessment
IPCC	Independent Police Complaints Commission
IOPC	Independent Office of Police Complaints
LMX	Leader Member Exchange Theory
LMX7	Leader Member Exchange Questionnaire
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NDM	National Decision Making Model
NHS	National Health Service
NPCC	National Police Chiefs Council
NPIA	National Police Improvement Agency
PA	Personal Assistant
PC	Police Constable
PCDA	Police Constable Degree Apprenticeship
PCA	Police Complaints Authority
PCC	Police and Crime Commissioner
PCSO	Police Community Support Officer
PDR	Personal Development Review
PEQF	Police Educational Qualification Framework

PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
POLKA	Police Online Knowledge Area
PNAC	Police National Assessment Centre
PSD	Professional Standards Department
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
RAF	Royal Air Force
REA	Rapid Evidence Assessment
RIC	Royal Irish Constabulary
SIO	Senior Investigating Officer
SME	Subject Matter Expert
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TLI	Transformational Leadership Inventory
TLQ	Transformational Leadership Questionnaire
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States

Interview Participant Abbreviations (For more details, please see Appendix Nine)

Academic0x	Academic
Chief0x	Assistant Chief Constable (and equivalent) and above
CInsp0x	Chief Inspector
COP0x	College of Policing staff
DC0x	Detective Constable
Insp0x	Inspector
PC0x	PC
Sgt0x	Sergeant
Staff0x	Police Staff
Supt0x	Superintendent

Questionnaire Participant Abbreviations

(Qxxx)	Question 18 response anonymised participant number

Preface

It is appropriate from the outset of this thesis to acknowledge that personal experience as a police officer has informed an interpretivist approach as a researcher. This is reflected upon in depth in the methodology chapter. The effect of former police officers becoming academic researchers varies according to the individual's evolving attitude and relationship with the police service. A contemporary label of 'Pracademic' has emerged in policing research to describe this transition (Posner, 2009). Brown (1996, cited in Reiner and Newburn, 2007, p. 936) summarised ex-police officer researchers as ranging from "spy to propagandist". In choosing a research topic after having intimate, in depth knowledge as a former practitioner, it is understood and appreciated that the transition required from practitioner to researcher at PhD level requires an objective, unbiased approach. An academic and intellectual appreciation of this has developed and was reflected in the design and completion of this thesis. Hopefully the reader will agree that the thesis is neither the work of a spy nor propagandist, but a balanced representation of leadership, followership and wellbeing in policing in England and Wales today.

Introduction

Since the turn of the twenty-first century the police service has never faced such a perfect storm of dwindling resources amidst a climate of austerity; emergent threats such as evolving forms of terrorist attack as a result of globalisation (Franko Ass, 2009), and the investigation of new crime types, all whilst maintaining increasingly demanding relationships with the society and government they answer to. This thesis will explore how police leadership might benefit from an academic review and analysis of emerging theory, aspects of which have the potential to assist in meeting these increasingly complex challenges (Casey and Mitchell, 2007). Specifically, this research considers how the study of followership in policing might enhance police leadership theory and practice and in turn improve follower wellbeing. This project offers the potential to impact the advancement of police leadership practice. The research features a strong contemporary focus, commencing shortly after the Neyroud Review (Neyroud, 2011), the College of Policing (COP) Leadership Review (COP, 2015) and the COP Front Line Review (2018). With respect to the latter, the research particularly resonates with two of the review themes, namely 'Culture' and 'Management and Leadership'.

A review of academic literature relating to current police leadership practice has revealed how 'Transformational Leadership' has been adopted as the primary leadership style of twenty-first century policing in England and Wales since 2004. The extent to which transformational leadership has been adopted, the continued appropriateness of this doctrine and whether the time has arrived for a new leadership paradigm, emphasising the role of followers, form the basis of the research approach. The positive and negative attributes of transformational leadership and the implications for police leadership practice will be considered through a review of policing and wider leadership literature.

Prioritising a followership approach highlighted the need to adopt a different lens through which to analyse existing leadership practice in policing. This was offered by exposure to the emergent Critical Leadership Studies (CLS) movement. CLS challenges the traditional reliance on the individual leader as a hero (Tourish, 2013), reimagining

leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers where power dynamics need to be renegotiated, enabling the co-production of leadership. A constant theme throughout the thesis is developing an understanding of the extent to which CLS principles of shared leadership, facilitating followership, are becoming established. The CLS vision is one of "radical heterogeneity, not simply a different form of homogeneity" (Collinson and Grint, 2005, p. 7). This criticism of a lack of diversity of approach stems from the corporate-driven academic outputs of US business schools. CLS is the antithesis of this, described by two of its leading proponents as:

> an emergent, alternative paradigm questioning deep-seated assumptions that power and agency should be vested in the hands of a few leaders and exploring the dysfunctional consequences of such power dynamics for individuals, organisations, and societies (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 2).

For over a decade, CLS has challenged conventional leadership teaching, promotion of individual trait theory and over-reliance on the role of the charismatic white male heroic leader upon which organisations relied to transform the attitudes of subordinates and thus improve organisational performance (Tourish, 2013). CLS proposes that influential forces such as organisational context and leader follower relationships can no longer be overlooked when considering the study of leadership skills (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). Indeed, leadership studies have been:

> …concerned to shift the discourse away from the one dominated exclusively by the 'masculine hero' toward more relational, distributed, and gender-aware understandings (Case, French and Simpson, 2011).

The CLS approach examines concepts such as power dynamics, decision-making processes, the disadvantages of follower conformity, the advantages of follower resistance and the role of emotions in leadership and followership. Such an approach provides an opportunity to analyse and modify heroic mainstream models of leadership which have:

> "encouraged hubris rather than humility, helped to disempower employees … think[ing] differently about organisations, societies … leadership and followership" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 36).

The study of the concept of followership provides a new perspective on police leadership in a research landscape which has previously focussed exclusively on the personal attributes of higher-ranking officers. The concept of followership has been comparatively overlooked in general leadership studies (Kelley, 1992; Collinson, 2006; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

In the following sections, some key terms will be introduced, along with initial insights into the methodology, research design and thesis structure. Finally the research question and research aims will be introduced.

Methodology

A brief outline of the methodological approach employed and the rationale for employing it is worthy of mention from the outset in order to set the context of this study. The researcher commenced a PhD following a thirty-year career in policing. Whilst some of the epistemological, ontological and ethical questions this raises are discussed in chapter three, a summary of how this background influenced the research design is included here. An interpretivist approach emerged as the logical vehicle, embracing the transition from practitioner to researcher. In the writing of this thesis, academic conventions took precedence, whilst not denying the depth of understanding professional experience offers in enriching the quality of interpretation, appreciation of meaning and sense-making of complex or disputed concepts found in the literature. Leadership literature features a dominance of quantitative methods, with foundations in psychology and psychometric testing. CLS literature suggests the potential for qualitative research to add new knowledge to the study of followership (Bryman, 2011). The current study responds to CLS demands with a strong qualitative element to complement original quantitative data.

Research Design

A review of research methods literature revealed the contemporary growth of the mixed-method approach in the social sciences (Grix, 2010; Gilbert, 2008; Creswell, 2014). Mixed-methods were considered by the researcher to be the most suitable way to answer the research question and satisfy the research aims. Because the concept of followership has not previously been studied in UK policing, the utility of a quantitative element, establishing the broad landscape of police followership and leadership from a broad sample could not be overlooked. The gathering of quantitative data was designed to provide empirical evidence of how the concept of followership currently manifests itself in UK policing. The quantitative questionnaire method in research method one was intended to reach the widest possible audience of police officers, staff and volunteers in the most efficient way, given the limited resources of a lone PhD researcher. It was also intended to partially inform, along with the literature review, the content of research method two, a series of qualitative interviews with members of policing organisations and academics, designed to obtain participants' understandings of their experiences of followership and leadership and their interpretations of the results of research method one.

Thesis Structure

Chapters one, two and three set the scene in terms of locating the thesis within existing literature, theory and methodology respectively. Chapter One is a review of literature relevant to leadership, followership and wellbeing, both within and outside policing, consisting of: a chronology of police leadership styles leading up to and including transformational leadership; an examination of the effect of police culture on police leadership; an introduction to the CLS approach; a review of external influences to leadership and followership in policing and an introduction to the burgeoning police wellbeing agenda (Hesketh, 2017a). In Chapter Two, theory introduced in Chapter One is developed in greater detail. This chapter provides an overview of theory which informed the research design. This consists of an introduction to general leadership theory; an examination of transformational leadership; analysis of leader member

exchange theory; an overview of followership; consideration of servant, ethical, authentic, shared or distributed leadership and newly-emerging trends in leadership theory. The function of this research design was to map the factors which influence the leader follower relationship in policing. Chapter Three describes the methodological approach employed. This includes a reminder of the research question and sub-questions, research aims, methodology, a description of research method one, a description of research method two, the rationale behind the research design, considerations concerning the chosen philosophical approach and finally ethical issues. Chapters four to eight present the original data produced by the research and relate it back to the literature in chapter one and theory in chapter two. Chapter Four presents the quantitative results, analysis and discussion of research method one. Chapters five to eight present the qualitative results, analysis and discussion of research methods one and two. Chapter Five begins to explore the nature of the leader follower relationship in policing, including individual factors. Chapter Six considers how the leader follower relationship effects follower wellbeing. Chapter Seven outlines the organisational factors effecting the leader follower relationship. Chapter Eight details the remaining theoretical and conceptual factors affecting the leader follower relationship and presents an emergent theoretical framework for the relationship between leaders and followers in policing. The conclusion summarises the methodological and theoretical contributions, key findings and implications for practice and future academic research, before reflecting on the limitations of the study and closing with some concluding thoughts.

A number of key definitions are now provided as an introduction to terminology which will be expanded upon throughout the thesis.

Leadership

Leadership is often categorised according to conventional approaches focusing on prerequisite traits, skills and styles of the leader. Northouse identifies four components of leadership; process, influence, groups and common goals. When combined they produce a succinct working definition: “Leadership is a process whereby an individual

influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p. 3). Kotter (1990) summarises leadership as providing strategic vision, communicating goals and organisational change, teambuilding, inspiring and motivating. Deere defined leadership broadly as: "the ability to influence and combine individuals and resources effectively to achieve objectives that would otherwise be impossible" (Deere, 2008, p. 156).

Management

Numerous authors have deliberated over the distinction between leaders and managers. Both roles share common activities, but there are distinct differences. Northouse describes leadership as a phenomenon studied since the Greek philosopher Aristotle, whereas management was an early twentieth century invention, necessary for the efficient administration of newly developing industries. Kotter (1990) describes management functions such as translating ideas into structures, allocating resources, setting timetables, delivering projects, dealing with staffing issues, and problem solving. Some writers are prescriptive about the functions of leaders and managers (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Rost, 1991). Others argue they possess very different personality types (Zaleznik, 1977). Zaleznik defined managers as reactive problem-solvers whose work with subordinates features low emotional involvement. Conversely, he described leaders as emotionally proactive, shaping ideas and creating opportunities and changing the way followers think. A more contemporary viewpoint is adopted by Northouse (2010). Whilst conceding the differences between the constructs of leadership and management, he illustrated the overlap between them. Leaders must plan, organise, deal with staff and control operations. Whilst performing these functions, they are managing. When managers are implementing strategic change, influencing the mindsets of teams and individuals, they are demonstrating leadership. In the policing context, all officers and most staff and volunteers need to both manage and lead (Villiers, 2003). The current expectation is that all managers need to provide leadership. In the context of policing, the thesis will extend this expectation to argue all officers, staff and volunteers need to demonstrate leadership to a varying extent according to their role.

Leader

A leader has been defined as: “an individual who significantly affects the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of a significant number of individuals” (Kurtzman, 1999, n.p.). From a power perspective, leaders are “individuals with relatively more power and authority than the other members of the group” (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 1999, p. 523).

Follower

Followers have been defined by their job status or rank as: “subordinates who have less power, authority, and influence than do their superiors and who therefore usually, but not invariably, fall into line” (Kellerman, 2008, p. xix). Other academics reject the wholly subordinate role of the follower (Chaleff, 2003; Vecchio, 2007), implying that types of followership varied, and that followership is a choice. Chaleff defined a follower as one who:

> shares a common purpose with the leader, believes in what the organization is trying to accomplish, wants both the leader and organization to succeed, and works energetically to this end (Chaleff, 2003, p. 15).

For Chaleff, a follower does not passively obey orders. A follower possesses competencies such as the ability to constructively challenge which allows the accomplishment of goals shared with the leader.

Followership

There is no single definition of followership. According to Crossman and Crossman (2011, p. 43) “writers use the term followership in a number of ways”. Empirical research into followership is a developing area, but as already suggested, one hampered by a lack of qualitative analysis, a technique deemed well-suited to providing greater understanding of less well-investigated phenomena (Richards and Morse, 2007).

Qualitative research is designed to achieve "a more grounded understanding of what followership means to those acting in such roles" (Carsten *et al.,* 2010, p. 544). Research method two adopts such an approach.

Kelley defined followership as:

> … the social capacity to work well with others, the strength of character to flourish without heroic status, the moral and psychological balance to pursue personal and corporate goals at no cost to either, and, above all, the desire to participate in a team effort for the accomplishment of some greater common purpose (Kelley, 1988, p. 147).

Definitions of leadership and followership are subject to considerable academic debate and as technical terms, can be quite contentious. The meaning and significance of leadership and followership will be revisited throughout this thesis. These initial definitions are designed to provide an introduction to key terms.

Wellbeing

Due to the volume of data produced concerning wellbeing, it emerged from a recurring theme into a pivotal element of the research. Just as the leader follower relationship emerged as the core component of the thesis, the effect of the leader follower relationship on wellbeing demanded that it needed to be integrated into this central conceptual strand. This was due to its importance in terms of how crucial leadership was to wellbeing. This meant as the thesis developed, it became necessary to revise the review of literature to include wellbeing and to dedicate a chapter to the burgeoning police wellbeing agenda.

Again, no single authoritative definition of wellbeing in policing exists but the Home Office provides a workable summary, whereby a state of wellbeing:

> enables individuals to realise their potential, be resilient, and be able to make a productive contribution to the police workforce (Home Office, 2018, p. 1).

As a concept, Seligman's (2011) proposal that there are five pillars of wellbeing, namely: Positive Emotions, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning and Purpose, and Accomplishment is widely supported in the policing context (Hesketh, Cooper and Ivy, 2019).

It is appropriate to introduce the research question and aims of this project at this stage. They were devised through an amalgamation of concepts distilled from the review of literature and theoretical themes considered in the first two chapters. They were strongly influenced, especially research aim 1 (below), by the adoption of a CLS perspective from which to analyse historical approaches to police leadership, most significantly a tradition of reliance on command and control and transactional leadership styles (Silvestri, 2003; Grint, 2010a). CLS principles to challenge accepted notions of hierarchy, power and organisational processes inspired the research question and aims. Millions of pounds and countless hours have been invested in preparing individuals in policing for leadership. Nothing has been invested in understanding followership or teaching individuals to become better followers. Follower-led and follower-centric change in a shared leadership model could deliver solutions to the current internal and external challenges faced by contemporary and future policing.

Research Question

To what extent could the development of an understanding of followership in policing enhance police leadership in England and Wales and improve wellbeing?

Research Aims

1). To consider police leadership through a critical leadership study lens, in particular the concept of followership in policing.

2). To analyse the leader follower relationship through a mixed method approach.

3). To produce a new theoretical framework, informing how improved leader follower relationships might promote a workforce better prepared to tackle current policing challenges.

4). To analyse the factors which need to be understood to enable positive developments to police leadership, followership and wellbeing.

The process by which these aims were supplemented with further sub-questions which shaped the research design is explained in chapter three and appendix five.

The thesis will demonstrate how expectations of leadership in policing, viewed from a CLS perspective, have exclusively focussed on a romanticised reliance on individual leaders to be heroes, to know everything and to instinctively make the right decisions. They have been expected, irrespective of gender, to fulfil a male-oriented stereotype of action-orientation, dominance and controlled aggression. The leadership styles associated with and superimposed onto policing have perpetuated such character traits of leaders, characteristics which have succeeded in the arena of commerce but may be less compatible with meeting the complex internal and external challenges faced by police leaders. The unique contribution of the current research will be to analyse data from police officers of all ranks, police staff and volunteers to reveal the optimal relationship between leaders and followers in policing which needs to be developed to allow the service to meet the challenges it currently faces. The thesis will reveal how the optimal relationship between leaders and followers in policing is affected by organisational, individual, external and theoretical factors which will be examined in chapters four to eight. These must be combined with leadership values which allow followers in policing to contribute more meaningfully to the way policework is designed and performed. The complex equation enabling the formation of this relationship will be mapped out for the first time in a new theoretical framework to emerge from this study entitled 'Ideal Follower Leadership'.

Chapter One: Police Leadership: history, development, contemporary challenges and opportunities

Introduction

Five thematic categories provide the foundation of this literature review. The categories are: a chronology of police leadership styles leading up to and including transformational leadership; the effect of police culture on police leadership; CLS and the study of followership; external influences on police leadership and the police wellbeing agenda.

A Chronology of Police Leadership Styles leading up to Transformational Leadership

The modern or 'New Police' were established by the Metropolitan Police Act in 1829, introduced by Sir Robert Peel. However, there was no specific provision for training of any kind for the first seventy years; no trained instructors emerged and few officers possessed adequate educational standards to perform the role (Ascoli, 1979). Emsley (2016) described a heavy reliance on military leadership during the first century of the police in England and Wales. Initiatives were imported from the Royal Irish Constabulary (RIC) which predated any provision for senior officer training in England, indeed twenty-two RIC officers became Commissioners and Chief Constables in English and Scottish forces. The first police training school for constables and detectives was established at Peel House in Westminster in 1907 (London Remembers, 2016). Leadership training was first provided by the 'Hendon Metropolitan Police College', established in 1934 upon the recognition by the then Commissioner Trenchard of a dearth of 'officer material' (Critchley, 1979, p. 204). This could be attributed to the fact that the majority of promotions came from within existing police ranks during the first century of the new police. The Hendon curriculum retained its military flavour, reinforcing top-down hierarchical leadership structures and attribution of power. *Police Review* magazine made direct comparisons with Cranwell and Sandhurst, the equivalent leadership colleges for the RAF and the Army (Emsley, 2016). Following the recommendations of the 1919 Police Act, the Desborough Committee, founded in the same year, attempted

to attract talented leaders from outside the force (Emsley, 1996). This proved successful and 65 out of 240 Chief Constable appointments between 1918 to 1939 were external. External appointments were phased out post world war two, only re-emerging following new legislation in 2014 to allow Direct Entry Superintendents and Inspectors (Barratt, 2014) when once again, the requirement for external talent was identified (COP, 2015d).

Alongside the development of leadership training for the metropolis, the demand for a national police college was identified by the 1929 Dixon Committee, but no progress was made until the Post-war Reconstruction Committee commissioned a report by the Home Office and senior chief police officers on higher police training (Ascoli, 1979). This was published in 1947 and preceded the opening of the first National Police College in 1948 at Ryton-on-Dunsmore. The curriculum consisted of courses for promotion from Sergeant to Inspector, Inspector and Chief Inspector to Superintendent and Superintendent to all higher ranks. The college moved to Bramshill in 1960 and developed a suite of leadership courses, including the 'Special Course', identifying constables with the highest potential to reach senior ranks quickly. This philosophy continued with accelerated schemes such as the High Potential Development Scheme (HPDS), replacing the special course in 2002 (HMIC, 2002). The 'Senior Course' was introduced in 1963, later to become the 'Senior Command Course', equipping Chief Superintendents for chief officer duties. The Metropolitan Police introduced leadership courses to complement those at Bramshill to satisfy demand in 1966. Collaborations with academic educationalists were formalised post-1971 through the Police Training Council. This was reflected in the re-design of the 'new' Senior Course in 1973 (Critchley, 1979).

Situational Leadership (Yukl, 2011) was the dominant style taught in policing during the last quarter of the twentieth century and has remained popular, despite academic criticism of its theoretical underpinnings (Northouse, 2010). This is reflected in self-analyses of senior officer's preferred styles (Caless, 2011). Developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969), as the name suggests, differing situations demand the adoption of different leadership styles. This practical, flexible yet prescriptive approach was a good fit for a hierarchical, disciplined organisation, especially given the increasingly diverse

nature of the policing role. Like transformational leadership, situational leadership theory included an element of exploration of the relationship between leaders and followers, although the term 'follower' was not used. Situational leadership required leaders to evaluate their employees' competence and commitment relating to a particular task, monitoring their abilities over time. Consequently, good leaders recognised to what extent employees needed direction or support in any given situation (Northouse, 2010).

It was the 2002 Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) Annual Report which confirmed the significance placed on transformational leadership by the government. It featured as one of the five 'priority areas' of the Leadership Training Programme, facilitated by CENTREX, the then national police training body, to be superseded by the National Policing Improvement Agency (2004-2012) and subsequently the College of Policing (2012-to date). The Leadership Training Programme was designed to "focus strongly on transformational leadership elements – the ability to motivate and inspire others to achieve results" (HMIC, 2002, p. 29). Transformational leadership had a pervasive influence on its converts. An example of this in police leadership rhetoric was Bradley (2009, p. 189) who advocated:

> a shift from a transactional to a transformational leadership approach … officers will have to appreciate the importance of developing their emotional intelligence and move from their command and control style to one which empowers their subordinates.

Whilst criticism of the transformational leadership style has increased in subsequent decades, for example highlighting the 'dark side' of transformational leadership, where followers can blindly follow an unethical but charismatic leader (Tourish, 2013), it "still dominates the current evidence base for effective police leadership" (Campbell and Kodz, 2011, p. 4).

Public or external criticisms of police leadership prior to the adoption of the transformational leadership style have historically adopted a largely negative tone. This

has been informed by a number of critical incidents of serious reputational significance such as the aftermath of the Stephen Lawrence murder in 1993 (Macpherson, 1999). Critical incidents are defined as: "any incident where the effectiveness of the police response is likely to have a significant impact on the confidence of the victim, their family and/or the community" (COP, 2013, n.p.). Punch (2003) termed the most catastrophic of these as 'system failures'. Such failures of leadership requiring official enquiries (Scarman, 1981; Macpherson, 1999) illustrate the depth of public scrutiny following such incidents which may span decades (Hillsborough Independent Panel, 2016). Political criticism of national police leadership led to reforms in governance structures at the highest levels (Sharman and Savage, 1999).

Police leadership recruitment and training methods have also attracted academic criticism. The homogenous pedagogy whereby all of the most senior police leaders were trained for chief officer roles at Bramshill (formerly the police service staff college) was challenged: "Is that a good model, with every single leader coming through the same gateway?" (Kilgannon, 2015, n.p.). Similar criticism of the selection and training of future chief officers began twenty years previously, with Reiner (1995, p. 88), describing them as a "league of fellow high-flyers" and a "new breed of police yuppies". Given this appetite for change, transformational leadership emerged as the primary leadership style of twenty first century UK policing since 2004, following publication of the Home Office commissioned Dobby Report (2004) which strongly recommended its adoption. Although transformational leadership remains implicit in current leadership rhetoric, it is no longer represented as the panacea (Neyroud, 2011) for all the challenges which currently face the service.

Analysis of recent police leadership literature considers the binary nature of transactional and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978). What is not understood is to what extent transformational leadership principles, extensively espoused since 2004 as the bedrock of UK police leadership theory, are still adopted by contemporary police leaders and whether it continues to offer solutions to current policing challenges. The current research analyses the degree of implementation of transformational leadership

and introduces the potential benefits the consideration of a complementary approach, namely followership, could provide.

Transactional leadership was first presented as a leadership style by Burns (1978). It was characterised by a bargaining or instrumental approach. It is based on 'legitimate authority… clarification of goals … rewards and punishments' (Mullins, 2013, p. 385). This contrasts with transformational leadership, which portrays leaders as 'visionaries', 'reformers' and 'innovators', influencing followers to develop themselves and their allegiance to the organisation through a process of self-actualisation (Adlam and Villiers, 2003). Mullins (2013, p. 372) defines transformational leadership as:

> … a process of engendering motivation and commitment, creating a vision for transforming the performance of the organisation, and appealing to the higher ideals and values of followers.

Such rhetoric was attractive to governments since the 1990's, intent on police reform in a quest for improved performance within the agenda of the 'New Public Management' movement, typified by translating private sector practices of results-based, performance-indicator driven efficiency into the public sector (Rowe, 2014). Implementing such reform however into policing was problematic given the resistant nature of police organisational culture to imposed change (Savage, 2003), a concept also emerging in this study. Transformational leadership belongs to the 'New Leadership' approach (Bryman, 1996), emphasising the reliance on charismatic leaders who lead through a process of changing the outlook of followers and the culture of organisations (Northouse, 2015).

Bass and Riggio (2006, p. 224) claim that transformational leaders are "more effective than transactional or nontransformational leaders". Whilst 'effectiveness' is not defined, the current study will explore whether transformational principles continue to be incorporated into UK policing. It will also consider whether claims such as those made by Mitchell and Casey (2007, p. 130) in Australia that transformational leadership "will

provide the necessary flexibility to deal with the increasingly networked, independent and culturally diverse police force" translates into UK policing.

Criticism of police leadership in the UK became commonplace in the early twentieth century (Critchley, 1979) and continued through various forums including HMIC inspection reports and the Macpherson Report (Macpherson, 1999). Media criticism in particular has continued to intensify (Wright *et al.,* 2008). Tension remains between the implementation of 'softer skills', epitomised by transformational leadership concepts and the traditional target-driven and task-orientated culture of command and control policing. Policing is an environment requiring naturalistic decision-making skills during critical tasks "characterised by uncertainty, time pressure, risk, and multiple and changing goals" (Schraagen, 2008, p. xxv). The challenge for police leaders is to achieve competence in: "addressing transactional tasks and activities whilst doing so in a transformational way" (Rogers, 2008, p. 13). Policing by nature is largely a task-driven activity. Police leadership thus demands a "functional (or group) approach" (Mullins, 2013, p. 373), hinting at both followership and emerging leadership styles considered in the following chapter such as shared and servant leadership.

Since 1980, transformational leadership has been "the single most studied and debated idea within the field of leadership studies" (Diaz-Saenz, 2011, p. 299). Conger (1999) suggested the reason for its rise to become the most popular topic of academic leadership research over a sustained period was timing. America's position as the global leader in industry began to be challenged from developing Asian economies and a heroic leadership response was demanded. Organisations needed to restructure to become more efficient and viable against this new competition and leaders were required to become role models to protect American industry against the boom of industrialising nations such as China and South Korea.

Criticism of transformational leadership has existed since its inception, primarily in CLS literature. Tourish (2013), one such significant CLS academic author, highlighted the over-emphasis on heroic leaders and their reliance on charisma. Cockcroft's (2014) criticism of the style when applied to policing focused on over-simplification of theory

by police leaders and over-intellectualisation by academics when considering the relationship between organisational setting, police culture and transformational leadership. Beyer (1999), writing from a CLS perspective, pointed out an overemphasis on psychological factors and reliance on quantitative analysis, promoting the need for future qualitative research into sociological and organisational factors instead. The current study is responsive to those demands. A decade later, following a meta-analysis of the literature, Diaz-Saenz's (2011) overall concern was excessive reliance on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985) as a measure of transformational leadership. This excluded other forms of measurement instrument. A greater use of qualitative analysis was recommended, with the suggestion that this would be a more appropriate method to explore complex concepts such as followership in policing organisations. This study begins to address such perceived deficits by adopting a mixed-method approach. Despite criticisms such as Beyer's that quantitative analysis techniques, producing taxonomies, typologies and models are reductionist in nature, the synthesis of quantitative and qualitative methods proved to be appropriate, as discussed in chapter three. The quantitative element was designed to provide a picture of the current national landscape, describing the nature of the leader follower relationship. This formed the basis of the Ideal Follower Leadership model to emerge in chapter four. This model was enhanced and developed by analysis of qualitative data in chapters five to eight. Chapter three considers how critical social sciences were borne out of a sense of pragmatism. The research design of this thesis followed a similar principle. In order to appeal to a profession which thrives on pragmatic problem-solving and to offer the potential to impact future leadership practice, the evolved Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework presented in chapter eight maps an aspirational representation of how policing organisations need to develop in order to facilitate improved followership.

Cockcroft (2014) described how transformational leadership has become a badge adopted by notable twenty first century police leaders such as Bill Bratton, a successful US police chief reaching the ranks of Chief and Commissioner in both the Los Angeles and New York Police Departments who the media speculated would be considered to become Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police (BBC, 2011). Bratton considered

himself a 'transformational leader who changes cultures' (Dodd and Stratton, 2012). Caless's study of UK Chief Officers' attitudes towards leadership offers insight into the psyche of a generation of leaders from the transformational leadership era, some of whom are still serving today. At the more extreme and unguarded end of the spectrum, Caless revealed some disarmingly candid admissions: "But leadership is still just about getting your own way, isn't it?" and "but lurking behind every bland ACPO exterior, there's a control freak who lets the mask slip in a crisis" (Caless, 2011, p. 103). Contrastingly, Caless recorded more considered responses, but such taught, textbook responses could call into question the authenticity of the leader involved:

> My leadership style is predominantly transformational but from time to time it becomes transactional out of necessity. I tend to adapt my leadership style to the prevailing situation. I find it helpful to think about leadership as a toolbox containing a range of tools for different jobs. The skill is in choosing the right tool for the right job. From time to time, it is variously necessary to provide social leadership, entrepreneurial leadership, facilitative leadership, directional leadership and just occasionally heroic leadership (Caless, 2011, p. 103).

Original data presented in chapters four to eight of this research provides a range of participant interpretations around contemporary leadership style and quality and the effect of police culture on leadership style.

Cockcroft identified the link made by Bratton between transformational leadership and cultural change, seeing the former as a facilitator of that change. The current study, in accordance with Cockcroft, also placed rank as a significant factor in the formation of culture, whilst acknowledging the "conflicting agendas and aims" (Cockcroft, 2014, p. 6) of officers according to rank. Transcending rank, Cockcroft identified sociological issues such as educational attainment as central to the change mechanisms in policing organisations. A proliferation of policing degrees already exists in UK universities, as part of the professionalisation process described as early as 1969 in the USA (Niederhoffer, 1969; Fleming, 2013). The announcement of the proposal for the new minimum educational requirement for police officer entrants to be at degree level under the

Police Educational Qualifications Framework (PEQF) (COP, 2017b) led to a heated argument termed 'degreegate' (Williams, 2015). It was noticeable that the argument against the proposal tended to be from police constables who cited examples of colleagues who were excellent thief-takers, detectives or community officers, in some cases without any formal educational qualifications whatsoever. These types of recruits would be excluded from future intakes. Professionalisation and direct entry were both prime examples of the troubled relationship between COP and the policing rank and file, frequently mentioned by participants on this study.

The common question asked during degreegate was whether the service would suffer if such officers lacking higher educational qualifications were excluded in the future. In answer to the question, Williams cited journalist Duncan Campbell, that policing needs 'both artisans and graduates' (Williams, 2015, p. 1). The broad argument for all future entrants to be graduates is to achieve parity with professional partners such as nurses, teachers and social workers. This appeared to be largely a risk assessment exercise, to position the organisation and individual officers in a less precarious position when it came to accountability. At an inquest, misconduct hearing or court trial, COP argue that with degrees, all officers could claim their practice comes from principles taught during a programme of training at degree level, and that their decision-making, analytical and other skills were intellectually equivalent to those of their professional partners around the case conference table (Peach, 2015). Rowe (2014) raises fundamental questions about whether a degree necessarily makes a 'better' or 'more effective' police officer, in fact he queries what a 'better' or 'more effective' police officer really is. He cites Wimhurst and Ransley's (2007, p. 107) Australian research, which states:

> There remains widespread uncertainty in the research literature about what a university education means in terms of doing a "better" job of policing, and that this uncertainty is rooted in the ambiguity surrounding how doing a "better" job is defined.

Police officers on social media escalated their criticism of the PEQF and the Police Constable Degree Apprenticeship (PCDA) programme in particular as the Police

Federation published initial feedback from the first cohort of officers (Police Federation, 2019). Sklansky (2013, p. 346) captured the problematic nature of the professionalisation process and its acceptance into police culture with his pragmatic summary:

> … if professionalism means arrogance and a lack of accountability, no one favours it: if it means thoughtful, reflective, ethical policing, no one is against it.

Many academic studies have noted the rise of transformational leadership to the forefront of police leadership rhetoric (Silvestri, 2003) and others have promoted that rise (Dobby *et al.,* 2004). Others, such as Foster (2003), have joined Cockcroft in identifying the relationship between transformational leadership and cultural change. That relationship will be further developed in this study, exploring to what extent 'classic' (Loftus, 2008, 2009, 2010) police culture still prevails and whether new aspects have developed during the current decade. The complexity and duality of police culture; divided into organisational (official management) and occupational (counter) culture (Paoline, 2003), provides a tension and a barrier to change. To compound these difficulties, Cockcroft (2014, p. 8) asserts that there is a "fundamental mismatch between the perceived problems facing policing and the solutions offered by transformational leadership". He argues this is because of the fundamental differences, including cultural, between police organisations and the private sector companies for which transformational leadership was developed, it does not offer appropriate solutions. He classified the "operational context of police work" (Cockcroft, 2014, p. 8) as transactional, identifying how proponents of transformational leadership themselves recognised it was not compatible with every organization. He cited Bass's (1990) speculation that if opportunities for one of the four 'i' fundamentals of transformational leadership, namely 'intellectual stimulation', was lacking in certain roles, that organisation might not be a good fit for adoption of the transformational leadership philosophy. Suitable organisations also needed opportunities for innovation; to develop new business strategies, ways of working and influencing factors which weakened its effectiveness. Policing is limited in opportunities for innovation due to external governance and the centralised performance management culture which accompanied

the rise of neo-liberalism and the growth of New Public Management (NPM) principles introduced by the 'New Labour' government between 1997 and 2010 (Fleming, 2013; Neyroud, 2011). Participants in the current study discussed lack of innovation and intolerance of different thinkers. Despite such limitations, transformational leadership emerged as a mantra for UK policing, one of a number of phenomena borrowed from the private sector, bringing with it a predilection for metrics of efficiency through the introduction of performance management systems. Police leadership was described as undergoing a process of professionalisation through NPM, deemed by the government to be essential to building a professional service, compared to a service which acts professionally (Neyroud, 2011).

Cockcroft continued his critique by illustrating the theoretical weaknesses of transformational leadership theory, primarily the limitations of the binary and mutually exclusive transformational/transactional distinction as an over-simplified leadership model. Further difficulties are encountered when this model is translated to policing. Cockcroft cites Wisniewski and Olaffson's (2004) research that the public sector is required to deliver a broad, complex range of sometimes intricate services. Furthermore, within the public sector, the roles required of the police represent the most diverse set of demands of any organisation.

Cockcroft's (2014) three conclusions provide an anchor point for this current research. Firstly, greater clarity is demanded in defining police organisational culture, realising its complexity and ascertaining whether it is understood by police leaders. Secondly, the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership need to be redefined. A simple binary, extolling the universal virtues of the former and condemning the latter, fails to recognise the organisational landscape of policing, the relationship between the two leadership styles, and whether they can co-exist in a hybrid or 'ambidextrous' model (Zacher and Rosing, 2015) in a policing situation. Thirdly, the complex, competing and ever-developing roles of contemporary policing may prove too demanding for any single traditional leadership style, especially one such as transactional leadership which is "predicated upon hierarchy, reward and punishment" (Cockcroft, 2014, p. 12). Neyroud's assertion that transformational leadership is incompatible with the

“transactional demands of command” (2011, p. 39) does not preclude its utility in a myriad of other non-command and control policing contexts. Indeed, Neyroud (2011, p. 39) goes on to state that transformational leadership has “an important role”. Police culture, leadership style and the complexity of the policing role all emerged as important themes in this study, which seeks to elicit what type of leadership will be required for followership to flourish. This thesis will consider, in chapter four and the concluding chapter, whether transformational leadership ever truly embedded itself in policing or merely left traces in police leadership culture.

The influence of Neyroud’s review has been significant. Much of the review advocates structural changes, such as the development of the College of Policing (COP), but two ontological concepts; ‘what works’, previously applied to crime prevention, and ‘evidence-based’, the single biggest recent growth area in policing studies, both featuring heavily in COP literature, were first applied to police leadership by Neyroud (2011). As Neyroud points out, despite the Dobby report, the evidence base to justify the introduction of transformational leadership as the panacea for police leadership was never identified. This study therefore sets out to define ‘what works’ for police followers in terms of leadership, providing an evidence base for the adoption of followership principles into policing. It also asks ‘how police leadership works?’ and ‘how could it work better?’ In doing so it seeks to understand what the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers is and what needs to change to improve that relationship as a precursor to getting the best out of a workforce under extreme strain whilst improving their wellbeing. Key to achieving this understanding is developing a better appreciation of relevant police leadership, followership and organisational theory. This will be addressed in chapter two.

Neyroud’s empirical starting point was a series of Rapid Evidence Assessments (REA) (Neyroud, 2011, p. 31). Most salient to this research was the REA category: “What makes a great police leader: competency styles and behaviours” (Neyroud, 2011, p. 32). Despite the lack of an evidence base, the reply, unsurprisingly for the most “studied and debated idea within the field of leadership studies” since 1980 (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011, p. 299), to what makes a great leader was predictably: “transformational leadership,

combined with the ability to apply different styles, including transactional, to suit different contexts" (Neyroud, 2011, p. 33). Historically, reviews of police leadership have undervalued evidence from the very people it effects most, the followers. This gap is addressed in the current study, signifying the importance of this research; the provision of an evidence-base for improved police leadership from the perspective of the people most affected by it, police followers.

The final study of key significance to the current project is the College of Policing Leadership Review (COP, 2015d), resulting in the Cass Report (COP, 2015c), where for the first time in a central government police leadership document, the term follower or the concept of followership was adopted:

> … it is important to ensure that leaders do not become disconnected from their followers (who may also act as, or become, leaders) (Jones *et al.,* 2010), (parentheses in the original).

Delineated as Appendix B to the main Leadership Review document (COP, 2015), the Cass Report endorsed a move away from what the authors termed a "command and control" approach (COP, 2015c, p. 23), explaining how such a style, synonymous with transactional leadership:

> can no longer serve as the master template for leadership in general … a strategic approach requires a focus on leadership capabilities at all levels that will generate the repertoire of skills required by the diverse settings in which police work takes place (COP, 2015c, p. 23).

The Cass Report advocates a collective approach to leadership where employees are engaged. The report cites Currie *et al.*, (2007; 2009 and 2011) and their work on distributed leadership, also known as shared leadership, discussed in the following chapter. It also resonates with elements of followership theory (Bligh, 2011) and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978). The need for leadership capabilities at all levels or informal leadership is not a new concept. Villiers (2003) proposes that due to

their authority, community influence and ability to exercise discretion, all officers must exercise leadership. Grint and Thornton (2015) articulate that leadership and decision making is present across all ranks, echoed by the subtitle of the main leadership review report: “Recommendations for delivering leadership at all levels” (COP, 2015d, p. 1).

The most significant gap that the COP leadership review revealed is the lack of emphasis on , especially sergeant leadership. This concurred with the HMIC review ‘Leading from the ’ (HMIC, 2018). Arguably it is the role of the least well-trained leaders to perform the most difficult task in police leadership. They need to provide clear direction in command situations whilst catering for the wellbeing of their direct reports. Being supportive within a transformational style of leadership was raised as an issue by HMIC. The call for further research into supervision provided by the sergeant rank has recently been repeated by policing academics (Williams, 2016).

In her foreword to the COP review, Dame Professor Shirley Pearce outlined what needed to change in police leadership. She included culture and the need for flexible leadership approaches accommodating the range of situations from command and control to those which encourage challenge. Rather than articulating a preferred style, the review describes how leadership needs to change, stating that it needs to become ethical, evidence-based and professional. The requirement to “equip the whole police workforce with leadership skills and knowledge” (COP, 2015d, p. 5) is also acknowledged, another suggestion towards the appropriateness of the adoption of some form of shared or distributed leadership. Although the term followership is not used, such statements invite the need for followership principles to be included in the development of the future direction of police leadership practice. There is also an acknowledgement of over-reliance on leadership development in the past and the neglect of management skills. This illustrates the ‘leaderisation’ of management, described by Learmouth and Morrell (2016), where the term leadership has arbitrarily replaced management in many organisations, despite these terms describing very different roles, abilities and expectations.

The review lists an extensive range of desirable police leadership traits. The qualities are not new, and almost read like a litany. They include: “seeks out challenge”; “quick to adapt”; “understands and exploits the benefits of technology”; “understands and exploits good business practice”; “empowers, trusts and supports every individual to succeed”; “copes with the challenges of emerging crime and public safety issues”; “values difference and diversity”; “readily accepts responsibility”; “retains the trust of communities”; and “demonstrates resilience in high pressure and complex situations” (COP, 2015d, p. 5). The COP accepts their role in promoting such values and attributes. This study provides original quantitative and qualitative data revealing what followers look for in leaders.

The COP review reprises the ‘leadership is not a panacea’ argument (COP, 2015d, p. 6) already referred to (Neyroud 2011). It concedes no single leadership style could cover all policing situations but does promote the adoption of more collective styles found in other industries, the twin appeal being achieving a more appropriate balance of power and improved two-way communications between leaders and followers. Servant leadership is described as “a style that places the leader in the role of an enabler” (COP, 2015d, p. 6). The team leadership model is also located as the antithesis to “heroic” (COP, 2015d, p. 18) models. This thesis will propose that increased awareness of followership theory in policing could guide future police leadership in addition to achieving real cultural change in a cost effective and futureproofed way. Rather than investing in a few leaders who may move on, investment would be in developing an enduring organisational followership culture. The review concedes the need for the COP to build its evidence base and to be receptive to the best evidence. This thesis, considering the viability of followership in policing, is intended to form part of that evidence. Finally, the review recognises the need for trust, both internally and between the police service, partners and the public, to achieve the required improvements to police leadership. Trust is a feature of some of the leadership theories considered in chapter two and featured strongly for research participants as a requirement of good relationships between leaders and followers. A final aspirational aim in the COP review (COP, 2015d) was practitioner autonomy. This fits with the ideal type of ‘exemplary

follower' described by Kelley (1992) in chapter two. The relationship between police culture and police leadership is further developed in the following section.

The Effect of Police Organisational Culture on Police Leadership

The COP review balances commonly negative interpretations of police occupational culture (Reiner, 2010) with examples of positive outcomes, including: "decisiveness in difficult situations, compassion and care, and a constant 'can-do' attitude" (COP, 2015d, p. 17). The review cites the introduction of the 2014 Code of Ethics (COP, 2014b) as a means to promote ethical leadership, with the code of ethics central to the National Decision Model (COP, 2013), considered in the following chapter. The review warns against the dominant cultural leaning towards command and control leadership because it suppresses the desirable:

> culture of candour and challenge that is necessary to succeed in the future context … [and] more widespread adoption of the principles of 360-degree feedback (COP, 2015d, p. 19).

Challenge and feedback are mechanisms of followership theory, particularly Chaleff's (2003) 'courageous followers', described in chapter two. The degree to which candour, challenge and upward feedback are allowed and acted upon were popular themes to emerge from this study.

Predominantly, both in academic literature and media portrayals, police culture has been painted in a negative light (Skolnick, 1966; Reiner, 2010; Punch, 2003). Despite the antiquity of the original studies informing their findings, they continue to strongly influence academic writing on police culture (Loftus, 2010). The frequency of the literature produced on the subject appears to have diminished and has begun to portray some aspects of contemporary police culture more favourably (Rumens and Broomfield, 2012; Colvin, 2009). This may be attributable to improvements in police culture which may have rendered it less controversial as a research topic. Character traits such as cynicism, suspicion, conservatism, social isolation, prejudice, bigotry and self-

preservation are recurring themes (Reiner, 2010; Paoline *et al*., 2000). What also recurs is the proposition that such traits are a result of the organisational or occupational environment. Fielding (1988, p. 5) attributed the twin influencing factors of organisational structure and positivist human factors to the development of police culture:

> Rather than the assumption that policing attracts malicious individuals of a punitive and reactionary bent, such work begins from the assumption that the work the police are given to do, and its institutional placing, largely accounts for the character of police practice.

Rowe (2014) provides an in-depth summary of police culture but significantly, there is only one mention of the relationship between leadership and culture. The nuanced strands of police culture, for example between 'street cops' and 'management cops' (Reuss-Ianni, 1982), presents a challenge to leadership if, as Cockcroft (2014) suggests, overcoming negative police culture is the greatest blocker to achieving effective and lasting change. For example, the current research will report a communications gap at middle management level as one reason for the slow pace of cultural change.

<u>An Alternative Approach: Critical Leadership Studies and the study of Followership</u>

Since its adoption there has been a growing dissonance with transformational leadership, questioning the degree to which it is a good fit for the unique complexities of leadership in policing (Foster, 2003; Cockcroft, 2014) and in broader leadership studies (Collinson and Tourish, 2015; Tourish, 2013). One fundamental to consider is whether police leadership is a unique entity with different constraints, conventions and culture from all other public and private sector industries, or whether there is no such thing as police leadership, it is simply leadership but in policing. This existential question will be revisited in chapter eight. Transformational leadership was 'applied' to policing almost twenty years ago. Consideration of an alternative approach would test whether the time is now right for new theories of leadership and followership to be integrated into policing. The current 'state of the art' in alternative leadership and management

studies is reflected by the 'Critical Leadership Studies' movement (Collinson, 2011, p. 181), emerging to:

> Critique the power relationships and identity constructions through which leadership dynamics are often reproduced, frequently rationalised, sometimes resisted and occasionally transformed.

At the core of the CLS movement are a group of established leadership academics, professors of various prestigious management schools at top universities, united through the European journal '*Leadership*'. They have provided an antithesis to the corporate-driven academic outputs of US business schools. CLS is described by two of its leading proponents as:

> an emergent, alternative paradigm questioning deep-seated assumptions that power and agency should be vested in the hands of a few leaders and exploring the dysfunctional consequences of such power dynamics for individuals, organisations, and societies (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 2).

For over a decade, CLS has challenged conventional leadership teaching, its promotion of individual trait theory and its over-reliance on the role of the charismatic, usually white male, heroic leader, capable of transforming the attitudes of subordinates and thus improving the performance of organisations. CLS proposes that influential forces such as power dynamics, organisational context and leader-follower relationships cannot be overlooked when considering the study of leadership skills (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). Exposure to the emergent themes researched by the CLS movement have influenced the content of this literature review and the research aims of this project. Importantly, CLS reconsiders three concepts: the romanticised view of heroic leadership, the importance of power relationships and the need to understand followership.

CLS acknowledges the diverse pedagogy amongst academic leadership teaching, but also identifies a convergence towards:

> a rather narrow set of psychological assumptions and approaches that, in privileging the role of powerful individuals, are highly 'leader-centred' (Jackson and Parry, 2011, p. 64).

As Collinson and Tourish (2015) observe, this emphasis on developing the abilities of an elite few has perpetuated certain theories and preserved their mainstream status. The attraction of leadership styles relying on traits such as charisma to policing is clear and may explain how transformational leadership has endured for almost two decades at the beginning of the twenty-first century. However, rather than focussing solely on leadership style, the CLS approach invites the re-examination of concepts such as organisational power dynamics, decision-making processes, the disadvantages of follower conformity, the advantages of follower resistance and the role of emotions in leadership and followership. CLS provides an opportunity to analyse and modify heroic mainstream models of leadership which have:

> … encouraged hubris rather than humility, helped to disempower employees and played a significant part in business scandals … [and] to think differently about organisations, societies … leadership and followership (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 36).

CLS does call into question established norms. Learmouth and Morrell (2016) challenge the routine use of the terms 'leader' and 'follower', observing a growing tendency for these technical terms to replace traditional labels such as 'manager', 'supervisor', 'boss', 'worker' or 'subordinate'. Noting how 'management development' has been elevated to 'leadership development' and 'senior management teams' have inherited the grander title of 'senior leadership teams'; the authors declared this a:

> practice that obfuscates, even denies, structural antagonisms. Furthermore, given that many workers are indifferent to (and others despise) their bosses, assuming workers are 'followers' of organisational elites seems not only managerialist, but blind to other forms of cultural identity … the way it has generally adopted this mainstream rhetoric of leader/follower … critical

> leadership studies risk reproducing the very kind of leadership it seeks to condemn (Learmouth and Morrell, 2016, p. 1).

This clarifies that followership is a choice not an assumption. Learmouth and Morrell, whilst supporters of CLS principles, describe the irony that such imprecise use of technical leadership vocabulary by academics purporting to be proponents of the CLS movement demonstrates. This contradicts the call for "plurality of perspectives" (Learmouth and Morrell, 2016, p. 1) promoted by Collinson and Tourish (2015) referred to earlier in this chapter. Put succinctly, "calling somebody a leader just because they inhabit a role … goes against the prevailing construction of leadership in the literature" (Learmouth and Morrell, 2016, p. 2). Leaders should be recognised and their status as such legitimised by followers engaging with them consciously and voluntarily (Grint, 2010). Alvesson and Spicer (2014) ask similar salient questions; demanding what the change in practice was which caused a wholesale, cross-cultural, international paradigm shift from everyone managing to everyone leading, or was it just a rebrand to make management:

> sound more fashionable and impressive. The term *leadership* is seductive, has a strong rhetorical appeal, and is therefore heavily overused (Alvesson and Spicer, 2014, p. 40) (emphasis in original).

Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich (1985, p. 79) were amongst the earliest and most influential critics of the romanticisation of leadership, identifying the association made between leadership and 'esteem, prestige, charisma and heroism'. CLS writers above such as Tourish (2013) have gone on to describe the 'dark side' of leadership, attributed to the damaging effect of inappropriately bestowing such accolades upon unethical and narcissistic leaders (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006).

Leader and follower are endowed with very specific meanings in the following chapter on leadership and followership theory. This terminology implies very specific dyadic relationships between the two, described in different ways by different theories of both leadership and followership, and demands agents relate to each other in specific ways.

The terms leader and follower define activities; they are far more than just labels. Learmouth and Morrell's argument transcends semantics, they debate the misleading effect the indiscriminate abuse of leadership terminology can have, and accuse even those at the forefront of CLS research of misusing the terms leader and follower at times. Predominantly, misuse of terminology ignores the distribution of power and identity in complex asymmetrical social relationships (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2016). It also denies issues such as resistance and dissent which occur in most organisations and could falsely imply coalescence between different players in hierarchical organisations such as a police force where discord might exist. Learmouth and Morrell (2016, p. 10) argue misuse of the terms leader and follower denies a tradition of Marxist argument when analysing power distribution in organisations. Indeed, they conclude addressing a worker as a follower implies their "primary allegiance" is to their leader, rather than their co-workers, diminishing their potential for "radical resistance". This implies a hegemony whereby followers surrender their power to leaders "typically to the bosses' benefit and to workers' disadvantage" when adopting "the language of the powerful" (Learmouth and Morrell, 2016, p. 11). The problematic nature of those terms was discussed by participants in chapter eight of the current study, as were concepts such as power, hierarchy, rank, and upward challenge.

CLS provides a succinct definition of leadership, to which power is central. Leadership is fundamentally about the "effective or ineffective exercise of power, authority and influence" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 4). Such terms are intrinsic to any study of police leadership due to the formal hierarchical structure of policing organisations. CLS emphasises how mainstream leadership teaching has fixated on:

> situated power relationships … depictions of leaders as miracle workers who do and who should have absolute power, and of followers as people who should unquestioningly commit to the causes espoused by leaders (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 4).

It is interesting that in their critique of Collinson and Tourish above, Learmouth and Morrell overlooked insightful comments such as these, which provide clear confirmation

of Collinson and Tourish's critical stance. CLS is particularly concerned with understanding the dynamics of power and control in organisations, a seldom studied area in policing; questioning relationships which are normally "taken for granted" and considering how traditional power relationships may be problematic. The way power can be exercised reveals negative connotations, described by processes such as "coercion", "manipulation" and "domination". CLS encourages a broad analysis of power dynamics, with power viewed as a social construct developed by human actors in cultural contexts (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 22-23). CLS "highlights the fundamental tensions, dilemnas, paradoxes and contradictions" that can accompany the exercise of power (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 29). Whilst policing avoids the profit-driven culture and 'hire and fire' mentality and mechanisms of the private sector, described by Collinson and Tourish (2015, p. 28) as "rank and yank", the function of rank in the exercise and distribution of power is inescapable. A CLS approach promotes "open-ended inquiry", for example whereby

> excessive forms of coercive control, surveillance and micro-management can alienate subordinates who subsequently feel that trust and respect have been eroded and compromised … follower alienation can lead to disaffection, de-moralisation and a reduction in commitment" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p.29)

This study will determine whether such rank-related tensions exist in contemporary UK policing. Certainly themes such as trust, respect, commitment, power and hierarchy recur throughout this thesis, culminating in the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework which emerges as the unique contribution to new knowledge this study provides.

Mawby's (2002) analysis of police legitimacy can be usefully translated to provide an insight into internal power relationships within policing organisations. Mawby follows Beetham's (1991) ontology on legitimacy. This includes Beetham's observation that "within any settled or established power relations, self-confirming processes are at work to reproduce and consolidate their legitimacy" (Beetham, 1991, p. 99). Organisational factors such as power and legitimacy were identified as dominant factors effecting the

relationship between leaders and followers in this study and are documented in detail in chapter eight. External factors and the police wellbeing agenda were the other main themes to emerge and are introduced in the closing sections of this chapter.

External Challenges to Police Leadership

The main challenge is currently uncertainty over what the actual role of the police should be. There have been recent dictates to clarify the picture and move away from the "plethora of targets" (Rowe, 2014, p. 280). Central government have been responsive in trying to provide greater clarity on what their expectations on policing involve. In 2011 Theresa May as Home Secretary pledged to ACPO that the police would be subject to only one measure, that of crime reduction (Home Office, 2011). Following this, HMIC announced "the primary responsibility of the police is the prevention of crime and disorder" (HMIC, 2013, n.p.). This was reiterated in the policy of the newly-elected Conservative government following the general election: "Any amount of crime in society is unacceptable. Not just because of the human cost, but also the cost to society" (HM Government, 2015, n.p.). It might be argued however that such dictates are overly simplistic, given the constantly changing demands on policing (Davis, 2018; Davis and Silvestri, 2020) such as emergent terrorist threats, developing crime types like cybercrime and child sexual exploitation and the recognition of time consumed by dealing with mental health-related issues.

Along with mission creep, the effect of austerity policing is cited as a negative factor in officer wellbeing. The driver for change from a political perspective was the election of the coalition Conservative-Liberal government in 2010. This triggered a five-year programme of police budget cuts cumulating in a twenty per cent budget reduction by 2015. The police service became isolated as:

> The last bastion of an unreformed public sector, wedded to insular practices and policies that have not been subjected to the modernisation that neo-liberalism has wrought on other parts of the welfare state and public institutions (Rowe, 2014, p. 267).

The Police Wellbeing Agenda

With its roots in Human Resource Management (HRM) the concept of wellbeing arose out of business and economic need in the 1970's, branded as 'occupational health' (Reardon, 1998). The objective was not individual wellness as it is now. For the government, it was to ease demand on the NHS, placing the responsibility for promoting employee wellness on employers. For employers, it was a means towards increased productivity. In this study, the wealth of data revealing the significance of leadership to follower wellbeing which emerged was such that a separate chapter, chapter six, was justified. Wellbeing was acknowledged by HM Government as recently as July 2018 (Home Office, 2018). In the document 'A common goal for police wellbeing', Police Minister Nick Hurd acknowledged the government's responsibility in supporting police officer and staff welfare, promising a deadline of 2021 to deliver a goal that:

> … every member of the police service feels confident that their welfare and wellbeing is actively supported … that a culture supporting this is embedded in every force, and that individuals have access to appropriate support when they need it. This includes physical and mental health as well as the broader concept of wellbeing – which enables individuals to realise their potential, be resilient, and be able to make a positive contribution to the police workforce (Home Office, 2018, p. 1).

From a CLS perspective, what initially reads as a benign, commendable statement of intent sets a framework for intense scrutiny of what the government could actually delivers over a two year period. Key terms chosen by the minister provide ample scope for benchmarking. The findings of the current research provide good indicators of the current wellbeing landscape across forces in England and Wales. Terminology within the document such as "common goal" implies a consistent approach amongst forces and consistency within forces. The reference to "officers and staff" acknowledges an inclusive approach across the extended policing family. "Every member" implies the exercise of individualised consideration of needs by line managers, whose responsibility for wellbeing is specifically mentioned. "Active support" reinforces the duty of care line

managers and organisations need to discharge around individual wellbeing. The need to influence culture change is articulated, as is the specific responsibility of chief constables to deliver the government's vision and the role of Police and Crime Commissioners (PCC) to hold them to account. "Access to support when required" is another significant promise. Terminology such as "potential", "resilient" and "positive contribution" all resonate with principles of followership theory considered in the following chapter. Data presented in chapter six will reveal to what extent the government and the police service are responding to the promises made above.

The government announcement implies the promise of culture change including prevention of detrimental factors to wellbeing, consistent delivery of the wellbeing agenda by line managers, the role to be played by charities researching into policing, innovation and the sharing of best practice. It also introduces the COP role; amongst other work, to map the landscape of police wellbeing in England and Wales, and for the first time includes wellbeing as part of Her Majesties Inspectorate of Constabulary, Fire and Rescue Services (HMICFRS) Integrated Peel Assessments (IPA). The government's plan adheres to evidenced-based standards and reflects the influence of the UK Evidence-Based Policing movement, emanating out of the University of Cambridge (Sherman, 2003), with the use of medical language such as 'treatments'. The document indicates the many partners invested in the wellbeing programme. Apart from the staff associations, notable additions to the interested partners are the Oscar Kilo network and the Bluelight Framework. Oscar Kilo (2019) is a repository of resources for police practitioners, providing advice and information around wellbeing in this specific workplace, covering topics as diverse as: leadership, creating the optimal working environment, mental health, personal resilience, absence management and workforce protection. Integral to the Oscar Kilo resource is the Blue Light Wellbeing Framework (Oscar Kilo, 2019a). This framework allows policing organisations to benchmark themselves against a proven set of standards, developed through collaboration between academics and practitioners.

Former police superintendent Dr. Ian Hesketh has been at the forefront of academic literature concerning the recent emergence of the police wellbeing agenda in England

and Wales. Instrumental to the growth of both the Oscar Kilo and the Bluelight Frameworks (Oscar Kilo, 2019; Oscar Kilo 2019a), Hesketh has collaborated with other academics from the fields of leadership and management and organisational development, most notably Cooper (2013), to define what wellbeing in policing means. Hesketh and Cooper have been particularly influential in shaping the wellbeing strategy formed by COP (2017) and influencing NPCC strategy, alongside Lancashire Chief Constable Andy Rhodes. Topics considered with other academics from management, leadership and followership disciplines include resilience (Hesketh, Ivy and Cooper, 2014; Hesketh, Cooper and Ivy, 2019); engagement and discretionary effort (Hesketh, Cooper and Ivy, 2014); psychological screening and managing wellbeing in the public sector (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018); and leaveism in policing (Hesketh, Cooper and Ivy, 2014; Hesketh and Cooper, 2014). A trademark of Hesketh's research has been translation of academic findings into practicable recommendations to improve wellbeing for practitioners. Recognition of the contribution of Hesketh's work came with the publication of The Police Foundation's report into wellbeing and organisational development (Lewis, Higgins and Muir, 2019). The report introduces a history and definitions of organisational development, identifies best practice on wellbeing from other sectors, especially the National Health Service (NHS), provides a summary of organisational development in the UK and proposes recommendations for the future of police wellbeing and organisational development. Themes to emerge include reduction of resource levels due to austerity, increased demand, a 35% increase in sick leave for psychological reasons, and a decrease in morale. Organisational development is proposed as a means to allow corporate change by involving the workforce, through employee engagement. There are clear parallels between the vocabulary of the report and followership terminology:

> Employees should be central to organisational developmental initiatives. This is different to top-down leadership models in which the workforce is simply told what they must do to change. Suggestions and motivations for change from the should be encouraged wherever possible. All employees should feel some sense of ownership towards the strategy of the entire organisation and this requires the senior staff to forego traditional hierarchies and power structures.

> Organisational development is fundamentally a long-term and iterative approach that aims to substantially improve communication within the organisation and foster a learning culture among all employees (Lewis, Higgins and Muir, 2019, p. 2).

In a similar vein to the Police Foundation report, findings from this thesis will add to current knowledge on the state of the wellbeing provision in police forces in England and Wales.

Home Office (2018) Policing Review

Shortly prior to completion of this thesis the Home Office's recommendation report to the Policing Review was published Home Office (2019). This provided a valuable opportunity to place the key findings of this thesis against an official assessment of policing today. The review highlighted the key organisational themes as wellbeing, professional development, leadership and innovation. These all featured prominently in the final version of the Ideal Follower Leadership model revealed in chapter eight, demonstrating the timeliness of this thesis. Subthemes from the report were also raised by participants in this study. These included demand outstripping capacity, exacerbated by policing compensating for the inability of agencies responsible for mental health and social services to fulfil their own demands. The disconnect between followers and senior leadership was identified, as was the inability to influence change. There was a strong emphasis on the wellbeing agenda, describing insufficient provision and scepticism that the wellbeing agenda was a tick box exercise. Similar conclusions were reached in this study, as described in chapter six. Relationships with line managers, detailed in chapter five, were alluded to in the report, but only in terms of the scarcity of opportunities for followers to share time with their line managers for support and Continuous Professional Development (CPD).

The Home Office response to the report placed responsibility on chief officers to improve wellbeing provision by reducing unnecessary demand on policing by improving systemic issues including working practices between partner agencies. The Home Office

tasked HMICFRS to focus on wellbeing in their inspections. Evaluation tools for wellbeing were to be developed with staff associations. What was most pertinent in terms of followership was the 'Front line Innovation Project', promising:

> We will create a space for the front line to directly influence innovation and improvement … ensuring a national infrastructure is in place to support the co-creation of solutions with the front line (Home Office, 2019, p. 8).

Such references to followers being directly enabled to influence, innovate and improve policing could offer, along with the professionalisation programme, a two-pronged approach to facilitating the recognition of the power of followership. Appearing a year after the front line review, the Home Office recommendations preceded the Prime Minister's announcement that 20,000 police officers were to be recruited (COP, 2019), recognition of the damage to wellbeing the 2010 cuts to police resources had made. Like the addition of 20,000 officers, only time will tell whether these promises to institute organisational change to improve leadership, followership and wellbeing will come to fruition. What is telling about the review is that the section on leadership persists in viewing leadership as a leader-centric activity, eschewing a CLS approach such as that taken by Davis (2017; Davis and Silvestri, 2020) and the current study by retaining a transformational/transactional continuum to describe differing leadership styles and focussing on leadership characteristics. As Davis (2017) predicts, the emphasis remains on 'what works' through measures of performance rather than attempting to understand 'how it works'. In other words, as Davis professes, a failure to understand leadership as a social construction between leaders and followers. The report relies on Pearson-Goff and Herrington's (2013) critique of literature on the characteristics of effective leadership, analysed in the following chapter. This thesis will conclude, in support of Davis (2017; Davis and Silvestri, 2020), that the role of followers cannot be ignored, and leadership in policing should be viewed as a collaborative activity intrinsically effected by the culture in which it operates. The report continues to call for quantitative analysis, in particular randomised control trials, reflecting the continued dominance of the Cambridge University influenced evidence-based policing movement to measure improvements in wellbeing and team performance. There is no

consideration of the potential for shared leadership or enhancing the role of followership hinted at in the COP Leadership Review (Neyroud, 2011). The section on leadership only embraces half of the equation, continuing to regard followers as passive recipients of leadership with 'effectiveness' solely regarded as a measure of the causative actions of leaders.

The biggest disappointment in reading the review is that the academic summary of evidence submitted by researchers from the University of Durham is largely overlooked (Graham, Plater, Brown, Zheng and Gracey, 2019). This document in isolation resonates with current CLS findings but the clear findings about organisational factors from the 'Durham Survey', representing an enviable quantitative database of 21,499 police staff and 27,009 police officers from 31 forces gathered over a two year period between 2016 and 2018, are not sufficiently foregrounded in the review. With its emphasis on the effect of the police organisational environment on wellbeing, Graham *et al.* (2019) reprise a number of themes to emerge in the current study which should have been developed by the review. Organisational fairness or procedural justice were perceived to be low and insufficient emphasis was placed on the need for a shift from command and control or authoritarian to a more supportive leadership style. Likewise, the Durham researchers recommendation to move from a blame to a learning culture, endorsed by this study, is lost in the review. Pressure on managers to make snap decisions, also described in this chapter, should be alleviated, according to Graham *et al.* (2019). The Durham report endorses a CLS view, agreeing with Davis (2017), recommending adoption of:

> … a philosophy that leadership is a social influence process which does not reside in a leader or a follower, but in the relationship between an individual and their supervisor, and emerges through the communication and dialogue that occurs between them. A significant body of research demonstrates the importance of leadership on … their wellbeing, behaviours and performance (Graham *et al.,* 2019, p. 8).

Such improvements brought about by the development of better leader follower relationships manifested themselves in the Durham study in better employee engagement, increases in discretionary effort and 'improvement behaviour', whereby followers feel personally responsible for suggesting improvements in the workplace. This is more likely in organisations where regular staff surveys are conducted and acted upon, resulting in improved staff retention and productivity. The converse of this is happening in policing today, with evidence of frustration, withdrawal of discretionary effort and lack of engagement in improvement behaviours. Data evidencing these issues is presented in chapters five to eight.

The policing review, despite academic input and a significant sample, is ultimately a wasted opportunity which overlooks the potential of a more radical CLS approach to understanding how leadership operates. The recommendations of the review promote more of the same by making chief officers responsible for implementing change, primarily to improve wellbeing, and expecting outcomes to improve whilst overlooking the organisational and cultural barriers considered by this research which are plainly stated in CLS literature. When the report is read in detail, the headline recommendation to empower followers to influence, innovate and improve policing quickly evaporates as the review of the literature is not sufficiently comprehensive to embrace the CLS approach supported by this thesis. The review validates many of the findings about organisational factors in chapter seven of this study such as change management, demand, bureaucracy and cultures of risk, blame performance and officer-centricism. Other common organisational factors revealed in the review and this research are poor CPD, unsatisfactory promotion processes, leadership distance, poor internal communication and the negative effects of rank and hierarchy. Similar links are made in the report and this study between organisational factors and wellbeing. Unlike this study, the report misses the opportunity to consider the potential of followership in improving wellbeing by failing to seek understanding of the leader follower relationship, perpetuating the myth that followers are passive recipients of leadership initiative 'done' to them.

Chapter Summary

The literature review has provided a brief historical account of how police leadership styles have developed, culminating in a detailed consideration of how transformational leadership became the preferred style of successive governments for police leadership in the early twenty-first century. Recently the debate into optimal leadership styles has broadened as policing challenges have become more complex. Contemporary literature and recent reviews of police leadership suggest the potential benefits a consideration of other styles, or at least elements of them, might bring. Likewise, development of a greater understanding of the factors effecting leader follower relationships in policing, such as occupational culture, organisational and external influences could significantly improve police leadership and follower wellbeing. It is clear from the latest major review into policing, the 2019 Policing Review, that this thesis suggests ways to address some of the issues faced by officers through the introduction of followership principles.

This review of police leadership literature has revealed a dearth of evidence from the people leadership effects the most, the followers, and what the relationship between leaders and followers actually is. This study begins to address those knowledge gaps by defining what the most desirable factors influencing this relationship are, adding to the evidence-base around leadership, followership and wellbeing to improve police leadership practice in the future. The theoretical themes to emerge in this chapter will be developed in chapter two through an examination of relevant theories of leadership and followership. Developing an understanding of these themes encouraged a methodological approach which enabled the development of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, providing the unique contribution of this study by describing the optimal leader follower relationship in policing and the factors required to enable it, initially presented in chapter four as a result of original quantitative analysis and augmented in chapter eight by the addition of a wealth of original qualitative analysis.

The following chapter maps the theoretical factors effecting the leader follower relationship, providing a background to the formulation of the Ideal Follower Leadership

theoretical framework, the unique contribution to new knowledge made by this thesis emerging in chapter four and further developed in chapters five to eight.

Chapter Two: Leadership and followership in policing: the application of theory in developing a new theoretical framework to understand the leader follower relationship

Introduction

In order to develop a new theoretical framework to represent the ideal leader follower relationship in policing, it is important to analyse the theories underpinning the thesis. In this chapter, an overview of general leadership theory will lead into a more detailed consideration of the key theories being studied, namely Transformational Leadership theory, chosen because it was the last theory to be unilaterally adopted by policing; Leader Member Exchange theory, because of its relevance to leader follower relationships; and Followership Theory, central to an understanding of the untapped potential of followership. Next, a number of emergent leadership theories will be analysed, with explanations why they were selected. A methodology is devised in the following chapter whereby these three theoretical areas are combined and applied to develop a new theoretical framework to better understand the factors effecting the leader follower relationship in policing, analysing leader inputs and follower outcomes and named Ideal Follower Leadership. This new theoretical framework is revealed in chapter four and further developed through the analysis of qualitative data in chapters five to eight. Ideal Follower Leadership provides the unique contribution to new knowledge required of a PhD thesis. The theories considered in this chapter informed the quantitative and qualitative research design described in the chapter which follows. A glossary of theoretical terminology has been compiled in appendix seven, designed to assist the reader during the data analysis in chapters four to eight.

Chapter two should be regarded as a theoretical scene-setting, providing an overview of the theories which informed the emergent Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework. The range of leadership styles suggested as relevant by the most recent College of Policing leadership review (Neyroud, 2011) are included in this chapter. Together, the literature review and theories considered in this chapter were used to inform a number of resultant research sub-questions, listed in appendix five. The

research sub-questions influenced the composition of the questionnaire in research method one and the question set in research method two.

Overview of Leadership Theory

Leadership qualities have been categorised into individual traits, expected behaviours and social abilities. These are the mechanisms through which leaders and followers interact (Northouse, 2010). Leadership research describes the complexity of the subject and the diverse ways of defining what leadership means. Grint (2011) describes how leadership theory emerges according to historical context, influenced by movements such as rationalisation, centralisation and decentralisation. He considered the influence of science versus culture and political events. Grint's approach provides valuable insights when considering the emergence of the most relevant theories to the current study: transformational, servant, authentic, shared or distributed leadership; leader member exchange and followership. Following Grint's approach, it could be argued that the need to consider the potential of followership at a time when the police service is complaining of under-resourcing following a decade of austerity measures amidst unprecedented challenges was an inevitable consequence of external influences.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership is defined by Diaz-Sáenz (2011, p. 299) as:

> The process by which a leader fosters group or organisational performance beyond expectation by virtue of the strong emotional attachment with his or her followers combined with the collective commitment to a higher moral cause.

First identified by James Downton in 1973 but popularized by James MacGregor Burns in his seminal study of political leadership (Burns, 1978), transformational leadership was presented as the antithesis of transactional leadership. Burns interpreted the latter as a reciprocal exchange offering mutual benefits to both leaders and followers, but with those benefits bestowed in a one-dimensional fashion, from the leader to the follower.

Conversely, transformational leaders engaged in two-way exchanges with their followers, the aim of transformational leadership being to accommodate a leadership dialogue aimed at developing followers to assume leadership roles, increase motivation and improve moral standards (Diaz-Sáenz, 2011).

Bass (1985), drawing on his experience as an industrial psychologist, developed on Burn's original ideas. Transformational leadership theory was developed through Bass's core Full Range Leadership (FRL) model of the 'Four I's' of transformational leadership: 'Individualised Consideration'; 'Intellectual Stimulation'; 'Inspirational Leadership'; and 'Idealised Influence' (Bass and Avolio, 1994, p. 104), represented in figure one below. Bass emphasised how successful transformational leaders introduced positive social change in their organisations. He promoted an ideal type of transformational leader who demonstrated vision, persistence and determination, idealised influence in his FRL model, which engendered admiration, respect and trust amongst followers. Such leaders develop team-spirit and promote clear expectations and goals, 'Inspirational Motivation' in the FRL. They demonstrated innovation and provided opportunities to empower the changing workforce, a demographic group who were enjoying higher levels of education by the 1980's, by assessing individual needs, 'Individual Consideration' in the FRL. Individuals were then developed through coaching and mentoring, 'Intellectual Stimulation' in the FRL (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). Yukl (2010, cited in Mullins, 2013, p. 386) illustrated transformational leadership principles through headline statements such as: "articulate a clear and appealing vision; explain how it can be attained"; "Act confident and optimistic, express confidence in followers"; and "lead by example".

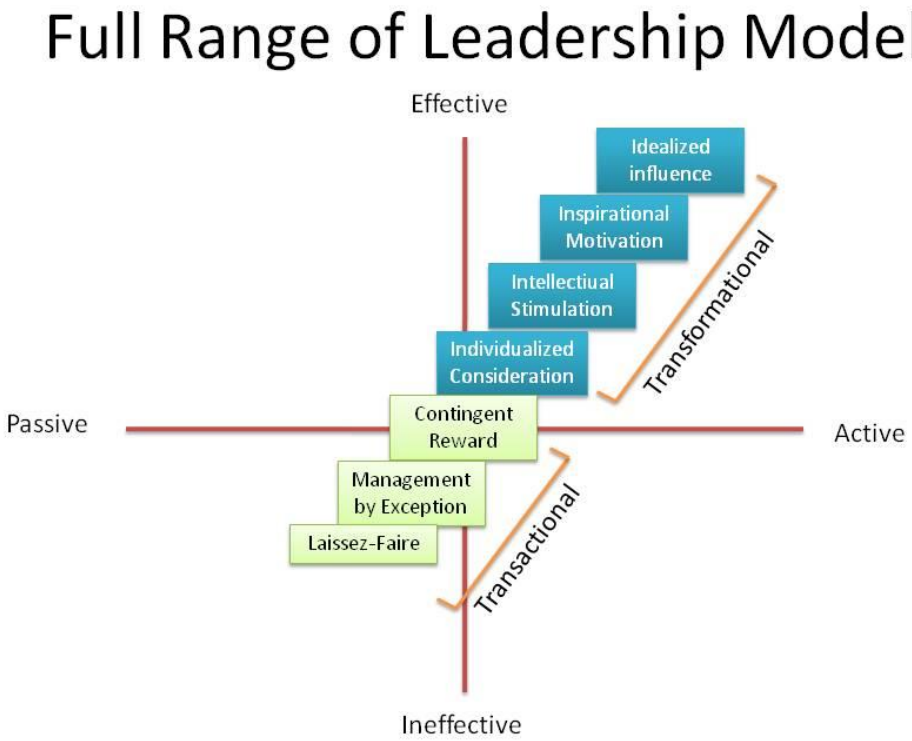

Figure 1 Full Range of Leadership Model (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

Drawing from the argument between Cockcroft (2014) and Neyroud (2015) in chapter one concerning the continued suitability of transformational leadership for policing, one common conclusion which does emerge from the literature review and an analysis of the components of the FRL is that the relationship between leaders and followers needs to be placed at the core of any theoretical framework illustrating how leaders and followers should interact, allowing the police service to perform at its optimum level. This requirement is satisfied by Ideal Follower Leadership. One factor relevant to this relationship is the role of rank. Differences in relationships according to differences in rank are considered in chapter eight, where the concept of 'leadership distance' emerges, suggesting that in the context of a hierarchical organisation such as the police service, it was:

> important to recognise that leaders in different echelons may well be in different contexts where different casual mechanisms are important (Osborn and Marion 2009, p. 204).

Examples of other factors affecting the leader follower relationship are power (Lukes, 1994) and hierarchy (Mullins, 2013), discussed in chapters seven and eight.

Transformational leadership theory is still relevant to contemporary police leadership thinking in terms of follower wellbeing. Hesketh (2017a), proposed that leadership had a clear responsibility for promoting the wellbeing agenda, to promptly identify physically and mentally unwell staff and to ensure members of their organisation possessed the skills to stage effective interventions. Hesketh translated the 'four I's' of transformational leadership into more police-friendly terminology. 'Individualised Consideration' became 'caring', a clear link to the contemporary wellbeing agenda. 'Idealised Influence' became 'Credibility'. 'Intellectual Stimulation' became 'Challenge' and 'Inspirational Motivation' became 'Commitment'. The 'four I's' were condensed into a punchy three-pronged mantra far more likely to resonate with an operational audience, calling upon leaders to: "Know yourself, know your staff, know your stuff" (Hesketh, 2017a, n.p.).

What still appears to be lacking is empirical evidence to quantify the adoption of transformational leadership within policing (Wright, 1996, p. 221). This thesis provides an opportunity to begin to address that evidence deficit. The literature review revealed that developing an understanding of how transformational leadership could improve psychological outcomes for followers was advocated by Dobby *et al.* (2004). The vocabulary of transformational leadership was certainly ingrained into dialogues with UK chief officers (Caless, 2011). Neyroud (2011) confirmed that whilst it was still prevalent, there was an appetite for other leadership styles to complement transformational leadership. Transformational leadership emerged as a mantra for UK policing during a previous wave of governmental reform in the early 1990s, one of a number of phenomena borrowed from the private sector introduced during the dominant phase of New Public Management (NPM), bringing a predilection for metrics of efficiency through the introduction of performance management systems (Leishman, Loveday and Savage, 2000).

Transformational Leadership has been measured using scales of employee engagement and wellbeing, represented in table two below, through the development of a number of questionnaires. The MLQ, mentioned in the previous chapter, was developed by Bass (1985) and remains the most widely used method for quantifying transformational leadership ability. Empirical data for this study was gathered through the use of the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ), developed in the UK for a UK audience by Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2006). A full description of the TLQ, including why it was selected for deployment in this study, can be found in the following chapter.

Transformational leadership has continued to evolve. Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2011) revisited transformational leadership during the global economic crisis of 2007-2011 (Elliot, 2011). They recognised the consequences for organisations and the expectation that their leaders would need to get the most from their staff despite threats of redundancy and increasing demands on those who remained, ensuring the retention of those who might be tempted elsewhere by lucrative offers (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2011). Through two major research studies, they revealed the importance of employee engagement to future leadership styles (Robinson, Perryman and Hayday, 2004). Engagement was a descriptor of the amount of 'discretionary effort' (Hesketh, 2017) employees were willing to contribute, and was shown to correlate significantly with wellbeing levels, customer service, organisational commitment, reduced absenteeism, improved retention, productivity and profitability (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2011). The primary determinant of engagement was found to be line manager behaviour (Towers and Perrin, 2005). More contemporary Leadership research (Bligh, 2011; Hosking, 2011; Uhl-Bien and Marion, 2011) moved away from a singular focus on the leader towards reinforcing the importance of leader-follower relationships, essential to people working together effectively. Realisation came that leadership was a social process. This resulted in the development of ethical, servant, shared and authentic concepts of leadership, considered later in this chapter. The need to understand how employees became engaged through processes of 'near' or line manager leadership began to gain recognition (Alimo-Metcalfe, Bradley and Alban-Metcalfe, 2011). These processes are measurable through the TLQ. The resultant

models of how transformational line managers engage with their followers, organisations and stakeholders and the personal qualities this required are represented in tables one and three below. The metrics employed to assess success in terms of follower engagement and wellbeing are illustrated in table two below. The utility of the TLQ in terms of developing a better understanding of the relationship between leaders and followers in policing was to establish which leadership inputs were most important to followers. This data emerged from responses by a large national sample of police officers, police staff, special constables and volunteers to the TLQ questions incorporated in the questionnaire featured in research method one, described in the following chapter. The data analysis and results of the questionnaire are included in chapter four.

Engaging with Individuals	• Showing Genuine Concern • Being Accessible • Enabling • Encouraging Questioning
Engaging the Organisation	• Supporting a Developmental Culture • Inspiring Others • Focusing Team Effort • Being Decisive
Engaging the Stakeholders – Moving Forward Together	• Building Shared Vision • Networking • Resolving Complex Issues • Facilitating Change Sensitively
Personal Qualities and Values	• Being Honest and Consistent • Acting with Integrity

Table 1 A Model of Engaging Transformational Leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2011)

Table two shows the eleven measures of staff engagement and wellbeing which measure follower assessments of the line manager leadership they receive.

Attitudes to Work
A high level of job satisfaction
A high level of motivation to achieve
A strong sense of job commitment
A strong sense of organisational commitment
Wellbeing at Work
A high sense of fulfilment
A high level of self esteem
A high level of self-confidence
A low level of job-related stress
A low level of job-related emotional exhaustion
A strong sense of team spirit
A strong sense of team effectiveness

Table 2 The impact of leadership on staff engagement and wellbeing (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2011)

Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2011) went on to define the leadership characteristics of high performing teams, summarised in table three below:

Engaging important stakeholders: From the outset to shape the nature of the service; this formed the basis of continuing strong relationships necessary for the teams to succeed.
Collective vision of good quality service: Team leadership ensured that the vision of the team, and the operational policies were shaped by team members to create a sense of 'ownership' of their work and of belonging to something they valued. Regular meetings and informal communication, such as office banter, kept the vision alive.
Non-hierarchical teams: While there was an appointed leader in every team, a culture of devolved leadership encouraged people to take the lead where it was appropriate for them to do so.
Supportive culture: Informal support from colleagues and the team lead, and formal support in the form of regular individual and group reviews, ensured that people felt comfortable in seeking advice and sharing work-related problems. This created a culture of joint problem-solving, which empowered team members to take the risks necessary to be innovative.
Successful change management: Team leads ensured team members were consulted on impending changes and their response taken into consideration. The result was a collective team response to top-down changes and the formulation of a joint action-plan for addressing such changes.

Table 3 Characteristics of Leadership in High Performing Teams (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2011)

Likewise, some of these characteristics emerged as being important to followers when describing the positive aspects of line manager leadership they received in their questionnaire responses.

Leader Member Exchange Theory

In order to better understand the leader follower relationship in policing, data concerned with metrics of transformational leadership theory were combined with metrics of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory; together the two most widely studied leadership theories of the past two decades (Avolio, 2005; Diaz-Saenz, 2011). Both are grounded in processes of social exchange and both encompass

transformational and transactional leadership interventions. The dyadic relationship fundamental to LMX theory is replicated in exchanges between transformational leaders and their followers (Anand, Hu, Liden and Vidyarthi, 2011).

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) theory is concentrated on the interactions between followers and leaders, emphasising the dyadic relationship between the two (Northouse, 2010). Early studies (Liden, Wayne and Stilwell, 1993) only considered the vertical linkages between individual leaders and followers, classifying followers by their membership of 'in' or 'out' groups. Followers belonging to the 'in' group were rewarded by their leader with extra responsibilities, through a process of negotiation in a relationship based on mutual influence, trust and respect (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). Members of the 'out' group retained only their formal basic roles and maintained low-quality relationships with their leaders, any exchanges being transactional (Anand *et al.,* 2011, p. 320). Such differentiation has been the fundamental criticism of LMX theory, appearing to be discriminatory to members of the 'out' group. LMX theory evolved to embrace social exchange theory, broadening the beneficiaries of positive leader follower relationships to groups and the entire organisation. Resultant effects included improved employee retention, engagement and faster career progression. Rather than binary definitions of 'in' and 'out' groups, LMX theory proposed followers travelled over time along a three-phase continuum, named 'stranger', 'acquaintance' and 'partnership'. These stages described the developing roles, influences, exchanges and interests between leader and follower. Table four below illustrates these concepts, with the entire process described as 'leadership making' (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

	Phase One Stranger	Phase Two Acquaintance	Phase Three Partnership
Roles	Scripted	Tested	Negotiated
Influences	One way	Mixed	Reciprocal
Exchanges	Low quality	Medium Quality	High Quality
Interests	Self	Self and other	Group
→ TIME →			

Table 4: Phases in Leadership Making (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995)

LMX theory emphasises the uniqueness and differences of each leader-follower relationship (Anand *et al.,* 2011). The hallmarks of such relationships, such as mutual trust, liking and respect, tend to form at an early stage and remain constant (Liden, Wayne and Stilwell, 1993). LMX theory draws upon earlier theories such as social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity theory (Gouldner, 1960). Proponents of LMX theory report improvements in employee performance, citizenship, job satisfaction and retention (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang and Morgeson, 2007). Despite being extensively studied, there remains considerable scope for further study into the development of LMX theory in order to establish clear definitions of the processes through which concepts such as trust, respect and obligation are formed (Northouse, 2010). The mixed-method design of the current study, located within an organisational setting which has not been analysed regarding the operation of LMX theory in this way before, capitalises on that scope.

Two aspects of LMX theory are of particular interest to the current study, high/low power distance and high/low cultural contexts. Power distance is defined as: … "the extent to which members expect and accept unequally distributed power in institutions and organisations" (Hofstede, 1980, quoted in Anand *et al.,* 2011, p. 316). Internationally, in countries with high power distance differences, such as North Korea, such differences are legitimised, and centralised power and influence goes unchallenged culturally. In countries with lower power distance structures, including the UK, power differences can be problematic, with followers demanding greater autonomy. This may be offset by the nature of the organisations involved. In policing, for example, leader follower relationships are based upon the possession of formal authority through a hierarchical rank structure. Again, the data from the current study provides an opportunity to consider follower attitudes and behaviours in policing, including follower challenge, based upon varying power distance relationships.

Overview of Followership Theory

A comprehensive summary of followership literature is provided by Bligh (2011). Bligh categorises extant research into three broad groups: follower attributes; leader/follower relationships; and the effect of leadership behaviours on follower outcomes. These are the three key concepts which shaped the design of the questionnaire featured in research method one, a combination of three established questionnaires which measure these three phenomena. Bligh concluded by suggesting potential benefits to organisations following the adoption of policies which promote proactive followership, embracing the opportunities a new emphasis on followership presented through the words of Karl Weick (2007, p. 281):

> To treat leading and following as simultaneous is to redistribute knowing and doubting more widely, to expect ignorance and fallibility to be similarly distributed, and to expect that knowledge is what happens between heads rather than inside a single leader's head (Weick, 2007, p. 281).

Weick's quote illustrates the CLS stance towards leadership being a social construction, rejecting the notion that leadership revolves around individual traits by favouring the idea that followers co-produce leadership with leaders (Meindl, 1995; Shamir, 2007; Bligh, 2011). Davis (2017, 2018; Davis and Silvestri, 2020) brings the leadership as a social construction argument up to date and relates it to the policing context through her discussion of shared leadership, summarised later in this chapter.

Bligh produced metrics on the emergence of followership as an academic topic produced from analysis of the volume of articles in the US journal *Leadership Quarterly.* From first publication in 1990 to 2008, only fourteen per cent of articles referenced followers in the abstract or title. Whilst very few leadership scholars acknowledge followership as a phenomenon, most are united in recognising the normative effect of the Industrial Revolution as the beginning of the leader-follower dichotomy (Pearce and Conger, 2003) and the development of the science of management; introducing oversight of followers by a leader's intent on establishing social control. Bligh

acknowledges Mary Parker Follett (2003) as a pioneer when she first recognised leaders as being in a reciprocal partnership with followers. Due to social and economic turmoil throughout the twentieth century, such relationships became forgotten concepts. Bligh attributed their rediscovery to Meindl and Ehrlich (1985; 1987) and Meindl (1990; 1993; 1995). She also described how Kelley (1998) and Chaleff (2003) went on to argue for followership to be considered central to leadership research. Bligh described writers such as Hollander's (1998) recognition of leadership as a process involving leaders and followers, rather than emanating from a single individual, and Bennis (1999, p. 71), who succinctly explained traditional top-down approaches to leadership as "wrong, unrealistic and maladaptive".

Meindl pioneered a true follower-centric approach. His ideas are echoed by the CLS movement, particularly his criticism of the romantic notions of deified leaders as charismatic heroes, whereby a halo effect; overlooking the leader's shortcomings when celebrating success, prevents an objective assessment of leadership ability (Mendel and Ehrlich, 1987). Uhl-Bien and Pillai (2007) identified how traditional leadership approaches portrayed followers as passive, conformist, compliant, inferior and lacking drive or ambition. This was especially the norm in hierarchical contexts, such as the police service, where followers constructed their roles based on rank. This had the effect of limiting their personal responsibility, their need to use their own initiative, and their reliance on the leader for motivation and direction. Uhl-Bien and Pillai's (2007) findings revealed followers were indeed capable of assuming roles as co-leaders. Carsten *et al.* (2010) introduced the concept of the study of followership being about how followers perceive their own role, factoring in organisational ethos, ranging from bureaucratic to empowering.

Policing literature reflects the tendency of mainstream leadership to regard leadership solely from a leader's perspective, with little or no regard for followership. The only notable exception is Graef (1989) who documented rank and file officers' attitudes towards leadership, although this was from a sociological rather than a leadership perspective and pre-dated followership theory considered in the next chapter. Titles such as "Chief Constables" (Reiner, 1992), "The Chief Constables of England and Wales"

(Wall, 1998), “Policing at the Top” (Caless, 2011), “Women in Charge” (Silvestri, 2003) and “Police Leadership: Rising to the Top” (Fleming, 2015) concentrate on the most senior echelons of leadership, augmented by autobiographies from eminent chief constables. Potentially, this may present a distorted pro-leader perspective of organisations. CLS takes a very different approach, identifying how followers possess a unique insight on leadership but are seldom given a voice. Certainly, in the case of the most notorious recent examples of failed or dysfunctional leadership at Enron (Stein, 2010) and RBS (Kerr and Robinson, 2011), studies had been conducted into both organisations shortly before their respective implosions. Unsurprisingly these studies only drew on information supplied by top leaders and managers, the accounts of followers: “rendered largely mute, their perspectives subordinated to those of leaders” (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 33). Such epistemological shortcomings, according to CLS, were avoided through the methodological approach taken by this study, featuring a representative sample of policing organisations in England and Wales in order to embrace “a full range of organisational perspectives”. Likewise, leaders have been assessed by followers to avoid “the dangers of leadership hubris” (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 33).

The concept of followership may still be an unfamiliar one to many. Bligh restates two truisms sometimes overlooked in leadership theory: “the essence of leadership is followership” and “without followers there can be no leaders” (Bligh, 2011, p. 425). An overview of the relationship between leadership and followership, which is given greater emphasis by CLS, is provided by Collinson and Tourish (2015, p. 5):

> Proposing a more nuanced approach to leader and follower power, influence, and agency, critical courses re-conceptualise leadership as a co-constructed, asymmetrical and shifting dynamic characterised by complex situated and mutually-reinforcing relations between leaders and followers.

Collinson and Tourish (2015, p. 5) elaborate on this relationship, identifying how some business schools have perpetuated psychological approaches which:

> privilege and romanticise individual leaders whilst also underestimating the dynamics of power, the influence of context and the significance of follower dissent and resistance. They tend to assume that the interests of leaders and followers automatically coalesce, that leadership is an uncontested form of top-down influence, follower consent is its relatively unproblematic outcome and resistance is abnormal or irrational … opposition is explained in terms of 'misunderstanding' … rather than useful feedback.

A similar criticism might be applied to UK policing's wholesale reliance on transformational leadership as a "panacea" (Neyroud, 2011, p. 39) for all the challenges it faces.

Organisational models which promote strategic 'co-construction' by both leaders and followers avoid the necessity of a separate process of 'selling' a 'vision' (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 5) devised by a solitary, elite leader in whom all power is invested in a hierarchical model. Designing in such a marketing phase involves a wasteful investment in time, effort and emotion, having to convince a disinterested or alienated workforce every time a change in policy needs to be implemented of its worth. Although the basic concept of transformational leadership as the communication of a shared vision (Burns, 1978; Adlam and Villiers, 2003; Mullins, 2013) has already been considered above, that vision is still provided by a sole leader at the top of the organisation, it is not a shared responsibility to develop that vision. As a more collective activity, strategic planning could become more time-efficient and inclusive if a situation had been engineered whereby followers were already invested in the change process and could communicate it more efficiently through their own social networks.

The disjoint between leadership and followership identified by CLS is accentuated by the marketing of leadership training courses. Collinson and Tourish (2015, p.6) cite an executive-level course on transformational leadership which the Judge Business School at Cambridge University promotes as equipping participants in skills such as: "breaching resistance to change", motivating "employees beyond monetary incentives" and providing "inspirational leadership and result-orientated management". Such rhetoric is

a corruption of the original concepts developed by Burns (1978) and serve to perpetuate an adversarial conflict between leaders and followers; promoting a functional approach closer to transactional than transformational leadership. In such a regime "dissent is … equated with subversion and dysfunction, rather than regarded as a possible source of strength to be encouraged" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 7). CLS offers a greater understanding of the dynamics between leaders and followers which could prevent such a dysfunctional relationship, whereby:

> …excessive agency is invested in leaders, there is little need for anyone else to take much responsibility for ensuring organisational success. There is also little need for leaders to pay serious attention to followers' input, if any is offered (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 7).

CLS identifies how the emergent literature on followership (Uhl-Bien *et al.,* 2014; Collinson, 2011) "highlights the systematic neglect of followers in leader-centric perspectives" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 30). CLS observes how conventional leadership literature overlooks the destructive potential of power relationships by perpetuating a functionalist approach. Although followers could influence leaders, it is still leaders who arbitrate followers' suggestions, filtering them as the sole authors of organisational objectives and goals. Followers are merely allowed to contribute to organisational improvement or attainment of goals; they are not empowered to assist in shaping leadership vision for the organisation (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). In a functionalist model, follower conformity is valued. Resistance, even when justified, is not. Delegation is practiced, but only to a level of responsibility deemed 'safe'. The development of emancipatory skills and objectives, beneficial both to followers and to the wider organisation, are not encouraged. Power relationships remain imbalanced, with organisational success predominantly attributed to leadership and little acknowledgement of the contribution of followers. Such a functionalist approach leads to follower resistance, expressed in a variety of ways, from reduced productivity to disengagement to the formation of destructive counter-cultures, with the capability of followers to become an obstructive force (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). Again, this study presents an opportunity to explore to what extent follower input is encouraged or

offered, viewed positively as useful feedback or as negative dissent (Tourish and Robson, 2006).

CLS suggests approaches to the study of followership which require participants from all levels in a hierarchical organisation to be represented (Bligh, 2011). This would allow analysis of how individual agents are socially constructed as a leader or a follower and how these states can alter (Collinson, 2006). Collinson (2005, p. 1422) described how power relationships between leaders and followers can be "asymmetrical", meaning leaders must rely on followers to achieve results, whereas followers can operate with degrees of independence.

In her concluding comments, Bligh (2011) proposed numerous research questions shaping possible future directions of followership research. Of particular relevance to the current study are two themes. Firstly, consideration of the role of organisational culture in blocking or enabling effective followership, empowering followers to adopt leadership responsibility. Secondly, whether followership could provide a safeguard to toxic leadership by ensuring an ethical balance; respecting hierarchical authority whilst providing an appropriate degree of challenge to those in leadership positions, thereby offering protection to themselves, their leaders and their organisations. Bligh offered future insights into followership through the work of Rost (1991) who suggested due to the negative connotations of the term 'follower', alternative titles such as 'associates' or 'collaborators' might be less anachronistic. This study revealed similar semantic objections from participants about the problematic nature of the term 'follower'. Burns (2005) articulated how traditional dichotomies of leaders as superior to followers have no place in a modern society which rejects "authoritarianism, elitism, and power derived from wealth and corruption" (Rost, 1993, p. 61). Contemporary research, such as that undertaken in the current study, is called for to illustrate the "dynamic, interpersonal processes that fundamentally define the leader-follower relationship" (Bligh, 2011, p. 433).

A number of theoretical models of followership are presented below. Common threads run through all the models; for example, that leaders cannot lead without followers and

that their ability to lead can be influenced by follower behaviour (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). Followership or being a follower is a transitory role (Baker, 2007). Leaders can at times be followers and followers can lead in certain situation. Followers and leaders need to be proactive to adapt to changing circumstances and both need to develop the ability to work collaboratively to achieve organisational goals (Howell and Mendez, 2008). Both must be able to question the other in order to modify strategy and tactics if required and both require commitment to achieving their objectives (Vecchio, 2007). Effective followers avoid idealised perceptions of leaders, offering instead an appropriate level of challenge. In order for such a relationship to become normalised; trust, respect and understanding must be reciprocated (Chaleff, 2003).

Kelley Followership Model

Kelley provides a typology of followership which fits well with the research question and research aims of the current study. Based upon their answers to Kelley's Followership Skills Questionnaire (FSQ) (Kelley, 1992), respondents are categorised into one of the following five groups:

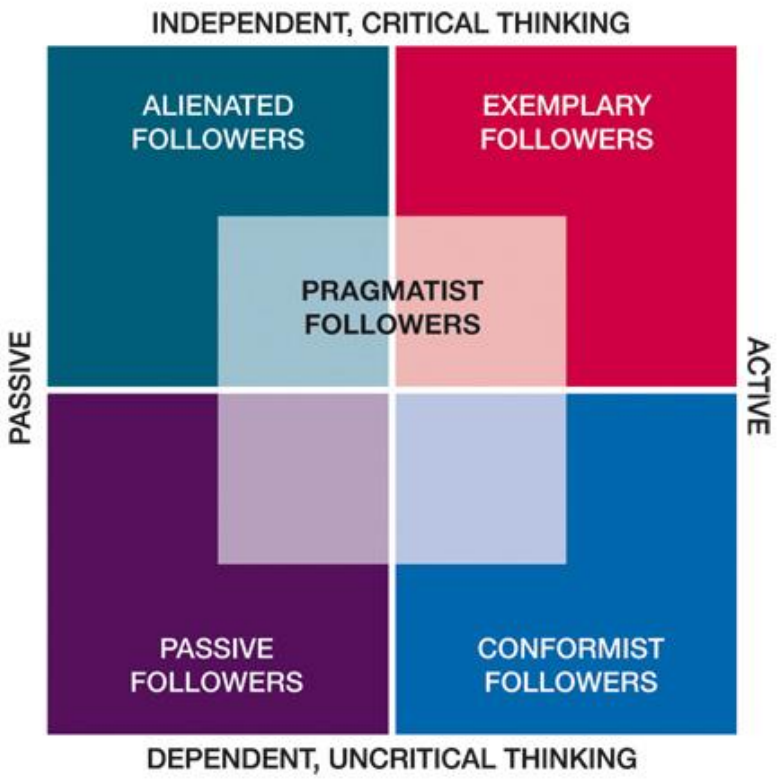

Figure 2 Kelley's Followership Typology (Kelley, 1992)

Some interpretations of Kelley's models vary slightly in nomenclature. Here follows a summary of the range of terminology used and an explanation of each category:

- Alienated Followers (Alienated/Passive/Critical Thinker) Typically 15-25% of the population. Individuals possessing the ability to critically evaluate the leader's plans, vision and intentions and reach logical conclusions. Despite this, they feel unable to use this ability. They behave passively, unable to share this information upwards to management, laterally, or downwards to subordinates. Hence they become frustrated, internalising their opinions. Potentially effective followers, but disaffected by previous experiences with supervisors, they retain their ability to critique, but not to critique constructively.

- Conformist Followers (Yes People/Active/Uncritical Thinkers) Typically 20-30% of the population. More often found in hierarchical or bureaucratic organisation, these are individuals who behave actively and are willing to take on extra tasks without question. Capable performers, they do not challenge the leader's vision, corporacy or the tasks they are given. They may fall victim to toxic leadership, performing unethical tasks if directed to do so.

- Pragmatist Followers (Survivors/Middle Orientated) Typically 25-35% of the population. Pragmatists are situational followers, capable of critical thinking and being active participants but choosing when to apply these abilities, in order to benefit themselves. In the shorter term, they may choose not to question tasks, but strategically in the longer term, they may adopt a more critical approach.

- Passive Followers (Sheep/Passive/Uncritical Thinkers) Typically 5-10% of the population. Passive followers focus on the task at hand without question. They may require a greater degree of supervision when undertaking unfamiliar tasks and are happy to allow other followers or leaders to think critically. Passive followers in an organisation might be attributable to poor delegation, lack of structures supporting active behaviours or inadequate internal information flow.

- Exemplary Followers (Effective/Active/Critical Thinkers) Typically 35-45% of the population. This 'ideal type' group analyse and evaluate options available to them personally, to wider groups of employees and to the leader. They actively and constructively share their findings. They are assertive and confident to take risks in order to find the best solutions for everyone, rather than complying with a particular leader, group or cause (Kelley, 1992).

A number of alternative followership theories exist, summarised at the end of this section on followership theory. All have merit in developing a broader understanding of what followership means. The attraction of Kelley's theory is that no typology of followership specific to policing currently exists. Without establishing how followership currently operates in policing, it is impossible to propose how the application of followership theory could enhance leadership practice. As a well-established instrument to establish a breakdown of followership types in an employment sector, Kelley's questionnaire has been incorporated into the first research instrument of this study. New empirical data gleaned will map what the landscape of followership in policing currently looks like. This will provide a starting point for matching which aspects of relevant leadership styles offer the potential to provide more optimal relationships between leaders and followers and accentuate any deficiencies in leadership and followership in policing.

Kelley is credited with pioneering the study of followership in an era dominated by transformational leadership. He started from a difficult position as the implications of the term 'follower' in industry and society tend to reinforce negative stereotypes of subservience and an inability to achieve the more sought after mantle of a leader. He recognised that followership and leadership were complimentary, not contradictory roles. Both require intelligence, ability, motivation and action and both are required in a functional organisation. Either role can secure success or cause failure. For the best performance, both great leaders and followers are required. Kelley described followership and leadership as a dialectic, one did not make sense without the other (Kelly, 1992). He tackled the stigmatisation of the label 'follower', the negative implications of which were still highlighted by some participants in the current research.

Kelley argued against departing from the use of the term 'followership' due to the intrinsic relationship between leadership and followership, stating that fundamentally, a leader is someone: "who can attract and retain followers" (Kelley, 1992, p. 46). Kelley proposed what needed to change was the perception of followers and to develop an understanding of follower types. Kelley promoted recognition of the rational choice made by members of organisations to undertake the follower role, to complement leaders rather than compete to be one. He prompted organisations to respect an individual's decision to favour the follower role and value it by engineering roles which allow followership abilities to develop; giving room to accommodate the altruistic motivation of followers by allowing them to flourish at whatever level they feel comfortable.

The typology of followership styles evolved through a series of individual interviews and focus groups. Follower types were refined along two dimensions; independent critical thinking and active versus passive engagement. Independent critical thinking emerged from repeated descriptions of individuals who: "think for themselves", "give constructive criticism", "are their own person", and "are innovative and creative" (Kelley, 1992, p. 93). Actively engaged followers were described as those who: "take initiative", "assume ownership", and "go above and beyond" (Kelley, 1992, p. 94). Where followers were disengaged, but still independent, critical thinkers, they fell into the alienated category. Kelley found the causes of alienation were predominantly where leaders had provided unrealistic expectations or broken a follower's trust. Other causes included exploitation, mismanagement and lack of recognition (Kelley, 1992).

Organisational culture played a role in promoting the best use of exemplary followers. Organisations who ensured exemplary followers were engaged in "critical path activities" (Kelley, 1992, p. 138) accomplished their goals. This extended to harnessing the expertise of exemplary followers when setting those goals and defining what the critical path to achieving them might be, in terms of developing efficient processes through which to achieve them. Exemplary followers were revealed to be competent at their role, providing an authoritative platform from which to suggest improvements. Exemplary followers were also continual reviewers of their own performance and felt

empowered to find their own solutions to problems, notifying their leaders during the process. Exemplary followers contribute to the development of meaningful performance management systems as they are capable of developing accurate success criteria. In Kelley's research, exemplary followers are described as strong team players. They do not merely throw themselves unquestioningly into tasks. Initially, they critically question whether the formation of a team was required, or whether it was appropriate to the task involved. Next they would analyse the composition of the team and whether all members were really necessary. They would ensure everyone on the team is fully involved, identifying when they or others were becoming frustrated for example, and working out how to avoid negative influences such as this.

The positive influence of follower networks was found to expedite progress and problem solving. By forming strong networks of committed workers, exemplary followers are sensitive to the ramifications of poor leadership decisions on others in their network as communications within follower networks are good and colleagues are able to express their observations constructively in a supportive organisation to mitigate against poor leadership decisions. It is interesting that in 1992 Kelley described a situation where followers regarded themselves as equals to their leaders, apart from having line management responsibility, in a distributed leadership model. This resonates strongly with contemporary shared leadership thinking, considered later in this chapter.

Kelley's findings offered insights into how exemplary followers work with leaders. Firstly, exemplary followers were observed to understand their leader's needs, goals and constraints. They are not intimidated by hierarchy and do not blindly accept the leader's views. They have a filter, assessing leadership decisions. They are prepared to voice when they disagree with the leader. Kelley described this questioning process as having a "courageous conscience" (Kelley, 1992, p. 168). This allows them to transcend the normal social taboos which normally prevent challenge to leaders. Conventionally, challenge equates to doubting their ability, effectively mistrusting the leader. Kelley described exemplary followers as having a "duty to disobey" (Kelley, 1992, p. 175), assuming a responsibility to seek a positive organisational outcome over and above personal gain. Exemplary followers are expected to come to leaders with solutions,

rather than just problems. Finally, exemplary followers must know when to stop supporting a leader; when leadership turns unethical or unlawful, whether through hubris, corruption or any other factor.

Exemplary followers seek a partnership with their leaders, appreciating they could achieve more collectively than would be possible individually. The working relationship is agreed together. As partners, information is shared. Each other's performance is evaluated, not just that of the subordinate, and both are involved in setting strategic direction. Exemplary followers do have certain expectations of their leaders, with specific roles which need to be performed by them. These include shielding followers from bureaucratic administrative tasks, or "administrivia" (Kelley, 1992, p. 214). On occasion, followers value time and space to be left alone to be productive. They do not need to know everything about their leader's activities, only the issues which affect them directly. It is a leadership responsibility to ensure interdependencies across organisations are fulfilled and nothing "falls between the cracks" (Kelley, 1992, p. 217). Leaders must also create effective networks and teams. The view could be taken that such egalitarian relationships between leaders and followers would be impossible to recreate in real workplaces. Original data from chapters four to eight will illustrate exactly to what extent Kelley and other followership theorist's proposals around leader follower relationships are realised in policing.

Kelley proposed a summary of what leaders need to do in order to create the optimum environment for exemplary followers to flourish. This included training in followership skills, acknowledging followership performance in annual appraisal systems, reward schemes for outstanding followership, rotations between roles where leadership and followership dominate, role modelling where leaders demonstrate exemplary followership skills and encouragement of exemplary followership through team building (Kelley, 1992, p. 220). In addition, leaders should ensure they give credit where due and take time to understand and accommodate follower ambitions. Leaders need to adopt a fluidity, knowing when to come to the fore to impose strategic direction, and when to move to the background to allow followers to apply their technical expertise. This model is especially relevant to crisis situations. Kelley cited a military situation which equates

to command and control policing. In both contexts, it is not the brilliance of a leader which ensures success, it is the contribution of everyone involved, where the execution of multiple tasks is perfectly synchronised. Kelley concluded that:

> Leaders are partners who simply do different things than followers. Both add value and both contributions are necessary for success, but one is not more important than the other (Kelley, 1992, p. 227).

Table five below summarises ideal followership attributes according to Kelley (1992), providing an indication of the types of theoretical considerations which proved to be influential in the development of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework described in chapter four.

A good follower can …	Fulfil a valuable role in the workplace Achieve their personal ambition Commit to organisational goals Show enthusiasm and initiative Take a pride in what they do Promote an improvement culture Problem solve in teams Offer peer support Achieve self-awareness and self-development Offer constructive criticism Understand leadership demands and constraints Be a reflective practitioner Be principled, courageous, and ethical Be self-assertive in a positive way

Table 5: Ideal Follower Attributes: Adapted from Kelley (1992)

Other Followership Theories:

Table six below summarises concepts of followership theories other than Kelley's. This is intended to provide background information illustrating the breadth of followership theory. An awareness of other followership theory is beneficial when considering the findings from both research methods, the conclusion and recommendations of this study.

Followership Theory	**Key Features**
Baker (2007) Four Tenets of Followership:	i) Followers and leaders are roles, not people with inherent characteristics ii) Followers are active, not passive iii) Followers and leaders share a common purpose iv) Followers and leaders must be studied in the context of their relationship
House (1971) Follower Characteristics:	Locus of control: People with a strong internal locus tend to attribute results to their own efforts and are likely to find a participative leader style more acceptable. In contrast, those with an external locus feel that their actions are under the control of other people and would probably be happy with a directive style. Task ability and subordinate experience: Perceived task ability reflects followers' own views of their abilities. Those who evaluate themselves highly and feel confident about performing the tasks are unlikely to feel a need for directive leadership. Those with less confidence might prefer a directive leader. Past subordinate experience can affect followers' confidence on their task ability. Need for achievement: Because participative or achievement-orientated leader styles require people to solve problems independently, subordinates with a high need for achievement are likely to find these styles acceptable.

	Need for clarity: This concerns subordinates' lack of tolerance to ambiguity. Those who have strong needs of this type are likely to feel at ease with a more directive leadership style, while those with greater tolerance to ambiguity will be more at home with a participative or achievement-orientated style.
Howell and Mendez (2008) Followership Approaches	1). Interactive: Followers support and complement the leader, becoming critically important to the achievement of organisational goals. They do this by applying their knowledge and competence, collaborating with the leader, supporting them and positively influencing them. 2). Independent: More skilled, trained and experienced followers assume leadership tasks and behaviours. 3). Shifting: Followers adapt to changing circumstances, whether taking part in decision-making, challenging colleagues or acting as role-models. The above role orientations are pre-determined by the following three factors: I). Follower self-perceptions ii). Leader expectations iii). Task and reward systems
Stech (2008) New Leadership – Followership Paradigm	1). Leader – Follower Paradigm: The individual leader is an exemplar or hero. 2). Leader – Follower *Position* Paradigm: Emphasises the formal, hierarchical and bureaucratic structures of an organisation.

	3). Leader – Follower *State* Paradigm: Leadership and followership are roles that can be occupied by different people at different times. It is this third paradigm which resonates with the chosen CLS approach of the current study, and concords with Collinson's (2005, p. 1436) call for: "multiple, shifting, contradictory and ambiguous identities of leaders and followers", and Hock's (1999, p.72) assertion: "In the deepest sense, distinction between leaders and followers is meaningless. In every moment of life, we are simultaneously leading and following".
Chaleff (2003) Courageous Followership:	Chaleff (2003) explained the relationship between leaders and followers as the working towards the achievement of a common goal (Chaleff, 2003). Chaleff's courageous followership model has five dimensions through which leader-follower relationships can improve. 1). Courage to assume responsibility for themselves and their organizations. Courageous followers seek opportunities to fulfil their potential. 2). Courage to serve their leaders and organisations to achieve a common purpose. 3). Courage to challenge anything undermining the organisation's integrity. 4). Courage to participate in change. 5. Courage to take moral action. (Chaleff, 2003).

<table>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chaleff (2003) explained a leader's responsibility was to listen, support and respond to courageous followership. Chaleff devised his own typology of followership, as follows:

High Support

Low Challenge
<table><tr><td>Implementer</td><td>Partner</td></tr><tr><td>Resource</td><td>Individualist</td></tr></table>High Challenge

Low Support

Figure 3 Chaleff's Styles of Followership (Chaleff, 2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><u>Kellerman's (2008) Followership Types</u></td>
<td>Detached Disengaged Highly engaged
<table><tr><td>Isolated</td><td>Bystander</td><td>Participant</td><td>Activist</td><td>Diehard</td></tr></table>Figure 4 Kellerman's Followership Types (Kellerman, 2008)</td>
</tr>
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Table 6: Summary of Followership Theory

To summarise this section on followership theory, Kelley's theory proved the most valuable as an anchor for the current research for a number of reasons. Primarily Kelley's research is universally recognised as the seminal work on followership. His typology offers an useful starting point for understanding followership in policing and discovering whether it translates into the contemporary policing context. Kelley's theory carries with it a well-documented research instrument, including a number of salient questions which proved integral to the development of new data and findings in this study.

There now follows an overview of a number of emergent leadership styles and theories. These have all been suggested in the literature on police leadership as having potential for incorporation into future police leadership models. Again, an understanding of these leadership concepts will prove valuable when navigating the findings from chapters four to eight.

Servant Leadership

The COP leadership review, considered in the previous chapter, is not prescriptive in suggesting the future direction of police leadership styles. This justifies exploring the potential theoretical contribution of a number of contemporary and emergent leadership styles in this chapter. One example; servant leadership, is hinted at in the COP review. Servant leadership is described specifically as: "a style that places the leader in the role of an enabler" (COP, 2015d, p. 6). This is consistent with the growth in popularity in the fields of coaching and mentoring in police leadership rhetoric. Like followership, servant leadership has enjoyed a period of renewed attention in recent years (Mullins, 2013). Proposed by Greenleaf in 1970, reprised and developed in 1977 then developed by Graham in 1991, servant leadership resonates strongly with the mantra of ethical leadership, requiring leaders to demonstrate integrity and moral responsibility.

Two authors have produced taxonomies of servant leadership. Spears (2004) produced his ten critical characteristics of servant leadership, suggesting the most important

conclusions from his research findings which considered the most significant traits required of servant leaders:

1	Good communication skills and the motivation to listen actively
2	Understanding and empathy with others
3	Ability to heal oneself and others
4	Self-awareness and viewing situations from a holistic position
5	Reliance on persuasion as opposed to the use of power or status
6	Ability to conceptualise, think beyond day-to-day realities and focus on long-term goals
7	Foreseeing likely outcomes, learning from the past and identifying the consequences of future decisions
8	Stewardship of their organisations for the greater good of society
9	Commitment to the personal, professional and spiritual growth of people
10	Building a strong organisational community

Table 7 Ten critical characteristics of servant leadership (Spears 2004)

Developing on the work of Spears (2004), Yukl defined seven key values of servant leadership, with examples of how they might be expressed in leader behaviours:

Integrity	Open and honest communications, keeping promises and commitments, accepting responsibility for mistakes.
Altruism	Helping others and putting their needs before your own, willing to take risks and make sacrifices to benefit others
Humility	Treat others with respect, avoid status symbols and privileges, modest about achievements, emphasise contributions of others
Empathy and Healing	Help others cope with emotional distress, act as a mediator, encourage reconciliation
Personal Growth	Encourage development of individual confidence and ability, provide learning opportunities, mentoring and coaching.

Fairness and Justice	Encourage and support fair treatment, speak out against unfair and unjust practices or policies
Empowerment	Consult with others about decisions that affect them, provide autonomy and discretion, encourage expression of dissenting views.

Table 8 Seven Key Values of Servant Leadership (Yukl, 2010)

Interesting parallels between the two models include the requirements for good communication skills, empathy, use of integrity rather than the abuse of power and the encouragement of the personal growth of followers. Such key principles are repeated in the new theoretical model to emerge later in this thesis.

Despite the principles of servant leadership theory initially appearing to contrast sharply with original LMX theory, there may be theoretical similarities between the two. Firstly, both types of leader prioritises follower development (Anand *et al.,* 2011) but in contrasting ways. Servant leaders devote equal responsibility for the welfare of all and strive to form high-quality relationships with all their followers. LMX theory proposes a contrasting concept of differentiation, with leaders forming high quality relationships with only selected followers (Liden and Graen, 1980). Secondly, both types of leaders forge relationship with followers. Servant leader relationships are spiritually fulfilling whilst LMX relationships are predicated on more tangible rewards. Thirdly, servant leadership theory features both internal and external social responsibility, namely to both employees and external stakeholders, whilst LMX theory limits leadership responsibility to the career development of employees (Anand *et al.,* 2011).

Servant leadership also appears to offer a good fit with followership theory:

> In becoming a servant leader, a leader uses less institutional power and less control while shifting authority to those who are being led (Northouse, 2010, p. 385).

Research into servant leadership is at an embryonic stage, concentrating on the development of measurement scales and developing relationships between overlapping

theories such as LMX, transformational leadership and followership. The need to progress such research, to which the current study contributes, is summarised thus:

> …future research may address the role of follower growth and well-being to provide a new perspective on how and why one leadership style may be better (or worse) able to stimulate follower personal effectiveness. This is consistent with the call … for more research on servant leadership from a follower-centric perspective (Anand *et al.,* 2011).

Just as Burn's transformational leadership theory featured ethical leadership principles, emphasising the needs of followers and the responsibility of leaders to raise follower values and morals; Greenleaf's servant leadership featured similarly altruistic requirements of leaders towards addressing follower concerns, demanding elements of empathetic listening, caring and nurturing (Northouse, 2010). Servant leaders place follower welfare and the good of the organisation before their own. The relationship between servant leaders and followers is, amongst other attributes, an ethical one. Central to this relationship is an 'ethic of caring', recognised by Brady (1999) as fundamental to building trusting and cooperative relationships. Principles of ethical leadership will be introduced in the following section.

Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership is not yet proposed as a recognised leadership style, indeed theoretical formulations of such a style are regarded to be very much in their infancy (Northouse, 2010). However, study of the ethics of leadership has continued to grow since the beginning of the twentieth century through writers such as Cuilla (1998) as a reaction to corporate scandals such as those referred to in the previous chapter.

Ethical theory in western tradition emanates from Aristotle. The term 'ethics' is derived from the Greek word 'ethos', meaning customs, conduct or character (Northouse, 2010). In leadership, ethics dictate what values and morals are socially acceptable, desirable or acceptable. Ethical theory informs principles of right and wrong, good or

bad. Leadership virtue dictates norms for how leaders are expected to behave, and the consideration of ethics is central to decision-making. The Police Code of Ethics (COP, 2014b) is central to the National Decision Making (NDM) model (COP, 2013a), used extensively in all policing operations, but particularly prevalent in the critical sphere of strategic and tactical firearms command, the arena in which the NDM was developed. The NDM is illustrated by figure five below:

Figure 5 National Decision Model (COP, 2013a)

According to COP Authorised Professional Practice (APP):

> The NDM puts the Code of Ethics at the heart of all police decision making. This distinguishes the NDM from other decision-making models and recognises the need for all police decisions to be consistent with the principles and standards of behaviour set out in the Code (COP, 2013b).

The use of the NDM has broadened from the firearms command domain to mainstream policing, providing robust rationale for police activity at all ranks and across the broad remit of police activity. During interviews in research method two, several practitioners referred to the benefits of recording rationale for decision making using the NDM in

media such as command and control logs. The Code of Ethics was developed from the policing principles drawn up by the Committee on Standards in Public Life (1995). The code includes the principles of 'fairness' and 'respect', considered by the government to be crucial to the maintenance of public confidence in policing. The remaining principles provide strong ethical guidance for leaders to follow in table nine below:

Accountability	You are answerable for your decisions, actions and omissions
Fairness	You treat people fairly
Honesty	You are truthful and trustworthy
Integrity	You always do the right thing
Leadership	You lead by good example
Objectivity	You make choices on evidence and your best professional judgement
Openness	You are open and transparent in your actions and decisions
Respect	You treat everyone with respect
Selflessness	You act in the public interest

Table 9: The Code of Ethics (Committee on Standards in Public Life, 1995)

The Code of Ethics (COP, 2014b) sets out the policing principles that members of the police service are expected to uphold and the standards of behaviour they are expected to meet. Many forces have their own values statements which are complementary to the Code of Ethics. Throughout any policing situation, the Code of Ethics provides a number of questions decision makers should repeatedly ask themselves as an incident develops: Is what I am considering consistent with the Code of Ethics? What would the victim or community affected expect of me in this situation? What does the police service expect of me in this situation? Is this action or decision likely to reflect positively

on my professionalism and policing generally? Could I explain my action or decision in public? Ethics proved a powerful influence in the development of transformational leadership principles, emphasising followers needs, values and morals whilst enabling followers to improve them (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Ethics have a normative function in shaping expectations of leadership.

Ciulla (2004) explored the 'Hitler problem', defining what a good leader was, and questioning whether a good leader had to be acting ethically, or merely successful in inspiring followers towards collective goals, as Hitler was, whether such goals are morally justified or not. Subsequent research has developed greater understanding of follower expectations of leaders. Followers expressed a preference for leaders who put the interests of others first, acting from collective motivations rather than egotistical ones (Cronin, 2008). Followers believe in the 'romance of leadership', relying on leaders to protect them in times of adversity (Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich, 1985). From a follower perspective, good leaders must be both ethical and task-competent (Ciulla and Forsyth, 2011).

Cuilla and Forsyth (2011, p. 239) included references to Aristotle and Kant, classic enlightenment thinkers and philosophers, when they explained follower expectations of their leaders' moral positions. They summarised the three most important ethical principles as:

> What a leader does or the ends of a leader's actions (Mill, 1987); how a leader does things, or the process of leadership (Aristotle, 1984); and why a leader does things, or their moral intentions (Kant, 1993).

Put simply, "an effective ethical leader is someone who does the right thing, the right way, and for the right reasons" (Cuilla, 2005, p. 331). To achieve all three simultaneously and to demonstrate that publicly is sometimes problematic for police leaders (Temes, 2005). For instance, the current Commander of the Metropolitan Police, Cressida Dick, faced considerable media criticism for her command of the anti-terrorist incident resulting in the shooting of Jean Charles De Menezes at Stockwell Tube Station in 2005 because details of the covert surveillance operation could not be released publicly at

the time for security reasons. This incident has been the subject of considerable academic and official scrutiny (IPCC, 2007; Rogers, 2008).

Northouse (2010, p. 387) presents a model of ethical leadership principles, reproduced in figure six below. At this stage, the headings can be taken at face value, as they will be used to frame broad themes revealed by the data in chapters four to eight.

Figure 6 Principles of Ethical Leadership (Northouse, 2010)

Ethical leadership must be a consideration when developing an understanding of leader-follower relationships:

> …the leader-follower relationship is central to ethical leadership. In addition, these perspectives all emphasise that is it critically important for leaders to pay close attention to the unique needs of their followers (Northouse, 2010, p. 386).

<u>Authentic Leadership</u>

Authentic leadership has emerged as a reaction to corporate and political scandals of the late twentieth and early twenty first centuries. Like servant leadership, it is still in its early stages of definition and research but is already established enough to be worthy

of consideration as another reference point for the future direction of police leadership. Luthans and Avolio (2003) are widely acknowledged as the first authors to define authentic leadership, a concept which may emerge as a natural successor to transformational leadership. Avolio developed on his previous work with Bass (Bass and Avolio, 1997), combining his FRL theory previously illustrated in figure one with Luthan's (2002) earlier work on positive organisational behaviours. Authentic leadership was a backlash against certain transformational leaders whose ability to assert influence on and attract adulation from their followers was increasingly becoming recognised as a dangerous force. Transformational leadership never specifically articulated the requirement for ethical considerations (Howell and Avolio, 1992). Authentic leadership researchers qualified Bass's (1985) claims that leaders such as Ghandi and Hitler; leaders who could not vary more widely in terms of virtue, were both transformational leaders. Bass and Steidlmeier (2004, p. 181), revisiting Bass's earlier claims, distinguished between "authentic" and "pseudo-authentic" transformational leaders, adding the need for true transformational leaders to have "moral foundations".

Authenticity in leadership operates on three levels: personal authenticity; authenticity as a leader; and organisational authenticity. All three must be present if authentic leadership is to be exercised. As such, authentic leadership has its roots in psychological research (Harter, 2002; Kernis, 2003), requiring proponents to possess the ability to truly know themselves and act according to this knowledge; simply to be themselves. Kernis developed this to identify four characteristics of authentic leadership. Firstly, self-awareness of strengths, weaknesses and idiosyncrasies. Secondly relational transparency, avoiding misrepresentation of the true self to others. Thirdly balanced processing of objective information, and finally a strong moral perspective, capable of overcoming difficult situational demands to succumb to a lower moral standard (Caza and Jackson, 2011). Walumba, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing and Peterson (2008) synthesised a number of leadership and followership concepts in producing this composite definition of authentic leadership:

> A pattern of leader behaviour that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-

> awareness, an internalised moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development (Walumba *et al.,* 2008, p. 94).

Despite its recent emergence, authentic leadership scholars make no claims to have invented a new form of leadership, preferring to acknowledge it is a prerequisite of: "all positive, effective forms of leadership … the root construct" (Avolio *et al*., 2005, p. xxii). They also acknowledge the requirement for a conducive organisational environment, offering suitable role models and training to nurture authentic leadership. Required individual attributes include morality, concern for others, positive self-concept, emotional intelligence, and integrity (Ilies *et al.,* 2005).

Authentic leadership offers rewards to policing at organisational and individual follower levels alike. At a force level, it could promote the wellbeing agenda, the development of a more positive culture and the encouragement of organisational learning (Caza and Jackson, 2011). At individual level, benefits have been observed in follower job satisfaction, organisational commitment, motivation, citizenship behaviour, creativity, and perhaps most significantly, trust in leadership (Avolio *et al.,* 2004; Chan *et al.,* 2005; Walumba *et al.,* 2008). It is the change in social exchanges between leaders and followers (Chan *et al.,* 2005; Ilies *et al.,* 2005) which offers the greatest potential for authentic leadership to improve leader follower relationships in policing. Writing in 2011, Caza and Jackson (2011) only identified four academic peer-reviewed published articles on authentic leadership, demonstrating the need for further empirical research. Early indications suggest the potential benefits of authentic leadership to be incorporated into police leadership alongside other leadership styles. What those seminal studies reveal is support for early theoretical predictions, and the relevance of leader authenticity to followers as a construct. However, as an emergent field of research, authentic leadership presents a number of difficulties in terms of definitions and measurement. Like transformational leadership, there are already descriptions of 'genuine' and 'pseudo' authentic leadership. Authentic leadership is predominantly reported on by followers, meaning followers could artificially "authenticate the leader" (Gardner *et al.,* 2005, p. 348).

Authentic leadership's popularity and appeal is in its "face value and commonsense value. After all, who would advocate for inauthentic leaders?" (Caza and Jackson, 2011, p. 361). The public now demands reassurance from "selfless, enlightened leadership" (Caza and Jackson, 2011, p. 361). Like other leadership concepts grounded in the discipline of psychology, the limited number of research studies have relied on questionnaire data and quantitative analysis. New approaches featuring mixed-methods and qualitative analysis are called for (Caza and Jackson, 2011). The current research into police leadership is an opportunity to consider the role of authenticity as a leadership attribute through such an approach.

Shared or Distributed Leadership

The changing structure of police forces under austerity measures and the new and increasing challenges the service faces have been recognised by the government and strategic police leaders alike, resulting in the realisation that it is now essential to: "equip the whole police workforce with leadership skills and knowledge" (COP, 2015d, p. 5). The traditional concept of one leader possessing the requisite knowledge and skills to practice vertical leadership across a large organisation working at a twenty first century pace is clearly outmoded. Policing is particularly suitable for the concept of shared leadership, given the concept of discretion and models of autonomous decision making which are essential to officers and staff at all levels possessing adequate power and empowerment to provide dynamic interventions in a wide-ranging operational sphere.

Shared or distributed leadership is certainly not a new concept. Gibb (1954, p. 884, quoted in Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011, p. 341) proposed that leadership was "…best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group". What is relatively new is shared leadership as a concept, possibly one which has evolved due to the challenges to leaders in globalised, distanced and divergent organisations. Indeed, Merkens and Spencer (1998) predicted shared leadership would be critical to the survival of large organisations. Shared leadership recognises the complexity of modern organisations. As a reference to the significance of followership,

he provides confirmation that practitioners are often in the best position to suggest improvements due to their familiarity with work processes (Jackson, 2000). Shared leadership is not proposed as suitable in all situations. Pearce (2004) proposed it was more suitable for complex interdependent tasks, commonly found in policing, such as protracted major crime enquiries, but less well suited to time-critical tasks, also commonplace in police work, such as rapidly-developing incidents such as public order situations.

As a newly-focussed area of study, shared leadership is conceptualised in several ways. Common to all of them is the recognition that leadership responsibility is shared amongst teams (Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011). There is still a role however for vertical leadership. This can engineer a team design which accommodates shared leadership, defines boundaries to team autonomy and influences factors which shape shared leadership, such as access to training, developmental opportunities and reward systems (Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011).

Different interpretations occur concerning the ways leadership responsibilities can be shared and how the definition of leadership changes to accommodate shared systems. Some researchers have found leadership responsibility to be emergent and dynamic, according to the capacity of the team (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004) whereas others observe how it is formally assigned (Pearce and Sims, 2002). Perry, Pearce and Sims (1999) developed a model of shared leadership drawing from “transactional, transformational, directive, empowering and socially supportive behaviours” (Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011, p. 342). Together, these resulted in improved commitment, satisfaction, cohesion, communication and citizenship. Manz and Sims (1993) reported higher levels of collaboration, coordination and cooperation.

Carson and Tesluk (2007, cited in Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011, p. 342) identified four distinct behavioural roles in shared leadership systems in table ten below:

Navigator	Establishment of team direction and purpose
Engineer	Structuring of team form, roles, functions and responsibilities
Social Integrator	Development and maintenance of team coherence
Liaison	Development of relationships with key external stakeholders

Table 10 Shared Leadership Behaviours (Carson and Tesluk, 2007, cited in Burke, DiazGranados and Salas, 2011)

Their research findings found a positive relationship between shared leadership and performance but concluded that these behaviours were not highly differentiated as members of the group could exercise one or more roles according to changing circumstances. Other researchers focussed on the conditions required amongst teams for shared leadership to flourish. They were defined in terms of: geographical dispersion, demographic heterogeneity, large team size, skill heterogeneity and maturity (Pearce, Perry and Sims, 2001). Exaggerated extremes of the first three conditions were regarded as detrimental to the development of shared leadership. The most successful teams were found to possess a breadth of the above abilities. Organisational culture was also a final influencing factor. Collective organisations were open to shared leadership, compared to those displaying more distant power relationships.

The study of shared leadership has tended to focus on the development of theory around leadership behaviours in shared leadership teams, the conditions required for shared leadership to flourish and organisational outcomes relating to shared leadership. Much of this lacks empirical analysis at present, and little research has been completed into the processes through which shared leadership develops. This empirical evidence gap has been partly addressed in the policing context through recent research findings by Davis (2018). Her innovative work on the interplay between rank, risk and context, the latter explained by the leader's 'audience' in a given situation, is represented in an emergent analytical model; the 'Situated Authority Model of Leadership', developed through a grounded theory methodology through the investigation of leadership "within

a social constructionist framework" (Davis, 2018, p. 3). Davis observes how politicians and police leaders have imported and imposed leadership styles into policing such as transformational leadership without first seeking to understand what leadership in policing means and how it operates, rather than simply being something done by a powerful active leader to a submissive passive follower. A CLS approach encourages the consideration of such innovative leadership models, and leadership models featuring shared, participatory and collaborative styles are growing in momentum in academic and other policing literature. As Davis point out:

> The involvement of followers in decision-making in participatory leadership styles highlights the agency of followers to respond, adapt and resist leadership (Davis, 2017, p. 37).

This thesis contributes to that body of work by scoping how followership operates in policing, what type of leadership is required to nurture it and how policing organisations need to change to accommodate it. Davis articulates how leadership theorists such as Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (2009), pioneers in the advancement of followership theory, "emphasise the importance of understanding leadership as a shared, collaborative, social process" (Davis, 2017, p. 16). In her own fieldwork, interview data revealed police leadership to be "relational, constructed and negotiated" (Davis, 2017, p. 16). Davis (2018, p. 2) continues by pointing out the barriers to accommodating these exchanges, caused by a:

> … quasi-militaristic rank structure … the hierarchy represents a formal organising mechanism … to distribute leadership authorities of responsibility, accountability, and decision-making by rank … stifling collaboration, innovation and challenge.

Rank, hierarchy and unequal distribution of power are thus seen to combine to form the antithesis of the conditions required for followership in policing to develop, "rank acts as a barrier to alternative leadership practices in the police" (Davis, 2017, p. 3). The required conditions are articulated for the first time through the Ideal Follower

Leadership theoretical framework emerging from the current research. Following Davis's (2017, p. 45) argument for adopting a CLS approach by conceptualising police leadership as a "dynamic socially-constructed process", the practitioners and academic experts participating in this study were invited to identify and explain the factors which inform and define the relationship between police leaders and followers, a form of "meaning making" in symbolic interactionist terminology (Snow, 2008, p. 8). Rejecting established conceptions of leadership as "person-centred (heroic), positional (rank-dependent) and causal (performance-related)" in favour of considering the "negotiations and contradictions involved in the process of construction" (Davis, 2017, p. 45) is key to understanding how collaborative and participatory leadership could invite greater follower contributions.

In developing her 'Situated Authority Model of Leadership', Davis (2018) points out how the rank structure in modern policing has remained largely unchanged since Peelian times. Likewise, the power and authority it brings have remained unchallenged. Davis (2018, p. 3) cites rank and authority as the "dominant narrative in police officers' discussions of leadership", especially when considering exchanges between officers of senior and junior rank. In the model illustrated by figure seven below, rank is portrayed as being 'done' when required by high risk/high audience situations such as public order, and 'undone' when not required, in low risk/low audience situations, such as private conversations on police premises. Risk is explained in terms of public or officer safety and reputational damage.

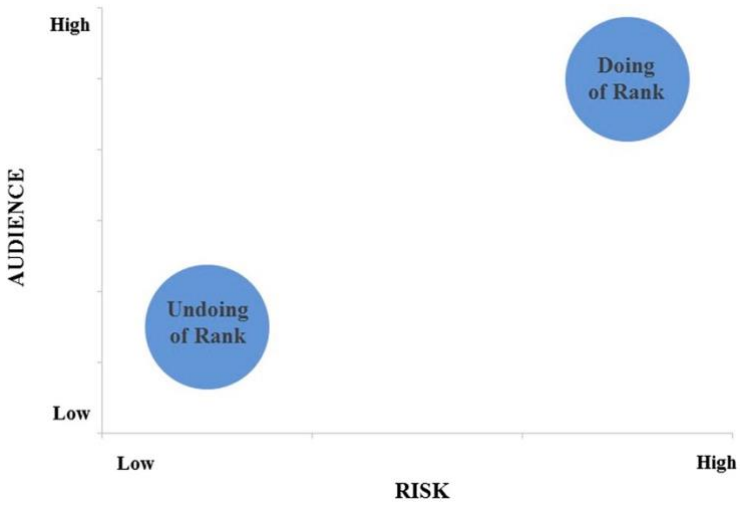

Figure 7 The Situated Authority Model of Leadership (Davis, 2018)

The model is well-illustrated by the power-dynamics of the internal police meeting scenario. As Davis (2018, p. 8) points out, the chair is typically the highest-ranking officer, socially-constructed as the "coordinator, decision maker and 'in charge'", a common example of what is colloquially known in policing as 'hippo management', an acronym for the "highest paid person's opinion" or the "highest paid person in the office" (Rouse, 2013, n.p.). The model also makes sense of the growing risk-aversion in policing, with a culture of looking to higher ranks for quality checking or control, described by Davis (2018, p. 7) as "top cover", rather than a sustainable investment in the development of a culture of quality assurance which increased followership could offer, thereby sharing responsibility between ranks, as discussed in chapter seven.

The 'undoing' of rank is described by Davis (2018, p. 8) as taking place during situations declared 'rank-neutral' by the higher-ranking officer. The current research expands on this, describing how team dynamics in situations such as a firearms debrief or a negotiation cell deliberately create rank-free spaces where all team members have an equal chance to contribute, especially at the most appropriate times for their skills and experience to count. The current research also proposes that the 'undoing' of rank requires specific conditions of the leader follower relationship to be fulfilled, namely "accessibility, inclusivity, authenticity and informality" (Davis, 2018, p. 9). Davis (2018, p. 10) places rank as pivotal to "the experience of leadership in the police", given how hierarchy currently effects the relationship between leaders and followers. The 'doing'

of rank is described as a "fundamental barrier to the responsibilisation of the police workforce" (Davis, 2018, p. 10). Responsibilisation of followers is essential to the adoption of shared leadership, the spread of followership and breaking the default trend of the 'doing' of rank, especially when the spread of shared leadership would render it unnecessary.

The 'Situated Authority Model of Leadership' provides an evolutionary route for the development of situational leadership theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969). In a similar way, followership provides a complementary theoretical companion to transformational leadership, facilitating development of the workforce without reliance on the heroic leader. Through the Ideal Follower Leadership model this thesis demonstrates the feasibility of shared leadership in policing by defining the individual, organisational and theoretical factors which would be pre-requisites for embedding shared leadership practice in policing, through the wider adoption of followership principles.

Black Box Thinking

A recurring contemporary theme embraced by a number of chief officers is 'Black Box Thinking' (Syed, 2015). Syed's premise is that successful organisations have learnt from previous failures in order to achieve success, and that this learning can only be facilitated through systematic cultural change. Inspired by the statistically impressive safety record of the modern aircraft industry, Black Box Thinking is predicated on the premise that sub-optimal outcomes present valuable learning opportunities. The aviation industry adopted a culture of learning from forensic analysis of failures. Simple solutions were achieved such as the re-design of switchgear on the B52 bombers used by the United States Air Force in World War Two, preventing crashes on landings; a move which invented the science of ergonomics and eliminated the cause of the errors, preventing the possibility of human pilot error. The crash of United Airlines Flight 173 in December 1973 was another notorious aviation failure, again involving landing gear, which was eliminated by amending safety protocols and pilot training. Such Black Box Thinking exposes previously latent problems and allows them to be analysed and rectified. This

requires the organisation involved to reject a blame mentality and adopt a 'learning' or 'growth' mindset. Citing many successful business corporations such as Google and Dyson, in addition to enigmatic sporting success stories such as the rise and rise of the British Cycling Team, under Sir Dave Brailsford, Syed explains the common denominator was a willingness in the organisation to adopt a dynamic change process, sometimes being prepared to take risks and learn from trial and error.

Leadership, of whatever description, is of course key to such successes. What is common to all those successful organisations is that leaders were receptive to rejecting previous defensive or blame cultures in favour of the development of a learning or growth mindset across the organisation. Near misses in aviation are openly reported and analysed according to the safety culture intrinsic to the aviation industry. This is still not the case in medicine with Syed citing estimates of over four hundred thousand preventable fatalities in the United States health system per annum, concealed by the lack of an open reporting processes which fails to identify and prevent deaths from phenomena such as infection control in hospitals. Parallels could be drawn with other sectors such as probation and social work, where several notorious cases of malpractice have resulted in the deaths of vulnerable victims such as Victoria Climbié (Fitzgibbon, 2011).

Syed problematises power relationships in organisations which traditionally stifle follower ability to influence change. This encapsulates the potential benefits an understanding of followership could offer to future police leadership practice. Syed illustrates how the steep hierarchies which generate the asymmetric power relationships described by CLS writers earlier in this chapter make it difficult, sometimes impossible, for upward messages from followers to be received by leaders at the appropriate level to result in meaningful change. Syed described how such 'mitigated speech' can be dangerous, because in policing, as in all industries, often the most important understanding of potential failures comes from those at the . If the voice of the informed follower is ignored too often or for too long, that voice will inevitably silence. This is a similar phenomenon to 'subjugated knowledge' (Harwood, 2001; Jackson, 2012), introduced by interviewees and described in chapter seven. Finally, Syed

(2015) advocates a flattening of the leadership structure, promoting a 'collective endeavour' mentality, allowing leaders to be sufficiently liberated to admit their mistakes and empowering followers to constructively question or advise leaders; working collaboratively as great teams.

Chapter Summary

Following a review of policing literature in chapter one and leadership, leader member exchange, followership and wellbeing theory in this chapter, a number of research sub-questions were devised to develop the themes which were emerging. They are listed fully in appendix five and represented diagrammatically in figure eight below. This demonstrates how the methods designed in the following chapter and the original data presented in chapters four to eight were underpinned by the theory outlined in this chapter. Some of the themes alluded to by the research sub-questions emerged in the data chapters and contributed to the development of the new Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework.

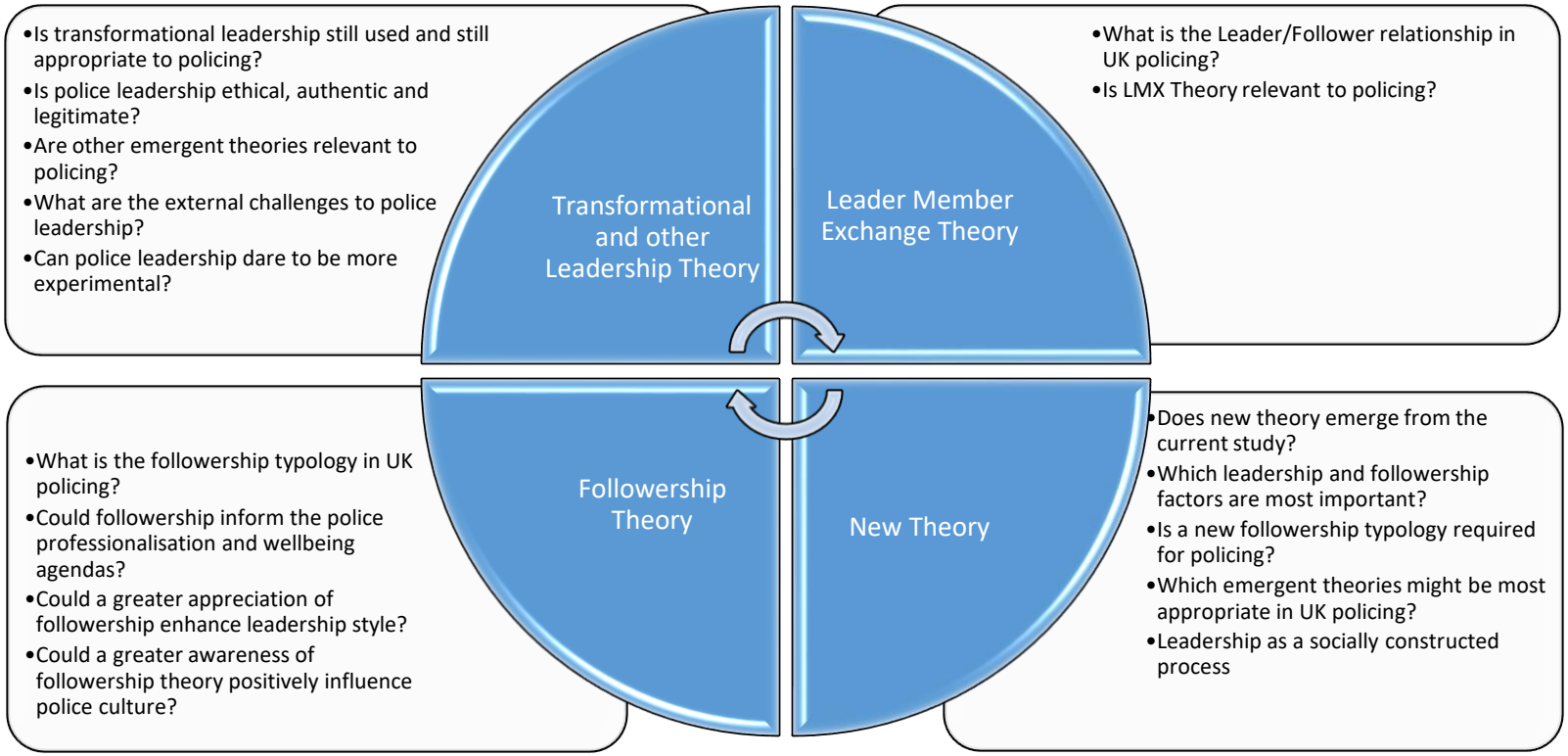

Figure 8 Theories used to develop the 'Ideal Follower Leadership' theoretical framework with examples of research sub-questions they generated

An overview of leadership and followership theory has been introduced in this chapter, providing the theoretical underpinnings to this study. Central to this are transformational leadership, followership and leader member exchange theories. These theories have informed the research design detailed in the following chapter and influenced the choice of research instruments which elicited the original empirical data required in the formulation of a new theoretical framework defining the ideal leader follower relationship in policing.

Chapter Three: Research Design

Introduction

This chapter provides the rationale for the research design. In doing so, the research question and aims will be restated fully. Philosophical, epistemological, ontological and methodological standpoints will be explained, justified and related to the processes which led to the sequential mixed methods approach. Other practical issues such as the recruitment of participants, access into policing organisations, formulation of research instruments, ethical considerations and reflections on the research process will be included.

Rationale for the Study and Research Design

As exploratory research into leadership, followership and wellbeing in policing not previously conducted in England and Wales, a fundamental aim of this study was to establish what the nature of the leader follower relationship was in policing and how this might affect wellbeing. The potential of this research as a platform for future research and implementation of findings into practice demanded the development of the study design described in this chapter. As the review of the literature and theory progressed, a number of research sub questions emerged, listed in appendix five. As the detail of these sub questions developed, they began to suggest the type of research instruments required to generate the necessary data to devise a model of the optimal leader follower relationship and to understand the factors required to generate it. A reminder of the research question and aims is provided below.

Research Question

To what extent could the development of an understanding of followership in policing enhance police leadership in England and Wales and improve wellbeing?

Research Aims

1). To consider police leadership through a critical leadership study lens, in particular the concept of followership in policing.

2). To analyse the leader follower relationship through a mixed method approach.

3). To produce a new theoretical framework, informing how improved leader follower relationships might promote a workforce better prepared to tackle current policing challenges.

4). To analyse the factors which need to be understood to enable positive developments to police leadership, followership and wellbeing.

Philosophical, Ontological and Epistemological Considerations

The research features an interpretivist approach. Interpretivism falls within the humanist tradition of social science, rejecting the notion argued by naturalists that social science research should be modelled on the methods of natural science. Naturalists develop knowledge through observation. By contrast, humanism emphasises the role of language in forming and explaining the social world. Humanists argue that many of the phenomena which differentiate the social from the natural world cannot be observed, hence the need for researchers to elicit meanings by interacting with participants, as pioneered by Schleiermacher (Palmer, 1969). Positivism is objective, while interpretivism allows a more subjective standpoint. Positivism is based on universal principles and incontrovertible fact; interpretivism relies on individual interpretation of meanings, describing the motivations and values of social actors (Raddon, 2017).

Schleiermacher's research of scripture associated him with contemporary hermeneutic philosophers such as Giddens (1993). Their epistemology hinges upon the general theory of interpretation of texts. Hermeneutics derives meaning through gaining an understanding of research subjects' experiences. In order to do this, researchers must

develop an understanding of their subjects, rather than following the naturalistic tradition of simply observing them. Schleiermacher (1997) viewed interpretivism as translation, the role of the researcher being to learn the social meanings understood by participants, requiring special insight. The requirement for specialist, technical knowledge on the part of the researcher is beneficial, if not essential, in translating, interpreting and explaining social phenomena within policing due to the unique structural and cultural concepts considered in the literature review.

Following on from Schleiermacher, Dilthey, a hermeneutic philosopher, attempted to reconcile social science with the methods of natural science. Dilthey identified how interpretivism sought a goal of "Verstehen" or "understanding"; contrasting with the "Erklaren" or "explaining" positivist approach of natural sciences (Dilthey, 1991). This has parallels with Aristotle's concept of phronesis or wisdom considered later in this chapter. Gaining real insight into leadership and followership in policing is central to the research project. Neither Schleiermacher nor Dilthey rejected naturalism, but they did propose that it only provided a partial explanation of the social world. They considered that interpretation of language was essential in order to ascertain meanings of objects and events.

Weber further developed Dilthey's concept of Verstehen, introducing the concept of interpretive social science. Concentrating on interpreting the social meanings assigned to activities by human subjects, Weber responded to the criticism that hermeneutics was over reliant on the subjective skills of the researcher, causing social science to resemble an art rather than a science (Weber, 1994). These Weberian concepts influenced the choice of research topic and methodological approach. In a researcher-centric interpretivist approach, reliance is placed on the researcher's explanation of social phenomenon. A recurring theme in interpretivism is the use of metaphor of theory as a 'lens' by which to interpret social phenomena. In contrast to positivism's trademark distinction between the subject and object of research, interpretivist researchers play an active part in explaining and emphasising the relationship between subject and object, indeed the researcher joins that relationship, for instance through employing a methodology such as the interviews employed in research method two.

Successful interviewing requires not only engagement with the subject. Primarily in-depth knowledge and understanding of the object of discussion is required in order to gain the most from the subject matter and to generate the richest, most meaningful data. In order to obtain, analyse and interpret the data, the researcher requires interview skills and subject knowledge far surpassing those of a passive participant. He or she must engage with the subject to tease out and clarify the object or essence of their ideas. Previous professional policing experience equipped the researcher well for this task.

Criticism of interpretivism (Monateri, 2001) points to loss of objectivity and too great a departure from the scientific method. At the extremes, these could manifest themselves as journalism, or at worst narcissism on behalf of the researcher, convinced only of the veracity of their own interpretations, an extreme form of confirmation bias. To protect from this, interpretivist researchers can clarify their epistemological and ontological standpoints by defining their relationships with the research participants and organisations being studied; clarifying who they are representing; explaining what personal characteristics they bring which may affect their interpretation of the phenomena being investigated; and finally explaining their methodological, representational, ethical and political choices. Definitions of epistemology and ontology and how these relate to the current study are included below.

Flyvberg (2001, p. 3) provides a contemporary interpretation of the value and role of interpretivism towards achievement of Aristotle's notion of phronesis or practical wisdom:

> the reflexive analysis and discussion of values and interests, which is the prerequisite for an enlightened political, economic and cultural development in any society, and which is at the core of phronesis.

Continuing the pragmatic theme, defence of the interpretivist approach came from Becker (1967, p. 247), who concluded:

> I suppose the answers are more or less obvious. We take sides as our personal and political commitments dictate, use our theoretical resources to avoid the distortions that might introduce into our work, limit our conclusions carefully, recognise the hierarchy of credibility for what it is, and field as best we can the accusations and doubts that will surely be our fate.

The CLS approach has already been illustrated in the context of the introduction and literature review, but the source of such an approach is now considered. Critical social sciences emerged from the work of Hegel and Marx to promote emancipation from oppression and exploitation (Marx, 1990), rather than the simple interpretation of social life previously offered by social sciences. Critical social sciences were further developed by Habermas (2003) with his use of the philosophical tradition of pragmatism. Pragmatism promotes the ideal of the practical value of knowledge. Pragmatism also embraced positivism and hermeneutics, considered earlier. The research design captures both positivist and hermeneutic data.

Most PhD theses feature distinctive first order and second order questions. First order questions ask about the nature of what is being studied, for example the research aims and questions of the current study outlined above. Second order questions ask how knowledge of what is being studied can be gained. This is broken down into ontology: the nature of existence of the topic being studied, epistemology; how knowledge of the topic has developed, and methodology; the techniques used to acquire that knowledge (Hollis, 1994). It is the responsibility of the researcher to consider whether any predisposed ontological and epistemological choices affecting their research approach might have had a detrimental effect on the defensibility of their thesis. The chosen methodology guards against confirmation bias as a former police officer, or 'outsider insider' (Brown, 1996, as cited in Reiner and Newburn, 2007, p. 936). The quantitative analysis features adherence to many statistical conventions and development of the new theoretical framework is a formulaic process which provides an audit trail back from any conclusions reached to the original data. The interviews which followed elicited expert opinion and invited participants to verify the researcher's interpretation of quantitative data to further verify the emergent theoretical framework. Interview

analysis added a further dimension to the framework, providing a theoretical, organisational and professional context to the model produced by the statistical analysis. Whilst status as an 'outside insider' will naturally and understandably have an influence on epistemological and ontological standpoints, these can be assets when performing interpretivist research into a complex phenomenon such as policing.

It felt counter-intuitive to deny personal experience of policing over the thirty-year period which saw the development of the transformational leadership style and its incorporation into UK policing, witnessing its emergence as the dominant leadership model. Kearon (2016) suggested a new breed of 'pracademics', describing academic researchers with practitioner backgrounds, might be a solution to the dilemna of academics historically failing to deliver the research products demanded by the police service. Historically, academics may have been commissioned to research a problem, but in delivering their findings and recommendations, academic research has often failed to provide the products or solutions expected by police professionals in the past because the relationship between academics and practitioners has not always been a fruitful one, due to a lack of academic appreciation of the policing environment, reciprocated by unrealistic expectations on the part of the police about what research can produce. Consequently, the expectations of senior officers were seldom matched by the research outputs they received (Kearon, 2016). It is now becoming more commonplace for academic research-based practice to become incorporated in specialist police training (Chakraborti and Hardy, 2017; Hardy, 2017). Likewise, this thesis is the product of close cooperation between academics and practitioners in knowledge co-production. Former professional experience provides a common understanding and common language or shorthand, allowing the researcher to quickly build rapport and demonstrate empathy with interview participants.

Kearon asserted the ideal type of co-producers of knowledge would be research minded practitioners working with practice minded researchers. Such 'joint pracademics', based in "safe environments for policing leaders" (Stott, 2016, n.p.), present the best opportunity for policing research to be conducted '*with* the police' (co-production), rather than '*for* the police' (academic verification) or '*on* the police' (academic

discovery) (Kearon, 2016). The current research approach aligns strongly with the concept of co-production. Professional, personal and academic credibility was a factor in designing a questionnaire which resonated with the police officers, staff and volunteers who accessed it, resulting in a healthy response. Credibility also encouraged interview participation, by reassuring interviewees the research was meaningful, necessary and had the potential to impact and improve police leadership practice in the future. Utilising professional experience satisfied Gummesson's (2000, p. 15) concept of 'preunderstanding', defined as "people's insights into a specific problem and social environment before they start a research program". Put simply, there is "no understanding without preunderstanding" (Gummesson, 2000, p. 70).

In summary, the mixed-method approach described below was influenced by interpretivist research philosophy and associated ontological and epistemological stances. In their simplest terms, ontology is the study of reality; how things exist. Epistemology is the study of what constitutes valid knowledge and how it can be obtained (Raddon, 2017). Therefore the research design comprised the following elements. Firstly, a questionnaire that sought objective knowledge from participants; obtained, presented and analysed through positivist, quantitative, statistical methods derived from natural sciences. This was valuable to illustrate the current landscape of leadership and followership and the questionnaire was the most appropriate epistemological route to gathering this data. Secondly, interviews that provided an interpretivist, qualitative balance; providing participant understanding of meaning essential in researching leadership and followership in policing. Interviews were the best way of obtaining this knowledge.

Mixed-method research designs feature a blurring of the deductive/inductive, objective/subjective, quantitative/qualitative research paradigms (Grix, 2010). The justification for choosing a mixed-method approach is described in the following section.

Research Design: A Sequential Mixed-Methods Approach

A mixed-methods approach offers a number of advantages. It can: "increase the

accuracy of research findings", synthesise "findings from different approaches" and "reflect the complexity of a phenomenon" (Gilbert, 2008, pp. 127-128). There was a natural synergy between the quantitative and qualitative phases. The questionnaire featured in research method one included a closing qualitative question, question 18, inviting further freetext comments. This was designed to capture data which would, along with the analysis of the quantitative data, suggest themes for the question set of research method two, a series of semi-structured interviews with key informants identified from the researcher's network of practitioners and academics. Once analysis was completed of the data from the questionnaire using IBM's quantitative Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the qualitative NVIVO software package, emerging patterns and themes, recorded in appendix eight, helped to inform the question set for research method two.

The interview structure was inspired by 'Delphi Poll' and 'Expert Elicitation' methods. Delphi polls normally use a mixture of quantitative and qualitative techniques, accommodated by a series of questionnaires developed and deployed in an iterative sequence, as chosen participants or 'panellists' attempt to bring order to explain, interpret or confront emerging or complex problems (Linstone and Turoff, 2002). This is achieved by eliciting and compiling diverse opinions from a broad range of subject matter experts (SME). Whilst there are no set academic precedents for using this methodology and therefore opinions on its validity are mixed, it is recognised as a time and cost-effective solution when attempting to build or confirm new knowledge, with a range of experts providing their valued interpretation of data (Iqbal and Pion-Young, 2009). This method was appealing for a sole researcher with limited resources as an efficient way of gaining quality data from the best sources.

The Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation method was instigated through the production of a briefing package distributed pre-interview to participants, included as appendix four. This consisted of a summary of followership literature and theory, along with a synopsis of the quantitative and qualitative findings from the questionnaire designed to form the basis of a series of semi-structured qualitative interviews. The Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation method is a flexible approach which can involve participants contributing in isolation such as in this project, or together, for instance meeting in focus groups. This

agile technique proved especially useful in this context, as the embryonic theoretical framework from the questionnaire could be tested and developed by expert opinion during the interview stage.

Justification for Quantitative Analysis

Bryman (2011) describes how the self-completed questionnaire has dominated as the research method of choice in leadership studies. This has aligned with the broad epistemological approach of positivism, with its preference towards quantitative methods, and has until recent years eschewed qualitative studies. CLS would imply that the positivist stance has perpetuated the US-centric romantic concentration on the white male heroic leader as the mainstream of leadership study (Collinson, 2011; Tourish, 2103). To counter this, CLS promotes the inclusion of other methodologies, especially qualitative interviewing, for the reasons stated below. Whilst acknowledging this advice, the merits of deploying a questionnaire and employing statistical techniques to analyse the resultant data was the best way to obtain a national picture of the leader follower relationship in policing, outweighing any perceived or real drawbacks. The quantitative element provided access to large sample numbers providing a quantity of data which qualitative methods simply could not have provided. The potential of an independent ex-police researcher enjoying privileged national access to forces and a potentially broad database of respondents was also considered too good an opportunity to miss, offering the prospect of compiling a significant and unique dataset on leadership and followership concepts; hence a mixed-methods approach emerged as the final design.

Research Method One: Quantitative Analysis, Questionnaire Construction

Three existing questionnaires described below were selected and modified with permission (Creswell, 2014), then combined into one questionnaire, as reproduced in appendix ten. A number of criteria were applied during the search for the most suitable research instruments to answer the research question and fulfil the research aims. Very few followership questionnaires exist, but leadership style questionnaires are in abundance. Just as there is no universal theory of leadership, there is no all-encompassing leadership style questionnaire, so the most appropriate questionnaires for this study had to be selected, according to the demands of the research question and aims. There is a natural theoretical synergy which fits the research question and aims of this study. Transformational Leadership Theory describes the relationship between leaders and followers (Bass, 1978), as do Leader Member Exchange Theory (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) and Followership Theory (Kelley, 1992). Therefore the following three questionnaires were selected in combination, representing each theory: The Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ, Research Version); The Leader Member Exchange Questionnaire (LMX7); and the Followership Style Questionnaire (FSQ). A review of methodological literature revealed pros and cons of each instrument, but overall these were considered the most appropriate to deploy, in combination. Two of the selected questionnaires, LMX7 and FSQ, were designed by their authors to provide bespoke metrics of the quality of relationships between leaders and followers and types of followers respectively. The third, the TLQ, was designed to assess the type of leadership style experienced by direct reports. All three questionnaires added value to achieving the aims of this study and answering the research question and sub-questions. The relative merits of each questionnaire are considered below.

TLQ

The TLQ was chosen to secure quantitative evidence of what the current leadership style in policing might be, from the perspective of the people it affects the most; followers who are describing their direct line manager's leadership style. Whilst both developed from transformational leadership theory, there are significant differences between the

TLQ and the MLQ, the most broadly used leadership theory questionnaire worldwide. The TLQ was developed by Alimo-Metcalf and Alban-Metcalfe at the University of Leeds for a UK audience. Various versions of the TLQ exist. These include Police and Public Sector 360 Degree versions. These are commercial products, marketed by a professional spin-off leadership training company for profit. They are administered by participants taking responsibility for selecting both line reports and line managers to rate their performance as well as completing a self-rating. An attempt to administer such a 360-degree survey nationally across multiple policing organisations for the purposes of the current study would be unworkable at worst and at best, demand excessive time and effort on the part of locally-appointed gatekeepers to administer and return reliable data. For the purposes of the current research therefore the TLQ Research Version was deemed the most suitable instrument. The TLQ is a simpler model than the versions developed for commercial purposes. As the current research is the first to consider police leadership theory in relation to leadership style, followership theory and Leader-Member Exchange theory, with the purpose of developing a picture of the relationships between these three inter-related concepts, ease of implementation and completion by participants were major considerations.

In developing the TLQ, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2005) recognised the problematic nature of replicating US research internationally. Specifically, transformational leadership theory was developed following observations of US CEO's, ignoring lower echelons of organisations (Bryman, 1996). Understanding of the effect of distance, in every sense, between leaders and followers, introduced by Shamir (1995), was developed through the work of Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2006). Their insights concerning leader follower relationships are particularly relevant to policing, where evidence on line manager leadership provides the most accurate and significant data. A summary of the TLQ question themes is included in table eleven below. Alban-Metcalfe and Alimo-Metcalfe's (2011) advice was followed to gather subordinate ratings of their line managers, as these were proven through their previous research to possess the highest levels of validity.

Fletcher and Baldry (2000) provided evidence of elevated leader self–ratings with less valid results than those provided by their supervisors (Hoffman, Nathan and Holden, 1991). Deployment of the TLQ to direct reports only therefore ensured increased accuracy of leadership quality. It also fitted with the focus of the current research; analysing leadership from a follower perspective, further justifying selection of the TLQ Research Version.

Significantly, the TLQ has been deployed previously to study police leadership. In a major Home Office study Dobby *et al.* (2004) used it to:

> investigate which aspects of transformational leadership were currently being provided by police leaders and investigate the relationship between particular aspects of transformational leadership and particular self-reported psychological outcomes for the people being led (Dobby *et al*., 2004, p. 10).

The TLQ offered further appeal because it presented the opportunity to collect new data on police leadership in England and Wales and discover the influence of transformational leadership principles over a decade after their inception into police leadership. The TLQ has proven validity and reliability. The purpose of this study was not to develop a new research instrument, with the associated complexities of statistical testing, which could prove less reliable than the TLQ. In addition, the facility to add qualitative data was well used and allowed for a considerable quantity of valuable additional data to be captured. Finally, the TLQ is an indicator of leadership styles other than transformational leadership. Data suggesting the suitability of other leadership styles would satisfy research aim three; the consideration of broadening police leadership practice. Despite having its roots in transformational leadership theory, the developers of the TLQ qualify that "It leads to an understanding of leadership beyond transformational models" (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2005, p. 51).

Overall, the TLQ was selected for three main reasons. Firstly, it was selected to provide evidence of the extent to which leadership behaviours indicative of the transformational leadership style are implemented into UK policing. These behaviours are multi-factored,

classified under the following headings: ‘Showing Genuine Concern’; ‘Networking and Achieving’; ‘Enabling’; ‘Being Consistent’; ‘Being Accessible’, ‘Being Decisive’; and ‘Overall’. Secondly, the TLQ allowed collection of data to describe ‘near’ leadership in policing, a concept considered in chapters one and two. Thirdly, the TLQ compiled data on desirable and undesirable leadership practice, as viewed by followers. According to the terms of the licence, the TLQ question set cannot be reproduced in full but an indication of the types of topics considered by the questionnaire is provided in table eleven below.

Leadership Category	*Indicative Behaviours*
Showing Genuine Concern	*My line manager …* Is sensitive to my needs Coaches and mentors me Develops and motivates me
Networking and Achieving	Develops useful contacts Inspires people Is passionate and determined Earns confidence and respect
Enabling	Empowers me Trusts me Develops me
Being Consistent	Behaves consistently Is open Is never unpredictable
Being Accessible	Is approachable Prefers face to face communication Is flexible
Being Decisive	Makes difficult decisions Takes appropriate risks Is imaginative
Overall	Is a motivating leader Is a satisfying leader Raises my commitment Raises my self-confidence Raises my sense of fulfilment Raises my self-esteem Allows me to succeed Reduces my stress-levels

Table 11 TLQ Topic Areas

LMX7

Numerous questionnaires exist to measure LMX theory, all of which measure the quality of the leader/follower relationship at work. The most used LMX research instrument is LMX7. LMX7 was designed to measure respect, trust and obligation. These were considered by the authors Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) to be "the ingredients of a strong partnership" (Northouse, 2010, p. 164). The main criticism of LMX7 is its theoretical reliance on the Vertical Dyadic Linkage (VDL), or the simple, linear, hierarchical relationship between leaders and followers. For this reason, proponents of LMX based on more complex social exchange theory rather than the earlier principal of VDL have been critical of LMX7, claiming it is not a suitable assessment of social exchanges (Bernerth, Armenakis, Field, Giles and Walker, 2007). They developed the Leader-Member Social Exchange Questionnaire (LMSX) to assess supervisor/subordinate relationships based on measures of social exchange theory, actually assessing the nature of exchanges between leaders and followers. Bernerth *et al.* (2007) however conceded that LMX7 is still a highly reliable instrument. As the first study to investigate leader follower relations in policing, LMX7 was more appropriate then the lengthier LMSX, given the TLQ and FSQ were both reasonably long questionnaires.

LMX7 is the most commonly used measure of LMX theory. It is a very short questionnaire, comprising only seven questions. The overall design of the complete questionnaire placed time to complete as a central requirement; if the task of completing the questionnaire had been overly onerous, this would have had a negative effect on response rates. This made the compactness of LMX7 attractive. Finally, the questionnaire was an example of exploratory research. It was designed to provide data which produced a picture of the relationship between leaders and followers. LMX7 was the best instrument to provide this. LMX7 was chosen to measure the quality of relationships between police leaders and followers in UK policing, something which had not previously been studied or quantified in the existing literature. Again, specific questions cannot be reproduced, but relationship quality is measured by descriptions of the leader follower relationship, such as: satisfaction; status; understanding; recognition of potential; problem-solving; mutual confidence and respect; and extra-work activities.

FSQ

The FSQ has received criticism for lack of validation (Kilburn, 2010, Park, 2013), although studies by Gatti, Tartari, Cortese and Ghislieri (2014); Tanoff and Barlow (2002), Blanchard, Welbourne, Gillmore, and Bullock (2009) have concluded that the FSQ produces robust ratings for validity and reliability. Despite such debate, Kelley's work is universally described as seminal and is referenced in virtually every literature review of followership.

The FSQ was chosen to provide an understanding of followership styles in policing. The most important contribution and the primary reason for selecting it was the ability to place respondents into the categories proposed by Kelley. Obtaining a followership typology had never previously been compiled for policing in England and Wales. Formulation of a followership typology satisfied one of the research sub questions. An understanding of follower types could establish any current mismatches between leadership and followership styles. Again, specific questions cannot be reproduced, but the questionnaire responses are summarised in appendix ten.

Strengths and Limitations of the Quantitative Element

The deployment of a questionnaire was considered the most efficient way to reach the broadest cohort of participants to establish a national picture of leadership and followership. Depending on response rates, it could also provide a valuable dataset for further statistical analysis. Comparisons could be made with previous results in policing and other sectors, as the questionnaire is an amalgamation of three well-established existing questionnaires. As a minimum, the purpose of the questionnaire would be the ability to provide a picture of the national landscape of police leadership and followership. This would illustrate what types of leadership followers experience, quantify a typology of followers found in the extended policing family and describe the nature of the relationships between leaders and followers.

The creation of an appropriate online questionnaire was essential in order to reach the broadest sample of participants across the widest range of forces. The questionnaire tool Bristol Online Surveys (BOS) was chosen for a number of reasons. The University had a subscription which meant it was free to use. As a product designed and managed by a small spin-off company of the University of Bristol, it is a high-quality tool designed for academic researchers. The graphical user interface (GUI) is clear, resulting in the production of a credible easy to use questionnaire for both the recipient and the administrator. BOS has simple tools to export the data in a variety of formats, suitable for use in a range of statistical software. Most importantly, as a UK-based organisation, BOS guaranteed the security of data as it complied with UK legislation.

The overriding factor governing the questionnaire design was to ensure it was quick and easy to complete. Potential participants were busy people, some officers, and a ten-minute limit was deemed essential. In order to enable easy completion, a universal format for the three Likert scales found in the three existing questionnaires was adopted. This required a degree of statistical manipulation prior to analysis but this was worthwhile to ensure a user-friendly question set. Each question, where appropriate, featured a 'don't know/not applicable' option. This allowed participants greater freedom when considering their answers and ensured the most authentic responses.

Piloting and Implementation of the Questionnaire

Once a first draft of the complete questionnaire was designed, it was distributed to a cohort of post graduate research students, none of whom were from a policing or police research background. They were asked to provide feedback on the construction of the questionnaire, ease of understanding and completion. A small number of former police colleagues were also sent the questionnaire. In addition to the above feedback topics, they were asked to comment on the relevance of the content. In total, eighteen pilot responses were received and the feedback informed a number of improvements towards the development of the final version.

Questionnaire respondents for research method one were sought through a variety of channels. Participants formed a random sample, chosen because randomisation can strengthen the argument that results may be generalisable (Creswell, 2014). Participants were recruited through a snowball approach, following direct requests to key individuals in policing organisations known to the researcher to publicise the questionnaire. These people could be trusted to ensure bone fide respondents were recruited.

Favourable replies to enquiries for assistance were received from the Police Federation, Superintendents Association and the College of Policing to host and promote the questionnaire on their websites. Gatekeepers at The College of Policing promoted the questionnaire through their websites and POLKA communities. Support was offered from the East Midlands Police Academic Collaboration (EMPAC) to promote questionnaire completion, both in local forces and further afield. The questionnaire was co-branded University of Leicester and EMPAC in recognition of their assistance and support.

An overwhelming majority (63.1%) of respondents received the link from their force intranet, only accessible to personnel with appropriate credentials. A further 24.3% received the questionnaire via other traceable means, which were specified. Most of this category received the link to the questionnaire from a secure .pnn email, the source of which was verifiable. Other sources were the staff associations mentioned below and the College of Policing. Only 1.1% (n=7) received the links from social media, using the researcher's Twitter account which was reserved solely for academic and professional purposes. For the above reasons, as high a level of confidence as practicable was achieved concerning the veracity of respondents belonging to policing organisations. It was anticipated that the sample would be sufficiently large to be representative of the national picture and therefore eliminate spurious results and outliers caused by dysfunctional personal relationships between supervisors and direct reports. It turned out to be the case that the sample was statistically of sufficient size, at six hundred and fifty-three responses.

There were no inclusion or exclusion criteria for participants other than the requirement for questionnaire respondents to belong to a policing organisation in England or Wales as a police officer or a member of police staff, the special constabulary or a volunteer.

Quantitative Analysis of the Questionnaire

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was the preferred method of statistical analysis chosen for this project. It provided the means to measure latent variables, such as popularity or likeability which are otherwise unmeasurable (Field, 2013). The quality of relationships between leaders and followers and the quality of leadership are similar latent variables. EFA provides a means of understanding how sets of non-latent variables, which can be measured, are structured. Factor analysis also allows the researcher to classify a multitude of variables, such as the 69 measured by the questions in the current questionnaire, into a much smaller number of underlying factors, making the patterns in the data much more manageable and easier to understand (Kinnear and Gray, 2009). By reducing a broad range of variables into more compact factors describing latent variables, latent variables such as leadership quality and follower outcomes effecting wellbeing at work can be defined (Field, 2013). As such, EFA fitted well with the questionnaire approach employed in this instance and provided a process for making a broad dataset manageable and meaningful (Field, 2013). EFA also allowed a large number of variables to be grouped into the most important factors which codified the optimal leader follower relationship and the components required for such a relationship, in terms of leader inputs and follower outcomes.

Research into the relative merits of EFA and a similar technique, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Linley, Maltby, Wood, Osborne and Hurling, 2008; Maltby, Day and Hall, 2015), prompted the use of EFA. It is worthwhile noting the arguments amongst statisticians, mathematicians and theorists around the rationale for choosing between EFA and PCA are longstanding and summarised in appendix six. Arguments amongst statisticians are compounded by common terminology used in both PCA and EFA; used and abused "interchangeably, which tends to be the source of some confusion" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 607). EFA and PCA are both "data reduction techniques"

(Pallant, 2013, p. 188), designed to reduce an unmanageable number of variables, for example questions in a questionnaire, down to a smaller number of related factors or components which are intelligible as a model (Field, 2013). Both are designed to measure "things that cannot be measured directly (so called latent variables)" (Field, 2013, p. 666). Leadership, followership, and the relationships between the two, are examples of latent variables. Thus, other things which are measurable can, when considered together, explain concepts which cannot otherwise easily be measured. Conclusions from PCA are "restricted to the sample being tested" (Field, 2013, p. 674) rather than being applicable to the entire UK policing population. This restriction would not have been appropriate to the current study as the quantitative element was designed to produce a national picture of the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers in policing as the basis for further qualitative investigation relevant to all UK police forces and other policing organisations, not just members of the current sample. Full details of the statistical methods employed are included in chapter four and appendix six.

The Quantitative Sample

For enhanced presentation, the quantitative sample is described along with the presentation and analysis of quantitative data in chapter four.

Research Method Two: Qualitative Analysis, Interview Design

Interviews with a broad range of practitioner and academic subject matter experts in police leadership provided the opportunity to conduct in-depth analysis of complex aspects of organisational, cultural and interpersonal relationships. Conducting a series of semi-structured interviews was designed to complement the findings of the questionnaire in research method one, with interview questions covering similar concepts because they were informed by the analysis of the questionnaire. The interviews provided a richness of detail and practical illustrations of theoretical concepts to interpret and complement the statistical data. Interpretation of the data was depicted through participants' personal understandings of meaning.

A similar sequential mixed-method research design (Creswell, 2014) proved effective for researchers from the University of Surrey (Fielding, Bullock, Earthy, Fielding, Garland and Hieke, 2018) commissioned by the Police Dependants' Trust into welfare provision following injury on duty. They followed analysis of an online survey attracting eight thousand four hundred and forty-seven valid responses with one hundred and one semi-structured qualitative interviews. Interviewees were offered the choice between face to face and telephone interviews. Their analysis of the quality of face to face interviews compared to telephone interviews revealed no significant difference in quality. In fact, due to the sensitivity of the topics being discussed and the reassurance that confidentiality would not be compromised by third parties seeing the participant with the researcher on police premises, in some cases interviewers in the Surrey example felt telephone interviews were beneficial for rapport building and establishing trust. Skype and Telephone interviews were also found to be advantageous where arranging face to face interviews was deemed to be unfeasible, for example trying to arrange interviews with busy officers at work when they could not be abstracted. The experience of these researchers informed the design of research method two and influenced the decision to offer participants the choice of face to face, telephone or Skype interviews.

The remainder of the chapter will describe the purpose of research method two, explain the methodology employed and outline the descriptive statistics of the participant sample. It will then go on to detail how the data was gathered, processed and analysed.

Justification for Qualitative Analysis

A qualitative approach aligns with the Critical Leadership Studies (CLS) movement. CLS regards leadership as a social construct, "more in tune with the ethos of qualitative research" (Bryman, 2011, p. 26). Uhl-Bien and Marion (2011) echoed this, concluding leadership research "is likely to be more reliant on more qualitative and agent-based modelling approaches than on the traditional questionnaire approach" (Bryman, 2011, p.26).

Purpose of Research Method Two

Research method two featured the following functions:

- To capture expert interpretation of the questionnaire results and expert opinion on the validity of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework.
- To ensure there were no gaps in the literature review and theoretical chapters and no key concepts or theories were overlooked.
- To elicit expert opinion on the feasibility of an increasing followership culture in policing.
- To test the effectiveness of the hybrid 'Expert Elicitation'/'Delphi Poll' method.
- To answer the research sub questions below.

Research Sub-Questions specific to Research Method Two

Following saturation in the literature on policing, leadership, followership, wellbeing and accompanying theory, these were examples of the types of research sub-questions which emerged:

1. Given historic criticism of police leadership, has the subject of followership been overlooked?
2. To what extent might the application of followership theory benefit the development of police leadership style, i.e. how relevant is this research?
3. What is missing from the Ideal Follower Leadership model? Something overarching such as Ethical leadership? Authentic leadership? Leadership Legitimacy?
4. Would the professionalisation agenda benefit from the promotion of followership?
5. To what extent might a greater understanding of followership promote the development of the type of followers described in the Ideal Follower Leadership model?

6. To what extent might professionalisation bring followership into the mainstream, breaking down a hierarchical culture in favour of competency and knowledge?
7. To what extent might an emphasis on follower autonomy combat the detrimental effects of the austerity agenda?
8. Is the transformational leadership agenda still apparent and relevant?
9. Did transformational leadership provide improvements in the diversity agenda?
10. Does the emergent Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework indicate the benefits of the leadership styles considered in chapter two?
11. With external challenges and oversight, do police leaders have the opportunity to be brave, experimental and innovative?
12. What does the data say about the need for legitimacy in police leadership?
13. What is the nature and quality of leader follower relationships in policing?
14. To what extent might raising the profile of followership improve wellbeing?

Qualitative Analysis Method

The starting point for qualitative analysis came from responses to the freetext question 18 of the questionnaire. Along with the statistical analysis of the questionnaire described in the previous chapter, analysis of question 18 informed the content of the question set for research method two, a series of semi-structured qualitative interviews. The question set was refined during the course of the interviews. Particularly significant themes introduced by participants were incorporated into subsequent interviews.

Responses to question 18 were imported into a qualitative software package called NVIVO. The version used was version 11 (QSR, 2019). All qualitative data from question 18 and the interviews were coded and analysed using NVIVO. The initial analysis of question 18 is included in appendix eight. These data were later combined with the data from the qualitative interviews to allow coding and analysis as a combined dataset. This increased the number of participants providing qualitative data from thirty-seven to two hundred and three.

NVIVO facilitates three main approaches to coding data (Angell, 2017), all of which develop a structure of Parent, Child and Grandchild nodes, or themes. First is the grounded theory approach (Bryant and Chamaz, 2008), where no preconceived theoretical ideas exist. In this approach data is coded line by line into nodes. These are combined and refined into higher order nodes, so effectively the parent and child nodes emerge from the initial nodes which may be finalised as grandchild nodes or consumed into other nodes. This way new theory would emerge, driven by the data in a purist grounded theory approach (Angell, 2017). Consideration was given to adopting such an approach to coding and analysis but the decision was made following a review of the wealth of existing theory and research surrounding leadership and leadership in the police in particular that there was little benefit in complicating an already complex picture with yet more new and competing theory.

The second approach is to impose a pre-existing theoretical framework or to predict answers to the research questions by preparing parent nodes before analysing the data. This would have been a possibility but would have been susceptible to criticisms of confirmation bias given the researcher's previous career background. Ultimately a third 'hybrid' approach was taken. Research questions were used to give a loose idea of the types of themes being sought to provide answers. It was also anticipated following a review of the literature in chapter one and the theory in chapter two that certain child nodes such as culture and hierarchy would feature strongly. This Hybrid approach is better suited to a thematic analysis approach (Braun and Clarke, 2006) than the development of grounded theory.

The preferred thematic analysis approach which emerged collated data about the nature of leader follower relationships in policing, summarised in chapter five. Data concerning the most significant outcome of these relationships, follower wellbeing, is presented in chapter six. Data relating to organisational factors effecting leader follower relationships is presented in chapter seven. Data relating to external factors, leadership, followership, wellbeing and other theory is presented in chapter eight. The thematic analysis approach employed in this study was described by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87) as " … a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within

data". In addition to advice received from NVIVO training and online tutorials, Braun and Clarke's (2006, p. 87) six steps of thematic analysis: 'Familiarisation with the data'; 'Generating initial codes'; 'Searching for themes'; 'Reviewing themes'; 'Defining and naming themes'; and 'Producing the report' were followed.

Qualitative Sample Description

For enhanced presentation, as the qualitative data is spread across four chapters, the qualitative sample from the questionnaire, i.e. those participants who chose to complete question eighteen, and the interviews is described here rather than in chapters five to eight.

Questionnaire Freetext Response Sample Description

Useable responses were received from 159 respondents to the optional freetext question, question 18, contained in the questionnaire from research method one between 7 December 2016 and 19 September 2017. The participants who provided these responses represented 18 policing organisations. In terms of role and rank, the range of officer ranks was as follows:

- PCSO's (n=8) (5%)
- Constables (n=53) (33%)
- Sergeants (n=32) (20%)
- Inspectors (n=7) (4%)
- Chief Inspectors (n=2) (1%)
- Superintendents (n=6) (4%)

A wide range of support staff were well represented (n=51) (32%), providing the second largest group by rank or role after sergeants. In terms of age, the range comprised of:

- teenage (n=1) (1%)
- twenties (n=7) (4%)
- thirties (n=30) (19%)
- forties (n=44) (28%)
- fifties (n=59) (37%)
- sixties (n=12) (8%)

with n=6 (4%) preferring not to say. In terms of gender, the sample consisted of males (n=94) (59%) and females (n=55) (35%), with n=10 (6%) participants preferring not to say.

In terms of service with policing organisations, this ranged from:

- zero to two years (n=4) (3%),
- three to ten (n=25) (16%)
- eleven to twenty (n=58) (36%)
- twenty-one to thirty (n=46) (31%)
- thirty-one to forty (n=20) (13%)
- forty one years or over (n=2) (1%).

This sample could therefore claim to be demographically representative of policing organisations in England and Wales.

Interview Participant Sample Description

The remainder of the qualitative data analysed in research method two was provided in 37 semi-structured interviews which were conducted between February and November 2018. Participants included 31 current or former police officers, representing an additional nine policing organisations, bringing the total number of policing organisations represented in this study to 27. 12 of these 31 current or former police officers had achieved or were working towards doctoral status through a programme of

study at PhD level. The remaining six participants held doctoral qualifications. In total the eighteen academic participants represented twelve different universities. 31 participants were current or former officers, consisting of female (n=7) (23%) and male (n=24) (77%). This was almost representative of the national officer gender balance of 29% (Home Office, 2017). Two (6%) of the 31 participants were from Black and Minority Ethnic (BAME) backgrounds, representative of the national ethnicity balance in England and Wales (Home Office, 2017). Interviews were mostly conducted face to face (n=28), with Skype (n=5) and telephone (n=4) interviews taking place at the request of the participant. The relative merits of each method will be reflected upon at the end of the chapter.

Qualitative Analysis

The following parent node headings emerged from the analysis of the interviews: External Factors, Organisational Factors, Individual Factors, Leadership, Followership, Leader/Follower Relationship Factors, Wellbeing, Theory and Thesis Findings. Parent nodes were presented in the order represented in figure nine below as this emerged as a logical framework for analysis. Factors external to the organisation provide a background for how policing is situated in today's society. Organisational factors provide an insight into internal culture and how that affects individual factors, leadership, followership, and leader/follower relationships. Wellbeing is a reflection of how all of these forces can affect the individual. Theory is presented in an attempt to contextualise and make sense of the data collated. Finally, study findings emerge to show the original contribution to knowledge made by the thesis. The most significant themes which answered the research question and aims are summarised in chapters five to eight. Interpretivism came into play in deciding what material to include in the data chapters. Judgements were made on which themes held most significance to the developing Ideal Follower Leadership model.

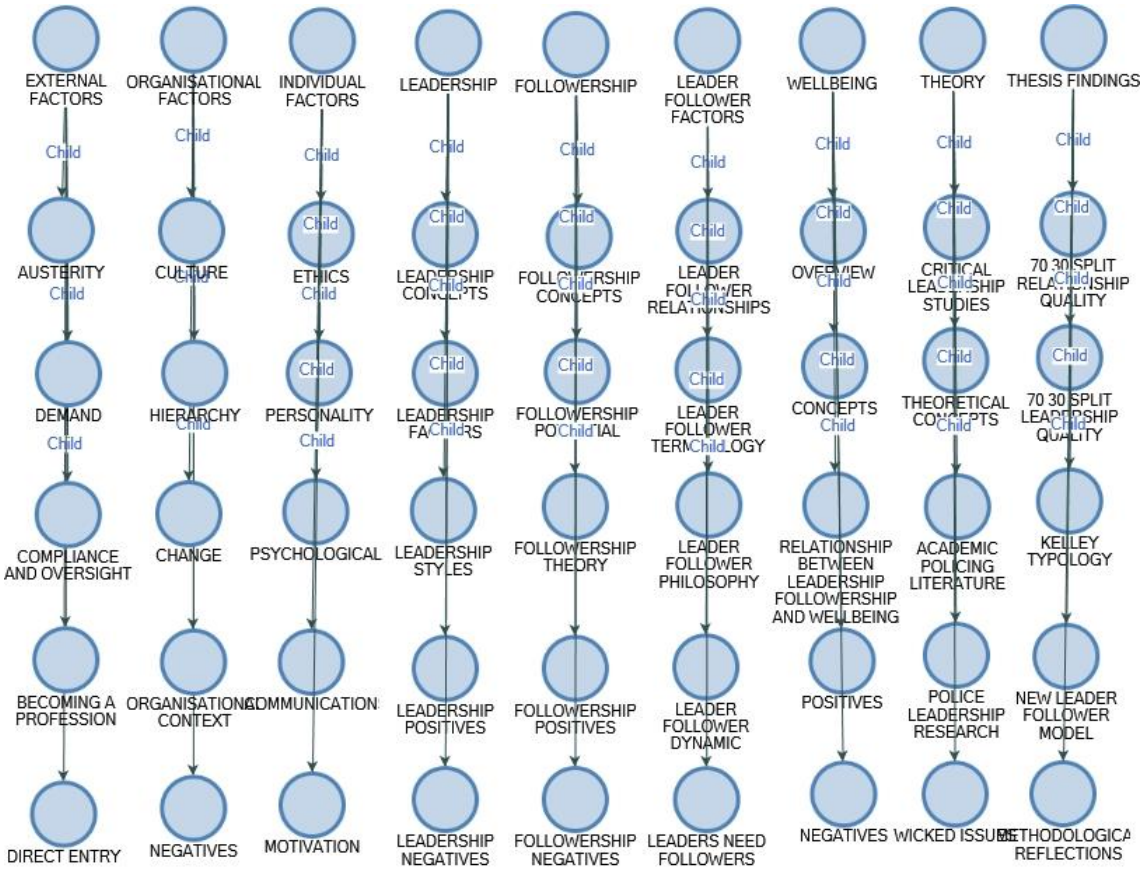

Figure 9 NVIVO Thematic Structure

NVIVO provided a solution to manage this rich volume of data, comprising over 118,000 words of interview transcription, into a clear nodal structure. This allowed the pieces of data to be revisited in thematic groupings, enabling them to be presented in a logical order. This made it easy to review the content, analyse it and make editorial decisions when presenting and analysing data.

The initial coding completed from the questionnaire freetext responses was revised. The responses were coded line by line in the same way as the interviews had been. The node structure resulting from the interviews in figure nine above was used as opposed to the original one shown in appendix eight. The questionnaire and interview responses were thus merged into a single database for thematic consistency but NVIVO still allowed searches to be completed according to whether the data originated from the questionnaire or interviews. During the coding process the NVIVO memo facility provided an invaluable means of capturing analytical ideas which emerged and

interesting relationships between themes and concepts which were under consideration at the time, some of which developed into findings. NVIVO also provided a mechanism which allowed a number of searches to be constructed around demographic and other data such as age, gender, rank or role, service and organisational attachment. This, along with the memo facility, allowed additional layers of analysis to be easily managed and reported upon.

Qualitative Analysis Method Limitations

The questionnaire failed to achieve national coverage, with a total of seven out of forty-three Home Office forces unrepresented, and several forces having very low returns. There was also concern that sixty-one per cent of the sample came from only four forces. However, a sample size of six hundred and fifty-three was more than sufficient for PhD purposes and did not limit conducting any statistical tests. The following chapter argues the sample was statistically representative of policing organisations across England and Wales.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are the single most important consideration for any researcher conducting fieldwork with human participants. Participation must be an individual decision made following an adequate supply of information (Christians, 2008). The researcher's own institution was clear that if an individual consented because they felt they "had to", that could constitute "unintended coercion" (University of Leicester, 2011, p. 110). The wording of information and consent forms issued to participants ensured they gave true, voluntary, informed consent. Information regarding what the research involved, who might participate, how data would be used, where the research would be published and how participants would remain anonymous was all included.

Ensuring informed consent served a number of ethical purposes. It was fundamental in building trust and confidence between the participant and researcher. It was also vital in establishing principles of confidentiality and anonymity. It satisfied the overriding

principle of avoiding harm to participants (British Sociological Society, 2017), recognising risk of this could be heightened in research exploring emotional relationships between leaders and followers. Delving into such relationships might come within the definition of sensitive topics (Seale, 2012) and protection against detrimental effects to participants in this study was designed into the research instrument documentation and remained of paramount importance in the submission for ethical approval and the conduct of the interviews. Whilst professional judgement could be exercised when gauging the effect on interview participants, this was more difficult to assess during telephone interviews and impossible to assess in the case of remote respondents to online questionnaires. Welfare considerations were therefore included in the introductory wording of the questionnaire, and the written and verbal information provided prior to interviews. Ethical approval was granted by Dr. Laura Brace, Chair of the University Ethics Sub-Committee for Criminology and the School of Education before any data was gathered, see appendix one.

Researcher Reflexivity Statement

Reflections on the quantitative analysis process

The quantitative analysis presented the opportunity to obtain a picture of leadership and followership and wellbeing in policing from a large, statistically significant sample; representative of police officers, staff, volunteers and specials in England and Wales. The questionnaire results provided a starting point in answering the research question and aims which was developed into the qualitative analysis, where experts in policing and policing academics were able to offer their interpretation of the qualitative results in a truly integrated mixed method approach. Data was obtained on the proportion of good leadership received from immediate line managers compared to leadership which was less satisfactory. Participants were anonymous and the research was independent, allowing participants to say exactly what they wanted to unfettered by suspicion or fear of reprisals. This allowed a greater understanding of what relationships between leaders and followers are really like, what effects them and how they might be improved.

The process itself represented a steep but necessary learning curve, the researcher not having a background in statistical analysis. Some time was wasted by pursuing the wrong statistical technique initially, but expert advice was subsequently received which produced a satisfactory model, Ideal Follower Leadership, which is presented in the following chapter.

Reflections on the qualitative analysis process

- The need to establish conceptual clarity between the literature, theory, and data became clear once all data was presented. Concepts which had emerged through the quantitative and qualitative data needed to be related back to concepts explored in the literature review and theory chapters.

- Multiple links between mixed methods emerged, validating this approach as being the most appropriate research design for the research question and aims.

- The decision to recruit police officers, staff and volunteers alongside academics and pracademics was justified given the richness of the data produced, the expert insight elicited and the new findings which emerged. The bespoke Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation technique adapted for this study proved to be an appropriate method.

- The decision to recruit key individuals from a wide range of organisations as opposed to members from a single case study force was a good one. This allowed high quality data to be gathered from purposively selected academics, police officers, staff and volunteers. The decision to avoid using a single force for the interviews was based on a number of factors. It became apparent from some of the responses to the freetext question in the questionnaire that some participants were using the study as a 'soap box' to present their personal agendas. Such individual agendas would fail to constitute a collective dataset which would allow the opportunity to produce meaningful and reliable findings.

In addition, early indications were that access into individual organisations could be difficult. More importantly, the resultant sample could be limited to individuals 'offered up' by the force rather than a self-selected or purposive sample. This could limit the range, degree of realism and replicability of the resultant dataset to other forces. Akin to research method one, the participant sample achieved in research method two had a national rather than local reach and experience. Both research methods sought to discover a national landscape of the relationship between leaders and followers and the effect on wellbeing. The vast range of themes to emerge from academics to practitioners allowed a far richer dataset to be obtained. The academic inputs provoked searches for literature, concepts and theory which if not pursued would have weakened the contribution of the thesis. Finally the selected case study force could have been an outlier due to unique organisational or cultural values. The chosen methodology, concentrating on the nature of the leader follower relationship and the factors effecting it across multiple forces, provided a national, replicable model across all forces.

- Due to the number of interviewees from one single force, this force did emerge as a potential case study. Although no analysis was performed on this force in isolation due to restrictions on the thesis word count, the depth of insight and correlations between organisational themes identified by this single force cohort added value to the study as this force provided a microcosm of some of the global phenomenon identified. Relationships between individuals from the single force suggested the possibility of future research into the complexities of relationships between leaders and followers in detail as certain actors were familiar to all participants and were independently mentioned multiple times. The actual interview cohort, drawn from multiple forces, meant variance due to organisational factors between forces was eliminated, meaning the quality of relationships was being analysed rather than extraneous factors which may have been particular to an individual case study force or indeed, one or two unrepresentative individuals. However re-focusing solely on data from one single case study force could prove valuable in a future publication now that the

thesis has established a national picture of the leader follower relationship in policing and the factors influencing it. A single force case study approach could provide a more nuanced picture of how that relationship can be formed or explain the barriers preventing it.

- A sample size of 37 interviewees producing over 112,000 words of transcription with interviews lasting between one to two hours on average was considered sufficient once themes were becoming repeated and thus saturation in data was becoming experienced. 37 interviews appeared to be typical of a qualitative PhD thesis. Combined with research method one, the sample size provided a more than adequate dataset to satisfy the research aim and questions.

- There was no discernible difference in the quality of interview transcription from face to face, Skype and telephone interviews. Face to face was always preferable in terms of rapport building and natural conversation but neither of the other methods proved detrimental. The interviewer had a fast and reliable broadband connection. On occasion the same could not be said of participants but minor technical errors did not cause any significant data loss. Where Skype and telephone interviews were preferred by participants, accommodation of their requirements was respected. Use of such technology allowed the dataset to be completed conveniently and expeditiously.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided rationales for the study and research design and presented the research question, sub questions, and aims. Philosophical, epistemological, ontological and methodological considerations have been explained and related to the chosen research design and instruments employed. Recruitment of participants, access, the design and deployment of research instruments, ethical considerations and reflections on the research process have been included for consideration.

Chapter Four: Quantitative analysis of the questionnaire: Research Method One

Introduction

This chapter includes presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results of the quantitative data generated by the questionnaire, culminating in the emergence of a new theoretical framework, Ideal Follower Leadership. Ideal Follower Leadership contributes to a greater understanding of the optimal relationship between leaders and followers in policing. In addition, the standalone results from the three component questionnaires are presented and analysed, independently revealing significant findings in terms of the quality of line manager leadership, the quality of relationships with line managers and an assessment of the spread of follower types in policing according to Kelley's typology, as discussed in chapter two. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the significance of the findings from the quantitative data produced by research method one.

SPSS Statistical Analysis of Questionnaire, Research Method One

The questionnaire was analysed using the most widely used software for quantitative analysis, SPSS (version 24) (IBM, 2019). The questionnaire concluded with an optional freetext question, question 18, which allowed respondents to add any comments they wished about leadership or followership. Responses to this question were imported into NVIVO for analysis. These results are presented in the qualitative chapters five to eight.

The statistical technique used in the current study is Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Reasons for choosing EFA are given in the previous chapter and appendix six. The resultant model, Ideal Follower Leadership, fulfilled the research aim of producing a new theoretical framework defining the ingredients of the optimal leader follower relationship and distilling the leadership inputs and follower outcomes factors influencing that relationship. Developing knowledge of this relationship and the factors affecting it is key to the addition to new knowledge made by the thesis and offers

positive developments to the understanding of leadership, followership and wellbeing in policing.

The Questionnaire Sample

Online calculators estimated a sample size of around 383 for a national police officer and staff population of around 200,922 to be adequate given typically accepted parameters for conventionally accepted confidence intervals (SurveySystem, 2017). These calculations suggest that accepting a confidence level of 95%, a normally accepted parameter in EFA (Field, 2013), with a sample size of 653 would in fact produce an improved confidence interval of ± 3.83%. This means the sample of 653 far exceeded the 383 estimated to be required to be acceptable for this questionnaire. Effectively, this calculation means had the entire estimated population of 200,922 police officers and staff completed the questionnaire, the confidence level that the actual sample of 653 would return similar results was between 91% and 99%. The significant sample size of 653 provided other advantages for analysis. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 613) warn that: "Correlation coefficients tend to be less reliable when estimated from small samples. Therefore, it is important that sample size be large enough that correlations are reliably estimated". This is especially the case in studies such as the current one where a larger number of distinct factors emerge. Comrey and Lee (1992) describe samples of over 500 as 'very good' and over 1000 as 'excellent' for use in EFA. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p.613) suggest "it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for factor analysis".

In other respects, the sample was representative of the national policing population. There was a high response from females (39.8%) and from over two hundred police staff. Officer ranks ranged from PCSO to ACC, staff ranks from scale 3 to chief officer equivalent, and line managers from sergeant to chief constable. By far the largest proportion of respondents was at police constable (PC) rank. A detailed breakdown of participant numbers by demographic factors, including rank, is provided below.

Quantitative Sample Demographic Factors

A summary of demographic descriptive statistics are now presented, including rank, gender, ethnicity, age, length of service and police force or policing organisation. Commentary is added concerning the sample, where appropriate. Because the remit of the quantitative analysis was to produce a theoretical framework around the leader follower relationship and factors effecting it, the word count did not allow further quantitative analysis of these demographic factors. Discussion of the effects of gender, ethnicity, rank and different organisational contexts does appear in the qualitative chapters which follow.

Rank/Grade

Officer Rank / Staff Grade	Frequency	Percentage
PC	212	32.5%
SGT	100	15.3%
STAFF 3-6	120	18.4%
INSP	44	6.7%
SO1-SO2	37	5.7%
PCSO	26	4.0%
SUPT	24	3.7%
OTHER	21	3.2%
MANAGER 1-3	19	2.9%
MANAGER 4-7	18	2.8%
PREFER NOT TO SAY	15	2.3%
CI	8	1.2%
CH SUPT	4	0.6%
SC	3	0.5%
ACC	1	0.2%
VOLUNTEER	1	0.2%
Total	653	100%

Table 12 Demographic Variable: Rank/Grade

A very high response was received from police staff, 213 in total compared to 424 police officers, PCSO's and special constabulary. The breakdown of staff grade is given above. A table explaining the hierarchy of police staff grading structures is provided in the questionnaire summary in appendix ten. This made up 637 out of the total sample of

653. Of the remainder, there was 1 volunteer and 15 other respondents who preferred not to say what their rank or role was. This was coded in SPSS as missing data.

Gender

In total, 55.4% of respondents were male (n=362), 39.8% were female (n=260) and 0.3% (n=2) declared their gender as non-binary. Twenty-nine respondents preferred not to reply to this question. This represented a greater than expected proportion of female respondents. This presented interesting analytical opportunities given the literature on policing and gender, in particular the effect of gender on progression through the ranks (Silvestri, 2003; Westmarland, 2001). On 31 March 2016, when the questionnaire was live, 30% of police officers in England and Wales with the rank of Constable were female. The proportion of females holding more senior ranks was much lower. Only 23% of those officers ranked Chief Inspector or higher were female, although this has increased from 15% in 2010. Two hundred and fifty-two out of every 10,000 males in the police were senior officers compared to 187 out of every 10,000 female police officers who held senior ranks (House of Commons, 2018). The effect of gender on the leader follower relationship is revisited in chapter five.

Ethnicity

90.5% of respondents declared themselves as White British (n=591) and 9.5% (n=62) declared themselves as non-white. This result represented a strong response from BAME officers as the national proportion of BAME officers is 5.5% (Home Office, 2016).

Age

	Age Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age Group	1 <= 34	140	21.4%
	2 35 - 40	112	17.2%
	3 41 - 47	144	22.1%
	4 48 - 52	115	17.6%
	5 53+	119	18.2%
	Total	630	96.5%

Missing Data		23	3.5%
Total		653	

Table 13 Demographic Variable: Age

A broad age range ensured a representative distribution with which to test whether the age demographic might influence a significant variation in responses. Age was raised as a factor to emerge in the interviews as it was thought by interviewees to inform individual commitment to policing due to recent changes in pension regulations. The quality of leader follower relationships is another factor linked with commitment which would in turn effect phenomena such as attrition rates, with older officers less inclined to leave due to the adverse effect on their pensions. Consequently, a balanced sample according to age is more likely to generate a more accurate picture of the leader follower relationship, views on leadership quality and self-assessment of followership style.

Length of Service

Length of Service in Years	N=	%
0-2	25	3.8%
3-10	138	21.1%
11-20	242	37.1%
21-30	164	25.1%
31-40	43	6.6%
41+	6	0.9%
Prefer not to say	35	5.4%
Total	653	100%

Table 14 Demographic Variable: Length of Service

Again, a normal distribution of responses was returned, with a slight weighting towards more experienced participants. This balanced sample according to length of service was expected to return more representative results for similar reasons offered for the age demographic above.

Force

The frequency of respondents ranked by force is provided in table 15 below:

Force	Respondents	Percentage
West Yorkshire	170	26.0%
Leicestershire	79	12.1%
Essex	77	11.8%
Northamptonshire	72	11.0%
Kent	57	8.7%
Norfolk	45	6.9%
TVP	38	5.8%
GMP	27	4.1%
Wiltshire	6	0.9%
Sussex	5	0.8%
Nottinghamshire	4	0.6%
Gwent	4	0.6%
CNC	3	0.5%
Durham	3	0.5%
Hertfordshire	3	0.5%
Northumbria	3	0.5%
West Mercia	3	0.5%
Devon and Cornwall	2	0.3%
Surrey	2	0.3%
Cumbria	1	0.2%
Derbyshire	1	0.2%
Lancashire	1	0.2%
Merseyside	1	0.2%
Met	1	0.2%
Staffordshire	1	0.2%
Warwickshire	1	0.2%
Dyfed-Powys	1	0.2%
BTP	1	0.2%
Prefer not to say	21	3.2%
Total	653	100%

Table 15 Demographic Variable: Force

The survey achieved a nationwide response, with representatives from only 13 out of the 43 Home Office forces in England and Wales failing to respond. The highest (double-digit) responses received from the nine forces heading table 15 above represents a significant dataset for future research comparing these forces around leadership quality, for instance by triangulating these results with other metrics such as published performance data or HMICFRS inspection data for leadership or wellbeing.

Research Sub-Questions specific to RM1

The new theoretical framework emerging from the EFA and the standalone results from the TLQ, LMX7 and FSQ questionnaires, combined with the analysis of qualitative data from question 18, present an opportunity to answer a number of research sub-questions in the remainder of this chapter, namely:

1. Is the application of followership theory appropriate to policing?
2. Does LMX Theory lend itself to policing?
3. Is transformational leadership still relevant to contemporary policing?
4. Which leadership and followership factors are most important in policing?
5. Does the data confirm the importance of emergent leadership styles from current literature, such as servant, ethical, authentic, and shared leadership?

The resultant model from the EFA, a theoretical framework entitled Ideal Follower Leadership, is introduced in figure eleven below. The content of the model was dictated by the Pattern Matrix generated by SPSS, reproduced in table sixteen below and included with other statistical outputs and the rationale for the choice of analytical approach in appendix six. Appendix six explains the step by step quantitative analysis process employed. The Pattern Matrix presented the strongest relationships between variables or themes generated by questions about leadership, followership and the leader follower relationship in the questionnaire, grouped into five factors. The question themes are summarised in the headings in the highlighted area in table sixteen below. The rationale for choosing a five factor solution is explained in appendix six. The five factors which are chosen are dictated by the 'Total Variance Explained' table, table 23, appendix six. The variance attributed to each of the five factors is expressed as a percentage. In total, the five top factors provided a cumulative total of 69.124% variance. The remaining 64 factors accounted for less than 31% of the total variance. According to statistical conventions explained in appendix 6, they therefore did not feature in the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework in figure 10. The five factors became the five circles forming the initial Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework in figure 10 below.

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Percentage of Variance	50.066%	9.852%	3.479%	3.100%	2.627%
LM Sensitive to Needs	.640			.379	
LM Takes time find feelings	.485			.515	
LM Mentoring	.419			.609	
LM Develops Strengths	.423			.641	
LM Motivates Me	.462			.573	
LM Genuine Interest	.560			.463	
LM Communicates Vision			.642		
LM External Links			.689		
LM Passion Determination			.440		
LM Achieves Organisational Goals			.535		
LM Articulates Vision			.568		
LM Politically Skilled			.603		
F Feels empowered and trusted	.874				
F Competence recognised	.801				
F Uses discretion	.839				
F Leads	.809				
F Increased responsibility	.663				
F Sets own objectives	.591				
LM Consistent	.781				
LM Open	.837				
LM Not Moody or Unpredictable	.840				
LM Organisational good before own	.689				

LM Approachable	.965				
LM Face to face	.792				
LM Adaptable	.769				
LM Accessible to all	.789				
LM Develops own leadership skills	.568		.355		
LM Decisive			.762		
LM Makes difficult decisions			.788		
LM takes calculated risks appropriately			.674		
LM Determination	.328		.665		
LM lateral / imaginative thinker	.416		.592		
F Motivated	.667				
F Satisfied with leadership style	.773				
F Increased commitment to job	.788				.365
F Increased self-confidence	.810				.373
F increased job fulfilment	.715				.466
F Increased job satisfaction	.708				.466
F Increased self-esteem	.761				.449
F Less Stress	.782				.336
F Increased commitment to organisation	.641				.411
F Achieves beyond self-expectation	.601				.395
F Know where I stand	.948				

LM Understands job problems / needs	.825				
LM Recognises my potential	.723				
LM Solves my work problems	.714				
LM Would help personal problems	.782				
F Would defend LM	.817				
F Effective relationship with LM	.930				
F Fulfilling role		.500			
F Personal and organisation goals aligned		.510			
F Committed and energised		.733			
F Spreads enthusiasm		.695			
F Prioritises tasks		.805			
F Responsible own CPD		.763			
F Results orientated		.711			
F Works well unsupervised		.672			
F Goes above and beyond		.786			
F Good team player		.722			
F New ideas		.703			
F Problem solver		.702			
F Promotes peers		.596			
F Voices benefits / risks leader's plans		.536			
F Aware leader needs, goals, constraints		.511			

F Honest self-assessment PDR		.330			
F Internally question decisions		.327			
F Say no if against my preferences					
F Rely own ethical standards					
F Assertive, despite conflict		.328			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

LM = Line Manager Input

F = Follower Outcome

Table 16 Pattern Matrix

As EFA is a data reduction technique designed to:

> … produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables in a way that captures (or accounts for) most of the variability in the pattern of correlations (Pallant, 2013, p. 188)

At this stage, there is a requirement for the researcher to interpret which components of the factors to select. In this case the five highest correlating components of each factor were selected. The five factors which emerged are hierarchical. The most important factors carry the highest percentage variance in the pattern matrix above, transposed from the results of the 'Total Variance Explained' table. They appear in table 17 below and are represented diagrammatically in figure 10 below. It can be seen that factor one at 50.066% is by far the most significant factor. It became clear this factor described the nature of effective leader follower relationships. The term 'effective' came from the wording of one of the TLQ questions. This was replaced by 'optimal' for

the purposes of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework. The term 'effective leadership' was deliberately avoided in this thesis due to epistemological arguments over what 'effective' actually means in the context of policing (Sarver and Miller, 2014; Kirby, 2013; Parsons, Kautt and Coupe, 2011; Prosser, 2014; Schafer, 2009; Schafer, 2010).

The statistical dominance of factor one dictated that it should be placed at the centre of the model. It also dictated that in answering the research question and aims, this thesis needed to focus on the nature of the leader follower relationship. Factor loadings of components can vary through a -1 to +1 range (Kinnear and Gray, 2009). The most significant loadings are thus represented by the figures nearest to +1, for example .930. All loadings in the pattern matrix are positive, meaning participant responses strongly agreed with the statements in the questionnaire questions. The circles in the Ideal Follower Leadership model represent the most important components of each of the five most statistically significant factors to emerge. The components need to be assigned names then combined, presented and explained in the most appropriate way to the reader. This process relates the statistical findings in this chapter back to the research question and aims in the introduction, the literature review in chapter one and the theoretical overview in chapter two. The quantitative findings, in terms of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, are also projected forwards to be amalgamated with the findings from the qualitative data, ultimately producing the completed Ideal Follower Leadership model presented in chapter eight.

Table 17 below explains how the separate components influenced the wordings of the factors to emerge in the initial Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework in figure 10. The most statistically significant factor, factor one, is interpreted as describing the optimal relationship between leaders and followers. This is represented in the larger central circle. Summary headings were then devised for the other four factors which were clearly definable as leader inputs and follower outcomes. The most appropriate factor headings to describe leader inputs were deemed to be 'Dynamic' and 'Developmental' leaders, factors three and five, and the chosen headings for the resultant follower outcomes were 'Energetic' and 'Fulfilled' followers, factors two and

four. The four factors which inform the central factor deliberately overlap in graphical form to indicate they are the leader inputs and follower outcomes which define the resultant optimal leader follower relationship.

The translation of factor loadings from the pattern matrix to the resultant Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework is explained in the table below. The table illustrates what the question is asking about, whether it describes a line manager input or a follower outcome, what component of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework it translates into, which of the five factors or circle numbers in the framework it relates to and where that component ranks in each factor. It is then the task of the researcher to arrange the components and factors into a model such as the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework to provide a clear graphical representation of the statistical findings, with the best compromise between factor ranking and grammatical sense, as in figure 10 below. As explained above, the five selected factors to emerge from the EFA are ordered in importance from one to five. For this reason, factor one appears in the large circle at the centre of the Ideal Follower Leadership model. Although the factor ranking of the components and the way in which they are presented in the model is also ordinal, ranked one to five, when two components fit particularly well together such as 'Open' and 'Approachable' leaders; or 'Makes difficult decisions' and 'Takes calculated risks', these components have been combined.

Question Theme	Line Manager Input	Follower Outcome	Ideal Follower Leader Component	Factor/ Circle Number	Factor Loading	Factor Ranking
CENTRAL FACTOR, FACTOR ONE: OPTIMAL LEADER/FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIPS Percentage of Variance: 50.066%						
Effective Relationship	Yes	Yes	Optimal Leader/Follower Relationship	1	.930	3
Approachable	Yes	No	Approachable Open Leaders	1	.965	1
Open	Yes	No		1	.837	5
Empowered and trusted	Yes	Yes	Empowered Trusted Followers	1	.874	4

Know where they stand	Yes	Yes	Followers who know where they stand	1	.948	2
FACTOR TWO: ENERGETIC FOLLOWERS Percentage of Variance: 9.852%						
Prioritises tasks	No	Yes	Prioritise Tasks	2	.805	1
Goes above and beyond	No	Yes	Go Above and Beyond	2	.786	2
Self-develops	No	Yes	Self-Develop	2	.763	3
Committed and energised	No	Yes	Committed and Energised	2	.733	4
Good team player	No	Yes	Good Team Players	2	.722	5
FACTOR THREE: DYNAMIC LEADERS Percentage of Variance: 3.479%						
Makes difficult decisions	Yes	No	Takes Difficult Decisions and Calculated Risks	3	.762	1
Takes calculated risks	Yes	No		3	.674	3
Shows determination	Yes	No	Establish Links	3	.689	2
Communicates Vision	Yes	No	Show Determination	3	.655	4
Establishes external links	Yes	No	Communicate Vision	3	.642	5
FACTOR FOUR: FULFILLED FOLLOWERS Percentage of Variance: 3.100%						
Job Satisfaction	No	Yes	Job Satisfaction	4	.466	1
Self Esteem	No	Yes	Self Esteem	4	.449	2
Achievement	No	Yes	Achievement	4	.411	3
Commitment	No	Yes	Commitment	4	.365	4
Less Stress	No	Yes	Less Stress	4	.336	5
FACTOR FIVE: DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERS Percentage of Variance: 2.627%						
Develops Strengths	Yes	No	Develop Strengths	5	.641	1
Mentors	Yes	No	Mentor	5	.609	2
Motivates	Yes	No	Motivate	5	.573	3
Takes a Genuine Interest	Yes	No	Take a Genuine Interest	5	.463	4
Considers Feelings	Yes	No	Consider Feelings	5	.379	5

Table 17: Pattern Matrix Translation into the Ideal Follower Leadership model

In summary, at its heart, the initial Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework introduced in figure eleven below represents what the optimal relationship between leaders and followers in policing is. It describes 'approachable, open leaders' working with 'empowered trusted followers who know where they stand'. In order to achieve this situation, it goes on to describe the components of the 'dynamic and developmental' leadership required to allow followers to become 'energetic and fulfilled', and how such desired outcomes would manifest themselves in follower behaviours. The questionnaire questions which produce this result ask respondents to describe their current relationships with their immediate line managers rather than ideal or preferred relationships. The EFA factors which emerge represent the strongest correlations between components.

When dissected, there are several parallels between the model and the literature and theory discussed in chapters one and two. For example, 'Developmental Leaders' in the model resonate with principles of servant leadership. Transformational leadership principles such as leaders and followers sharing a common purpose appear in the central factor. The similarities and differences between the findings of the Ideal Follower Leadership model and existing theory and literature will be explored through the analysis of qualitative data.

Ideal Follower Leadership

(Initial Model – Quantitative Analysis Only)

Figure 10 "Ideal Follower Leadership" - Initial Version

Interpretation of EFA

Two of the research sub-questions outlined earlier in the chapter are answered by the EFA analysis. They are:

4). Which leadership and followership factors are most important in policing?

5). Does the data confirm the importance of emergent leadership styles from current literature, such as servant, ethical, authentic, and shared leadership?

Sub-questions one to three are answered later in the chapter when the independent results of the component questionnaires are considered.

The Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework identifies the most significant correlations between leader inputs and follower outcomes. These signpost the five most important leadership and followership factors in policing to answer sub-question four. At the core of the model is a description of the ideal relationship. Around the model are descriptions of two sets of leader inputs, described as 'Dynamic and Developmental' and two sets of follower outcomes, described as 'Fulfilled and Energetic'. All five factors were constructed from the highest correlating components revealed by the Pattern Matrix presented in table 16 above.

Ideal Follower Leadership resonates with the messages of the CLS movement described in chapter one. CLS principles find a natural home within the Ideal Follower Leadership model. CLS promotes the movement away from leader-centric models (Jackson and Parry, 2011) and "the systematic neglect of followers in leader-centric perspectives" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 30). Measuring the quality of leadership by the "effective or ineffective exercise of power, authority and influence" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 4), a CLS perspective endorses the Ideal Follower Leadership model, promoting the need for synergy between leaders and followers. The antithesis of this, revealed through questionnaire data, still reported expectations of leaders as miracle

workers and unquestioning followers, as described in CLS literature already considered in chapter one.

The results of the current questionnaire, culminating in the Ideal Follower Leadership model, clearly reject such an inequitable balance of power. The Ideal Follower Leadership model invites the approach summarised by Weick (2007, p. 281) in chapter two:

> To treat leading and following as simultaneous is to redistribute knowing and doubting more widely, to expect ignorance and fallibility to be similarly distributed, and to expect that knowledge is what happens between heads rather than inside a single leader's head.

Sharing knowledge and uncertainty amongst leaders and followers allows all members of a healthy organisation to contribute to problem-solving. Such an interpretation makes sense of the Ideal Follower Leadership solution. Whether followership has the potential to thrive in policing will be discussed in the following chapter. If the Ideal Follower Leadership model is a means to accommodate followership, and the service displays an appetite to embrace it, followership could offer considerable benefits in combatting some of the challenges to contemporary policing discussed in chapter one.

In order to answer sub-question five, it is necessary to revisit theoretical concepts introduced in chapter two. The Ideal Follower Leadership model does indicate the importance of aspects of different leadership styles considered by the leadership review (Neyroud, 2011). Servant leadership, "a style that places the leader in the role of an enabler" (COP, 2015d, p. 6), resonates with the mentoring role of 'Developmental Leaders'. Northouse's (2010, p. 385) assertion from chapter two that: "a servant leader … uses less institutional power and less control while shifting authority to those who are being led" is supported by evidence of unsupervised 'Empowered Trusted Followers', identified in the model. They are committed, energised, committed achievers who achieve, whilst enduring lower levels of stress. Ideal Follower Leadership partly answers the call from Anand *et al.* (2011, p. 320) for: "more research on servant leadership from

a follower-centric perspective". Some of the soft skills of servant leadership such as empathetic listening, caring and nurturing (Northouse, 2010) resonate with requirements of leaders in the Ideal Follower Leadership model to be take a genuine interest in followers through being open and approachable. This concept was developed by Gilligan (1982) who described caring as an ethical requirement of leaders and Brady (1999), placing caring as a foundation for trusting and cooperative relationships between leaders and followers. Whilst neither ethical leadership nor authentic leadership emerged in the Ideal Follower Leadership model, aspects of both could be interpreted in factors which do feature such as: 'Take Difficult Decisions', 'Show Determination' and 'Communicate a Vision'. Indeed, both ethical and authentic were added to the final version of the model in figure 14, chapter eight following analysis of interview data.

Interpretation of TLQ Result

Although the sixty-nine questions taken together from the three donor questionnaires informed the development of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, there is value in deconstructing the results back to the source questionnaires to gauge the specific outputs each provided. That analysis will be commenced in the following three sections.

As a working measure of leadership quality, percentages were calculated for the questions derived from the TLQ. This revealed 67% of responses to be positive about the leadership demonstrated by line managers and 28% negative. These percentages were rounded off to 70% and 30% for ease of explanation during the interview phase of this project. The missing 5% represented the chosen value of 'don't know' and 'not applicable' responses. This fell close to the Britain at Work Survey (Opinium, 2016) where the negative response rate for leadership quality averaged 31%.

The emergence of Ideal Follower Leadership indicates a strong correlation between leadership principles such as: developing strengths, motivating, mentoring, considering feelings and taking a genuine interest. These qualities are common to both

transformational and shared leadership theory and followership theory considered in chapter two. This is a different situation from sixteen years ago, when Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001, p. 18) concluded: “there is no notion of 'followership’ in either the first UK factor, or explicitly in any of the other TLQ-LGV factors”.

As the TLQ is grounded in transformational leadership theory, several of the variables informing the Ideal Follower Leadership model come from that theory. This suggests that transformational leadership theory still resonates with police personnel seventeen years after the TLQ was developed and over forty years since transformational leadership was popularised by Burns (1978). These results reinforce the rationale for inclusion of the TLQ discussed in the previous chapter. The continued significance of transformational leadership principles in the Ideal Follower Leadership model provides evidence in answer to research sub-question three, supporting the assertion that transformational leadership is still appropriate in contemporary police leadership. This assertion will be discussed in the concluding chapter.

Interpretation of Kelley’s Followership Result

Kelley’s followership questionnaire is normally deployed as a tool for individuals to discover their personal followership style. In the current study this analysis was completed by the researcher. These were the results:

(Independent, Critical Thinking Total Vertical X Axis)

(Active engagement Total Horizontal Y Axis)

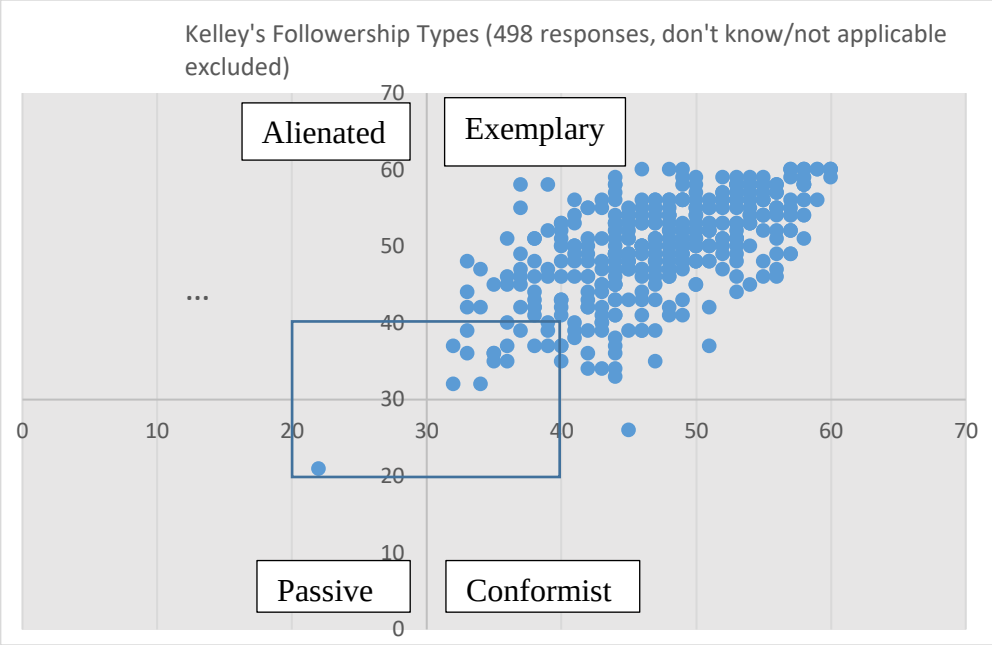

Figure 11 Kelley's Followership Skills Questionnaire (FSQ) Result

This graph represented a remarkably skewed result towards 'exemplary followership'. Figure 12 below provides a reminder of Kelley's typology:

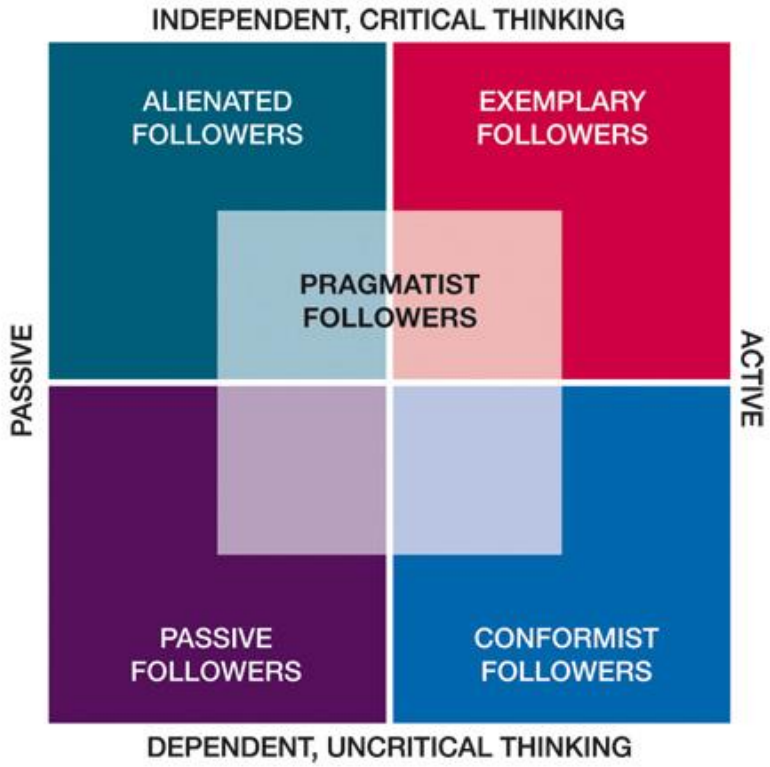

Figure 12 Kelley's Followership Typology (Kelley, 1992)

In answer to research sub-question one, whether Kelley's typology of followership fits into the policing context or whether a new police specific typology of followership is required, the questionnaire provided a remarkable result. Kelley (1998) devised his typology around normal distributions amongst non-police populations. It may be that police culture, training, or the situations police officers in particular encounter on a daily basis require unprecedented degrees of personal autonomy, responsibility, decision making ability and exercise of power. These demands would necessitate the extremes of 'independent, critical thinking' and 'active' followership which frame Kelley's typology. Such factors could render Kelley's current typology inappropriate in the policing context. Interview participants provided their interpretations of the remarkable Kelley result in chapter eight.

One factor to be considered from the outset however is the fact that the twenty FSQ questions, questions 11-1 to 11-20, feature self-reporting answers as opposed to upward reporting on line managers, which features in the other forty-nine questions. Arguments considered in chapter three concerning perceptions of a self-imposed halo effect in self-reported questionnaire responses compared to the accuracy of followers critiquing their line managers may account in part for the current result; an overwhelming self-perception that almost everyone is an exemplary follower. Other explanations might be that the scales need recalibrating or different descriptors need to be imagined, or it may be that a whole new followership typology needs to be devised and tested for policing. This will be discussed in the final chapter.

There is a value in revisiting the individual responses to questions 11_1 to 11_20. Collectively they are far more positive in value, explaining the skewed result against Kelley's normal distribution described in chapter two. 85% of responses were positive where followers described their own followership abilities, with only 12% negative. The missing 3% was the mean value of 'don't know' and 'not applicable' responses. Amongst these overwhelming positive responses, some stand out and may explain both the skewed result and suggest an explanation why Kelley's typology may be inappropriate for policing. The two variables involving being a problem solver and working unsupervised were the most prominent. This could be explained by the reality of police

officers enjoying greater power and discretion than most professions, especially at lower ranks. Weaker results were returned on variables where followers needed to challenge leaders, question leadership decisions or operate according to their own ethical judgements. Another explanation might be the hierarchical nature of policing and cultural norms preventing challenge to leadership, discussed further in chapter seven.

Interpretation of LMX7 Result

As Northouse (2010, p. 166) points out, "LMX7 is most commonly used by researchers to explore theoretical questions". It can however be equally revealing as a self-administered measure of participants' own relationships with their line manager, as used here. As well as contributing towards the overall questionnaire content, and thus the EFA solution, LMX7 also produces simple outputs which provided original data describing the quality of relationships for the current sample. In order to achieve the most accurate responses, participants answering "not applicable"/"don't know" for any questions were excluded as this would have rendered their responses inaccurate according to the LMX7 self-assessment scale. There were still five hundred and fifty-eight unaffected, valid responses. The results appear in figure 13 below.

LMX7 QUALITY OF LEADER / FOLLOWER RELATIONSHIP

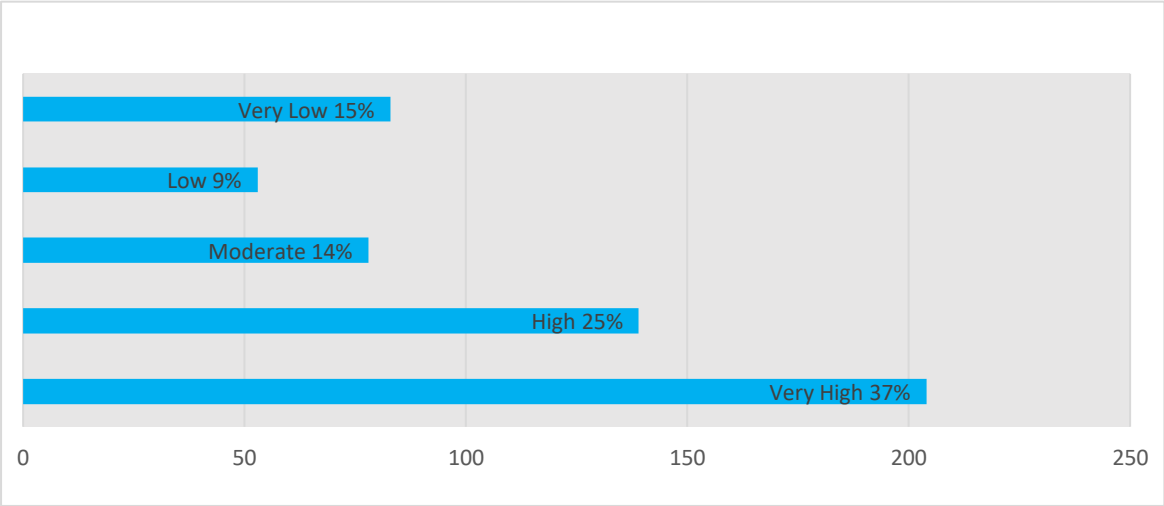

Figure 13 LMX7 Result

KEY to LMX7 Result:

Minimum total score (to the 7 LMX questions) =7 (7 x 1 point)
Maximum total score (to the 7 LMX questions) =35 (7 x 5 points)
Relationship quality: Very High 30-35 (n=204)
Relationship quality: High 25-29 (n=139)
Relationship quality: Moderate 20-24 (n=78)
Relationship quality: Low 15-19 (n=53)
Relationship quality: Very Low 7-14 (n=8)
n.b. Excludes "don't know/not applicable" responses, n=95. Total response n=558

The results of LMX7 indicate generally productive relationships between leaders and followers with 25% of respondents describing the quality of their relationships with their line manager as 'high', and 37% describing it as 'very high'. 14% describe their relationships as moderate, with 9% describing their relationships as low and 15% very low respectively. For the purpose of the interviews, these figures were approximated to 70% good and 30% bad relationships. These approximations and this terminology were deemed easier to relate to for participants by the researcher following a pilot interview. Research sub-question two asked whether LMX Theory lent itself to policing. This can only be partially answered by statistical means, hence the need for a mixed-method approach. Of particular significance is why a substantial 38% minority could not describe the quality of their relationships as "good" or "very good". Numerous possible explanations for this are provided in the qualitative chapters and conclusion which follow.

Analysis of the LMX result was not conducted to differentiate between relationships at different levels of organisations by rank. Various issues precluded this. Due to the format of the data received and the fact first line managers were not always of one immediate rank higher, some officers were managed by staff and vice versa and the use of anonymised data preventing further analysis of missing data about rank, such analysis could not have been considered reliable. Analysis of how the leader follower relationship might change according to relative positions in the organisation and whether any lessons could be learnt from the results could be an area for future research. The concept of leadership distance introduced in chapter two was revisited in

chapters five, seven and eight. Interpretation of the LMX result was offered by interviewees in chapter eight.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the quantitative findings of research method one, embodied in the initial iteration of the Ideal Follower Leader theoretical framework. This new theoretical framework sits at the heart of the thesis and will be developed by the qualitative data which followers. Five research sub-questions, evolving from the literature review and theory chapters, were deemed most suitable to be answered using quantitative methods. Research method one, the questionnaire, was designed as a suitable vehicle through which answers could be sought to these questions. The remainder of the research sub-questions, found on p. 124, were answered using research method two, analysis of qualitative data from question eighteen of the questionnaire and interview data.

There is a synergy between transformational leadership and followership principles, as shown by factors common to both theories which emerged as the most significant from the EFA such as: developing followers' strengths, motivating and mentoring followers, considering their feelings and taking a genuine interest in them. Many of the components of the Ideal Follower Leadership model are grounded in transformational leadership theory, indicating its continued relevance to policing. Of the emergent leadership styles identified by the Leadership Review (2015), servant leadership resonated most with the Ideal Follower Leadership model, for example, the description of the servant leader as an enabler concurs with the heading 'Developmental Leaders'. Likewise, descriptions of servant leaders using less control and shifting authority to followers correlates with the desirable outcome of 'Empowered Trusted Followers'.

The component questionnaires provided useful insights in their own right. The skewed result of Kelley's followership questionnaire suggests either the method of self-appraisal was flawed or Kelley's typology is not appropriate for the policing context. The 70% (good) versus 30% (poor) split in relationship quality between leaders and followers was

generally regarded to be accurate by interview participants. Interview data in chapter eight included suggestions the 'good' figure could be exaggerated because many of those relationship were yet untested. The 70% (good) versus 30% (poor) split in line manager leadership experienced by followers was generally regarded to be accurate. Participant interpretations of this result in chapter eight included explanations why the line manager leadership measured by this study should be expected to be more highly regarded than more distant leadership. This supported findings from literature and theory in chapters one and two regarding leadership distance.

It is appreciated that:

> "The production of a model to depict complex social relationships is inevitably reductionist" … [because] … "The police working environment … is a fragmented and contested space characterised by tension and opposition … leadership is not a coherent or static experience but an emergent, fluid, discursive and negotiated process" (Davis, 2018, p. 10).

Whilst acknowledging this type of criticism, the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework undeniably makes an original contribution to knowledge in defining optimal leader follower relationships for UK policing. However, the model needs to be enhanced with the addition of qualitative data in order to translate the quantitative findings into the complex environment that is contemporary policing. This will be done through the combined expertise of practitioners and academics, expressed in the qualitative chapters five to eight which follow, with the final hybrid version of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework emerging in chapter eight, figure 14.

Chapter Five: The leader follower relationship in policing and individual factors affecting it: Research Method Two

Introduction

In the four qualitative chapters which follow, the initial NVIVO thematic structure illustrated in figure 9 in the previous chapter was simplified and refined during the analysis process. This is reflected in the headings of chapters five to eight. The relationship between leaders and followers emerged as the central finding from research method one; forming the core of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework and indeed forming the focal point of the entire thesis. The nature of that relationship is considered in this chapter, along with individual factors effecting the leader follower relationship. The emergence of the Ideal Follower Leadership model as the original contribution to knowledge of this thesis remained faithful to the original research aim; to analyse the leader follower relationship. The concept of wellbeing was highlighted as the single most important consequence of the leader follower relationship and is considered in chapter six. The external and organisational factors which emerged through the coding process in NVIVO were grouped together as contextual factors which effected the leader follower relationship and are presented in chapter seven. Finally leadership, followership and other theoretical themes effecting the leader follower relationship are considered in chapter eight.

In chapters five to eight, in order to ensure participant confidentiality, a naming convention was designed. A key to this convention is provided in the 'Glossary of Abbreviations'. This describes how responses to question eighteen of the questionnaire, the optional freetext response, and those of interview participants were attributed to their makers. Further redacted details of interview participants are provided in appendix nine.

This chapter explores the leader follower relationship in policing. It begins by describing the stereotypical leader follower dynamic and the expectation that leaders should 'have all the answers'. It then examines to what extent upward challenge by followers is

practised and accepted. This introduces the first example of a recurring theme of inconsistency, a 'postcode lottery' phenomenon, revealing variance within and between forces. Symbiotic relationships between leaders and followers are considered, as are the philosophical underpinnings of the leader follower relationship. The differences individual chief constables can make are described. Factors effecting the relationship such as likeability, emotions, and trust are considered alongside examples of exemplary leaders and what makes them exceptional. An analogy between leadership and parenting is considered, before individual factors effecting the leader follower relationship including motivation, personality, the role of emotions, power, reflective practice, decision-making, goodwill, gender and respect are explored.

Leader Follower Factors

Leader follower relationships are central to this study and to the Ideal Follower Leadership model and as such qualitative descriptions of how they were perceived by participants will be presented first. Respondents described how positive leader follower relationships can enable a healthy workplace environment whilst negative relationships can cause detrimental effects to followers' physical and mental wellbeing.

Leader Follower Dynamic

The stereotypical leader follower dynamic in policing is still predominantly militaristic or hierarchical with characteristics of command and control type leadership. Relationships are hierarchical according to very recognisable rank structures where authority is ordinarily not questioned. Rank is necessary to discharge an action imperative, to "get things done" (Davis, 2018, p. 4). The stereotypical police leader is portrayed as an authoritative, forceful, powerful figure, irrespective of individual factors such as personality, personal style or demographics or what approach might be more appropriate to any given situation. Interviewees described the leader follower dynamic in policing using terminology such as this. Clearly, there is an implicit power imbalance which denies or at least limits the role that followers are allowed to play in decision-making or strategy setting.

Interviewees drew a clear correlation that with rank comes the expectation of both omnicompetence and omnipotence, which one sergeant described as:

> … an expectation that leaders have to have an immediate answer to absolutely everything, be it whether it's an operational question or a question of policy, or what strategic direction we should be going in. Sometimes I wish I had said, hang on, let's just look in the book, or even "I don't know, I hadn't thought about that, what do you think?" We build up leaders as supermen, who know everything, who have the right answer to everything, who can sort everything (SGT01).

Such a pressured environment in which leaders are expected to instantly know all the right answers (Grint, 2010a; Grint and Thornton, 2015) is not conducive to the best decision-making (Alison and Crego, 2007). SGT01 observed how the assumption of knowledge through rank can also result in dysfunctional relationships when trying to manage upwards, with the caveat that the default position is that the junior officer would not dare to start a disagreement. Q80 reported the same experience, that challenge was seen by leaders as problematic. This may be a generational or cultural positioning which would become less prevalent as societal expectations change. Such assumptions accompanying rank would certainly diminish if followership principles were accepted into police leadership philosophy:

> Part of the challenge now I think for us in police leadership is we've now got this amalgamation of generation X, Y, Z and millennials in one organisation. The experience we have seen is they are far more open to challenging upwards and questioning why we are doing things. Police culture is struggling to cater for that new breed of individual but actually it's critical to taking us forward and developing the organisation in the future. Those voices are there and we strike a balance between this concept of old and new power (CHIEF02).

This dynamic had been thought through to its logical conclusion by ACADEMIC03 who had studied leader follower relationships in other organisations. They concurred with assertions from CLS literature and followership theory that challenge did not have to

carry aggressive or negative connotations, it could be delivered with a constructive purpose. ACADEMIC06 was asked whether they had witnessed any followers challenging upwards during their fieldwork in police organisations:

> Did I see it? Not really. Even when they were friends with their sergeant who hadn't been promoted very long. The rank was more important than the friendship. I didn't see any leaders ask for feedback or ideas.

The effect of rank and hierarchy on the leader follower relationship is analysed at length in chapter seven. One of the concepts of followership introduced in chapter one was the need for an organisational culture of follower entitlement to offer appropriate challenge on an individual basis (Chaleff, 2003). A variety of responses were received illustrating to what extent it was permitted in different policing organisations:

> It feels very cultural. When you start any disagreement, their world view is you wouldn't dare. Even now with my Inspector I would have to tread carefully. With that managing upwards you have to be very careful (SGT01).

ACADEMIC03 witnessed how restrictive rank was to free speech, reporting on a management training awayday they were facilitating when:

> A sergeant put his hand up and said that's all well and good but if I applied those principles and had that attitude, I would say goodbye to my next promotion. This was about attitudes, behaviours, dissenting upwards.

ACADEMIC07, whilst observing in-force, remarked:

> I think everyone said in the right context they would challenge. Context is the thing, maintaining those dynamics and divisions. In an extreme situation they absolutely would challenge, but there is a whole massive grey area … if leaders were perhaps equipped to work through those situations, having that cognitive

> understanding. When asked when was the last time you did [challenge], they didn't answer. There was a lot of picking your fights, using your voice wisely.

INSP04 introduced a new dynamic, believing that challenge was currently motivated by desperation:

> It's sad that people are pushing back now, not because the culture allows them to, but out of desperation. Others not at that point yet feel scared to say anything because they need to stay in the job.

This reflection on morale, which is revisited in chapters six and eight, suggests the effects of austerity and cuts to staffing are having a deeper impact if followers have no option but to challenge leaders in order to preserve their wellbeing. This may have been recognised politically in August 2019 when 20,000 additional police officers were promised by newly-elected Prime Minister Boris Johnson to replace those cut since 2010 by the then Home Secretary and subsequent Prime Minister Theresa May (Dearden, 2019; COP, 2019).

An international researcher compared how challenge in policing organisations was more common outside the UK:

> Here if there was more collaboration, if some of those walls were broken down, maybe there would be a better chain of communication. Things here are so top down. Things don't go up the chain very well (ACADEMIC06).

This was an interesting comparison made by in academic observer and valuable evidence in support of follower challenge being a healthy organisational trait, one which British police culture currently rarely demonstrates but would benefit from.

Overall, these responses present upward challenge in policing as a rare phenomenon, restricted by unequal power relationships due to rank and cultural norms, with leaders not expecting to invite it and followers wary of using it in case of an adverse short or

long term effect on their careers or wellbeing. This contradicted the Kelley (1992) questionnaire result in the previous chapter where an overwhelming majority of participants classed themselves as exemplary followers, implying challenge was a regular phenomenon. This seems highly unlikely in a culture where challenge is not reported as being the norm. Explanations for this remarkable result were offered in chapter four, with the most feasible reasons being a combination of the exaggeration of questionnaire participants' own contributions with their ability to identify with the 'ideal' or best answers. Participants were therefore likely to have been selective in their choice of responses. Interviewees unanimously concurred that the Kelley result was a vast misrepresentation of the types of follower behaviour they witnessed. They also remarked how the hierarchical nature of police culture was not yet at a point where exemplary followership of the scale reported by questionnaire participants could exist because the level of challenge which is a trademark of exemplary followership, described in chapter two, simply did not take place on the scale suggested by the questionnaire sample. Reaction to the Kelley result is further analysed in chapter eight, which deals with theoretical factors effecting the leader follower relationship.

Interviewees identified witnessing challenge which appeared to be dissent rather than constructive criticism and the challenge witnessed was not welcomed. They suggested how challenge would need to be articulated so that it might be received more positively:

> That's got to start with allowing constructive dissent, where you can turn around at any rank and say, "I don't agree, this is why", and play it out till you reach a conclusion when everyone has a voice (SUPT03).

ACADEMIC03 suggested that culture change across organisations needed to take place to change leadership perceptions of individuals labelled as 'moaners' into followers who may have an important underlying message. This could only be achieved by investing time to encourage them to voice their point in a more constructive manner. The cultural differences between neighbouring forces, including those working in collaboration, was illustrated by a senior officer. This inconsistency introduced a 'postcode lottery' effect which will be reprised several times in subsequent chapters, describing inconsistencies

between forces. In this first example, an assessment was made concerning the extent to which upward challenge was the norm:

> [In our force] they [followers] are quite happy to challenge leaders in appropriate ways. If I compare ourselves to the other force, it's really hierarchical, very old-fashioned, everything has to go up the rank structure, if higher ranking officers don't get told about things they get upset (SUPT01).

Some interviewees were able to offer examples of being trusted and empowered and as a consequence, being capable of offering a more individualised and appropriate response to members of the public. This represented a symbiotic relationship between the public, the organisation and the individual involved. INSP05 reported teams in their department, a call centre and control room environment with teams overwhelmingly comprising police staff being given the freedom and space to use professional judgement, thereby delivering bespoke services, listening to callers, having honest conversations and managing their needs and expectations. That individual, a middle manager, was clearly thriving on a personal level, using the individual agency bestowed on them as a leader to facilitate corporate success, evidenced by performance statistics, whilst simultaneously providing members of the public with a service which met or exceeded their expectations. This leader and the relationship they had cultivated with their team presented to the researcher as an exemplar for leadership and followership. This example of a leader prepared to empower and develop their followers and a team of followers feeling secure and consistently producing welcomed results for customers whilst achieving on personal, team and corporate levels was rare. The potential for better-performing teams as a result of a more follower-centric team dynamic was demonstrable:

> It's noticeable we are different. Our performance outstrips the other four [teams]. I would much rather have the six people in my supervision team making decisions rather than just me, and if I can have six, why don't I have sixty? I'm a firm believer you have to give people a voice. That ties in with organisational and

> procedural justice. So, one of the things I absolutely maintain is we have a team meeting every five weeks (INSP05).

This shared vision resonates with Weick's (2007) vision of followership. Two further principles emerged most strongly when considering this outstanding and rare example of followership in action; the need for both leaders and followers to be confident in their abilities and for followers to be secure in the organisation's support for them, demonstrating a mutual trust between leaders and followers. The concept of trust is revisited later in the chapter. Confidence is a theme running from chapters one and two, through questionnaire responses in chapter four, this chapter and chapters seven and eight. Whilst confidence is an individual factor, it can only manifest itself in an organisation with a culture where staff feel trusted and empowered. Whether this is the case in policing will be examined in this thesis.

Leader Follower Philosophy

Academic and police interviewees alike described leadership as a social construction, an interaction between at least two people. Successful leadership and followership were therefore viewed as functional relationships, not individual traits. Emphasis on individual traits has been the preoccupation of many leadership theories and styles (Northouse, 2010). When considering leader follower interactions through the lens of relationships, some interviewees were uncomfortable with the terminology of leaders and followers, especially when applied to the policing environment, due to the expectation that police officers in particular are required to be autonomous decision makers. They were more comfortable avoiding the terms leader and follower as they were interpreted as labels suggesting rigid roles rather than flexible states. Some preferred to explain the differences between individuals in terms of Foucauldian conceptions of power seen in his later work as an enabler, offering an alternative to the conventional vertical dyadic of leaders having power over followers (McNay, 1994). They also proposed how the inappropriate application of power by a leader can prevent a follower's use of individual agency, as explained by Giddens (2003). Conversely, an appropriate distribution of power, as promoted by the Ideal Follower Leadership model,

can assist individual agency to flourish. Free agency was proposed as an alternative to oppressive levels of leadership. This countered the dominance of conventional leadership structures with a number of interviewees describing situations where they had thrived where a shift in the power dynamic allowed them greater individual agency.

INSP02 identified how some leaders didn't actually lead because they had no-one below them who commit to become their followers. Their only followers are actually of higher rank, people they do not lead, their only support being from above, not below. ACADEMIC04 made the obvious but profound connection that leaders were unable to lead without followers:

> There's a great line I stole from Goleman; if you see yourself as a pacesetter and nobody's following you, you're just out for a walk, you're not leading anything.

Leader Follower Relationships

Findings from chapter four revealed an approximate 70/30 split, in simple terms, of good and bad relationships between followers and their current first line managers. Most interviewees regarded that ratio as unsurprising, with a small minority interpreting that as slightly generous. One interviewee proposed a valid hypothesis around the accuracy of this conclusion, proposing that some of those good relationships had never been strained by a difficult situation:

> Maybe the 70% are only happy because the relationship hasn't been tested? The 30% could have tested the relationship and it failed (ACADEMIC07).

Interviewees discussed rank, role, power and hierarchy as influences in leader follower relationships. One pointed out the crudity of trying to define followers by typologies, suggesting the mechanisms forming leader follower relationships were far more nuanced and complex:

> There's a lot of research to suggest people are more comfortable with their line manager … I might be an exemplary follower of my sergeant but not of the higher ranks, so you can be this and this at the same time, it's a fairly crude mechanism (ACADEMIC02).

A similar phenomenon was found during research into leadership distance in the Probation Service (Fitzgibbon, 2011). Leadership distance, alluded to earlier in the thesis, is defined as:

> Differences in status, rank, authority, social standing and power, which affect the degree of social intimacy and social contact that develops between followers and their leaders (Antonakis and Atwater, 2002, p. 282).

Leadership distance can hinder relationships between leaders and followers:

> I think the immediate line manager has the insight into the life world of the person they are making decisions about. That's a feedback loop which contributes to a fairness in decision making you don't get with the more remote leadership of higher ranks. They become more objective and objectify the ranks below them … assuming that they understand the reasons why people behave, making decisions on those assumptions, and quite often they are wrong (SGT04).

Chief officers did reveal attempts to reduce leadership distance through the use of internal online forums and social media:

> [internal] social media is a way of empowering the because sometimes the people with the answers are the . The answers invariably come from those who are doing it (INSP05).

An example was given of how the tensions (Davis, 2018, p. 3) caused by leadership distance can dissolve former close working relationships. SUPT03 recounted a story about the disabling effect of leadership distance and rank on personal relationships,

when a colleague he was formerly a PC with had openly criticised his decision-making behind his back:

> I said you and I go way back, when you went through your divorce, I sat down with you so I don't know why you can't just pick up the phone and talk to me. He genuinely thought he was coming in [to my office] to get ripped apart.

It was proposed during the first interview that in the best relationships with leaders there was a common denominator of a likeability factor. This was countered by a leadership academic:

> I think we like to think that but in fact some of the most effective leaders have been bastards, Stalin and Hitler; absolutely effective, absolute dogs. In our heads there's a moral compass, but in reality, I've known some very effective people who have been absolute shits, and some very nice people who have not been able to do it (ACADEMIC02).

SUPT01 also refuted the need for a likeability factor, believing competence to be the dominant pre-requisite in the formation of good leader follower relationships:

> Good and bad just doesn't work for me, competent/incompetent does.

ACADEMIC05 introduced a concept of emotional labour:

> I think emotions are a really interesting way of understanding leadership. A leader should see emotional signs. The Hochschild phrase "a managed heart" is very revealing, very rich.

As a development from emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1996), Hochschild's (1979) 'emotional labour' has been well-documented in several critical environments such as nursing and policing (Lumsden and Black, 2018; Van Gelderen, Konijn and Bakker, 2017; Kwak, Mcneeley and Kim, 2018) and is suggested as a better explanation because factors

such as power, control, resistance and fairness come into play to offer a more nuanced explanation of the complexity of socially-contracted relationships between leaders and followers. The same interviewee expressed how emotions could be used as a form of currency when leaders or followers developed a state of awareness allowing them to navigate the complexities of forming meaningful relationships within organisations.

Trust was a recurring theme volunteered by questionnaire respondents in terms of followers often being unable to trust certain leaders. A number of generalisations were made relating to trust diminishing as leadership distance, a concept further discussed in chapter eight, increased, whereby the most senior leaders became the least trusted. Lack of trust in a hierarchical organisation was described as the motivation for bureaucratic processes whereby:

> … decisions are passed up the chain of command because people are not confident or not trusted to make a decision any more (CHIEF03).

This phenomenon was described by Davis (2018, p. 8) as providing "a sense of protection and reassurance, referred to by police officers as 'top cover'". Such a comfort factor would no longer be necessary in the idealistic situation described by (CHIEF02) where followers would feel their professional judgement was completely trusted.

> You've our backing if you're doing things for the right reasons. You don't need your decisions rubber-stamping. It's about developing confidence in everyone's leadership ability (CHIEF02).

In practice, INSP01 alluded to trust as a commodity to be earnt; with trust, agency and power rationed by organisations and leaders allocating them to the followers they felt most deserving of them. This analysis was consistent with LMX Theory; the notion of an in and out group. Related to trust, the concept of personal respect for the leader was prevalent in the leadership theory also considered in chapter two. It was also uppermost in many interviewees' prerequisites of a good leader:

> That respect is because they've engaged with them in a way they understand, because they've been in their shoes (SUPT02).

In some organisations, individuals described as exemplary leaders are so exceptional and rare their names become a synonym for quality leadership as they achieved almost legendary status. This demands questions such as why should such excellence be so unusual and how is leadership allowed to be so inconsistent? Rare senior leaders overcome the phenomenon of leadership distance, considered fully in chapter eight:

> If you look at [ACC], bobbies come up to him, "allright [ACC], how you doing?", it's just noticeable. He speaks in plain language, he does what it says on the tin, he listens to everybody and he doesn't think he's got all the best ideas. He's inviting followership. He empowers you, acknowledges "I didn't think of that, I prefer that option". He will let you run with things rather than impose, because there are different ways to arrive at solutions (SUPT03).

These desirable leadership abilities are all embodied in the Ideal Follower Leadership model, describing an approachable, authentic leader who takes a genuine interest in followers, empowers and trusts them.

An analogy was drawn by ACADEMIC07 introducing a novel comparison between police leadership and parenting, suggesting how police culture suppressed followership by continuing to invest responsibility in leaders rather than followers:

> The very nature of parenting, our whole point is to make ourselves redundant, equipping our children to make the best decisions without us there. In a culture of do as I say, that sense of infantisation in the police force is a real challenge.

This novel perspective and the use of the term 'infantisation' in policing adds value to the argument for the promotion of followership, encapsulating many of the arguments put forward to recommend the implementation of followership theory and principles. Parenting can be adapted to an individual child's needs but only with intense knowledge

of the child. Likewise, leadership style cannot be adapted to follower needs without such knowledge. Even relationships with an immediate line manager may fail to develop sufficiently to allow this to happen, with several interviewees alluding to the challenge in policing being how little time and space is available for these relationships to develop. Leaders also need to appear to behave consistently with all their followers to ensure fairness, but leaders forming closer relationships with certain followers will appear as favouritism with the formation of in and out groups, as suggested by LMX theory (Avolio, 2005; Diaz-Saenz, 2011).

Individual Factors

Good individual communication skills are intrinsic to good leadership. Poor leader communication can be highly damaging to leader follower relationships:

> I do see some leaders who can't even hold a conversation. If people can't talk to you, they won't talk to you, you won't get told what's going on. You won't know the problems. You become that 'Prozac leader' and your legs will get taken from under you (SUPT01).

'Prozac Leadership and the Limits of Positive Thinking' (Collinson, 2012) was the most frequently cited and well-received academic reference in conversations with police officers, featuring in many higher education courses they had attended. Many felt it provided the best summary of the leader follower dynamic in policing, where:

> Leadership encourages leaders to believe their own narratives that everything is going well and discourages followers from raising problems or admitting mistakes (Collinson, 2012, p. 87).

The simple ability to listen and converse, having the 'common touch', is vitally important but not universally recognised or possessed:

> That's the Alvesson and Svenningson [2003] paper, the extra-ordinisation of the mundane. It's remembering the mundane things that is extraordinary and makes your followers respect you. In terms of engaging your workforce there are various papers with statistics, over ninety per cent of the most engaged people said the most important thing was listening (ACADEMIC03).

Again, inconsistency was recognised between leaders' communication skills:

> I would say the main problem we've got is people who are status-conscious, you know imposter syndrome, and they find it very difficult to just have a normal conversation with a PC in a parade room, they're almost autistic. [Named DCC] can walk in anywhere and they go "bloody hell, we've got a DCC here talking to us and the bloody superintendent can't even look us in the eye!" (CHIEF04).

Motivation was recognised as an individual factor common to good leaders and followers. INSP01 proposed that the notion that motivation was a leadership responsibility was a fallacy, suggesting that follower motivation was a stronger force:

> The people who achieve the best, is it because they are led well? With a bad leader Galileo working at Ford might have struggled to get out of bed in the morning. Left to his own devices, he changed the world. I don't know where leadership fits with that. They say the sign of a good leader is when they don't need to be there. The good followers don't need nagging to do stuff.

The cumulative effect of austerity measures over the past decade (Lumsden and Black, 2018) was blamed for damaging individual motivation and quashing the intrinsic motivation required to nurture followership:

> The government have imposed austerity on the public services, people are disillusioned … they have change fatigue … policing is becoming a production line (SUPT03).

However, the best followers manage to rely on their altruistic motivation:

> I think as a follower there will always be policies and procedures you're never going to agree with, but you never lose sight of what you're there for, which is protecting people from harm (SGT03).

Leader personality was an important consideration in forming and maintaining successful relationships with followers. Some leaders were described as undergoing personality changes as they rose rapidly through the ranks, damaging relationships between leaders and followers, even breaking previously close bonds:

> There was a massive change from personable and chatty. We were PC's together. Years later he looked at me and it was as if all that history was gone. He was more interested in his iPad. He can be really nasty. I think he got power pissed. He was always desperate to get promoted. I've been party to nasty shouty emails [from him, saying] … you've let me down (SGT04).

The effect of individual chief constables and how they can influence culture change and performance improvement was noted by followers, showing how despite leadership distance, the chief constable can alter their mindsets:

> I think [goodwill] used to be there but I've seen a change. Probably because the [old] chief constable was a different character, more approachable, everyone thought "I'm working for him". That cascaded down the ranks (PC02).

In another force, morale was recovering following the appointment of a new chief constable:

> The new bloke seems to have a new way of thinking. Refreshing (SGT02).

Referring to the same individual:

> Everybody is seeing them as the new big help to give us some direction (SUPT03).

One member of a force whose leadership strategy had oscillated under successive chief constables with contrasting styles described one chief returning to a 1980's style NPM performance culture to re-engage the workforce. They were succeeded by chief constables with varying approaches. Followers proved themselves perceptive to chief constable styles and personalities:

> The old chief was wet. He didn't really stand for anything. He did a lot of stuff on social media, meeting minority groups, that seemed to be his thing. He wasn't a leader. Nobody knew the direction the force was going in. There was no sense of direction. He wasn't taking us anywhere that looked promising. On the online forum you got very dismissive answers. It didn't instil any confidence he was going to do anything or even cared really. I've met the new one once. He says the right things. He comes across as being quite personable. Seems to take a genuine interest in the individual. Whether he will make a real difference who knows. He's got a sense of humour, that's got to help (INSP06).

Followers were sensitive to the signals conveyed by chief officers. Some chiefs believed occasional forays to the were all that was required to boost morale but such gestures were interpreted quite differently in some forces, often with negative connotations:

> The force is in crisis and strategic leadership is walking around the town centre with a PCSO. Doing what? They're visible, I understand why they want to do it, but is it the top need hierarchically? (SUPT03).

The dearth of applicants for chief constable positions was observed by a number of respondents, compared to a former situation when the cross-pollination of chief officer talent between forces helped to develop more rounded leadership and disseminate good practice:

> The promotion processes are in a mess. You've got the PCC's selecting their own people. Many NPCC ranks are getting one applicant. I think there is a crisis in police leadership in terms of talent. Some have sneaked through the promotion snakes and ladders game. You look at their pathway, they've not done anything. You think "what are you bringing to the national table, what do you stand for?" (CHIEF03).

This 'localism' criticism was echoed by HMICFRS (2019) who made several recommendations regarding chief officer selection processes ranging from inconsistent selection of candidates for the Senior Command Course to a continued lack of diversity in respect of gender and ethnicity amongst the chief officer ranks.

CHIEF04 expressed concerns that police leadership was 'losing its heart', and individual wellbeing was being put at risk as a result:

> You've gotta change the culture … the nice people are not going to make it through. I know really good people who are having nervous breakdowns and they are the kind of people we really want. What's emerging coming up on the rails are the very people we don't want … power-driven, status-conscious … I've got this Harvard Business Review paper by Rasmus Hugard. It's about re-humanising, empathy, compassion, authentic conversations.

ACADEMIC07 was more optimistic that the role of emotions in policing was recognised:

> I think there is a willingness. The rhetoric is there. I think there is more of a recognition of what this type of work does to the individual and the strain of emotional labour over the years.

Either way, the significance of an awareness of the emotional needs of officers was not underestimated by INSP04:

> If leaders don't know enough about their followers, they could send them to jobs which could have a really traumatic effect on their mental health. This could be compounded by the officer who could be terrified to tell them.

Unfortunately not all leaders understood their staff's needs on an emotional level:

> The majority of leaders have been chosen for their operational competence, their ability to manage a job, not their ability to develop people or be on the level with someone to actually illicit information from someone. They will do the welfare thing but in a transactional way, following policy (SGT01).

The Ideal Follower Leadership model considers followers emotional needs through the leadership inputs of taking a genuine interest and considering followers feelings, organisational values of promoting wellbeing, leadership values of being supportive and demonstrating appropriate leadership for the situation.

Power and hierarchy have already been discussed but at an individual level, the cumulative detrimental effect on wellbeing of working in a hierarchical organisation is seldom considered. One of a number of former police officer interviewees who had had time to reflect since leaving the police described it thus:

> I didn't realise until it happened to me, but there was that powerlessness feeling in situations you were going to be moved to do something you didn't want to do. That is a massive life change. It makes some people get massively stressed and go off poorly (SGT04).

The need for reflective practice (Kolb, 1984) emerged as an individual theme:

> If you are being asked to do more with less which is the case, then one of the resources you can have is the ability to be more reflective about your practice (ACADEMIC05).

The benefits of individual innovation were extolled. One chief officer reduced his expectations of followers and his definition of followership to simply becoming innovators through being reflective practitioners:

> Everybody's got two jobs. First is to do their job. Second is to improve it. I don't want people to ask for permission, I just want them to ask for forgiveness if they get something wrong. Failing is a good thing. Everybody knows they've got to be innovative (CHIEF01).

However, police culture and external oversight were offered as blockers to innovation:

> There is massive pressure on chief officers. Whereas you would like to give people autonomy, it is taking a risk if in three to four months' time it doesn't deliver, it bites you. The irony is in times of austerity we need people to be adaptive, the kind of leadership that Heifetz talks about. Embracing complexity by trying to do things in a different way … evolutionary behaviour. This is discouraged (SUPT02)

Heifetz (1984) model of adaptive leadership has some congruence with followership principles, centering around innovative change management requiring commitment from all stakeholders, including followers (Randall and Coakley, 2007).

Simple overload due to demand (Roycroft, 2016) was also described as a blocker to innovation:

> We are just stuck on a treadmill. A lot of officers are really busy, they do what they need to get by, then they go home. It's rare to see someone with a good idea and enough energy to try to do something about it. People are just tired (INSP06).

A questionnaire response suggested little appetite amongst their leadership to encourage follower innovation:

> The managers I have worked for show little or no lateral thinking. It is always "because we do it this way". They seem to struggle to think outside the box and never want to accept or encourage new ideas (Q151).

A paradigm shift may be required before followership and follower innovation is allowed to flourish:

> Austerity, in a traditional neo-liberalistic way … has caused more risk aversion and responsibilisation for individual staff. Not only are officers restricted by corporate structures in place to restrict risk, they are also very aware of it themselves as individuals, so I'm sure their coping strategy is not to try anything new when they are seeing people being sanctioned (ACADEMIC08).

This bleak view was balanced by examples of more optimistic and progressive initiatives introduced by interview and questionnaire responses, reinforcing the differences between forces:

> Bedfordshire have an evidence based policing board where officers present [new ideas]. Kent is having a day about improving diversity of thinking. Devon and Cornwall have a strong evidenced based policing lead (ACADEMIC08).

Another theme to emerge was the growing confidence in and necessity for using the NDM, which was also proposed as a potential facilitator for increased follower autonomy:

> NDM, great tool, used widely. We've tended to be very defensive, applying the logic of smoking gun backwards, which has fettered people's decision making. Sometimes we need to take risk, for the right reasons. We have to enable confidence to make decisions and not to have to keep second guessing this might end up in a tribunal or an inquest (CHIEF02).

Several interviewees noted how, as a result of austerity measures, follower goodwill had declined or disappeared:

> I don't think the goodwill is there as much anymore. People are just worn out if I'm honest, hard done to for a number of years. People don't want overtime any more. I'm hearing people saying now it's just a job. People don't mind coming in to deal with a prisoner rather than bouncing from job to job to job and risking injury. Because there's less of you, you know sometimes there's no backup when you're single crewed. People are now saying "I'm not going, I'm not putting myself at risk" (PC02).

Leadership, Followership, Gender and Race

Gender and race are the final individual factors considered in relation to leadership and followership. Thirty five per cent of the qualitative question respondents from the questionnaire and 23% of the police officer interviewees were female, slightly under-representative of the national gender balance in policing where females currently constitute 29% of the police officer population (Home Office, 2017). The sample in the current study generally reported little detriment to their career experiences due to their gender, reinforcing the optimistic outlook at the turn of the century that despite literature describing cultural change in policing to be ponderous (Jones and Newburn, 2002):

> There have been a number of welcome changes in equal opportunities policy and substantial inroads made to advance the integration of women into policing (Silvestri, 2003, p. 171).

Affirmation of this was provided by a female superintendent who joined in that era:

> I've been incredibly lucky as I have had a fabulous career and I've never considered my gender to be an issue going forward or sideways, whatever I've wanted to do. I think part of that is that I have had some exceptional female

> leaders. My mentor is an amazing female leader, nobody has a bad word to say about her which is a really interesting dynamic, everybody rates her and thinks she is amazing, and she is certainly not what you would consider to be a normal command leader; she is very calm, quietly spoken, collected, quite nervous in terms of public speaking, normal, and that makes a difference. Being a good leader isn't about gender, it's about personal style (SUPT01).

This was a pertinent conclusion, this leader was described as breaking the macho (Westmarland, 2001) mould of being bullish and domineering, certainly presenting a very different persona, yet her style was met with universal acclaim. Femininity was discussed as a concept, concerning to what extent some female leaders still overcompensated to adopt more stereotypically masculine traits such as aggression and competitiveness (Silvestri, 2005) in their leadership style. The same superintendent called for a re-evaluation of whether certain traits should continue to be assigned on a gender basis or whether the service had sufficiently evolved around gender equality to actually be overtly critical of such overcompensation. She advocated a cultural shift, believing the time was right to revisit Silvestri's (2005) conclusion that:

> The police service in England and Wales remains deeply affected by gender at structural, cultural and individual levels and the values of police leadership remain impervious to change. The theory and practice of gender neutrality adopted by the police organisation continues to cover up and obscure the underlying gendered substructure, allowing practices that perpetuate it to continue … There remains a resolute and unchanging perception of women as unsuitable leaders in policing (Silvestri, 2005, p. 278).

ACADEMIC06 shared the opinion of SUPT01 that the service was ready to test the concept of gender neutrality by judging leaders on leadership quality rather than adherence to gender stereotypes:

> The female [chief officer] in [xxxxxxxx force] was overcompensating, she masculinised herself in a perverse way, not productive or constructive. My

> argument is to challenge the boundaries of masculinity. You could teach those [so called 'feminine'] attributes to males. I've met fantastic male and female leaders. It's about leadership skills, not gender (ACADEMIC06).

ACADEMIC03 observed how the behaviours of some early female leaders in other male-dominated, hierarchical organisations mirrored more stereotypically 'male' traits of aggression and assertiveness, but noted how that had changed in recent years:

> Having spent time with, interviewed and observed women leaders, some of the best leaders, such as the new commandant of Sandhurst, are feminine.

Silvestri (2007; 2015; 2018) has continued to document improvements in working practices which have allowed increases in recruitment of female officers and to a lesser extent, promotion opportunities. Despite the landmark appointment of Cressida Dick as the first woman Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police in April 2017 and other women achieving top positions in police and criminal justice organisations, promotion opportunities are still biased towards "White men" (Silvestri, 2018, p. 310). This is explained by the problem of the "Heroic Male" (Silvestri, 2018, p. 313). Building on Acker's (1990; 1992) theory of gendered organisations, Silvestri distils processes by which women are marginalised away from promotion "through the construction of images, symbols, and ideologies in the workplace that legitimise masculinity" (Silvestri, 2018, p. 314).

There are clear parallels between Silvestri's work and CLS recognition of the stultifying effect of white male heroic leadership in perpetuating leader-centric leadership systems (Collinson and Tourish, 2015). Silvestri (2018) makes an alarming recognition that despite improved recruitment of women, numbers of women leaders, even allowing for the high profile exceptions and role models previously alluded to, have actually peaked and are now in decline since publication of her 2003 monograph. This trend is attributed to gender being understood to be one of a number of 'inequality regimes' (Acker, 2012) in operation in policing. This thesis will argue that being a follower is another example of an 'inequality regime', providing examples from new empirical data of phenomena

suffered by followers such as 'follower fear', 'subjugated knowledge', 'blame culture' and 'toxic leadership' which will be presented in the remaining data chapters. The intense challenges encountered by women in policing to gain leadership influence provide lessons to rank and file followers if they too are to strive for cultural change and a different distribution of power and control.

A senior female officer nearing retirement summarised her perspective on how gender issues in policing had evolved, or in some cases, stagnated:

> There was no female role model who was a mum getting promoted whilst managing her career. There was nobody to aspire to (INSP06).

This interviewee was a proponent of more female officers reaching the most senior ranks, believing her gender had prevented her reaching her full potential of Detective Superintendent. She did not believe this to be discrimination against females at an institutional level, more about the influence of informal social networks:

> We had a female chief officer on the promotion boards, but she has her little cliques that she is supporting, two of whom are women, but it's still not fair because she mentors them so how can she sit on their boards? Although it may end up with more women getting promoted it's still not fair. The ones that make it pull the ladder up after themselves (INSP06).

She suggested few female officers in her experience found the perfect balance between femininity and credibility, although one female line manager stood out for her:

> As a role model she really did strike the balance. She had a girly side to her but all the blokes in the CID office, all the old sweats, they were old style CID, but they really looked up to her which was quite unusual. She definitely changed the atmosphere in the office. She didn't command respect, she just earned it, she didn't need the rank. I was really upset if I hadn't done something for her, I desperately wanted to please her. The blokes did too, it wasn't just me looking

> up to her as a woman. She was very honest, very much herself. She had the right skills as an investigator. We knew what she wanted of us. There was no misunderstanding about what she expected and you wanted to deliver for her (INSP06).

This answer suggested that in rare cases gender-neutrality could be achieved and that what was memorable was a style which simply earnt respect irrespective of gender. This leader portrayed other elements of the final version of the Ideal Follower Leadership model revealed in chapter eight; she was authentic, natural, operational, developed good internal communications and delivered a clarity of purpose. This resulted in engendering a desire amongst her followers to go above and beyond to please her, to be committed to achieve, also components of the model.

Despite 23% of the interviewees and 35% of questionnaire respondents being female, relatively few respondents complained of adverse experiences due to being female. This may be because contemporary gender discrimination is far more nuanced, such as the wellbeing agenda developing around a masculine culture, emphasising 'manly' (Silvestri, 2003; Westmarland, 2001) constructs of mental health issues such as Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) whilst largely ignoring female mental health issues such as post-natal depression and menopause. Childcare was also constructed as a female issue with organisations putting up structural and cultural barriers around part-time and flexible working. Part-time officers and staff were stereotypically branded 'part-able' by a predominantly male leadership. A returning police officer mother recounted being put into a meaningless sinecure when she returned to work because she wanted the flexibility to breast feed. She now regretted coming back too early following childbirth but felt compelled to in order to be taken seriously in her career. She also reflected that for the same reason she consciously adopted a different persona; more masculine, domineering, forceful. Representing other female officers on staff associations, she witnessed discrimination around selection processes. She did however relate experiences of working for two female bosses who were role models. The latter was a direct entry superintendent who rejected male cultural norms making it very clear she would not be working before 0930 or after 1530 on days when she had childcare

responsibilities. Such parameters, demanded due to childcare issues by a senior female leader, sent a powerful message through the organisation around fairness and promotion of wellbeing, also elements of the Ideal Follower Leadership model.

There is a relevance to this study in reconsidering whether women practice leadership and followership differently. Silvestri (2007) did relate transformational leadership, a relatively new concept at the time, to requiring more 'feminist practice' (Bartlett, 1990) through the demonstration of "core feminist values and goals … mutuality, interdependence, inclusion, cooperation, nurturance, support, self-determination and empowerment" (Silvestri, 2007, p. 42). With the further shift from the transformational leadership style towards shared, participatory, servant or collaborative leadership which may be in progress today, such feminist values could be more valuable than ever in transforming police leadership and would be conducive to accommodating an increased presence of followership principles. The initial Ideal Follower Leadership model from chapter four did feature similar values to these described as 'feminist practice' above. Empowerment is a common term. Enabling and motivating are synonymous with support. Taking a genuine interest and mentoring are forms of nurturance. Good team players are interdependent and co-operative. Energetic followers are self-determining their futures and fulfilled followers are self-determining their job satisfaction and achievement. There are multiple parallels.

What may be different from 2007 is that austerity policing has taken its toll on the police service in terms of individual welfare. If senior female officers in Silvestri's (2007) study were berated by their male colleagues for procrastination because they favoured a more collaborative approach in an era "symbolized by aggressive, competitive and performance traits" (Silvestri, 2007, p. 49), twelve years later there may be a perceptible change. This is demonstrated in the following chapter in the published evidence provided by a prominent Chief Constable on the wellbeing agenda. This shift could mark an opportunity to revisit the value of 'feminist practice' being implemented by police leaders irrespective of gender in order to progress towards a more follower-centric leadership style as advocated by this Chief Constable and indeed, by the findings of this thesis. Silvestri (2007) concludes that whilst the challenges to women in changing police

cultural attitudes towards the role of women and women leaders in particular, a greater obstacle is the organisation's attachment to rank and hierarchy. Findings from this study would concur. Rank and other organisational themes will be considered in chapters seven and eight.

Six percent of the interview sample were from Black and Minority Ethnic (BAME) backgrounds, representative of the national picture, but no interviewees discussed a direct link between their ethnicity and their treatment as followers or leaders. This is not fully representative of the historic national picture in policing which has been blighted by serious allegations of racist behaviour and racial discrimination within policing organisations (Holdaway, 2009). Some of these undesirable issues may not have been experienced by the BAME officers in this sample. The majority were from a force which had been one of the earliest adopters of the Black Police Association (BPA). As a consequence, that force may have been more enlightened and less tolerant of any racial abuse or discrimination. The influence of ethnicity, along with other individual characteristics such as sexuality or religious belief in leadership and followership, are areas which did not emerge as significant themes in the current dataset. They could be fertile areas for future research.

Chapter Summary

The leader follower dynamic perpetuates the stereotype of the heroic, omnicompetent, omnipotent leader. This could result in dysfunctional relationships in a clash of cultures between old power relationships between leaders and followers as new generations of followers join with different expectations. Variations in the extent to which upward challenge is exercised between forces suggested a 'postcode lottery' effect. In certain situations such as firearms command, followership was seen to be flourishing in a phase which might be considered to be post-transformational leadership. In this inversion of the balance of power in mainstream policing, power is invested in the follower to lead, mentor and develop the leader due to his or her specialist expertise. In most other situations, challenge to leadership was not the norm, but the potential for the type of followership seen in the arena of firearms policing was akin to the descriptions of the

optimal leader follower relationship described in the Ideal Follower Leadership model. The expectation of omnicompetence, that leaders always know what to do, a type of superman syndrome, meant that they sometimes felt pressure to make snap decisions where the situation did not demand it. Procrastination was viewed as demonstrating weakness. This situation was culturally ingrained through a homogeneous promotion system expecting all leaders to lead in a similar way. Acceptance of a more diverse range of leadership personalities might begin to break down such cultural stereotypes.

Successful leadership relies on functional relationships with followers, it cannot be delivered solely through the exercise of individual leadership traits. Leaders need followers, otherwise they are not leading, and leaders need to know their staff well enough to adapt their leadership style to match follower type. Followers benefit from the ability to exercise individual agency. This cannot happen when power is disproportionately distributed. Improved communication skills on the part of both leaders and followers are essential in forging good leader follower relationships. This would facilitate honesty, everyone knowing where they stood, and invite the trademark upward challenge of exemplary followership. It would also allow the meaningful conversations required to talk about issues such as mental health wellbeing.

Trust and empowerment are key to facilitating professional judgement at all levels: Perceptions existed of mutual distrust between leaders and followers due to the 'leadership distance' phenomenon. It was rare for leaders to be singled out as being exceptional. A handful of leaders were proposed by followers as exemplary: approachable, plain-speaking, good listeners who know their staff as individuals and do not profess to have the monopoly on good ideas. The role of emotions in leadership and followership was recognised but not yet fully developed. It was recognised that individuals at chief officer level could have a huge impact on the ethos of a force. This was not an appeal from followers for more heroic leaders, it reinforced how much power and influence a chief constable could exert over a force and how inconsistent leadership styles could be at this level. The vocabulary of followership did not fit well with some participants who preferred to describe leader follower relationships in terms of power

and individual agency, or lack of it. For them use of the terms leader and follower implied followers were inferior and passive.

The next chapter considers the second predominant theme to emerge from this study, the effect of the leader follower relationship on wellbeing.

Chapter Six: Wellbeing outcomes from the leader follower relationship: Research Method Two

Introduction

The welfare of staff in any organisation is a core leadership responsibility but the wellbeing agenda in policing has grown exponentially in response to the detrimental effects of austerity measures in the current decade. This makes the focus on wellbeing which emerged in this thesis relevant to contemporary policing research. The prominence of wellbeing to this thesis was not part of the initial research design, it evolved due to the sheer volume and weight of evidence that the leader follower relationship had a fundamental effect on wellbeing. Supported by original qualitative data, the chapter begins with an overview of the wellbeing agenda, including consideration of concepts and metrics. One such metric, the concept of discretionary effort, is introduced, as is the new notion of 'prehabilitation' to emerge from this study, a concept which proposes how to develop a more resilient workforce. The detrimental effect of ever-increasing demand on the service and individuals is discussed, before considering some positive initiatives designed to promote wellbeing. Some of the cultural and organisational difficulties facing the wellbeing agenda such as stigmatisation, geography, shift work, matrix management, 'paying lip service' and cynicism are discussed. Further evidence of the 'postcode lottery', introduced in the previous chapter around challenging upwards, is presented, this time suggesting inconsistent leadership commitment and provision around wellbeing within and between forces. The chapter concludes with a reflection on the relationship between leadership, followership and wellbeing, followed by a chapter summary.

Wellbeing Overview

Wellbeing can be considered from a psychological, physiological, sociological or financial perspective, with the three main tenets effecting wellbeing identified as the organisational environment, dealt with in chapter seven, leadership, dealt with in chapter eight, and personal resilience (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018). Hesketh and Cooper

(2018) advocate a collective leadership style, also described as shared, collaborative or servant leadership elsewhere in this thesis, to complement followership as the two key areas to facilitate wellbeing. They do warn however a synthesis of collective leadership and followership principles would require a shift from a solely command and control leadership approach, a paradigm change for some forces and individual leaders. Such a leadership style is underpinned by ethics, openness, honesty and trust, all features of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework to emerge from this thesis. Hesketh and Cooper (2018) emphasise the importance of the first line manager in creating this leadership environment, a concept which informed the methodological approach in research method one, by concentrating participant responses solely on the relationship between followers and first line managers.

Wellbeing has historically been suppressed in a male-dominated macho policing culture where talk of emotions and mental health was rare. Wellbeing has experienced a resurgence as a reaction to the effect on police officers and staff caused by a decade of austerity policing. Wellbeing is now being demanded by those within the service as part of their expectations demanding system level fairness or procedural justice (Bradford, Quinton, Myhill and Porter, 2014; Walumba, Hartnell and Oke, 2010; Roberts and Herrington, 2013). Procedural justice is defined as "the way individuals make judgements about fairness and outcomes when considering their interactions with others" (Roberts and Herrington, 2013, p. 115). Internally within organisations, it influences "staff attitudes, staff retention, workplace relations, productivity and performance" (Roberts and Herrington, 2013, p. 115). Staff expectations around wellbeing are indicative of the impact followership can have. Similar follower pressure, through recognition of the demands made on leaders by followers in a model such as Ideal Follower Leadership, would inevitably improve relationships between leaders and followers and further enhance the prominence of the wellbeing agenda. Legal precedent on the duty of care police officers owe the public is well documented in law (The National Archives, 2017) but because policing is not yet fully accredited as a profession, despite a myriad of internal health and safety guidance within police operations, no codified duty of care for mental wellbeing is apparent. Such guidance could be a natural result of follower demands should police culture adapt to incorporate followership

theory, empowering followers and acceding to their reasonable wellbeing demands. The findings of this chapter make a contribution towards the development of guidance on wellbeing provision, providing data to point out where it is currently lacking.

In their meta-analysis of literature of leadership styles in policing, Roberts and Herrington (2013) summarised processes for promotion and specialist postings, transparent decision-making rationales around disciplinary procedures and commitment to the wellbeing agenda as the three main areas leadership must accomplish in order to promote procedural justice. They acknowledge that whilst these aims sound straightforward, the often fragmented structures of policing organisations, where individuals can feel isolated, can make communicating messages about procedural justice problematic, and "workplaces are still characterised by organisationally unjust practices" (Roberts and Herrington, 2013, p. 127). Walumba *et al.* (2010, p. 520) propose the development of a "procedural justice climate" in organisations, ensuring internal processes are ethical, moral, consistently applied and influenced by employees. Like Hesketh and Cooper (2018), they suggest that servant leadership was particularly well-suited to the development of such a climate. This thesis will go on to suggest the important part a greater application of followership theory could play in improving procedural justice and consequently wellbeing in the policing workplace.

Interviewees were divided over whether wellbeing is genuinely a top priority or a tick-box exercise to satisfy HMICFRS inspection and whether it should be a top down policy-led, bottom-up follower-led, or hybrid initiative. Academic research (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018) unpacks how when people are absent from work or under-productive, the causes will be a combination of psychological, physiological, sociological or financial aspects. The early focus of force responses focussed on physical fitness, healthy eating, diet and exercise, but provision in some forces has developed to deal more holistically with complex individual wellbeing needs (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018).

Interviewees shared what wellbeing meant to them, whether it felt like a genuine initiative and to what extent leadership had 'bought into' wellbeing in their own forces.

This was reflected in the range of viewpoints revealed. CHIEF01 bemoaned the emergence of wellbeing as a 'trendy' new concept, pointing out that authentic leaders have always had it at the top of their agenda. ACADEMIC04 felt police wellbeing provision was in danger of adopting a one-size-fits-all tick-box bureaucratic approach, describing the wellbeing agenda as being full of contradictions:

> … a phrase that's turning into a method that's turning into a system. It's lacking emotional intelligence, authenticity. We are burning our cops out now like never before yet we are talking about protecting their wellbeing.

There is a certain irony here as wellbeing literature places emotional intelligence and authenticity solidly at the heart of its agenda. ACADEMIC04's reaction is understandable though, considering the piecemeal adoption of the wellbeing initiatives across England and Wales, with some forces lagging far behind the leading forces in their wellbeing provision. Other interviewees feared the wellbeing agenda might follow other forms of compliance measuring by HMICFRS, distorting the actual value of wellbeing interventions:

> I would hate to see league tables. There is something about the police mentality, comparing with others. It would be better to compare with Marks and Spencer's or MacDonald's or against the working population database (SUPT05).

From their perspective, INSP02 acknowledged the wellbeing agenda was growing, but this did not appear to be reducing sickness rates, rather it was having the opposite effect by promoting greater awareness of a broader range of issues affecting being present at work, such as mental health, without forces possessing the resources to satisfy the growing demand for such support.

The way wellbeing support is delivered in more forward-thinking forces has evolved from top-down strategies towards more follower-led or peer-support processes. Wellbeing provision is delivered through schemes described in interviews such as 'blue light champions', 'mental health champions' and 'mindfulness champions'. This

situation has arisen after pioneering forces observed how official force wellbeing interventions were often met with distrust and cynicism. To become instilled in the culture of an organisation, wellbeing provision must be entrenched rather than imposed and promoted by the right, empowered people (CHIEF01). Empowerment of followers is central to the Ideal Follower Leadership model, and the chief in question offering this advice was an advocate of cultural change around wellbeing being achieved by viral change (Yost, McLellan, Ecker, Chang, Hereford, Roenick, Town and Winberg, 2011), taking place between peers, from the bottom-up. Practical examples of Viral Change Theory in policing are provided in chapter eight. Viral change was a deliberate methodological choice for the force involved, designed to deliver change around wellbeing in an authentic way, with commitment to the wellbeing agenda demonstrated throughout the rank structure, not just the chief officer. This was illustrated by INSP03 through the concept of "The Cultural Web" (Johnson, Scholes and Whittington, 2008), a tool used to map the culture of an organisation which analyses its heuristics, routines, and power structures, in other words describing "the way things are done around here" (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018, p. 26). INSP03 explained how, referring to the cultural web, despite working in a leading force for the improvement of wellbeing provision, not all leaders are committed to wellbeing and that was hindering progress:

> At the top you have signs and rituals. At the bottom you have controls and procedures and processes. What we've got in [chief constable] is a very powerful symbol of wellbeing, and that just makes people feel better because they know he's honest, he genuinely cares. Because of that there is a positive leadership influence. But we're still missing the nuts and bolts of wellbeing. It's just come out in our staff survey, saying our supervision is appalling, and nobody manages them. That's a massive [negative] wellbeing indicator.

A leading force for the wellbeing agenda are harnessing the power of followership to recruit the type of volunteer "champions" described above from the PC rank. The initiative was influenced by person-centred theory (Rogers, 2003), a humanistic approach which recognises how people possess their own solutions but do not know how to access them. The role of the champions was to facilitate those suffering from

poor wellbeing to find their own solutions and build resilience. To promote this, once a quarter, every operational member of staff has a debrief with a trained PC. There was a recognition that the practicalities of wellbeing provision were superficial compared to addressing fundamental failings such as poor leadership:

> The staff survey had said people were stressed because of the way they were being treated by leaders. They had different strands to make sure their bodies were healthy, yoga etc, but they didn't address the root cause such as issues like leadership (SGT04).

Wellbeing Concepts

A number of concepts around wellbeing were introduced by interviewees, including discretionary effort, organisational motivations for promoting wellbeing, prehabilitation, psychological support and the effect of demand and leadership styles on wellbeing.

Discretionary effort (Hesketh, 2017) is defined as the percentage of work effort an individual is capable of producing on a repeatable daily basis compared to the minimum percentage of work they can 'get away' with, a type of 'psychological contract' between the individual and the organisation. The degree of discretionary effort produced is directly related to and an indicator of an individual's wellbeing levels. Harnessing this motivation is clearly appealing to policing organisations in a time of austerity policing and producing more with less staff. Leadership is paramount in improving discretionary effort. SUPT05 explained discretionary effort in the following terms:

> What percentage would you expect somebody to work? Some would say 100%, flog them to death, but if you look at operations management literature, 80% is a sustainable coping zone. It gives the ability for some flex without leading to burnout. Too low can cause boredom. Policing is quite discretionary in nature so if people want to fly under the radar, to get away with it people only have to work about 30%. That leaves 50% in the middle which becomes voluntary. Then

> factors such as motivation, enrichment, being well-led, personal resilience, challenge, feeling part of a team, doing good, having a calling, vocation come into play. What the majority of that 50% is delivered through is a good leader who keeps you actively engaged.

One of the most striking examples of discretionary effort was witnessed from the special constabulary, cited as an example of how followership, if nurtured, can engender incredible commitment to an organisation. Following the London Bridge Bombing (BBC, 2017), STAFF01 recounted how 60% of City of London specials, unprovoked, put themselves on duty.

CHIEF02 introduced a new concept of 'prehabilitation' as an aspirational outcome of the wellbeing agenda; a preventative alternative to breaking people and rehabilitating them simply to return to work as a slightly more damaged individual. Under prehabilitation, they explained how a leader should be able to recognise a wellbeing need. The concept emerged following an occupational health review which revealed how by the time officers and staff reached that stage they were beyond the point of rehabilitation. Through prehabilitation, easier and more timely access was secured to the services of psychologists and counsellors as individuals became aware of their own psychological needs. As a result of this and CPD training increased use has been made of post-incident debriefs, diffusion techniques and PTSD. Consequently, a growing awareness of techniques to develop resilience has begun to produce evidence of prehabilitation working, encouraging the concept. Conversely, the relationship between wellbeing and demand was painted in bleak terms:

> Demand keeps coming up. The staff we have clearly can't cope with the workload, how are we going to make things better? (SUPT05).

INSP04 reflected on how demand damaged their wellbeing to an intolerable point, forcing their resignation:

> I was very thorough as a DI running that many jobs, very much isolated. I was told I was a safe pair of hands, just crack on and do it. The problem was [my first force] had a big job of the day now and then. The next day you would be doing actions. In [my second force] there was a big job of the day every day, no time to sort out yesterday's big job. I couldn't let it go. We were never given the resources to box a job off. I would say I was completely overwhelmed.

There is of course no simple answer to the problem of demand. Change has to come in order to cope and this thesis argues that followership would contribute to mitigating that demand. As a prominent Chief Constable to the wellbeing agenda concluded in his reflections summarised at the end of this chapter in Hesketh and Cooper (2018), once an organisation places the needs of individuals at the centre of cultural change "you can't go back to top-down autocracy" (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018, p. 81). In a similar way, followership would require a radical change of leadership philosophy, moving away from a reliance on leader-centric processes, but followership like wellbeing could become an inevitable consequence of changes in the volume and changing type of demand in policing. The Chief Constable writing in (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018, p. 81) saw the sense of opportunity in radically challenging police leadership philosophy. The below quote would apply to the benefits of mainstreaming followership just as much as it does to his experience in foregrounding wellbeing:

> When you are actively engaging with people to understand what makes them tick, the prize is worth the effort … not only can you be more efficient by cutting out waste, but you will unlock difference and innovation as well as reduce risk"

Harnessing the power of different thinkers and innovation are two concepts considered in the following chapter.

Positive Developments in the Wellbeing Agenda

Interviewees pointed out a number of positive aspects of the wellbeing agenda. These included the high profile it had attained during a short time frame and the quality of outputs for forces produced by the COP and other organisations.

Numerous parties in policing are committed to delivering the wellbeing agenda. These include the Home Office, OPCC, HMIC, The Superintendent's Association, The Federation, Unison and charities such as The Police Dependants' Trust and the Police Foundation. The Blue Light Framework arose in 2017 following risk management assessments concerning officer wellbeing. It provides advice on leadership, absence management, creating a healthier work environment, protecting mental health and personal resilience. It includes a dashboard assessment of a force's wellbeing provision. HMIC inspections now feature leadership requirements and priorities around processes for consultation, communication plans, policies and procedures, whistleblowing and managing discipline.

One force stood out as demonstrating best practice around wellbeing. They operated a wellbeing hotline staffed by peer volunteers, based on academic research evidence around the preventative value of peer support networks to mental health wellbeing. In a personal initiative, a volunteer colleague obtained a small grant to set up sanctuary rooms around the force. There was a good uptake in their usage because this was seen as a peer or follower-led initiative rather than a leadership dictat. Another force used social media for wellbeing support:

> Twenty years ago, cops would diffuse in a police club. Now we might not be lucky enough to have that 'magic [diffusing] chair' at home. Things like WhatsApp have become our new social support (INSP05).

SGT01 confirmed the raised priority of the wellbeing agenda in their force. Arguably they had not experienced the previous wave of peer support in the police club described above, or the support of an 'old-school' sergeant, but in their single-figure length of

service there had been a resurgence in supervisory welfare inputs. They reported improvements in supervisors' consideration of their welfare and described easier access to a referral process around mental health. They attributed their team's awareness of mental health issues as being due to their young average age. There could of course be a degree of ageism implied to police culture here, if older colleagues were reluctant to express that they were suffering with anxiety for fear of repercussions such as threats to their pensions through early retirement or reduction to their promotion prospects.

> I know a lot about my team's mental health whereas in the past supervisors wouldn't have a clue. I have quarterly meetings with my staff. I definitely listen to them. I remember what it was like for me as a PC. My sergeant didn't know what was going on. If they did, they could have done more (SGT01).

At the most senior levels, the wellbeing agenda has also fundamentally changed leader approaches:

> I've watched [chief constable] change from a kind of benevolent autocrat if we're honest to somebody who is far more supportive, quite a massive change in him personally (ACADEMIC09).

Negative Aspects of the Wellbeing Agenda

Negative perceptions of the wellbeing agenda include the difficulties of leading remotely, hindrance stressors such as matrix management and the strains caused by multiple competing demands, staggered shifts, silo working and single-crewing. Some regarded their forces were merely paying lip service to wellbeing. Others described wellbeing provision not reaching the right people at the right times and reported continued stigmatisation of mental health sufferers.

ACADEMIC07 returned to the concept of police occupational culture as a hindrance to the wellbeing agenda through stigmatisation of mental health issues:

> This ideal type of police officer and ideal type of leader has a real attachment to heroism and how much that acts a barrier to asking for help. It's seen as weakness that you need help, and that you as an individual haven't coped, rather than the nature of the work or structures need to change. It's not about the external, it's very much positioned within the individual. This notion of resilience is potentially quite problematic. There's still a lot of stigmatisation around followers seeking support for wellbeing and mental health issues.

INSP04 agreed:

> Wellbeing has gone backwards. Even if chief officers say things are better, if people talk about their mental health the outcomes are significant and damaging.

The fragmented geographic nature of police forces where individuals with wellbeing needs are isolated from their line manager by time and distance presents a difficulty to supervisors, but one which must be overcome. It was not considered an onerous supervisory task to remember to make a follow-up phone call following an adverse incident but the significance of actions such as this to the individual involved was described by INSP05 as what really mattered. Shiftwork was another barrier to receiving the right support at the right time. SGT04 described how wellbeing events in their force were held at force headquarters during office hours, excluding the people who probably needed it most; isolated officers working in remote areas with insufficient back up. The fractured structures of resource management were described as causing isolation and alienation for individuals with wellbeing needs. Matrix management was described as a situation when there is no clear consistent line manager, with individuals having numerous managers making conflicting demands on their time, causing duplication and frustration:

> In the three years I have worked for the police I have had eight different line managers responsible for my personal development and welfare as well as five different direct report managers for service delivery (Q001).

Examples were offered of teams becoming fragmented with staggered shifts reducing the sense of support provided by the camaraderie of a more substantial team. Attempts to get time off were managed by remote resource teams without knowledge of individual welfare needs. Being unable to achieve sufficient breaks from work was detrimental to wellbeing. Single crewing, with officers working alone, was blamed for a loss of confidence, efficiency and reduction in wellbeing:

> When you were double crewed, you could cope with anything (DC01).

Individual wellbeing suffers through inconsistent leadership quality, reinforcing the 'postcode lottery' which exists within and between forces. SUPT04 described a member of police staff suffering from depression and anxiety in a pressurised role. A more suitable role was found for her. After just three weeks their new sergeant referred her back to him, with a recommendation she should be managed out of the police. It was clear to the superintendent the sergeant was just trying to move the 'problem' or he didn't know how to deal with this officer.

There was a consensus amongst interviewees from a range of ranks and police staff that much of the wellbeing agenda was paying lip service to inspection criteria and missing the real point:

> About twenty people were assigned to wellbeing but it was spurious physical and mental health ideas like sell health bars in the canteen not chocolate. What people needed to hear was we've increased staff, provided the right kit, given them time and space to be proactive and trained our control room staff to protect our officers with good intelligence and safety advice (SUPT06).

The management of wellbeing-related sickness presents a dilemna for leaders. Power imbalances in a hierarchical organisation such as a police force provide leaders dealing with sickness with added options over leaders in other working environments. SUPT03 described that where officers who purport to be sick are feigning illness, their colleagues covering for their shortfall are genuinely going sick due to their increased workload.

Draconian measures such as holding up two or three fraudulent cases as examples were proposed by fellow officers as a way to bring everybody else into line. Disillusioned officers had confided in them that part of their disenfranchising process was seeing these people getting away with it rather than being held to account by leadership. They were asking for tough leadership but the difficulty for leaders is balancing the needs of the majority who want to see appropriate interventions when sickness is feigned against demonstrating empathy in genuine cases of mental health sickness.

Finally, there was a perception of 'nothing works' surrounding the wellbeing agenda, that there was an overwhelming malaise and the service was in denial over a vicious circle around demand, risk and resourcing:

> We have this wilful passive ignorance to things like demand and mental health. Bosses say they are coping with it, we say no they're not … staff are expected to make more difficult decisions with higher risk ramifications, all of this playing on their personal resilience, answering more calls with less resources and new areas of demand (INSP03).

Relationship between Leadership, Followership and Wellbeing

Most wellbeing cases discussed by interviewees featured leadership to some extent:

> Having set up a mental health support network, I didn't meet anybody whose mental illness wasn't caused by a bad relationship with a senior person (SUPT04).

This finding is supported by soon to be published academic research based on evidence gathered from multiple forces:

> We've seen a movement away from command and control style to one which is far more supportive … lots of forces are bringing in a supportive leadership style to drive innovation and improve wellbeing. Our major finding is that the command and control style is declining longitudinally now in most forces, not all

> sadly. We've seen a small improvement in discretionary effort. This can only be created by a supportive leadership style rather than an authoritarian one (ACADEMIC09).

The detrimental effect of poor leadership on a follower was graphically described by a practitioner:

> My previous line manager was invisible, impossible to contact, took no interest in one's development or aspirations and passed off the work I did as their own. They were also devoid of integrity; playing "games" in order to advance their own position to the expense of everyone else. I watched this individual destroy a colleague. My colleague was living through some hugely testing times in his private life and I was able to support them as best as I was able. The line manager had no interest whatsoever. I would add that this isn't limited to the individual I have described; many others are the same (Q063).

Lack of leadership is attributed to changes in follower behaviour. SUPT03 argued in times of low morale as currently experienced, a leader's responsibility was to get the most out of the available staff: 'switching them on'. With the wrong leader follower relationship, there was a danger in 'turning them off'. A fellow superintendent summarised the intrinsic relationship between wellbeing and leadership, followership and wellbeing:

> … what people are struggling with is … the way they are led … that's where I would link [wellbeing and] leadership (SUPT05).

ACADEMIC09 summarised their findings whilst researching leadership styles in policing by relating one of the primary impacts of leadership style to follower wellbeing:

> Authoritarian leaders almost put people into survival mode and that spills over into home life, whereas supportive leaders generate this kind of flourishing optimism, improving wellbeing.

At this point it is appropriate to return to the Police Minister's 2021 goal for wellbeing announced in 2018 and critiqued in chapter one. Data from this chapter would suggest there is still much work to be done to achieve the targets set. Through both quantitative and qualitative evidence, it is apparent that not every member of the service feels their welfare is actively supported. Reservations remain that not every force has embedded an authentic wellbeing culture and examples have been provided where adequate provision is available for the most deserving individuals at the appropriate times. As poor wellbeing manifests itself in both physical and mental illness, the full range of care is not provided in all forces. In terms of the relationship between leaders, followers and the effect on their wellbeing, individuals are currently neither able to realise their potential, achieve resilience nor make their fullest contribution. Ideal Follower Leadership indicates how leader follower relationships could be improved and what this would mean to leadership inputs and follower outcomes.

Chapter Summary

The new data to emerge from this chapter provided a reality check for the state of wellbeing provision in forces today. A degree of cynicism exists around the 're-invention' of wellbeing and how the profile has been raised, with some participants claiming good leaders have always dealt with the wellbeing of their followers. Others described the wellbeing agenda as a tick box exercise with demand for support outstripping capacity, resulting in many individuals failing to receive the support they require. A disparity between forces concerning wellbeing provision was revealed, another example of a 'postcode lottery'. The most well established have a combination of top down directives and bottom up follower or peer-led initiatives, combining to form a genuine ethos of wellbeing throughout the organisation. Investment in adequate wellbeing provision could bring both individual benefits and increased productivity for the organisation. Excessive demand emerged as the single most significant injurious factor to wellbeing. Leaders were described as being in denial about a growing inability to cope at institutional and personal levels as resources diminish and management of risk becomes more pervasive. Organisational development interventions were proposed as a way to alleviate demand by improving the efficiency of the way workstreams are organised.

Groundbreaking work on wellbeing is being performed by individuals and organisations. Academic research into the effect of leadership style on wellbeing is also being undertaken. Soon to be published articles discussed with academic participants revealed a longitudinal decline in authoritarian command and control style in most, but not all, forces, to be replaced by more supportive styles. Stress induced by poor leadership is a recurring theme. Issues such as lack of approachability and taking no interest in a follower's personal development whilst prioritising their own self-advancement were raised. The mental health wellbeing agenda has gained prominence with increasing awareness of mental health issues, although stigmatisation of those suffering from mental health issues was still reported as part of police occupational culture, deterring some individuals from seeking the help they require. Participants suggested that 'prehabilitation', developing resilience to stress, should be the focus rather than rehabilitation, seeking a cure.

A Chief Constable published a valuable case study around his experience of implementing a wellbeing culture in Hesketh and Cooper (2018). Reflecting on his advice and experience provides practical insight and reinforces some of the concepts around wellbeing to emerge from this study. Recognising policework as 'high emotional labour', wellbeing and systems thinking were introduced into his force as a dual-pronged attack to counter the effects of austerity. The logic behind such an approach was that: "systems thinking won't land without cultural shift and wellbeing won't land unless you address the systemic flaws" (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018, p. 78). An online engagement forum inviting views on wellbeing in this force revealed the greatest stressor for individuals to be the remnants of an NPM-influenced performance culture. This was quickly revoked. Leadership processes were changed to reflect a central feature of Ideal Follower Leadership; approachability. They also consciously sought promotion candidates with authenticity, emotional intelligence and compassion, represented by 'consider feelings' in the Ideal Follower Leadership model. The wellbeing strategy was implemented through a network of 'wellbeing ambassadors' who benefitted from a small financial investment, returning improvements in employees' emotional and psychological safety, reducing absenteeism and improving discretionary effort, representing great value for money compared to the millions of pounds spent on physical health and safety annually

by the force. As a result of radical cultural change, this Chief Constable was now witnessing staff who were “thriving and no longer just surviving” (Hesketh and Cooper, 2018, p. 81).

This case study and evidence from the current study show how wellbeing can be improved by employing organisational development principles and changing corporate practice, not simply focussing on the commitment and skills of individual leaders. The introduction of greater followership would succeed by taking a similar course. It is apparent there is much work to be done in forces represented by participants in this study in order to develop the relationship between leaders and followers, in turn improving wellbeing. This is an area where the Ideal Follower Leadership model could make a positive practical contribution in forces. There are perceptions of tokenism and box-ticking around wellbeing provision and it sometimes misses those in most need; , geographically remote shift workers. Discrepancies in terms of the quality of wellbeing provision is another example of the ‘postcode lottery’ evidenced within and between forces and there is a correlation between poor leadership and poor wellbeing.

Positive indicators around the wellbeing agenda included evidence of some senior officers demonstrating genuine concern over wellbeing. A genuine ethos of promoting wellbeing must run throughout all policing organisations. It is not sufficient to ‘do’ wellbeing simply to pass the scrutiny of an HMICFRS inspection. More meaningful wellbeing metrics are available, for example the measurement of discretionary effort.
Research into wellbeing in policing, including the impact of leadership styles, is expanding rapidly and overall, evidence of a more supportive leadership style and promotion of procedural justice is emerging as the national picture.

Chapter Seven: Organisational factors affecting the leader follower relationship: Research Method Two

Introduction

This chapter presents data and discussion around the organisational factors which inform the leader follower relationship in policing. Organisational factors emerged as by far the most significant body of evidence. These include change management, organisational development, police culture, blame versus learning culture and the quality of internal communications. Other themes to emerge include the detrimental effect of the imperative to achieve promotion. Hierarchy and rank are recognised as highly significant factors informing the leader follower relationship, including the effect of rank on decision-making, innovation and skills versus rank-based leadership. A number of negative organisational factors raised by participants are included. The chapter goes on to consider the organisational context of policing; expressed in terms of different thinkers, bureaucracy and systems thinking. The postcode lottery theme returns in the context of to what extent innovation was permitted in participants' organisations. To conclude the chapter, these wide-ranging organisational themes are discussed and summarised in terms of the leader follower relationship.

Organisational Factors

Organisational factors were the most common of all the themes to emerge by a considerable margin which respondents believed had an effect on leader follower relationships. This section provides an overview of what those factors are. Employing a Bourdieusian perspective, utilising his interlinked framework derived from his passion for sport, comprising of 'Capital, Habitus and Field' (Harker, Mahar and Wilkes, 1990), is beneficial to understanding organisational factors which provide an anthropology of policing. Such a conceptual approach has been applied to policing by Chan (1996) and to other public sector industries such as healthcare (Collyer, Willis, Franklin, Harley and Short, 2015), nursing (Morberg, Lagerström and Dellve, 2012), criminal justice (Ugwudike, 2017) and teaching (Alshareefy, 2018). The unique contribution of this

study, the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, relates well to Bourdieusian concepts.

The first of Bourdieu's concepts of organisations is 'Capital'. 'Capital' can be understood in an economic, social or cultural sense (Ugwudike, 2017), the latter two being particularly relevant to an understanding of the leader follower relationship in policing. Social capital refers to possessing an effective network of colleagues and external contacts (Collyer *et al.,* 2015). In the Ideal Follower Leadership model, this equates to the 'establish links' component of 'Dynamic Leaders'. Social capital could apply in policing to possession of rank, but also to other influence such as possession of expertise, such as that of a Tactical Advisor, discussed later in the chapter as skills versus rank-based leadership. Cultural capital refers to the effect of socialisation whereby individuals learn cultural competencies, the 'know how' to survive in an organisation such as policing and learning how to acquire privilege and power (Collyer *et al.,* 2015). Cultural capital could be exchanged from leaders to followers by 'Developmental Leaders' in the Ideal Follower Leadership model. 'Habitus' equates to habituation, explained in Bourdieu's sporting analogy, especially from his passion for Rugby, as understanding and developing a 'feel' for the laws of the game, until they become instinctive and normalised (Lenoir, 2006). 'Field' is the social space in which agents perform, such as academia, healthcare or indeed policing. In institutions within such sectors, 'Field' describes the networks or relationships between people where power is distributed. In the Ideal Follower Leadership model, 'energetic' and 'fulfilled' followers learn to become astute at negotiating the 'field' in which they work.

Such links between elements of the Ideal Leader Follower model and Bourdieu's framework of capital, habitus and field demonstrate the utility of the new theoretical framework to emerge from this research. As the Ideal Follower Leadership model was enhanced by expert opinion during research method two, Bourdieusian concepts of capital, habitus and field were reflected through organisational, leadership and theoretical factors which are captured in full in the final version of the model revealed in figure 14. CHIEF02 was passionate about achieving cultural change in their force, in Bourdieusian terms (Harker, Mahar and Wilkes, 1990), influencing the 'cultural capital'

of his organisation. He was talking about embracing followership, without being aware of the theory:

> We've reset the organisational principals … make a difference, do the right thing and shape the future. Like Chaleff's [followership] model we are actively trying to encourage people to take that responsibility for themselves, play their part in the organisation and fulfil their potential. We've got to recognise though we're trying to undo almost two hundred years of police culture which says, "this is the way it's done". We did a survey once and I'll never forget one comment: "it's really easy being an officer in this force, I simply do the checklist, I don't need to think for myself" We are trying to turn on its head our approach to change which has always been top down to that balance between top down bottom up; set the context but then give people the opportunity to influence that change, instead of presenting a *fait accompli*.

<u>Culture</u>

Police culture, considered in chapter one, has proven a popular topic for academic research (Reiner, 2010; Cockcroft, 2014; Loftus, 2009). Culture was mentioned by most participants, often as a blocker to innovation:

> You have to use the culture, you can't fight it. Leadership is driven and built by social contexts (INSP03).

A culture of institutional risk aversion, or 'Habitus' in Bourdieusian terms, was blamed as an adverse factor in developing followership traits such as innovation and challenge, due to the absence of requisite levels of trust between leaders and followers to allow increased follower responsibility. The risky nature of police work and the consequences of failure were starkly portrayed by ACADEMIC07:

> This is about fear of failure. When police fail, people can die. In most other industries the baseline is failure … that's not an option in policing.

Many subthemes emerged around culture, ranging from blame, poor internal communications, gender imbalance, follower fear, discretion, unethical leadership practice, PDR and yes men. Cultural differences between and within organisations suggested the operation of a 'postcode lottery', confirming culture was neither homogeneous nor monolithic amongst forces (Paoline, 2003). This resulted in the perpetuation of the forty-three fiefdoms (Savage, Charman and Cope, 2000) of forces, dysfunctional processes and incompatible IT systems, creating barriers to efficient policing on a national scale.

Blame versus Learning Culture

Many interviewees considered the tension between the established blame or scapegoat culture in policing organisations versus an emergent learning or just culture. Evidence was presented of improvements instigated by changes in Professional Standard Department (PSD) philosophy and increased individual confidence in justifying decisions by documenting rationale, using the NDM. Black Box Thinking (Syed, 2015), already considered in chapter two and revisited in the following chapter, has become established in the psyche of most UK chief officers and Syed has given numerous presentations to police audiences. His premise of developing a learning rather than a blame culture was inspired by military aviation, and this was acknowledged by interviewees, with a proviso around why despite the intentions of chief officers, the police service was not quite ready for such a radical cultural shift:

> In the USAF if you make a mistake you've got twenty-four hours to report it. If you don't and they find out, then you're in deep trouble. So, all those systems are encouraging people to be open about mistakes. [In policing] the top are fully in favour of the 'just culture' stuff and the bottom are interested in it but there is something in the middle that stops it. There are some sticky superintendents who are not interested in that discretionary black box type thinking, what they are interested in is you doing as you are told and not screwing up and not screwing my career up (ACADEMIC02).

Another academic who had studied followership in other public sector organisations elaborated further, emphasising the importance of understanding the difference between honest mistakes and intended actions, something police culture historically has not always been reconciled to:

> You might not have had the right training; the process might be wrong. Sometimes you can't predict what is going to happen. That frustrates many people because there has to be someone to blame or a technical fault (ACADEMIC03).

Policing is a similar no compromise industry to aviation where lives can be at stake if mistakes are made and those making mistakes can be deemed to be personally liable. Policing may be considered to be culturally several years behind the aviation industry but the appeal of more open and honest discourses between leaders and followers resonated with the police leaders interviewed. One chief officer revealed their senior leadership team were committed to admitting their fallibility, replacing a culture where senior officers felt unable to admit mistakes. They admitted however this culture was not permeating through the organisation, blame culture still prevailed and there was a clash of new thinking versus old (CHIEF02).

Blame manifested itself in different ways, ranging from individuals blaming senior management to the organisation looking for individual scapegoats following an adverse incident. Blame was viewed as a transactional process aligned to rank; where people used rank politically; backing away from responsibility as a leader in difficult situations and hiding behind hierarchy, reverting to being a follower to avoid blame. Respondents talked about a culture of 'ass-covering', however a chief officer contextualised this, confirming:

> If you're doing the right thing for the right reasons you don't have to cover your arse because it is automatically covered (CHIEF03).

Blame culture and fear of retribution for mistakes were blamed for stifling decision-making and follower discretion:

> We keep on designing processes which alienate the workforce, don't argue, just do it, removal of discretion, box ticking, compliance checking. Sergeants are spending all their time chasing up bureaucratic forms. Decisions are passed up the chain of command because people are not confident or not trusted to make a decision any more (CHIEF03).

PSD has already been alluded to as the department which can determine whether members of a force perceive it to have a learning or a blame culture:

> When [former head of PSD] was in there it was very much a blame culture. He was a very competent investigator but a very bad manager. No emotional intelligence. A bully if he didn't like you. I saw that in a couple of cases when he was all about nailing them to the cross, disproportionate to what had happened. The culture has very much changed now, more about learning the lessons (INSP06).

Investing such power in the wrong individual, who is normally an officer of superintendent rank, can radically change the culture of an entire force. If not acting ethically, that individual would be highly detrimental to the wellbeing of officers. A member of another force confirmed the evolution of the PSD function into a more progressive one where good practice was recognised and disseminated following a change of leadership:

> We've had a new head of PSD in the last year who has really changed the way they work. It's not all about blame and punishment, it's more about where is the good work? (SUPT01).

Different Thinkers

The culture of an organisation can enable or discourage diversity of thought. Historically, police forces were not viewed as a fertile ground for different thinkers. ACADEMIC04 had looked outside policing to discover what more forward thinking private sector companies do to harness the power of different thinkers, particularly those who may not have a voice because they do not possess rank in a culture which values opinions based on rank rather than intellectual appeal. This situation can thwart follower contributions. The challenge for policing was how to harness the intellectual ability of followers:

> I asked an influential boss at Google what they do. He said twice a year we bring in all the dysfunctional thinkers, all the people who are rubbing the organisation up the wrong way, and we milk them for every idea they have, and that's how we stay ahead of the game. We say we want that but I'm not sure we do it. If we really wanted it, we would do it. If we really wanted it, we would have different thinking forces.

Retaining an insular approach with everyone thinking in a unilateral way was no longer considered a satisfactory option in tackling the diverse range of the contemporary policing role. SGT04 considered himself to be a different thinker, but described how this had actually disadvantaged his career progression:

> After the first ten years, if you were spotted demonstrating thinking outside the box, you would be put in one of these funny little teams like citizen focus, I would tend to get picked for that kind of stuff. That was fine, but what happens then is if others see someone like me as a threat rather than an asset.

The ability of an individual to think differently might set them out as a notable leader or follower. Different thinkers exist in policing but not always overtly and they are not always integrated into organisational culture.

> These people exist, we've got lots in this organisation. Some are scared to talk out. Some talk out and get reprimanded then don't bother. Some get reprimanded but carry on. They get labelled as moaners or difficult people and are therefore discounted (SGT01).

When a different thinker also possesses the skill to articulate their difference, it can be impressive. ACADEMIC04 noticed a rare talent on a senior leadership training course he facilitated:

> He made connections I could never see. He was able to work his way through things like a chess game. He would talk about competing legitimate realities, he knew where everyone was coming from, all legitimate, but talked through the competing demands this made on policing.

CHIEF02 was open to reshaping the workforce, insisting different thinkers at all ranks would be essential to face new challenges to policing:

> We need to ensure that diversity of thought and difference within the organisation because that is the only way we can keep pace with changes in society and the challenges we're facing … designing a workforce with the capacity and capability to face changing challenges to policing … a different set of skills which may not be necessarily warranted police officer skills.

SGT04 resigned after academic study made him think differently. He expressed a sense of relief and speculated on the adverse effect remaining would have had on his mental wellbeing:

> I was starting to challenge some of the working practices based on what I was reading. Very quickly I became marginalised, invitations tailed off. Others undertaking higher education had similar experiences. That taught me something about the organisation. It reinforced my view I was different, I didn't really fit there anymore. If there hadn't been that perceived difference between

> me and the organisation, I would probably still be there, stuck in a mediocrity situation, I would have got to thirty years but with some regrets and some damage.

The lack of diversity of thought, where the ability for both command and control and strategic thinking was mutually exclusive for some leaders, was attributed to traditional promotion processes:

> I think we have fundamental problems. The first two ranks are operational command and control. That is the pool you draw from for Chief Inspector where the work becomes more strategic, till Supt level where you are in strategy land. We have this belief that tactical ranks provide the best basis for strategic ones. We are hamstrung by this model because it doesn't allow us to pull in the gifted people strategically. You have to pull these through because they would offer some real diversity at strategic level (INSP03).

If a different thinker makes their mark in an organisation, they may, for worthy or notorious reasons, earn the 'maverick' label. Leaders described as mavericks were celebrated by some interviewees who bemoaned the fact that many leaders appeared devoid of personality. CHIEF01 embraced the maverick label. They insisted it should not be confused with that of a hero, but when questioned they did emphasise that confidence and achievement was essential. Specifically, they explained the need to have:

> A completely solid bedrock of top performance. First thing you've got to do is run a really high performing force. Then you can have an opinion. Second you have to be predisposed to innovation. I like to change things, I like things to be fresh, I like us to constantly move things, but balancing that with it mustn't be change for change sake. I'm passionate and I'm angry about the world, because I joined policing to fight injustice. My personal opinion is that mavericks [in policing] are still subjugated. I'm a little more outspoken than some of my colleagues.

So rare was this 'maverick' label, this officer was cited independently by ACADEMIC04 as an exceptional example of leadership:

> He has personality, he takes risks, that's not a negative comment, it's a really positive comment. He looks at things and says, "why can't we do that?" All the time he pushes the boundaries. He's a very switched on character. I think a good leader needs to be able to think, behave and feel. It's a simple thing. They need to be a really good cognitive thinker. Their behaviours need to demonstrate what they want to see in others, and they need to emotionally engage with people, be able to take people with them.

With minimal opportunities to radically innovate in policing, 'maverick' leadership was considered unlikely, especially at chief officer rank, described as "senior administrators in any large bureaucracy" (Reiner, 1992, p. 247). INSP01 agreed, relating their argument back to how leaders' learned behaviours around their use of individual agency and acquisition of power:

> Mavericks are revolutionaries and leaders because they are using their individual agency. In the current career structure, what capacity is there for leaders to practice maverick agency because they have learnt the conformist rules of the game, how power works?

In order for followership to flourish in policing, opportunities must be created for followers labelled as 'mavericks' and 'different thinkers' to contribute to strategic planning and decision-making to value and capture their unique and valuable contributions.

Organisational Processes

Organisational Development

Organisational Development (OD) was introduced in chapter one as being intrinsic to the wellbeing agenda. OD was mentioned by a number of interviewees. SUPT04 described it as still being a fledgling academic discipline developed in the 1950's as an offshoot of systems thinking which considers the culture of organisations and explains how this effects people's behaviour. This description is confirmed by Kondalkar (2009). When trying to tease out how followership might establish itself in policing organisations in terms of OD, from a chief officer who was a proponent of OD, the following practical advice was received:

> The best thing you could do for me about followership is not talk about it. If you went around talking to sergeants saying what you want to do is followership, it would be the kiss of death (CHIEF04).

Another devotee of OD, INSP03, described the strains of introducing OD methodology rather than conventional project management in a policing culture, likening it at times to guerrilla warfare, until they realised how to retrospectively give the organisation additional products it clung to in terms of conventional outputs such as gantt charts and graphs. Working with the organisation as opposed to against it, whilst actually employing more contemporary change methods such as viral change (Grant and Grant, 2016; Yost *et al.,* 2011) and nudge theory (Thaler and Sunstein, 2009; Kosters and Van der Heijden, 2015) proved to be a pragmatic compromise. The use of such techniques and the consequent results achieved drew considerable praise from OD consultants working with the force.

Systems Thinking

Systems thinking (Guilfoyle, 2013; Dietz and Mink, 2005) was proposed by some interviewees as an antidote to inefficient processes previously described as detrimental to follower wellbeing, and a means of developing greater followership in organisations:

> With systems thinking the methodology is you want to use the people nearest to the work to check, plan, design. Systems thinking has a really good emphasis

> on followership. Most people in senior posts in an organisation don't realise how the work gets done (CHIEF04).

An example of the use of systems thinking was offered when a force introduced a new Personal Development Review (PDR) system through viral change, achieving widespread voluntary buy-in. This provided a powerful example of the potential of followership in successful change management:

> With bringing in CPD for everybody, each person has a CPD log. The whole point is they write down their learning themselves. The log is used for selection for promotion or development. It's a mini-crowbar in the culture change toolbox. I know it's working because we have just reviewed the Inspectors promotion applications and all of them have functioning CPD logs, 90% have recorded proper mistakes made. Senior staff couldn't believe they were writing this stuff down. That's a big change (INSP03).

This was compared by the same interviewee to conventional change management in policing using a novel analogy to describe policing as not really doing organisational development and not really changing anything:

> I know we manage a lot of change in policing calling it change management but really, it's just re-arranging the deckchairs.

Such innovation, putting the onus on followers to develop themselves rather than being 'spotted' and 'groomed' by leaders, contrasts with conventional CPD systems, which can leave followers disillusioned. Such dysfunctional annual appraisal systems were frequently referred to as an indicator of a cultural failing between leaders and followers. PDR was described as largely having fallen into disrepute in most forces, becoming a meaningless annual ritual of no significance for the individual or the organisation. One of the more progressive forces in terms of recognition of followership had developed a more meaningful replacement system:

> We've scrapped PDR, it's been undervalued for years. We've brought in a process where we put the onus on leaders and followers to have regular conversations, it's been accepted better than this annual 'dipping' process where you have to be scored which was really adding no value to the organisation (CHIEF02).

Again, this was evidence of the force promoting followership by empowering staff to take responsibility for their own personal and career development, such follower self-development appearing as a follower outcome in the Ideal Follower Leadership model.

Internal Communications

The quality of internal communications was described by participants as a measure of the quality of relationships between leaders and followers. Wide discrepancies existed between forces in how well they communicated internally. Hierarchical pyramid structures prevented regular communications with colleagues other than those of the same or one or two ranks higher or lower, causing gulfs in knowledge and understanding of the roles and challenges of more distant ranks. Functional silos existed between departmental and geographical divisions. Various platforms, commonly known as force derivatives of 'Ask The Chief' (Davis, 2018), were designed to reduce this leadership distance for followers. It became apparent that some of the disjoint between leaders and followers was because of different knowledge bases, causing misunderstanding and tension:

> I've seen a couple of instances where I thought if you had asked the right people you wouldn't have had to cause all this hoo haa. As you get higher up you get to know more about what's going on. There is that disconnect of information sharing, knowing the bigger picture, the strategic side of things (SUPT01).

Promotion

Promotion of people 'in their own image' was identified in a questionnaire response.

It was offered as an explanation for the inevitable progression of certain individuals to positions beyond their ability:

> There are excellent leaders whose skills and attributes are obvious to everyone and generate enthusiasm and motivation quite readily. There are others who don't have these skills and attributes but are nevertheless promoted into leadership roles and often to very senior levels. At best they do not get the most out of followers and peers and at worst, they demotivate people and damage the organisation. Everyone knows who they are, but our selection processes are not robust enough to stop their trajectory. Perhaps some leaders promote in their own image and therefore this issue self-perpetuates (Q152).

INSP03 offered a similar hypothesis:

> … looking at diversity of thought, not background, they will pick who they think is best and we know from all the studies, best looks like you, so you end up with a load of people reproducing themselves.

Perpetuation of a particular style of leader based on traits, characteristics and behaviours (Antonakis, 2011) will only produce one type of leader and deny different thinkers and diversity generally (Grint, 2005a) as members of the 'out-crowd', in LMX terminology, experience frustration, demotivation and disengagement, becoming in Kelley's (1992) terms, alienated followers.

Promotion Imperative

Relentless pursuit of promotion, emerging as a 'promotion imperative', was proposed as an unethical motivator, far removed from the desire to serve the public:

> Chief Inspectors, sometimes Inspectors, and above have a different set of priorities around making their own career look shiny by hitting promotion objectives. Everyone below it is just a delivery system for promotion. That's

> where the disconnect is. We need Chief Inspectors and above to understand it's not just all about their career. The only reason people on the promotion trial want success is because failure could affect their promotion prospects. Those below want success because they joined to do the job properly for the public (INSP02).

The theme of some officers being focused on the 'promotion trail' was reprised by a questionnaire respondent, articulating the transparency of leadership ambition and the damage this can cause to followers in their wake, especially when police staff are managed by ambitious police officers:

> Some police officer managers on the 'promotion trail' can be put in charge of a department for a relatively short period of time, to 'make their mark' before moving onto their next promotion, or an alternative role which is beneficial to their CV. It can feel as if us police staff are sometimes at the mercy of these transient and ambitious police officer managers who have their own personal career agendas and utilise our efforts to achieve their goals. This can have a negative effect on the relationship between police staff and police officers (Q30).

<u>Hierarchy and Rank</u>

Interviewees discussed the effect of working in a hierarchical organisation, mostly in negative terms. Excessive deference to rank was a commonly noted phenomenon, as was a 'vacuum' effect at middle management level where communications became blurred, resulting in followers feeling their concerns went unrepresented. The possibility of skills vs rank-based decision-making was discussed.

PC02 began with a mixed picture of the extent to which follower input is encouraged:

> Generally, PC's don't lead things. There is the odd intricacy like tacads [tactical advisors] that jumps out but mostly you just do your job, you're not encouraged to question things or be a leader. I think we're stuck in the dark ages of hierarchy.

> The police are stuck in a time warp, it's not moving forward, it's not bringing on people or dragging out the leadership skills at all different levels. This hierarchical organisation, maybe subconsciously, says you can't say that, you can't question that because he's a sergeant or an Inspector.

The same respondent had experienced far more unfettered communications when working in the private sector, a good illustration that rank in policing can be problematic:

> We've got to have hierarchy in the police service, but I don't think we have to be as archaic as we are, and I certainly don't think we have to be barking orders at people any more. I think those days have gone and we should be engaging people more. You can still have your rank, your privileges, but less formal.

Whilst engaged in research across different ranks, ACADEMIC06 observed how as rank increased to senior leadership team level:

> … there was a lot of talking about themselves, not about how other people had helped them. There was less regard for other people the higher you got.

Rank carries authority not only in terms of command and control but also intellectually, even if the idea from a person of rank was not necessarily the best idea. This alludes to the concept of skills versus rank-based decision-making discussed below:

> It's a huge challenge to overcome not to see the rank before the person and the extent to which that acts as a lens. Rank gives things a credibility. I've heard of a PC coming up with an idea which fails, but when you drop the rank off it flies. What counts as a good idea depends on what rank you are (ACADEMIC07).

A summary of the effect of rank was offered by the two questionnaire responses from different forces which follow. The former illustrated Davis's (2018, p. 8) finding that " … the structure and authority of rank are used as a resource in leadership 'to get things done', such as the 'pulling' of rank":

> The majority of leadership is still dictatorial and relies heavily on protection from the rank structure. Many leaders who try to appear as though they are open to discussion and debate will ultimately resort to 'pulling rank' if they don't achieve the buy-in they want. Even forces who attempt to 'empower' their staff and 'listen' to views and ideas from all ranks fail because the culture, structure and processes do not allow for this (Q123).

The latter described how the rank structure and promotion imperative were cited as blockers to upward challenge and facilitators of hierarchical leadership:

> There is still a tendency towards a dictatorial style of leadership in the police service which stifles debate and innovative ideas particularly from subordinates. This is particularly evident with senior leaders giving direction to middle ranks who only want to please to further their own promotion agenda (Q79).

A significant finding around rank was the middle management 'vacuum' effect, described by a CHIEF02 below:

> We've invested an awful lot of effort in going out as chief officers and talking to the front line. But then you've got this gap in the middle, we've got an expectation they [middle managers] will be spreading certain messages but the waterfall becomes a trickle at that mid-management point. I think there's a bit of a communications gap, an engagement gap, but there's also that pragmatic thing, they're busy people running operations which doesn't leave them much time and space to really think about some of the things we would like them to in terms of corporate change, shaping things for the future (CHIEF02).

Inspector, Chief Inspector and Superintendent ranks might be considered middle management, but the consensus from participants was that it is the chief inspector rank which creates most of the 'middle management vacuum' effect:

> Chief Inspectors don't quite feel part of the HQ club, they don't have a department, they don't quite feel part of the senior management, they don't feel either. They are a lost rank, and messages get lost there. I've seen the influence of promotion and career progression on leadership style, towing the party line (STAFF01).

This muting of opinion, described by CHIEF04 as when purported leaders adopt the persona of 'corporate bunnies', predominantly happened at Chief Inspector rank:

> CI and above they pretty much are yes men. It does frustrate me nobody at that level pushes back. If they do it is quite impactive because it is unexpected (INSP02).

This voiding of corporate information and strategic direction at middle management level contrasted with a legitimate filtering function to protect officers from superfluous demand for wellbeing purposes, identified by some participants. Inspectors still appeared to be the highest rank who were consistently and consciously offering a two-way filter between strategic command and officers:

> The Inspector rank described themselves as a filter, looking up, feeling the pressure, absorbing it for their teams whilst filtering their demands upwards (ACADEMIC07).

If the rank system is failing followers, it should be reviewed. Similar calls were made to flatten the leadership structure by the Sheehy Inquiry (HM Government, 1993) and as recently as this year (Police Foundation, 2019). Both reports pinpointed the Chief Inspector rank as the most problematic in terms of redundancy.

Skills versus Rank-Based Leadership

Some interview participants suggested that police leadership has in part moved to a post-transformational phase, where followers in some situations lead leaders, based on

technical expertise in assessing threat harm and risk; variables which form part of everyday contemporary policing vocabulary. This emulated Davis's (2017, p. 55) call for "Considering leadership as an activity rather than an attribute of a person … appreciation of expertise and knowledge over hierarchical position or rank". Examples of such skills versus rank-based leadership, where leaders follow followers, were proposed. Interviewees cited the example of a tactical advisor in a firearms or public order incident, often a PC, as the perfect example of post-transformational leadership. This type of followership could spread to more mainstream policing as followership evolves from Davis's (2018, p. 11) current findings, which concluded: "The primacy of rank over competence conflicts with strategies to empower the police workforce and the capacity of junior officers to 'influence up'". In the firearms command context, the follower is leading, mentoring and developing the leader and power is vested in the lower-ranked officer to guide the leader through a knowledge or skills-based inversion. The leader is led through the demands of a situational terrain which is the domain of the expert follower:

> … when you look at the audit trail your decision logs are formed as a perfect leader follower dynamic under the NDM. If you and I build up a basis of trust we're more likely to … collaborate, share, adapt ideas according to the needs of the situation, rather than because I am the boss (SUPT02).

This sense of common purpose is a common denominator between followership, transformational and shared leadership theory. A Tactical Firearms Commander (TFC) confirmed the learning he gained from follower feedback:

> I learnt so much from firearms command. A direct quote from one of the firearms officers was "Boss I love working with you because you're always open to feedback". I said every day's a schoolday. I haven't got the ego to say I know everything. Every firearms job there is a sense of nervousness. We work as a team, we debrief every job. We reflect on little things we could have done better (INSP05).

The reasons for the distinctly different leader follower relationship in the firearms command arena were explained by those with experience of that world:

> Every job ends with a debrief, recorded, logged. All that information goes into the firearms training department and command courses are designed around the experiences around all those different jobs. It's a brilliant system. You walk in as a firearms commander, you have a PC sitting on your shoulder who every now and then go boss, do you really want to do that. You see their leadership because they have greater knowledge and experience (SUPT04).

Principles emerging from the Ideal Follower Leadership model are amply illustrated through the cycle of the command of a firearms incident. The TFC makes their initial assessment using their NDM training, taught by firearms experts, many of whom are tactical advisors. The same tactical advisors support the TFC in their real life real time decision making during firearms incidents. The tactical advisor, along with the ARV crews, takes part in the operational debrief following the incident. The organisational learning generated by the incident is captured and recorded and informs improved practice in the future:

> The learning from the firearms world should be used. In debriefs the ARV's aren't backward in coming forward and we should encourage that feedback in mainstream policing (CHIEF02).

Such pure feedback and honest learning could not exist without elements of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical model operating in practice. A common negative aspect damaging the leader follower relationship was Foucault's concept of subjugated knowledge (Harwood, 2001; Jackson, 2012). This arises when staff who can be those most acutely aware of poor processes and possible solutions (Davis, 2018) are not consulted or do not feel able to challenge or change the status quo:

> Anecdotally … there are a lot of silly things going on, but the problems don't get raised (SUPT01).

The effect of subjugated knowledge on followers was observed during academic fieldwork:

> [Subjugated knowledge] takes away empowerment. When [followers] know they have the knowledge, skills, abilities, and it doesn't make it through the chain of command it's discouraging. When your voice is taken away in the organisation and you get beaten down and they begin to ask, "why bother?" I met quite a few like that. They lose heart really quickly, get disheartened. They're humans first, police officers second, that's often forgotten (ACADEMIC06).

Subjugated knowledge is not only a phenomenon experienced by junior ranks:

> At the end of every meeting [the chief] asks "is there anything anyone wants to say?" Nobody says anything. Then they say did everyone say what they wanted to say, well of course not. I've been bitten by this before. When you speak up you set yourself up. Then you become alienated (SUPT03).

The scale of the impact of subjugated knowledge is impossible to gauge because by definition those followers experiencing it no longer engage so their dissent is silent. The denial of their voice must be injurious to their wellbeing however. It would be impossible to change this situation without an optimal leader follower relationship, with "approachable open leaders" working with "empowered trusted followers who know where they stand". For example, all of the various facets of the Ideal Follower Leadership model can and regularly do come into action before, during and after every firearms incident. Respondents who were proponents of the type of followership experienced in firearms teams could see it translating into mainstream policing, but not without cultural change where leaders became receptive to regularly receiving follower feedback, as they do in the firearms domain. Such a redistribution of power would be a pre-requisite to the Ideal Follower Leadership ethos disseminating and succeeding in mainstream policing. The prospect of this happening was enticing, but not without difficulty:

> That same model could be really successful everywhere but that would mean all the power structures would be flipped on their head, so I suppose that's a threat (INSP03).

Ideal Follower Leadership would allow leaders and followers to work together in a very different way:

> This is all about collective effort, collective thinking. It's a more mature way of working and acknowledges leaders don't have all the answers (CHIEF02).

Others supported the proposal to extend the skills-based leadership witnessed in firearms operations into mainstream policing:

> The job, as part of its culture, relies on hierarchy, it's taken quite a while to understand that maybe a PC knows more about things than a Superintendent (SUPT02).

Followership offers the vehicle to deliver the cultural change required to depart from excessive deference to rank which is not always constructive and to redefine the etiquette to allow appropriate levels of follower challenge. A cultural explanation for the dominance of rank and the reticence towards inviting follower challenge was offered by ACADEMIC07 based on their fieldwork experience.

> If an Inspector tells a PC to do something, they will without questioning it. The culture means that you can, it allows that. Rank facilitates and formalises it and expects it. If you don't equip police leaders to do anything different, that's all they've got. It is a real challenge to empower followers. Potentially in the context of new graduates coming in and the professionalisation agenda things might change.

The role of knowledge and skills as a determinant of leadership influence in other situations was already recognised, as was the fact it was still rank and not knowledge

and skill which remained the default determinant of power, authority and decision-making in policing:

> Some roles kind of step out of the rank structure so a relatively junior officer is able to challenge, such as Inspectors with forcewide influence for mental health or staff officers being chosen who can speak for senior officers. There is still this sense of conflating strategic roles with strategic rank. In specialist units the emphasis is about expertise, competence, experience or background, it's not about having the correct amount of rank. The dominant approach is a clear deference and etiquette around rank (ACADEMIC07).

The misuse of rank in policing was seen as a unique feature to leadership in the police:

> All the studies into police leadership say this rank thing can be quite toxic, it causes big problems. No other organisations have these problems, even the military (INSP03).

Abuse of rank suggests a culture of 'rankism' exists in policing. There is a body of academic literature (Fuller, 2003: Fuller, 2006; Fuller and Gerloff, 2008; Clark, 2008; Yamada, 2007) describing rankism as a condition akin to sexism or racism where someone who thinks they are a 'somebody' asserts their 'superiority' over someone they take for a 'nobody'. Fuller (2003) explained that unlike sexists or racists, perpetrators of rankism have yet to be labelled, hence they have not lost the ability to 'indignify' their victims. As a type of predatory behaviour, Fuller and Gerloff posit that rankism prevents cooperation between leaders and followers, reducing creativity, learning and productivity and damaging wellbeing. Rankism in policing is an interesting concept worthy of further research. It was not articulated in the current dataset but from the current data, policing would appear a relevant field in which to test the presence or otherwise of rankism. Punch (1983) expressed the schism between senior leaders and junior officers as a form of rankism when he described the "deep dichotomy between the values, styles and vulnerability of lower ranks and senior officers" (Punch, 1983, p. 247). Even if rankism is not yet part of the vocabulary of policing, an etiquette

of rank has been identified by Davis (2018). This was breached by chief officers attempting to make themselves more accessible to the ranks through increasing their visibility by going out on patrol and using internal communication channels or social media to reach their junior ranks directly:

> There is a lot of arcing from chiefs to lower ranks which disenfranchised a lot of middle managers. It's about chain of command, I wouldn't give a toss, but some feel undermined. This is the rank stuff, it's still there (INSP03).

Rank was described as being unwanted in some situations in specialist teams:

> In major crime investigations an idea coming from the most inexperienced lower ranks can hold as much currency as from the SIO. It's a nightmare when you let supers and above into a briefing because nobody speaks, they are scared of looking stupid. When they are not there, we get much better contributions from the team (SUPT06).

Rank could also be problematic when trying to build a new team ethos:

> Rank sometimes gets in the way. I have pushed back against the rank culture developing my current team. I've asked them to call me by my first name. I've asked them to talk to me if there is something I need to know. We have a more collegiate approach (INSP05).

The deference to rank and the social meaning of rank was identified by another interviewee, sharing the idiom of addressing by the first name, also recognised in Davis (2018) as an 'undoing' of rank:

> There is a history of the evil of leadership which has held us back in a system that serves the hierarchy, serves those holding power. We do have a situation now where this is interpreted by some police leaders as "call me by my first name". They are trying to deconstruct their power (INSP01).

These were rare, modern statements about the relationship between leaders and followers in a team setting but the leader who made these claims had their follower-friendly style corroborated by a team member who was also interviewed. This leader was dynamic and authentic, both key words in the Ideal Follower Leadership model. They could be described as a poster child for leadership in their force but there was a genuine sense received during their interview of a follower-friendly leadership style; this leader was the embodiment of the Ideal Follower Leadership model working in practice.

Many respondents alluded to the vital importance of the sergeant rank. As the first line supervisor responsible for providing leadership to around eighty per cent of police officers, the significance and complexity of this vital role, along with the problematic nature of ensuring it is discharged satisfactorily and to a consistently high standard, was universally recognised. This was problematic given the variance of quality encountered, ranging from inexperienced and unqualified acting sergeants to highly skilled, trained, professional and experienced career sergeants. This was acknowledged at Chief Constable level:

> The Sergeant rank is a real problem for us … where we miss out on leadership training, some are really PC's with stripes, no training whatsoever (CHIEF02)

It was also recognised during academic research:

> Sergeants are incredibly undervalued. Their ability to be leaders is underestimated. They could have such an impact on the ; wellbeing, innovation, reflective practice … [but] rather than encouraging development and supervising they are stuck in stations doing bureaucratic work (ACADEMIC08).

<u>Negative Organisational Factors</u>

The next theme was a collective of organisational factors introduced by participants which damaged the leader follower relationship. They included subjects such as: dysfunctional senior leadership teams, a police officer-centric culture, poor corporate

memory, Quality Control vs Quality Assurance, silo working and 'unhealthy' organisations.

Senior Leadership Teams

An interviewee with privileged former insider access to the operation of senior leadership teams in a number of forces described the archaic dysfunctional relationships witnessed in some cases between chief officers and the rest of the force:

> I do think the top team is like a medieval court where outsiders need to pay patronage from time to time. The power and cultural distance is much more important than the geographical distance. HQ people have very pejorative views of outsiders. Differences in scale between forces exaggerate cultural differences, there are hundreds of mini-organisations with their own sub-cultures (STAFF01).

Particular criticism was reserved for one iteration of a chief officer team:

> I was amazed seeing such a dysfunctional team … I had worked in the criminal justice system, but this was my first exposure to a chief police officer team. I think you would struggle to find a team like them now, that was even recognised at the time (STAFF01).

An outside observer in another force concurred:

> Some executive teams are not cohesive … with political groups and battles that go on for years (ACADEMIC09).

The problem appeared to be widespread. After transferring to a larger force INSP04 was surprised by infighting amongst the senior leadership team:

> There were agendas all over the place. I was very shocked by it … horrific. They would slag each other off behind their backs. People were quite disingenuous.

A senior officer working in collaboration with a neighbouring force observed distinct differences in leadership style:

> If I compare ourselves to the other force, it's really hierarchical there, very old fashioned, everything has to go up the rank structure, if higher ranking officers don't get told about things they get upset (SUPT01).

Such inconsistencies between senior leadership teams provided further evidence of the 'postcode lottery' effect introduced in the previous chapter around wellbeing , reprised in this chapter around the quality of internal communications and chief officer leadership, and further developed in the following chapter around overall leadership quality.

Police Officer-Centric Culture

STAFF01 identified a two-tier hierarchy between police officers and others, including police staff, specials and volunteers. This police officer-centric culture was seen to detract from their leadership capability, despite occupying a senior position in the force:

> You're part of the leadership but you feel you're not quite eating at the same table. When the chips are down it is still the senior police officers who really call the shots. There are 40,000 volunteers and 13,000 specials [nationally] but that body of staff is still a side issue. The whole professionalisation agenda is focussed on regular officers. The policing family is much more diverse than that. Leadership could actually be much broader, but all the literature talks about police officer leadership.

This body of followers were viewed as a massively under-used cost-neutral resource. This denigration of non-police officers was put into context using the example of the special constabulary. Examples were recounted such as on their first nightshift a special constable was subjected to a parade room full of officers making excuses why they were unable to take this special out. Other examples were offered of highly qualified people

with relevant specialist skills which went unacknowledged and unused. These included teachers, cybercrime experts in banking, IT consultants, senior managers and accountants. Paramedics were made to attend police first aid training, bus drivers were not authorised to drive a police minibus. There were infrequent examples of such skills being harnessed, such as a commercial pilot who established a force's drone provision at minimal cost, but mostly examples of squandered knowledge and experience. A clear correlation was drawn between forces with progressive senior leadership teams and special constabularies reporting the highest levels of acceptance as followers recognised for their unique skills and contributions.

Chapter Summary

Interviewees described professionalisation and direct entry as controversial topics due to the challenges they presented to established police culture. The professionalisation programme does resonate with followership: promising to raise the prevalence of critical thinking through recruiting at graduate level to enable officers to become more empowered followers. Direct entry was designed to bring in different thinkers at a level of seniority capable of introducing positive change.

The pace and poor management of organisational change done *to* followers rather than *with* them was one of the most significant organisational factors effecting the leader follower relationship. Participants with OD experience prior to becoming police officers were evangelical about its potential in policing. The synergy between OD and followership has been discussed in chapter one. An example is the recommendation by The Police Foundation (Lewis, Higgins and Muir, 2019) for a flattening of the rank structure to improve communications between leaders and followers, improving relationships, reducing leadership distance and improving the credibility of senior leaders in the eyes of followers. Collaboration with external OD experts resulted in improved follower motivation, wellbeing, trust and empowerment. The service is realising the importance of organisational development as the key wellbeing and other improvements.

Police culture was the single most popular topic raised by participants as a factor which influenced the police leader follower relationship. It was suggested as a potential bar to the introduction of greater followership into policing. It may be the case that if police leadership is not a unique phenomenon, police culture, with the expectation on all officers to exercise leadership despite the restrictions of rank and hierarchy, may be. The uniqueness of police leadership, rank and hierarchy are discussed in the following chapter. Internal communications systems were employed to improve leader follower relationships but again, the 'postcode lottery' effect of different forces indicated that some of these were used more credibly in some forces than others. Chief officers professed to be moving their organisations from a blame culture towards a learning culture, primarily through a shift in the role of PSD, but followers provided contradictory case study evidence, citing inconsistent PSD strategies. Cultural differences between forces and within forces confirmed police culture is not monolithic (Reiner, 2010; Loftus, 2009), again confirming the existence of a postcode lottery effect.

Hierarchy and rank emerged as detrimental factors to the leader follower relationship. As rank, power and leadership distance increased, generally follower perceptions of leader authenticity declined. This resonated with Davis (2018), who posited that the 'undoing of rank' considered in the literature review needed to take place in a meaningful and authentic way. The current research would propose a wholesale cultural paradigm shift normalising followership would be required for the undoing of rank to commonly become authentic and circumvent the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers.

Historical evidence was provided of dysfunctional senior leadership teams. Promotion processes were seen to preserve the status quo by promoting sycophants and nepotism was common, with some leaders promoting candidates in their own image. Nepotism and 'patronage' were similarly identified by Caless and Tong (2015). NPM performance measures still figured as important selection criteria. Examples were provided of how an idea proposed by a junior officer could fail, only to succeed when resurrected by a senior leader, and a pervasive, dictatorial leadership style dominated by rank. Chief Inspector was seen as a rank where ambitious officers relinquished their right to an

opinion, becoming 'corporate bunnies' as their all-consuming quest for promotion replaces altruistic motivations of serving the public and representing their workforce. A middle management 'vacuum effect' was verbalised by several participants, where messages downwards were lost and upward protestations of the federated ranks were neglected.

Significant negative findings included discovery of a police officer-centric culture, to the detriment of police staff. Quality checking was promoted rather than a culture of quality assurance and organisational development. Leadership training was seen to be poor, especially leadership. Bureaucracy and risk aversion, silo working, poor internal communications and subjugated follower knowledge described the ethos of some policing organisations. Subjugated knowledge was the most significant way organisations could stifle follower input, whereby the people closest to the work were not allowed a voice to criticise and improve it.

The organisational context considered features such as organisational values, policy making and opportunities for different thinking. Some private sector organisations such as Google embrace and positively recruit different thinkers. This is not the case in policing. Subjugation of knowledge, not inviting informed follower inputs, alienated followers and prevented their contributions. Remnants of NPM thinking remain, however some forces have less of an appetite for such slavish policies, moving towards trusting individual officers' professional judgement, enabling guidance, values and ethics. This is more in tune with the Ideal Follower Leadership model. More enlightened forces realised the value of their people. Specialist officers were revealed to have a greater sense of mission while confusion over the policing role caused mission creep. This was detrimental to follower engagement and contrasted with the mission command ethos of specialist teams such as firearms who remained more attached to their role and the organisation. An ideological rift was revealed between chief officers and resources. Senior leadership teams believed they were promoting a learning or just culture whereas the perceived a blame or fear culture. Risk aversion and consequently bureaucracy were both reported as increasing. This was reflected in more complex processes and increased paperwork. Some participants reported a culture of fear

amongst followers. Culture was seen as a barrier to change. Cultural changes are happening but slowly. An example of this was the acceptability of challenging upwards. Austerity has provided an impetus for greater efficiency at organisational level but with a downside of reduced individual wellbeing.

Short-term command and control solutions were inappropriately applied to long-term wicked issues. Skills-based leadership, recognising follower contributions, should be allowed to proliferate from specialist areas of policing into the mainstream. PDR systems have largely fallen into disrepute. Some forces have reinvented PDR, placing the onus of appraisees to re-engage with new follower-driven processes. Rank has several negative effects on leader follower relationships including deference to rank when a follower was correct, preventing appropriate follower challenge. Sergeant leadership was seen as a vulnerability due to demand preventing them from having time to lead and temporary promotions for unqualified PC's who have received no leadership training.

Chapter Eight: Unpacking the leader follower conundrum: Further theoretical and conceptual development of the Ideal Follower Leader theoretical framework: Research Method Two

Introduction

The purpose of the final data chapter is threefold. Firstly it introduces the last of the theoretical and conceptual qualitative themes influencing the leader follower relationship. The most prominent of these are featured in the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework. Secondly, through use of the bespoke adaptation of the Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation methodology developed for this study, the findings from Research Method One are validated. Thirdly, the final hybrid version of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, amalgamating the quantitative and qualitative methods employed by this study along with an explanation of how it was formed, what it means and what its significance to police leadership practice is.

The remaining new concepts introduced in this chapter include external influences on the leader follower relationship, specifically the cumulative effect of governmental austerity measures over the past decade, reducing police officer and staff levels, increasing ambiguity over the ever-evolving and growing police role, increasing demand, professionalisation, direct entry and external compliance and oversight. Leadership concepts introduced or developed from previous chapters including leadership style, authenticity and leadership training are submitted to the expert scrutiny of practitioners and academics. The 'postcode lottery' effect re-appears, this time considering inconsistencies in leadership quality. Evidence of the effect of negative leadership is presented, contrasted by positive examples, along with analysis of different leadership styles. Followership theory and concepts are considered before the relationship between policing and academia is critiqued. The academic contribution of the current study is posited, in terms of the contribution to new knowledge from the questionnaire, enhanced by participants' interpretation of the results. The emergent Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework is expanded in this chapter as a result of contributions from interview participants, demonstrating the operation of the Delphi Poll/Expert

Elicitation methodology in action. The chapter concludes with a summary of leadership and followership theory and other new concepts introduced in this final chapter.

External Factors

External factors affecting relationships between leaders and followers discussed included reductions in staffing levels, compliance and oversight, improving the professional status of policing and factors effecting the volume and nature of policing demand.

Austerity

Respondents reported austerity policing as having become 'the new normal' following a succession of spending cuts under the coalition government from 2010 and subsequent Conservative government from 2015. Some business improvements were described as emerging as a result; greater efficiency, positive mindsets, smarter working, an increasing requirement for reflective practice, and understanding and coping with the increasing complexity of the policing role. According to interview data, the greatest disadvantage of austerity policing has been the detrimental consequences for wellbeing, leaving a tired and overworked workforce with practitioners feeling more like operatives on crime and non-crime production lines, providing less of a community service. Austerity has affected the leader follower relationship. Interviewees reported loss of goodwill, officers refusing to work overtime, volunteering for previously unpopular, mundane tasks such as scene guards and constant watch in custody because these were preferable to taking on new work and an even greater workload. Attrition rates from police forces were reported by interviewees as rising, confirmed by official statistics (House of Commons, 2018). Wage rates for new recruits have reduced and pension schemes have become less beneficial. The loss of officers has increased demands on an already over-stretched service.

The twin drivers of austerity and accountability demand more from police followers, not just in terms of productivity but also in terms of cognition. ACADEMIC05 rationalised

how the requirement to do 'more with less' (NPCC, 2014) could only be facilitated by acting quickly. This encouraged reflective practice which in turn developed innovative and more efficient working methods. Greater expectations on followers to act autonomously was an unexpected benefit of austerity measures. However some officers felt the responsibility of continually having to make complex decisions in a workplace consisting of social complexity, power, discretion and autonomy, was placing undue stress on them. This was exacerbated by the prospect of facing retrospective scrutiny in a court, inquest or enquiry,

Redefining the Policing Role

A proposed mitigation to the difficulties caused by austerity was the need to redefine the policing role by making other services more accountable and reducing the occasions when instead of being the last line of defence, offering vulnerable people support such as those suffering from mental health issues, policing has become the default first response. At an individual level, lack of clarity around personal role was blamed for disassociation between the individual and the organisation. CHIEF01 admitted the range of skills required of contemporary police officers has resulted in an increasingly complex remit. He attributed this to the contemporary requirement for police officers to compensate for shortfalls caused by other agencies:

> I suppose I want a partnership follower. I want a eureka follower, I want a stone in the shoe follower, I want an engaged, savvy, professional follower.

Such ambiguity of purpose and competing demands could provoke disengagement in the majority of officers who perform non-specialist roles. Partner agency deficiencies dictate the broadening remit of policing functions. This causes frustration to followers who voiced how leadership should be more robust, insisting partners should take responsibility for their own workload:

> We seem to be the service that can never say no. The mission statement 'protecting people from harm' has crept up to become a massive monster (COP01).

As practitioners, if followership became more widely adopted in mainstream policing, followers would become more empowered to identify poor processes, blamed as another stressor for rank and file officers. Examples included mandatory arrest procedures for safeguarding purposes and overly-bureaucratic risk assessment paperwork. There seemed to be a lack of awareness at senior rank of the effect of such inefficient processes, with even chief constables being out of touch with the demands on staff, and their ability to alleviate it:

> At least two chiefs were going on about going out on patrol and all this stuff we make our staff do like DASH assessments and I said: "You're making them do it, it's not some man on the moon!" (CHIEF04).

Professionalisation

The professionalisation of policing was introduced in chapter one. The evolution into a more cerebral organisation, developing reflective critical practitioners, was a popular topic amongst interviewees when considering the future role of followers. Critics of professionalisation have depicted policing as more of a craft learnt 'on the job' than a science to be taught on a university campus. Others have questioned where the evidence base comes from for this strategy. Some critics fear the programme is aspirational and experimental. Taking a purist followership view, educating new police followers to be more critical thinkers and reflective practitioners at undergraduate level is a way of empowering followers and developing increased followership but the experience of recent graduates interviewed suggested established police culture will be reluctant to assimilate this new breed of trainee officers:

> The first three or four years I put university stuff to the side. It was like a reprogramming. There was some scepticism from officers when we joined the

> force. I was very active, but I was a conformist. It took quite a few years to feel confident to actually use the training I had (SGT01).

SGT04 was sceptical about the government's motivation behind the programme, suggesting the driver for the professionalisation programme was a political one:

> Is there anything within policing that can't be passed on by peers? I've read some of the literature on professionalisation. It queries whether policing actually is a profession. I think professionalisation is a very cute strategy to distance the government from responsibility for cock-ups like Hillsborough.

A more pragmatic view was expressed by CHIEF01:

> To be fair I do want to take on a certain number of intellectual people to be police officers. I don't want to take on academic idiots who don't want to be spat at. I want people who can take the rough and tumble of life and who can talk to princes and paupers.

There was no clear agreement whether the professionalisation programme would help or hinder the cause of followership. Some felt followership would be an inevitable consequence of professionalisation as professionalisation exposed defects in police leadership, primarily the authority of and default attachment to rank which some leaders simply would not be able to function without. For them, enhanced followership would be the catalyst to improve police leadership or expose its deficiencies.

Direct Entry

Introduced in the literature review, direct entry to policing at Inspector and Superintendent ranks, the government's response to the then Prime Minister David Cameron's desire in 2011 to bring in 'fresh leadership' (Silvestri, Tong and Brown, 2013), was frequently raised by interviewees. Opinions were divided regarding the benefits of the scheme. Many deemed it unnecessary as skilled external individuals could already

be recruited to non-warranted roles. Others relished the potential to bring in different thinkers to the organisation, expediting positive change through the authority of rank. Some were supportive of the scheme but complained it was too restrictive, meaning the tiny minority of direct entrants would need to be remarkable on two counts: self-preservation against what could be a hostile reception and motivation to make a difference in a conservative organisation. Unpublished research in progress by one interviewee found most direct entrants had previous connections with policing and did not bring in fresh thinking. Others were described as becoming institutionalised into existing culture due to the nature of their induction and training programmes. Rare exceptions were cited where direct entry senior officers were making a tangible difference to the dominant culture:

> There's a direct entry female superintendent with young children who will openly have conversations about getting home early for childcare. She is quite refreshing because she's not part of that bullying macho culture which some people seem to think they have to fit into (INSP06).

The most common criticism of the scheme was the perception of an inevitable lack of operational credibility direct entry officers would possess compared with 'time-served' officers who had joined and progressed to specialist roles and promotion through conventional routes. Similar criticisms and little support was found for direct entry amongst the 35 anonymous chief officers interviewed by Roycroft (2016), reprising Reiner's (1992) study of Chief Constables.

Compliance and Oversight

Practitioner interviewees described how their practice was becoming more constrained by compliance processes required by HMICFRS and IOPC, further alienating an already overstretched workforce. The difficult relationship between the police service and the COP was a recurring theme, as was the discussion over whether the IOPC was a learning organisation or a punitive body. Prescribing bureaucratic working practices which removed follower discretion was seen as a limiting factor in the growth of followership.

The interface in forces between governance organisations and staff was seen as Professional Standards Departments (PSD). The ethos and culture of PSD were seen to vary subjectively, according to the outlook of the officer who headed it at any given time, from draconian and punitive to learning and supportive, as illustrated earlier in this chapter. Additionally, the IOPC were described as draconian, hungry for a hearing and obtaining a sanction. Their external dictation of PSD processes removed a forces ability in some cases to allow greater follower discretion and professional judgement.

Historically, as a legacy of NPM, INSP05 proposed that advancement was based on leaders being appraised by their team's performance, judged by the crudest measures of the easiest statistics to access such as stop searches, arrests and intelligence reports as opposed to measures of quality work resulting from the leader's own initiatives. The legacy of this NPM culture was summarised by another interviewee who had witnessed leaders achieve promotion despite a:

> … lack of people skills, empathy, sympathy, emotional intelligence. People got promoted on their ability to gather information, analyse it and crack the whip, completely transactional, green not red. I think that was the destruction of the service … data driven leadership … league tables. Your problem today is the last of those are in senior positions now. If you look at the bottom forces on HMIC you can see where it comes from (SUPT05).

An apparent lack of any single body with strategic vision over the needs of the service in terms of building on the COP Leadership Report (Neyroud, 2011) was mentioned. One interviewee speculated that oversight should be a function of the College itself; that they should emerge as a standard-setting organisation, ensuring consistency in terms of leadership training. It was not clear to some interviewees what the relationship of the COP was with organisations such as the NPCC, HMICFRS or the IOPC, all of whom could be expected to influence leadership development:

> Who is the customer and what does the centre [COP] perceive itself to be? Is it "we will tell you what you need"? Is it quasi-academic? Is it fully academic? Is it

> a licensing body? Is it a good practice body? Is it all of the above? I'm not sure. It has always been the problem; national police training has never quite known what it is, so it's never felt legitimate … the COP need to concentrate on working out what they're good at and doing it (ACADEMIC04).

Some saw the COP as a governmental mechanism to distance themselves from policing failures, similar to the professionalisation programme mentioned earlier in the chapter:

> The COP is an arm's length body of the Home Office; the only shareholder and the majority funder is the Home Secretary. Amber Rudd said at the last Federation Conference that the COP was the driver of police reform. She didn't define whose reform or what reform. I interpret reform as the reform the government want (CINSP01).

PCC's were seen as another mechanism deployed by the government to distance themselves from criticism:

> Well yes but the primary motivations for PCC's was nothing to do with policing, it was the twin drivers of austerity and devolution. They shield the centre from the fallout of austerity. It wasn't about improving governance (ACADEMIC05).

HMICFRS examine leadership as part of their Peel Inspection process but their methodology was called into question. Temporal comparisons between forces, production of league tables and measuring only that which is easy to measure were not considered to be meaningful ways of assigning metrics to leadership capability and encouraging the introduction of a learning culture. Instead HMICFRS vocabulary was described as:

> … the language of crisis … not the language of learning … it's a punitive kind of language, it fits into crisis leadership. It makes you do what's on the checklist (SUPT02).

Demand

The final external factor to emerge as a theme effecting the leader follower relationship and follower wellbeing was demand. Several officers bemoaned the epithet that the police are 'the service who can't say no'. Respondents described how unprecedented demand was not only caused by cuts in police staffing since 2010; other significant factors cited included the emergence of victims of historical crimes necessitating complex retrospective investigations (Evans, 2015). New crime types demanding considerable investment of officer time included child sexual exploitation, cybercrime, people trafficking and human slavery (House of Commons, 2018). Labour intensive demands such as incidents related to mental health issues were reported by participants as increasing police workload as partners have failed to cope with their demand. SUPT06, an experienced detective, summed up the perfect storm currently faced by mainstream CID departments, describing a constant bombardment of jobs with detective sergeants making decisions based on the quickest rather than the best ways to get things done.

> I had a DI regularly in tears. Unqualified PC's were dealing with offences way beyond their competence. The worst briefing I ever dealt with had loads of people in tears saying they just couldn't cope. Supervision is remote geographically. It was just awful.

A former detective painted an equally bleak picture from the crime floor:

> Crime investigation is getting more complicated. DV policies are getting more complex. Historic rapes are being disclosed. New crime types overload the system with less officers and less skilled officers. A DS was telling me one of his officers has twenty odd rapes on the go. We're going to burn these people out, aren't we? (SGT03).

Leadership Concepts

Is Police Leadership Unique?

A popular debate was whether police leadership is a unique entity (Reiner, 1992) or whether it is the same as leadership in any other organisation. This is a relevant argument if it could be concluded that innovations around leadership and followership in other organisations could be translated into policing or conversely, that policing requires bespoke leadership. Holdaway (2017) confirms that the professionalisation agenda seeks to import practice from the longest-established professional institutions such as law and medicine. Proponents of police leadership being unique proposed:

> I think it's unique because it's not military, it's not civilian, it's somewhere in the middle. You can't even equate it to the fire or ambulance, it's not emergency service leadership (INSP02).

ACADEMIC07 warned against the danger of romanticising or heroicising police leadership whilst offering the caveat that whilst leadership and followership in policing might not be unique *per se*, the demands currently faced and the culture could be, and should not be overlooked:

> There are huge distinctive demands and a distinctive culture. That's not to celebrate or romanticise police leadership, but I think it is really important to recognise how influential the context is.

A PC with prior leadership experience from previous private sector careers believed the skills required of police leaders to be unique, having experienced roles as a PC and acting sergeant:

> I had a lot of leadership skills when I started but now I have police leadership skills, they are different (PC02).

The complexity of the question was summarised succinctly by SGT04 who described police leadership as a 'distortion of leadership'; requiring similar leadership skills as in other workplace arenas but delivered in a different way due to the policing environment:

> I don't see police leadership as a separate skill, but I do see it as a separate entity that is a product of the environment. Police leadership is a distortion of leadership (SGT04).

Again, this reference to environment equates to Bourdieu's definition of 'field', discussed in the previous chapter. A better way to understand difference in police leadership may be to attribute it to cultural differences, different operating environments within which to navigate rather than different types of leadership. Others did not believe police leadership to be unique, although the effect of rank was singled out as a unique feature of policing through which leadership and followership operated:

> I think we like to think it is [unique], but I don't think it is at all. You still get the same interactions, power dynamics, the only difference is the [rank] structure through which those power dynamics work (INSP03).

Examples of this include the predilection for 'top cover' (Davis, 2018, p. 8) amongst police followers, caused by a combination of followers seeking validation for their decision-making and a culture of leaders insisting on being briefed, making them feel less vulnerable if they know everything, albeit much of that information is unnecessary for them to discharge their role. Whether police leadership is unique or whether it even exists as a unique, definable entity remains a moot point but what is relevant to take forward to the concluding chapter is that leadership in policing navigates a unique field, in Bordieusian terms, governed by complex networks and relationships where the distribution of power is determined by the strict hierarchy of rank. This situation needs to change if followership is to flourish.

Informal Leadership

ACADEMIC04 introduced the concept of informal leadership (White, Currie and Lockett, 2016) demonstrated by followers, demonstrating the degree of power officers at all levels possess whilst reinforcing the concept that leadership and followership are neither rank-based nor rank-specific:

> I think some of the best leadership has been informal. The disproportionate power that informal leaders have in the organisation is overlooked.

This acknowledgment of the power of informal leadership, and therefore the potential for increased followership, was echoed by a CHIEF04:

> We've got senior PC's who teach young cops good stuff, taking theory to practice, teaching how to ass-cover. The culture of policing is an amazing culture. Some of the best educators I've had were my street duties instructors.

The concept of the follower as informal leader or 'shift corporal', a non-existent rank between PC and sergeant, was introduced by SUPT02:

> Every shift has a 'corporal' who knows how to do the job, they're the real leaders, we just don't know as an organisation how to tap into them. Maybe make them advanced practitioners but we're giving them a label they won't want. Real leaders don't need a label, they're leaders because they've got the skills, knowledge, experience.

The 'shift corporal' observation resonates with notions of how a wellbeing culture should grow in an organisation, outlined in chapter six, through voluntary peer support; but with those informal leaders being recognised for the skills they possess and the contributions they make. They should also receive the organisational resources and support they require. INSP03 suggested the same concept, that followers sometimes

follow followers, not always leaders, therefore the skill of the leader is to influence the shift corporal, not the team:

> You can put a good leader into a poor team and they won't make a difference … followers follow each other. There is a massive bias towards leadership being causal. That's a massive assumption. If we improve the leaders will it really influence the team?

The requirement for a new leader joining a team to identify the team dynamic, pinpointing who actually runs the team and forming a relationship with them is a simple but significant concept. Subversive informal leadership has the ability to defy the influence of rank (Davis, 2018), for example by resisting certain management dictats:

> We know police culture is hugely resistant to change. Officers as followers have the capacity to resist and translate, negotiate, circumvent it (ACADEMIC07).

This subversion, which can be damaging, could be avoided by harnessing wayward informal leaders through promoting a sense of inclusion which the promotion of followership theory could offer.

Leader Authenticity

SUPT04 summarised leadership authenticity through a nature/nurture argument around whether the right people are leading irrespective of rank in a team structure. Rather than artificially training leadership into a person who happens to have rank, causing inauthenticity, the suggestion was made that a preferable solution would be to ask leaders to examine their own leadership and remedy any traits which detract from their 'followability':

> Leadership development is still trait based, broken down into key factors like problem-solving, decision-making. I've yet to see a leadership development

> programme which starts from day one with who are you and why should people be led by you?

Alternative Conceptualisations of Leadership

The very nature of leadership was questioned as a concept, radically suggesting how instead of viewing leadership as a function or a personal ability, it could be conceptualised as something more abstract:

> The leadership paradigm, when you read the literature, is very much a position; a role or a person. I ask people to imagine leadership simply as energy in a system; wherever the energy was, the leadership was there. It's an abstract thing. [Rather than] top down hierarchical leadership, we can actually get into everyone's a leader, at times the leader needs to step back and allow them to lead because they know what they are doing, and I don't (SUPT04).

This statement was made by a recently retired officer renowned for his approachability, pragmatism and lack of ego. It illustrates succinctly how leaders would need to relinquish power and control at times, trusting followers to lead when their experience, expertise and judgement surpassed those of the leader in certain situations.

Negative Aspects of Police Leadership

A wide range of leadership traits considered detrimental to leader follower relationships was outlined by participants. These included: inconsistency, self-interest, heroicism, toxic leadership and bullying. Some participants described an absence of leadership:

> The culture is to do what all around us do and most managers I still think don't think about leadership as such, they just give out jobs, do a PDR once a year, that for them is leadership (SGT01).

Where leadership was attempted, and followers recognised it as failing, personal self-advancement was again seen as a catalyst to organisational failure:

> Inability to make decisions, lack of support, lack of interest in what you're doing, mainly distracted by their own career progression, that's probably my biggest beef and one of the biggest failings in my own force. Everyone was so busy trying to make their own way rather than seeing the bigger picture for the force. I think the force is now in a state because of that (INSP02).

An academic particularly well-qualified to judge due to their insight into leadership in several forces observed a range of leadership ability, with improvement in most forces, although a minority were entering survival mode:

> I'm seeing good work all around the country to be honest. I'm conscious we tend to work with the more positive ones. The ones who are struggling don't tend to engage with us (ACADEMIC09).

Toxic Leadership

Toxic leadership was a particularly pernicious form of follower abuse encountered by some participants. Existing in many different forms, toxic leadership has an extremely damaging effect on the wellbeing of victims:

> There was that kind of toxicity sitting above me. I received a letter telling me because I was unable to support my colleagues and work full duties the chief could reduce my pay or ask me to resign. I just thought I've got to get out and 8 weeks later I resigned (SGT04).

Toxic leadership also caused INSP06 quoted below to resign. The toxic or dark side of transformational leadership (Tourish, 2013), which places a disproportionate amount of power and influence with the leader, may be attributable to situations such as this:

> There was a toxicity in my old force, too much to fight against. It was easier to bale than try to fight it. It's just easier to switch off than to continually fight the same battle and same argument.

An officer in one force rising quickly through the ranks was identified by more than one of their colleagues as being supported by senior leadership for the wrong reasons:

> [X] is an out and out bully, promoted quicker than anyone by a so-called forward-thinking command team. He's got worse the higher he's got, obsessed by promotion (SGT05).

Bullying leadership had a detrimental effect on this questionnaire respondent's mental health:

> I was suffering under a line manager who was a bully, they regularly put me down and told me I was 'crap' even in front of the staff that I line managed, this led to all staff intensely distrusting him and disliking him. He told me that I would never get promoted and shouldn't be at the level I was, this made every working day a struggle and I found myself terribly depressed (Q46).

Bullying caused this interviewee to resign:

> I needed to get away from a bad situation with my DI. He was actually a guy I'd known all through my service. He literally went around the whole team just bullying people, females predominantly. I was going through a difficult time, divorce and various things, struggling to do my hours because he kept knocking back requests for childcare. He managed by fear (DC01).

This toxic side of leadership clearly still exists. It is the antithesis of the type of leader follower relationship which features at the heart of the Ideal Follower Leadership model and promotes follower wellbeing. Elimination of examples of bullying such as these is the responsibility of individual line managers and there is also a corporate responsibility

to eliminate such malpractice. Empowerment of followers through adoption of followership theory would assist in that task by creating a culture where if victims of bullying by leaders did not fell capable of escalating the issue themselves, they could refer to 'courageous follower' (Chaleff, 2003) peers who were sufficiently empowered to represent them.

Positive Aspects of Police Leadership

Positive traits described included authentic leaders promoting wellbeing, being accessible, natural, operational, ethical, self-reflective, supportive, and emotionally aware. The chief officer team in one force had made a conscious effort to diminish leadership distance through increasing their visibility, with positive results:

> Visibility has improved a lot over the past couple of years. I have a lot of exposure to the chief officer team, whereas previously it was a big deal to see the chief. Now you see them about, in the canteen, it's not a big deal nowadays (SGT01).

Visibility was not always appreciated, with the presence of a senior officer sometimes being detrimental:

> It's quite condescending them going out on patrol now and then, then celebrating how great they are [on social media]. Chiefs can also get interested in minutiae which other people are already dealing with quite capably (STAFF01).

One respondent did not need chief officer visibility, suggesting leadership should be concentrating on developing improved followership:

> … creating more autonomous, confident individuals who seek out rank when it's legally needed, or when a decision is on the boundary of their knowledge and experience and they really should get the support of the next rank up (SUPT04).

The hallmarks of a good leader were summarised in a straightforward message from CHIEF01:

> The mission of the leader is to remove barriers, any hindrance stresses for their staff, that's it, that's all you're there for, then you release their innate genius. That's it!

Leadership Styles

As suggested in chapter two, policing appears to have been searching for a leadership style since the Neyroud Review (2011). A summary of the paradigm shift which arguably leadership in policing is currently undergoing as it searches for a style was provided by CHIEF02:

> We want people to be them, genuine authentic leaders who show the ability to manage staff well, to make the right decisions, to do the right thing. It's that less tangible stuff now that's far more important. People who have recently succeeded in promotion boards know themselves and know how they impact on others. They have humility in their leadership. A few years ago it was all about grip, a harder edge. Some of the work we do with the NHS now talks about grit, the grit to have passion and perseverance to overcome barriers to change in organisations, that's what we're looking for.

Certainly, this deconstructed view of leadership resonated with Hesketh's (2017) simplification of transformational leadership, to knowing 'yourself', your 'staff' and your 'stuff'; considered in chapter two. This indicates there is still a place for aspects of transformational leadership in contemporary police leadership if these traits are internalised.

Evidence of the continued existence of transactional leadership in some forces was offered by several respondents:

> A number of the forces are similar, their leadership mindset or paradigm is very transactional. Every problem is approached as a command and control, critical problem. For example, the HMIC report highlighted a high level of sickness absence. The response was to impose a gold silver bronze command structure. It's a wicked problem, it's complex, there's many reasons why this has happened. Taking that command and control approach works if everybody is a nail and command and control is a hammer. We need to ask ourselves what it is we are creating which is causing this situation to arise, otherwise we will always label people sick, lame and lazy, us and them (SUPT04).

Good leadership required more than the individual ability of the leader, it was also described as being about the quality of their networks, a factor which also emerged in the Ideal Follower Leadership model as 'establishes links':

> [The good leader] rings up someone who will know the right answer, will be that point of reference, with operational competence combined with knowing how to do things right. Good leaders have good networks (SUPT05).

The positive traits which emerged as most valued in contemporary leadership had changed from those associated with the stereotypical command and control leadership style, to be replaced by adjectives such as: thoughtful, approachable, professional, reassuring, intellectual, honest, trustworthy, caring, disciplined and fair. Following research in multiple forces, ACADEMIC09 calculated that the need for traditional command and control or transactional leadership styles was minimal:

> Fundamentally what's shocked people is that authoritative leadership has only got a place when resources are tight, missing children, crisis management, and it only works particularly effectively when the individual in charge has high ethical values, high competence and a clear purpose. It's very encouraging to see the emergence of the supportive style and the decrease of command and control in the longer engaged forces.

One interview left the researcher confident that police leadership had a bright future. The interviewee was putting into practice many leadership and followership lessons encapsulated by the Ideal Follower Leadership model in their leadership style and had built a team environment which allowed followership to thrive. The leader effect was corroborated by a team member who was also interviewed:

> When [Inspector X] came along he asked us what our thoughts were. We never got asked that before. It was refreshing to give us that power, I guess. As a result, everyone is really open. The staff are happy to talk to each other. When we have our team meetings people are happy to say things to each other, in a respectful way. We sit around a big table where we can all see each other. We are very open to change because we discuss things on our staff meetings. The other teams don't get that because they don't have meetings. Everybody is very honest. There is a confident culture, people feel empowered (STAFF02).

This team culture was different, built on open and honest communication. The leader who created it was a reflective practitioner:

> If I reflect on my best bosses, they have emotional intelligence, reflect on the impact of their decisions, explain their decisions in terms their followers understand (INSP05).

His leadership style was moulded by such self-reflection, and permeated throughout his team. Further evidence was provided by the team member:

> We feel trusted. He doesn't micromanage, he doesn't know how we do our jobs so he doesn't try to tell us what to do. I feel safe because I know if I make a decision, he will always have my back as long as I've made it with good intentions. We do PDR properly (STAFF02).

The leader provided his own insights into the rationale for his leadership style, which he described as servant leadership:

> Rank sometimes gets in the way. I have pushed back against the rank culture developing my current team. I've asked them to call me by my first name. I've asked them to talk to me if there is something I need to know. We have a more collegiate approach. Everyone on the team is working towards a common purpose. Every member of the team has got to feel comfortable and confident to speak up (INSP05).

This concept of collaborative leadership where the combined intellectual capacity of the team can far outweigh that of a single omnipotent leader (Grint, 2010a) echoed with Weick's (2007) vision of collaborative leadership in chapter two, p. 63. Common purpose is a fundamental of transformational leadership principles. Such collaborative leadership was suggested as essential for many policing problems, such as safeguarding, critical incidents and dealing with victims of mental health problems, all described as wicked issues:

> So wicked problem, complex, no single solution, no silver bullet, needs leadership, but leadership is a collaborative effort, the leader needs the followers and the followers need the leader (SUPT02).

Such a situation is achieved through pre-emptive permission giving and a proportionate rather than a blanket escalation policy around decision-making:

> They need to know what that escalation process is, but they do not need to come to me for permission (CHIEF01).

Another interviewee recounted in considerable detail about two middle managers who truly broke the mould to become a champions of followership, akin to that promised by the Ideal Follower Leadership model, in a unique team dynamic in a specialist command:

> [xxxx xxxx] was CI. He's a very marmite person. He and [xxxx xxxx] as Superintendent created this environment where every cop respected and liked

> them. They were being transformational, showing followers what they wanted them to be. Objective measurements showed improved performance. The interesting thing for me personally, as a personality the CI was hated by other CI's and Superintendents (SGT04).

These observations, alluding to transformational leadership theory and predating the emergence of Black Box Thinking, both discussed in chapter two, are testament to the power of leadership and followership in practice in this team. The resentment these leaders encountered from their peers is an indicator of the challenge policing culture poses to the implementation of followership in policing.

Command and Control Leadership

Criticism of a reliance on a command and control leadership style for all police incidents was recounted by INSP03 from an unlikely source, the Ministry of Defence. They described how they run training exercises between two teams:

> … one with a commander in control, in the other everyone is a commander, everyone has the responsibility to execute or stop the mission, there is a collective responsibility. The team with the commander gets shot to bits. The collective team normally completes the initiative. The military promotes an intent-based model. Command will set the intent but it is up to tactical people to decide how they execute that intent.

Such an empowerment of followers is evident in the nearest parallel between policing and military command; firearms operations, already considered in chapters five and seven. This is affirmed by the formal recognition of the skills of officers of the lowest ranks appointed as tactical advisors or bronze commanders on the ground or in control room settings, advising higher ranks and becoming empowered to do so through universal recognition of their greater knowledge and experience. This contrasts with mainstream policing, where command and control can restrict follower autonomy when used inappropriately:

> In command and control, when it becomes a crisis situation, the follower becomes a 'needy follower', "what do you want me to do first?" (SUPT05).

It is important to put into context that there are occasions in policing operations such as public order situations when there would always be a justified place for command and control leadership. Nobody disputes the need the role of rank and the need for the assumed authority which goes with it in these time-critical situations:

> In a command and control situation you can't deny the social reality that there is a necessity for control to improve coordination (ACADEMIC05).

However, the suggestion many respondents were making was that these occasions demanding command and control leadership were relatively rare and it was cultural familiarity with command and control leadership on behalf of both leaders and followers which was prohibiting a more follower-centric leadership style. The negative by-product of the acquiescence towards command and control was reported as a growth in the tendency for followers to become 'sheep' or 'passive followers' in Kelley's (1992) typology and wait to be led. This trend needs to be reversed and followership is a vehicle which can achieve this. Likewise, problem solving strategies in police organisations were often described as mis-matched to the actual nature of the problem, as were the leadership skills of those leaders appointed to solve the problems:

> People who are very good operationally are put into strategic positions who apply operational decision-making models to really complicated decisions. The more complex the situation the more inappropriate these decisions are. We are then in a strange cycle where there are short-term solutions applied to long-term problems. We end up recycling the same problems in 1,2,3-year cycles, leading to a lack of embedded change (INSP03).

<u>Followership Concepts</u>

As a concept, followership was welcomed but some followership terminology was

perceived to be inappropriate for policing by interviewees, with Q125 also unwittingly using Kelley's (1992) term for 'passive followers':

> I don't like the terminology 'follower' … I find it quite condescending, it makes us sound like sheep, aimlessly following. Police officers and staff are quite independent thinkers, it's the nature of the role … you will find we have to lead ourselves quite a lot.

PC02 reinforced this standpoint, whilst being supportive of the concept of followership:

> I don't like the word follower, it makes you sound stupid. The concept of followership is good and it's the way things should be. [As a PC] people have followed me, I've energised them.

Negative Aspects of Followership Theory and Concepts

Negatives identified by participants included follower fear, followership being a problematic concept for police leaders, and the suppression of followership. Some respondents introduced a theme of follower fear to challenge leadership. Not only did this consider how followers might be fearful of expressing their true opinions for fear of reprisals from leaders:

> I've heard people play things down and not report them formally out of fear of punishment, retraining, looking stupid. They are scared to make a decision until everything is done to the nth degree. So, there's a culture of fear, getting complaints, risking your career or the role you want to be in (SGT03).

A questionnaire respondent felt they could only express their opinions openly in an anonymous online questionnaire, adding:

> A lot of people in my office will not complete this as they have no trust in the management but feel scared to express this (Q010).

A former police officer revealed a time when:

> I had a senior boss once who was a nightmare. She didn't care what anyone below her said. She called everyone idiots. That just stifles everyone else's ability to give ideas. During a meeting people were rolling their eyes but saying nothing. They were clearly operating in an environment where that constructive dissonance wasn't welcome (ACADEMIC06).

A number of interviewees described a culture of fear based on personal and third hand experiences of unfair treatment which had limited their contribution since and discouraged them from being active followers:

> Police have a huge attachment to the disciplined nature of the job. Empowering followers to challenge is a real conflict with that disciplined nature (ACADEMIC07).

Another former officer described a massive sense of relief the moment they resigned, a release of fear:

> You don't realise till you leave. There was a physical manifestation in the body, I had no fear. I dunno, is it cortisol in the body? It was almost as though I floated down the drive. I was singing in the car, I felt so happy. The sense of loss was much less than the sense of gain. I should have felt tinged with sadness, but I wasn't (SGT04).

A representative of one of the more forward-thinking forces in terms of employee engagement had invested in external OD consultants. Based on their advice, senior officers agreed to absent themselves from a staff discussion board, allowing staff to vent and thus removing the fear factor. The consultants advised there would be a release of resentment. Initially this was the case and morale appeared to be in decline, however once staff believed they were being listened to because rather than engaging in online debate, they were actually implementing tangible improvements through good practical

leadership. The subsequent annual staff survey showed an 8% rise in job satisfaction with improvements in scores for motivation and wellbeing. Of all forces responding, this force was the most committed to followership, empowering and trusting staff and nurturing their wellbeing.

Positive Aspects of Followership Theory and Concepts

A number of participants identified positive followership experiences. They outlined the appeal of followership to policing, provided examples of followership, follower autonomy, empowerment, development and results from good followership. Some forces enjoyed well-established relationships with local universities and the influence of this reflected in their leadership practice:

> No, no we absolutely look at followership in [force A], we've got a partnership with the [university of X] business school. We researched LMX, Leader Member Exchange. In my department I say they don't work for me, we work together. (SUPT03).

The potential for followership to decrease the amount of time supervisors squander on compliance checking and transactional exchanges with followers would allow more time to escape their desks and offer real leadership outside the police station, improving service to the public, enhancing their authenticity, and developing better relationships with followers:

> The point is if you give a man a fish you feed him for a day. Teach him to fish, he feeds himself for life. Over a period of time supervision should become less relevant. This [followership] frees up supervisors to develop their staff, or actually supervise (SUPT04).

This philosophy succinctly encapsulates the need for CPD, with the benefit that as followers become more autonomous professionals, supervisors will be freed up to

develop the potential of their followers even further, a culture of continuous improvement.

CHIEF04 was a strong advocate of followership, explaining how in his experience, he was incapable of achieving the change he envisioned without followers implementing it for him virally:

> We have a big gang of folk who need to be convinced, that's what followers can do better than I can, can't they, because they trust them, so followers are high trust individuals who are credible operators. Followership for me is about the people who can operate in this middle ground between the corporate side, you know the man, and what's really happening on the ground, what matters to people. It's humbling, that you are not the person with the solutions, your role is very different. All the evidence suggests work-based learning is more effective using superusers in the workplace. That for me is another version of followership. We've bought this IT system, case building and everything. Superusers have just emerged to train others. I think there are various different problems or opportunities where followership is the cure.

Such successful change management in a situation which normally produces a period of insecurity, confusion and inefficiency provides a straightforward example of how followership could contribute to fixing complex corporate problems.

Other Theoretical Concepts

In this final section on the theories referenced by interviewees behind leader follower relationships, other theories from academic and commercial sources mentioned by interviewees will be considered, including theory from Critical Leadership Studies and Black Box Thinking.

Critical Leadership Studies (CLS)

There was a positive reaction to the CLS quotes from chapter one which were included in the briefing document. Many of the concepts described were recognised across the forces represented.

Black Box Thinking

One of the most referred to theoretical concepts, especially by chief police officers, did not come from academic research. Black Box Thinking (Syed, 2015), considered earlier in the thesis in relation to police culture, is cited as being at the corner stone of moving from a blame to learning organisation by a number of forces. For some senior leaders at least, Black Box Thinking was considered as being business as usual in their forces, extending the metaphor to the policing context:

> Rather than asking for courses we are becoming a learning organisation. You expand the idiom, the conversations, the vocabulary of the organisation, so when people talk about the vignettes and anecdotes and stories that are in Black Box Thinking everyone can use the same language.

The tensions between instigating a learning culture whilst retaining control of and accountability for individual officers and still surviving external scrutiny whilst introducing such radical cultural change was recognised:

> We want to move away from adherence to policy. Of course, we need some policy, but we are moving far more towards "enabling guidance". This actually does allow people to think for themselves within a framework, we are promoting the black box idea of learning from mistakes, but it's a shift (CHIEF02).

Other interviewees from an academic background problematised the practical introduction of Black Box Thinking philosophy into policing culture:

> Even if you have theoretical knowledge, and this is the problem I have with Syed, it's an accumulation of lots of other people's ideas, the ideas are fine, but getting them into an organisation is completely different. It's a cultural issue, it's not a logic issue, it's not about rationality, it's not about thinking, it's about culture (ACADEMIC02).

SGT04 predicted similar difficulties introducing wholesale cultural change:

> Regardless of what they want to do the problem is they don't control all of the variables involved in policing in managing or leading, but they think they do. They think by changing their mindset and changing the discourse within the organisation that things will suddenly change. Of course, you have all these sociological structures: laws, policies, HMIC expectations, IPCC, corporate manslaughter. None of these structures allow wholesale changes to take place and leadership don't realise that.

Black Box Thinking is a tried and tested rationale for improvements in the aviation industry. There is no reason it should not be applied to policing, but as previously stated, the move from a blame to a learning culture would be required. This would involve massive change, a worthwhile but long-term investment. The popularity amongst chief officers for Black Box Thinking should not be allowed to replace actual business improvement. Just because a chief has read the book and claims their force is a Black Box Thinking organisation it does not become one. There is a parallel here with chiefs who declared themselves to be transformational leaders when that was fashionable, but evidence already presented in this thesis demonstrated how they continued to be autocratic, transactional leaders allowing bullying, toxic, dictatorial leadership to flourish.

The remainder of the chapter will present interviewees interpretations of the results from research method one, in line with the Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation methodology explained in chapter three. This expert validation of the findings of research method one

helped to build on the quantitative foundations of the Ideal Follower Leadership model. This resulted in the final hybrid version presented at the end of this chapter.

Interpretation of Research Method One: Questionnaire Results

As presented in chapter four, the survey revealed an approximate seventy per cent positive response when separately describing both the quality of leadership received, derived from the TLQ questions, and the quality of relationships with first line managers, derived from the LMX7 questions. Interview participants were asked to interpret these results. Overall this 70/30 ratio was considered a fair reflection of good/poor line manager leadership and good/poor line manager relationships by interview participants:

> That sounds about right. If you go back to wellbeing it's about 30% who need support and within that 30% there are some extreme cases (SUPT04).

Some felt 70/30 was an optimistic reflection:

> I would go higher on the negative side for my force … I experienced some pretty poor leadership. I've not had loads who are really poor but I've had a few who are outstandingly bad (INSP02)

whilst others considered 70/30 to be pessimistic:

> I would like to think it's a bit better than that … but each force is different … I see very different approaches (SUPT01).

Kelley's Follower Typology

The Kelley result was severely distorted, with over ninety per cent of respondents placing themselves in the 'exemplary follower' category. This result was attributed to self-reporting and possibly questionnaire fatigue: due to over-exposure to this type of

questionnaire, with respondents becoming adept at identifying and selecting 'best' answers. Again, interviewees' interpretations of the result were invited. Suggestions included the model itself could be flawed, although it had provided reliable results for over a quarter of a century. A more comprehensive answer, suggesting an explanations and potentially more appropriate alternatives for future models of followership in policing were proposed:

> Your skewed result might be because you are actually measuring something else other than followership. You might be measuring mission or vocation or decision-making … it depends how they interpret those questions (ACADEMIC05).

SGT01 supported a more nuanced, situational view according to individual leader follower relationships:

> It depends on the leader. A lot of the time I'm in the exemplary section but sometimes I'm more conformist because of a particular style of the leader. You might word it as choosing your battles.

The critical role played by different types of leadership in determining follower type was made by a leadership academic who criticised the crudity of Kelley's (1992) model, suggesting classifications of followers could only be relevant on a case by case basis, according to the individual relationships with different leaders being described:

> There's a lot of research to suggest people are more comfortable with their line manager than they are with the hierarchy they've never seen before. I might be an exemplary follower of my Sgt but not of the higher ranks, so you can be this and this at the same time, it's a fairly crude mechanism (ACADEMIC02).

Although it had been clearly stated in the pre-interview briefing document supplied to interviewees, included in appendix four, this criticism was valid and further reinforced the need to reconsider the suitability of Kelley's typology to policing. The need for this

is reprised in the concluding chapter, along with suggestions on directions for future research. Another suggestion was made that the predilection for command and control leadership was not only something demonstrated by leaders, but something the majority of the service was currently more comfortable with. Other interviewees surprised by the number of questionnaire respondents classifying themselves as exemplary followers proposed their own spread of expected different follower types. There was also criticism of the term 'exemplary follower' in policing:

> 'Exemplary Followers' romanticises followership, it's like a hero follower (ACADEMIC07).

Alienated followers however were a recognisable category for many interviewees, for them currently representing a significant minority of the workforce who were considered to be disengaged and under-productive:

> I think alienated followers have got ideas, real contributions they could make but are constrained by the hierarchical culture and have given up (CHIEF02).

Several interviewees felt a high proportion of police officers were 'Passive Followers'. One, reflecting back on when he was a newly-promoted sergeant, recounted how a twenty five year PC was mortified when he asked him for a decision which he should have made himself, because that was the dynamic with the previous sergeant. He described this as 'learned helplessness', a passive state adopted by people traumatised by uncontrollable events (Seligman and Peterson, 2001).

> Policing is full of it. Command and control policing produces it. They are really good cops. If you make them make decisions, they can do it. The system is very paternalistic, I know best. It's all removing agency isn't it, you end up with passive or conformist followers (INSP03).

Questionnaire Freetext Responses

The themes raised by the question 18 freetext questionnaire responses which resonated most with interviewees are summarised below. Many of these themes were involuntarily repeated by interviewees in research method two, providing a form of triangulation and confirming these to be core issues. A full list of the NVIVO themes which emerged from the analysis of questionnaire responses appears in appendix eight.

Negative Themes from Question 18:

Negative themes to emerge included: a police officer-centric culture causing police staff alienation, sycophancy, nepotism, yes men, poor relationships due to leadership distance, making change for the sake of self-advancement, risk aversion, stifling of followership and stress. Poor leadership traits described included: weak, unpredictable, unethical, undermining, uncaring, transactional, rank reliant, micromanaging, untrusting, inconsistent, bureaucratic and bullying.

Positive Themes from Question 18:

Positives included examples of small specialist teams allowing the best opportunities for followership to flourish, as found by Davis (2018), openness to new ideas, trusting and supportive leaders, inspiring leadership, ethical leadership, authentic leadership, and followership enabling appropriate levels of challenge, self-motivation, job satisfaction and empowerment. These questionnaire findings were presented to interviewees who put them into context.

Ideal Follower Leadership Model Interview Feedback

Interviewees were invited to offer their opinions on the Ideal Follower Leadership model which emerged in chapter four. As all interviewees were selected on the basis of their practitioner or policing research experience, their opinions were considered to be those of an expert group, in accordance with the Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation method

employed. The merits of the model were accepted by all, but some suggestions were made around omissions and improvements:

> Ethics are interesting. I think the more you write it down the less value it has. Ethics should be intrinsic to your values. Authenticity is a really good word, I like that, and humility, because that's a good way to describe how we should be, considering our position. You've got to be authentic, being yourself. Something about personability, the ability to talk to people (SUPT01).

> There's something it needs about authenticity, you've got to take a genuine interest. That's what provides a quality element. It's soft, interpersonal skills (CHIEF03).

> I'd say good morals, ethics. People who genuinely understand the organisational values (SGT03).

> Maslow is huge in the middle of this, people need to feel safe, and something about values. Along the side, something about authentic (SUPT03).

> Open to ideas, innovation, receptiveness so a fulfilled follower can realise their ambitions. It's about policing being able to change and encourage innovation, promoting agency (COP01).

> You've got an essence here of what we've talked about. It doesn't need too much more, maybe coping with ambiguity (SUPT05).

These suggestions and others gained through the analysis of qualitative data from chapters four to eight were integrated into a refined and enhanced model presented in figure 14 below, including both the results of the quantitative analysis and the qualitative Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation research methods, combining outputs from Research Methods One and Two. The hybrid quantitative and qualitative version maps and reflects the required elements of leadership and followership theory, organisational

values, attributes and processes and leadership values necessary to provide the background conditions required to enable optimal leader follower relationships. In this sense, Ideal Follower Leadership provides the blueprint for a follower-centric policing organisation promising opportunities for improved performance and wellbeing.

Ideal Follower Leadership Theoretical Framework: Hybrid Quantitative and Qualitative Version

Required Elements of Leadership and Followership Theory

Common Purpose Leaders and Followers Follower Agency
Follower-Centric Leadership Skills-Based Leadership

Reduced Reliance on Rank Skills-Based Leadership Power Balance
Informal Leadership Appropriate Follower Challenge

Appropriate Leadership for Context Doing and Undoing of Rank

Required Organisational Values, Attributes and Processes

Public Service Clarity of Purpose Fairness
Promotion of Wellbeing Professionalisation

Just/Learning vs Blame/Scapegoat Culture Maslow-Aware
Systems Thinking Innovation

Appropriate, Well-Managed Change
Culture of Organisational Development

Good Internal Communications Procedural Justice
Respect Trust Legitimacy Creativity

Required Leadership Values

Ethical/Authentic/Humble/Selfless/Consistent/Personable/Copes with Ambiguity/Natural/Removes Barriers
Operational/Reflective/Supportive/Visible/Role Model

This final hybrid model encapsulates for the first time elements of leadership and followership theory combined with the organisational and leadership values required to facilitate optimal leader follower relationships in policing. The value of the model is mapping what the required combination of leader inputs and follower outcomes is and what the background environment in terms of the organisational setting, embodied through the delivery of good leadership, needs to be in order to facilitate it. The structure of the model is simple. The outer boxes contain the required elements of leadership and followership theory, leadership values and organisational values, attributes and processes required to facilitate the optimal leader follower relationship, represented by the central circle. The arrows represent the direct affect they have on the leader follower relationship. This optimal relationship was defined by the findings of research method one. It was the result of the most significant leadership inputs, represented by the smaller 'north/south' orientated circles, and the outcomes of these inputs for followers, represented by the smaller 'east/west' orientated circles. The circles overlap because the central relationship is dependent on the leader inputs and follower outcomes, just as the required inputs and desirable outcomes could not exist if that central relationship had not been formed.

The significance and impact of the Ideal Follower Leader theoretical framework, now fully developed, will be re-emphasised in the concluding chapter, in the context of the entire project. Before doing so there is a value in relating the central discovery of the thesis, the Ideal Follower Leadership model, to some of the most pertinent findings of the literature on police leadership, by way of a validation exercise for the final version of the model. Central to this was a systematic literature review on police leadership by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013). They analysed 57 peer reviewed journal articles between 1990 and 2012 to conclude the seven key characteristics of effective police leaders were: ethical behaviour, trustworthiness, legitimacy, being a role model, communication, decision-making and critical/creative/strategic thinking ability. They went on to define five key activities performed by effective leaders: creating a shared vision, engendering organisational commitment, caring for subordinates, driving and managing change, and problem solving. All of these characteristics and activities are

contained, sometimes in slightly different guises, in the final Ideal Follower Leadership model.

Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) went on to state that subordinate opinion of police leadership was the focus of most studies but did not provide the full picture, adding that complementary peer and superior assessments were required. As explained in chapter three, this study does follow the trend of gleaning data about line managers from followers but that was because the focus of this study was specifically first line manager leadership from a follower perspective. There were also practical limitations concerning the licensing of the TLQ and logistical constraints involving the administration of the questionnaire which meant subordinate opinion was the only practicable option. Other common deficiencies in the journal articles analysed, such as neglect of issues related to rank, gender, sexuality and consideration of civilian staff, were avoided in the current study, as was the criticism that knowledge in most studies was gleaned from perceptions rather than objective measures.

The Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework is grounded in objective quantitative analysis and validated through qualitative elicitation of expert opinions from practitioners and academics. It concurs with Davis's (2018) conclusion, supported by Caless and Tong (2015) and Herrington and Colvin (2016), that traditional approaches to police leadership are outdated. The model promotes the evolution of leadership styles to allow a greater follower involvement in leadership, recognising the fundamental tenets of followership, that leaders and followers need to collaborate in a shared, socially constructed process, influenced by the organisational context (Davis, 2018; Davis and Silvestri, 2020; Kelley, 1992, Chaleff, 2009; Alvesson, 2011; Meindl, 1995). It also resonates with Davis's critique of power being a problem as power is situated with rank in a hierarchical social system and followers are expected to remain as "passive recipients" (Davis, 2018, p. 2).

The model complements Davis's (2018) Situated Authority Model of Leadership discussed in chapter two by providing guidance to leaders on exercising their power to lead in a manner which enables followers to flourish, providing a better service and

improving their wellbeing. Examples, albeit rare, of this optimal leader follower relationship in practice have been presented in this thesis. Likewise, the contributions of practitioners and academics in forming the model embodied what the current state of the leader follower relationship in policing is. Leaders and followers from all ranks, warranted officers, staff and volunteers from a range of police forces and organisations have crystallised what is going wrong to damage the leader follower relationship and follower wellbeing. The Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework represents the antithesis of those witnessed shortcomings of leaders. It presents desirable options for individual leaders and organisations to adopt, based on the evidence-base provided by participants in this study.

It is appreciated that the Ideal Follower Leadership model is wide-ranging in nature and does cover a broad range of concepts. This makes it vulnerable to Grint's (2005a) criticism of many leadership models as wish lists of traits but the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework is much more than that. As well as being the type of objective, evidence-based, empirically-informed academic contribution demanded by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013), policing has a predilection for 'toolkits' and the Ideal Follower Leadership transcends mere list-making. It provides comprehensive guidance not only on police leadership but also on how policing organisations could develop to provide better service to the public whilst improving staff and officer wellbeing. It takes existing theory and literature, combines it with original empirical data from a significant anonymous sample free from the normal restrictions of internal staff surveys or face to face interactions. Every participant chose to contribute and was able to be honest and unfettered in sharing their evidence, providing a realistic and replicable picture of what it means to be a follower in policing organisations in England and Wales and what the effect of the leadership they experience is on their wellbeing. This provided a significant and extensive database, hence the breadth and depth of the resultant theoretical framework is comprehensive. Consequently it produced a robust theoretical model which unashamedly doubles as a toolkit the police service will recognise and easily apply in order to develop their leadership practice.

Chapter Summary

Austerity, creating resource cuts and increasing demand on individuals, has damaged the leader follower relationship. Demand from new crime types requiring greater management of risk has reduced time for leaders and followers to interact. Risk aversion has stifled innovation, encouraging people to default to management, following processes, rather than demonstrating leadership. With attrition rates at record levels, tired remaining officers are turning down overtime and volunteering for mundane tasks which do not increase their workload. To compound this, accountability has never been higher. The service has responded with better risk assessment processes, analysing threat, harm and risk, but these are time-consuming, causing further abstractions of already overstretched staff.

Improved follower autonomy was proposed by some as a solution towards the neo-liberal goal of achieving 'more with less' (Winslow, 2016), through developing staff to be more reflective and independent practitioners. This could not be achieved without a paradigm shift in leadership style from authoritative command and control to more supportive leadership styles; in other words, a relinquishing of power and growth of trust in follower ability. There was unresolved debate between those who believed police leadership to be a unique entity and others who regarded it as simply leadership in policing. There was consensus that there was space for learning from outside the service and academia to be incorporated, and to acknowledge the potential of followership to develop as a form of informal leadership where knowledge would replace rank as the arbiter of authenticity in appropriate situations.

Increased oversight, specifically the often troubled relationship between the Independent Office of Police Complaints (IOPC), formerly the IPCC, and the police service was reported as adding pressure to the leader follower relationship, increasing individual accountability through bureaucratic checking processes, creating a compliance rather than a quality assurance culture. Followers felt they lacked empowerment to apply professional judgement and deferred to higher ranking officers to ratify their decisions. Participants did not see PCC's as having any effect on leadership

quality and there was criticism of the COP for lack of clarity over what its role should be. Demand from new crime types and the management of non-crime risk was the external factor with the greatest detrimental effect on the leader follower relationship.

Competing leadership styles for policing have been widely discussed but participants endorsed the move away from traits and behaviours towards authenticity and humility; leaders who know their staff and know their stuff. A call was made for leaders to address wicked issues with an approach other than command and control; using a shared or participatory approach with followers towards understanding and preventing reasons for the problem rather than arcing to short-term actions and inappropriate solutions in a dictatorial manner. Examples of such collaborative approaches were provided, with authoritative leadership only employed as required in crisis situations. During the majority of the time, combinations of shared, supportive and participatory leadership were the norm in these forces. The suggestion was made that command and control had become a default style of choice for both leaders and followers due to familiarity, with command and control techniques being applied inappropriately to wicked issues such as sickness management.

Followership terminology either enthused participants or troubled them. Many were uncomfortable with the binary implications that being a leader was somehow 'better' than being a follower. This is a problem of semantics and developing new leadership and followership vocabularies may be a future problem beyond the scope of the current study should policing adopt an increased followership philosophy. More pressing is the need to overcome the current cultural phenomenon of follower fear to express their constructive dissonance. Examples of this seed change were offered and examples of follower-led viral change were presented, often with reference to academic theory. There was a positive reaction to CLS principles, some of which were being promoted by senior leaders. In practice however, despite chief officers being enthusiastic to new ideologies such as Black Box Thinking (Syed, 2015), officers did not recognise their implementation in practice.

Leadership authenticity was considered vital by followers, but not always experienced. Leaders should be encouraged to improve their 'followability'. Reports of a culture of follower fear to speak out were presented. Informal leadership or allowing leadership by followers was still an area with untapped potential. There are significant variances in leadership quality within the same organisations. The 'postcode lottery' discussed in the previous chapter extends to a lack of consistent national governance around organisational culture, leadership training and leadership quality

Elements of transformational leadership theory are still valuable but the heroic white male stereotype is rejected. There is a recognition of the value of the growth of the importance of 'soft skills' for police leaders with a movement away from command and control/transactional leadership towards more shared/participatory/servant leadership styles. Likewise, there is a recognition that rank-based decision-making needs to evolve towards knowledge-based decision-making. The potential of the study of followership and the application of followership principles in policing was widely acknowledged. The study of followership and its potential to improve performance and increase wellbeing sits well within the discipline of organisational development. There was a recognition of the benefits the growth of a followership approach might bring. The Ideal Follower Leadership model emerging from the questionnaire analysis was well received and enhanced by suggestions from interview participants, producing the hybrid quantitative and qualitative version developed and presented in this chapter.

Conclusion

Introduction

The final chapter will summarise the methodological, theoretical and practical contributions of this research. Key findings from chapters four to eight will be revisited alongside the primary implications for both police leadership practice and future academic research. Limitations of the study will be considered before the thesis is completed with some concluding thoughts. A reminder of the research question and aims is timely at this stage, to consider whether the thesis has met its objectives.

Research Question

To what extent might the development of an understanding of followership in policing enhance police leadership in England and Wales and improve wellbeing?

Research Aims

1). To consider police leadership through a critical leadership study lens, in particular the concept of followership in policing.

2). To analyse the leader follower relationship through a mixed method approach.

3). To produce a new theoretical framework, informing how improved leader follower relationships might promote a workforce better prepared to tackle current policing challenges.

4). To analyse the factors which need to be understood to enable positive developments to police leadership, followership and wellbeing.

Methodological Contribution

A bespoke pair of research methods was designed to answer the research question and satisfy the research aims, using a sequential mixed-method approach in response to research aim two. Synergy and continuity between the methods was ensured in a number of ways. The exploratory factor analysis of the questionnaire in research method one produced the core of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, the primary contribution of this research. Initial analysis of the questionnaire informed the themes explored by the research method two interviews, whilst research method two greatly enhanced and developed them, culminating in the final version of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework.

Research method two was a unique approach inspired by an amalgamation of Delphi Poll and Expert Elicitation techniques, employed in conjunction with each other to examine the nature of the leader follower relationship, the factors which influence it and the effect this relationship has on follower wellbeing. This proved to be an appropriate strategy because research method one produced a national picture of the relationship between leaders and followers, providing a reliable and replicable landscape which was further developed and became more easily understood through the contributions of expert practitioners and academics. The methodological contribution of this thesis is that the unique research design described in chapter three could be replicated or adapted by future research projects of a similar nature in policing or other organisational contexts, particularly in the public sector.

It is important to understand that the Delphi Poll/Expert elicitation technique did not provide the conclusions to this research. Suitable academic rigour was demonstrated throughout the qualitative analysis processes and the themes which emerged and were chosen for discussion did so as a result of analysis of data rather than the mere influence of individual opinion. An audit process took place to ensure continuity between the data chapters and the Ideal Follower Leadership model. If a theme, theory, factor or concept was not discussed in the relevant data chapter it was not included in the model and vice-versa. Where experts did provide an invaluable contribution was in offering perspective

to the initial conclusions drawn from research method one and in signposting towards theory and literature which enhanced the literature review and interpretation of the new data to emerge from this research.

The research methods employed allowed practitioner participants to present themselves as a reflective and perceptive group, representative of the extended policing family nationally. The research approach allowed the often marginalised voices of police volunteers to be heard. This is significant as they form a hugely influential workforce who, despite helping to meet sometimes overwhelming demands, still possess considerable untapped potential. Increased followership would allow this sector to make a greater contribution to the development of the service, as it would for regular officers and police staff.

Theoretical Contribution

In support of research aim three, a comprehensive new theoretical framework was produced, entitled Ideal Follower Leadership. This presented the optimal relationship between leaders and followers, resulting from the most important leadership inputs as viewed by followers and describing the most common follower outcomes if those inputs are provided by leaders. The model provided further factors which affect the leader follower relationship, including: required leadership values, required organisational values, attributes and processes, and applicable theories of leadership and followership.

The impact of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework is to demonstrate the potential of followership in improving wellbeing and service delivery, both consequences of a better engaged workforce. The literature studied reflects that the quality of first line management is the most important deciding variable informing the quality of the leader follower relationship. This was borne out by this study and whilst a majority of respondents were satisfied with the quality of first line leadership they received, approximately 30% were dissatisfied. Behind this reductionist statistic hides thousands of officers and staff whose wellbeing is being damaged by their line managers' actions. Peers, other managers, leaders and organisations owe a duty of care

to reduce this proportion of the policing population whose wellbeing is suffering due to leadership incompetence, neglect or abuse, evidence of which is presented in this thesis. Such leadership weaknesses detract from the ability of policing organisations to provide the public with the service they demand. Adoption of a followership culture would improve those unsatisfactory leader follower relationships, reduce the percentage of dissatisfied officers and staff, reduce sickness and increase discretionary effort.

In satisfying research aim one, the unique contribution of this thesis has been to build on the work of CLS theorists who have promoted the cause of followership (Collinson and Tourish, 2015; Tourish, 2013; Weick, 2007; Davis, 2017; Davis and Silvestri, 2020). It also complements the work of Davis who theorised for the first time the role of rank in police leadership. Whereas Davis's (2017; 2018) work demonstrates leadership to be a social construction where rank is 'done' and 'undone' according to an assessment of 'risk' and 'audience', this thesis provides insight, through the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical model, into how the dynamics of the relationship between leaders and followers could be developed to enable the doing and undoing of rank to take place more overtly and more frequently, to a point where it became instinctive. The Ideal Follower Leadership model enables such radical cultural change by mapping out the optimal leader follower relationship, indicating the leader inputs and follower outcomes which would be involved, and what the theoretical, organisational and leadership values required to facilitate such a relationship would be. It constitutes an 'ideal type' against which leadership in policing organisations could be judged. The beginnings of the change process towards achieving these values are discernible (Graham *et al.,* 2019). The Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework contributes towards the knowledge base which would encourage and facilitate the introduction of followership into policing, improving leadership and wellbeing. This has been achieved by defining the required elements of leadership and followership theory, the required organisational values, attributes and processes and the required leadership values to enable optimal leader follower relationships.

This research did find isolated examples of followership in action, accommodated by pockets of shared or supportive leadership styles, however evidence that leadership is

predominantly still delivered with a command and control, transactional style dominated. Leadership within policing is still understood as being statically situated in individual, formally recognised leaders by rank, rather than as a dynamic interaction between leaders and followers. Thus leadership in policing remains a leader-centric activity and followership, in terms of appropriate levels of invited challenge, is rare. This is an unsatisfactory situation given the challenges and demands currently faced by the police service. Although the thesis does not speculate on what policing might look like if the Ideal Follower Leadership model were to become established in mainstream police culture because the data was not available to predict this, the model does suggest how such a culture might manifest itself. True delegation and ownership of issues by staff irrespective of rank would be the norm. Joint strategy-setting and decision-making would be performed between leaders and followers, their respective contributions dictated according to skills and knowledge rather than rank. For both these phenomena to be achieved, new levels of trust and mutual respect will need be developed. As reflected in the Ideal Follower Leadership model, reduced stress, increased self-esteem and job satisfaction would result in increased discretionary effort. Followers, once enabled to realise their professional potential and allowed to release the power of their individual agency would have so much more to offer to collective leadership, resulting in internal improvements to wellbeing and external benefits in terms of better service to the public.

Findings of the Research

In answering the research question, this thesis has provided an understanding of how an increased awareness of followership, incorporated into police leadership practice, would provide opportunities to improve wellbeing, increase workforce efficiency and provide a better service to the public. It has achieved this by distilling the most important theoretical concepts of relevant leadership and followership literature and integrating them with the analysis of new empirical data. This has then been subjected to the scrutiny of practitioners and academics to test how they could enhance police leadership. Improved wellbeing, productivity and public service would all be inevitable consequences of enhanced followership and leadership. The relationship between

improved wellbeing, productivity and public service are easy to understand. The improvements a physically and mentally fitter workforce would bring could be tracked using conventional performance measures. What is more difficult to appreciate is how adoption of followership theory could improve wellbeing. This thesis has established that the single most damaging factor affecting wellbeing is poor leadership. It has also revealed that despite the far greater prominence of the wellbeing agenda as a reaction to government austerity measures, adequate provision is failing to reach everyone requiring it due to logistical challenges such as shift work and geographical distance. It is also failing for cultural reasons such as fear to admit to mental health issues due to stigmatisation.

The primary findings of this thesis are summarised as follows:

- An exploratory analysis of relationships between leaders and followers in policing resulted in the development of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical model.

- An approximate 70/30 split between good/poor relationships between followers and their first line managers and a similar 70/30 good/poor quality line manager leadership input was identified.

- Evidence was found that the leader follower dynamic in policing is anachronistic, with expectations that responsibility for leadership and decision-making is predominantly dictated by rank rather than knowledge or skills. This is having the effect of making lower-ranked officers, and consequently the organisation, feel less empowered and more risk-averse.

- Individual follower agency is suppressed due to the disproportionate distribution of power and a mutual lack of trust between leaders and followers. This is pronounced when dealing with incidents involving risk assessments concerning judgements of threat, harm and risk, causing phenomena such as 'subjugated knowledge' and 'follower fear'.

- Discovery of several ‘postcode lotteries’ between forces regarding inconsistencies around: a learning versus blame culture, internal and individual leader communication quality, the ability to challenge upwards, wellbeing provision, innovation and leadership quality both within and between forces.

- Evidence emerged of the links between the leader follower relationship and wellbeing.

- Realisation of the scale of the detrimental effect of excessive demand on wellbeing during an era of austerity policing.

- The demand for wellbeing support is outstripping provision. Despite leadership rhetoric the burgeoning wellbeing agenda was found to be failing many of the individual officers and staff most in need. Consequently, perceptions of tokenism existed amongst many participants.

- Discovery of a ‘middle-management vacuum’ effect at Chief Inspector level, where strategic messages from above and representations to strategic leaders disappear.

- Confirmation of an enduring 'police officer-centric’ culture which needs to be addressed to improve the wellbeing of police staff and volunteers.

- Evidence that elements of transformational leadership are still relevant to contemporary police leadership, especially when translated into terminology accessible to all members of the organisation. There is a synergy between transformational leadership and followership principles, e.g. a shared common purpose between leaders and followers. Some transformational leadership principles are common to those of shared leadership. Shared leadership could be considered to be an evolution of transformational leadership without the detractions of heroism and toxicity.

- Discovery of an ideological rift was made between chiefs and officers. Senior leadership teams promote a learning culture, just culture, black box thinking approach whereas the perceive a blame, fear, risk culture.

- A predilection for command and control leadership, especially in circumstances where it was inappropriate, was observed. Selection processes should reflect the need for diversity of thought, personality and leadership style to mitigate against homogeneous approaches to leadership.

Implications for Police Leadership Practice

In fulfilment of research aim one, this thesis applied a CLS lens to examine the role currently played by followership in policing, through analysis of the leader follower relationship, building on the work of CLS theorists and in particular that of Davis (2017, p. 201) who advocated that leadership in policing is a "socially-constructed, rank-centric activity". CLS literature articulates how both leaders and followers in policing still cling onto anachronistic expectations of leaders as romanticised, normally male 'heroes' with followers as passive recipients of leadership. This relationship is no longer meeting the requirements of the public nor members of the service. Likewise, CLS scholars have articulated the dangers of transformational leadership, vesting excessive power in charismatic individuals who can abuse the privilege and protection from challenge they enjoy (Tourish, 2013). Such writers have also questioned the application of inappropriate leadership approaches, predominantly command and control, to tackle wicked issues which are common in policing due to the already vast and broadening nature of the policing remit. Evidence in this thesis calls into question whether transformational leadership was ever truly embedded into the police service. In police leadership literature (Davis and Silvestri, 2020; Silvestri, 2003; Grint, 2010a) a predilection with command and control and transactional leadership styles has never been superceded by universal adoption the transformational leadership style. Indeed Cockroft's (2014) assertion that transformational leadership never had a place in UK policing is partially validated by the current research. The theoretical continuity

between aspects of transformational leadership and shared leadership considered in this thesis could be regarded as the legacy of transformational leadership in policing.

By adopting a CLS approach, focussing on aspects of policing such as leader follower relationships and organisational factors as opposed to individual leaderships traits, a better understanding has been developed into how followership currently manifests itself in policing in a limited way and the future radical contribution it could potentially make. Incorporation of CLS principles has assisted with findings such as how policing culture will need to change to move from a leader-centric to a follower-centric dynamic. For leadership to become a shared activity, followers need to be invited to become empowered decision-makers, operating within radically-revised terms of reference with leaders sharing in more participatory leadership styles. Such a responsibilisation of officers represents a departure from command and control to more shared leadership styles. If this is achieved, it will provide a gateway to the introduction of followership, cutting through a resistant culture of rankism. Other barriers to allowing individual officers to thrive such as gender issues should be actively reduced by police leaders.

In response to research aim four, this thesis has examined external, organisational and individual factors at a micro (personal), meso (organisational) and macro (national) level. It has highlighted both organic or spontaneous variables such as relationships, personalities and emotions alongside fixed or structured constructs such as individual agency, policy and culture. It has considered a vast range of variables external and internal to policing including austerity, change, ethics, professionalisation and legitimacy, reflective of the complexity of the policing role. It has unravelled these ever-changing shorter and longer-term elements using literature, theory and new data then reformed them in the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework, shifting the central focus to the relationship between leaders and followers and how this affects wellbeing. This has proved to be a complex task but what has been distilled in the process is a number of key findings and recommendations for leadership practice which appear below, with the potential impact of facilitating followership and improving wellbeing.

Based on the conclusions and findings of this project, the following recommendations for leadership in policing organisations are proposed:

- Review promotion processes to ensure emotionally intelligent leaders are achieving strategic positions, mitigating against the harmful effect of leaders motivated by the 'promotion imperative' on follower wellbeing.

- Highlight the need for promotion of a more supportive, collaborative, shared leadership style. The branding is irrelevant as long as it is follower friendly, gets the best out of the most number of people and improves wellbeing. The emerging style would tend more towards participatory/shared/servant leadership than command and control, the latter retaining its purpose only when demanded by appropriate situations. Informal leadership, by followers, should be encouraged and developed.

- If the service follows up on the COP (2015) Leadership Review recommendations, any evolving leadership style should move away from a trait/behaviour-based model towards a values/ethics/legitimacy-based one, including an awareness of Organisational Development principles to promote followership and wellbeing.

- Consideration of flattening the rank structure to reduce the detrimental effect of leadership distance on leader follower relations.

- Individual officers need to be critical, reflective, professional practitioners to cope with the contemporary demands on the police service, yet police leadership has not yet adapted to this. Discrimination by gender and ethnicity extends to rank, or 'Rankism'. The time has come for a different paradigm, empowering followers and allowing them to realise their potential, facilitated by shared leadership models.

- The police service's fixation with searching for a new unilateral leadership style is anachronistic, retaining notions of the heroic leader. A futureproofed solution is offered by understanding leadership as a social construction and changing organisational culture towards a learning, followership culture using Organisational Development principles, creating sustainable changes in how work is organised and quality is assured rather than continuing to rely on developing heroic leaders as miracle workers.

- There is an onus on leaders inviting greater follower input into areas such as strategic development and problem solving but there is also an onus on followers to press for a greater input themselves. All police followers should become active participants in leadership, not passive recipients of it. Such changes would represent a paradigm shift in changing police culture around rank and hierarchy. The professionalisation programme is an opportunity to make this cultural change. There should be an onus on all officers and staff to engage fully with improved PDR and CPD processes.

- Examples of good followership in small and specialist teams such as firearms and child protection, where it is more common for decision-making to be skills-based rather than rank-based, could translate into mainstream policing. All officers are expected to be decision-makers and leaders. Allowance of greater follower autonomy would promote skills-based leadership by followers.

- The goal of professionalisation, to promote reflective practitioners, extends to producing reflective leaders who work to improve their authenticity, or in the context of this study, their 'followability'.

Implications for Future Academic Research

Three established questionnaires were used in this study as this was the most appropriate way to define contemporary leader follower relationships in policing in

England and Wales, distill the many factors which affect them and perform complementary qualitative research to add detail from practitioners and academics. The results of the questionnaire served this purpose and suggested the benefits of producing a newly-refined questionnaire based on the results received and the findings of this study. Such a new questionnaire could be tested using exploratory then confirmatory factor analysis to provide a practical tool to be used by policing organisations to gauge the quality of their leader follower relationships and the effect their leadership has on follower wellbeing.

The Kelley result was so extreme it had limited use, other than suggesting the need to develop a bespoke followership typology for policing. The development of such a typology would be a significant step towards understanding the different types of police follower, understanding followership in policing and adapting police leadership to respond to the needs of followers, improving wellbeing and productivity of staff, coping better with demand and providing a better service to the public.

Due to the word count and the exploratory purpose of this study, for the first time mapping the factors effecting the leader follower relationship in policing and the effect of this relationship on wellbeing, it was not possible to consider fully to what extent demographic features such as rank, force, age, length of service, gender and ethnicity have a significant effect. This could be discovered by employing further quantitative analysis. Such an analytical approach could be beneficial to developing an understanding of how such demographic and organisational factors affect the leader follower relationship through future research.

The research generated a valuable quantitative and qualitative dataset. As discussed in chapter 3, significant contributions from individual forces might render them suitable as case study examples in future publications. Further original data could be collected to enhance the understanding of leadership, followership and wellbeing in such forces, for example current questionnaire data from the highest contributing forces could be supplemented with new interview data to achieve a more nuanced understanding of the factors informing the Ideal Follower Leadership model in practice. Conversely, a

force which provided a number of interviewees who were able to paint a detailed local picture of leadership, followership and wellbeing could be invited to develop and trial the bespoke questionnaire alluded to above.

Limitations

The scope of this project was ambitious for a PhD researcher but due to privileged access and the kind support of current and former officers, volunteers and staff, the thesis was able to generate rich and valuable new empirical quantitative and qualitative data, supplied by a representative sample over a broad range of topics. The significance of the research; introducing a CLS perspective by promoting the inclusion of followership and wellbeing principles into the development of police leadership, could be enhanced through the resourcing and backing of recognised governing bodies to facilitate wider access to all policing organisations. This would provide a more comprehensive sample for further research as outlined below to evaluate the feasibility of the increased incorporation of followership into police leadership practice and consequent improvements in the wellbeing of the officer, staff and volunteer workforces.

Research method two, the Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation methodology, was time consuming for a lone researcher. If the feasibility of introducing the concept of followership into policing were to be practically developed further, a modified questionnaire could reach far more respondents and the data could be processed and analysed far more efficiently in SPSS. The mixed-method questionnaire/Delphi Poll/Expert Elicitation methodology is a comprehensive way of exploring and analysing a previously unexplored phenomenon. However, in order to reach a wider audience, teams of researchers would be required. Focus groups would be a more efficient way of gathering further qualitative data now a basic understanding of the national landscape of leadership and followership has been established.

The lack of generalisability of the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework may be the most significant limitation of this project. The framework emerged from data provided by police officers, staff, volunteers and academics whose reference was

policing in England and Wales. This places the results of the study into a unique cultural context. For this reason, the results may not be generalisable to an international policing context, other public sector services or private industry.

Concluding Thoughts

The range and depth of data produced by this research has confirmed policing to be one of the most complex workplace environments. Developed through the lens of the leader follower relationship and its effect on wellbeing, the Ideal Follower Leadership theoretical framework provides the blueprint for the paradigm shift required to understand and improve that relationship in order to meet external and internal challenges to contemporary policing. It offers a platform for future academic research in addition to a set of pragmatic recommendations for the development of police leadership. If incorporated into practice, Ideal Follower Leadership provides considerable potential to improve public service. Additionally, it would offer significant wellbeing benefits whilst increasing the productivity of officers, staff and volunteers. The retention of officers currently absent from the workplace due to long term sickness or resignations caused by inappropriate leadership practice would improve. This would alleviate pressure on their remaining colleagues.

Any academic research proposing changes to professional practice should be ready for challenges regarding how realistic these changes are to implement. Examples of good followership already in practice in time-critical, life-threatening, rank-specific operational contexts such as firearms and negotiation have been suggested in this thesis. Introduction of increased followership into mainstream policing has been considered. When the nature of contemporary policework is analysed accurately, very few policing situations where followership would not provide a positive contribution and a move away from inappropriate leadership styles could be identified. Diverse police research agendas such as professionalisation and wellbeing are diverging towards the problem of leadership. This thesis has defined what the main problems of contemporary police leadership are and proposes how, through changes in

organisational and leadership culture, the promotion of followership principles could mitigate against them.

Conventionally it is inappropriate in academic writing to speculate. However in a project with strong professional affiliations it is wholly appropriate to perform a reality check by modelling the feasibility of the practical implementation of academic findings. This is achieved through the Ideal Follower Leadership model which provides a conceptual and theoretical route map for the adoption of followership principles. This is an academic thesis not a business scoping report or feasibility study, however it is legitimate to hypothesise about how followership could be introduced and nurtured in practice and what conditions would be required to accommodate this. Due to the effect on wellbeing of the leader follower relationship, adoption of followership principles is a necessity. Examples of good followership practice in small pockets of police operations have been presented and the assembled data suggests scaling followership to most mainstream situations would be plausible. Leaders and followers could be exposed to followership principles in safe virtual learning environments familiar to officers such as HYDRA (COP, 2020) then the new leadership paradigm of followership could be trialled in a range of real policing environments. The conditions required for followership to thrive will only be learnt through such a change process, supported by further academic research and adaptations by the profession.

To serve the public in any capacity as an officer, member of staff or volunteer is a demanding task. It is the responsibility of leaders to ensure the wellbeing of those discharging it is prioritised. Ideal Follower Leadership is a theoretical framework developed by practitioners who follow and lead in conjunction with academic policing experts. The benefits of the adoption of Ideal Follower Leadership justify its further refinement in conjunction with practitioners, senior leaders and academics towards integration into police leadership practice. Although this research provides evidence of good leadership quality and leader follower relationships, momentum must be maintained in improving both areas, thereby progressing the wellbeing agenda.

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Appendices

Appendix One: Ethical Approval

University Ethics Sub-Committee for Criminology and School of Education

01/12/2016

Ethics Reference: 7005-kaf16-criminology

TO:
Name of Researcher Applicant: Keith Floyd
Department: Criminology
Research Project Title: Follow the Leader: A Critical Analysis of the Relationship Between Leaders and Followers in UK Policing

Dear Keith Floyd,

RE: Ethics review of Research Study application

The University Ethics Sub-Committee for Criminology and School of Education has reviewed and discussed the above application.

1. Ethical opinion

The Sub-Committee grants ethical approval to the above research project on the basis described in the application form and supporting documentation, subject to the conditions specified below.

2. Summary of ethics review discussion

The Committee noted the following issues:
Your application is now approved. The best of luck with your research

Hillary

3. General conditions of the ethical approval

The ethics approval is subject to the following general conditions being met prior to the start of the project:

As the Principal Investigator, you are expected to deliver the research project in accordance with the University's policies and procedures, which includes the University's Research Code of Conduct and the University's Research Ethics Policy.

If relevant, management permission or approval (gate keeper role) must be obtained from host organisation prior to the start of the study at the site concerned.

4. Reporting requirements after ethical approval

You are expected to notify the Sub-Committee about:

- Significant amendments to the project
- Serious breaches of the protocol
- Annual progress reports
- Notifying the end of the study

5. Use of application information

Details from your ethics application will be stored on the University Ethics Online System. With your permission, the Sub-Committee may wish to use parts of the application in an anonymised format for training or sharing best practice. Please let me know if you do not want the application details to be used in this manner.

Best wishes for the success of this research project.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Laura Brace
Chair

Appendix Two: Online Questionnaire Invitation, Information and Consent Form

You are invited to take part in a research project studying the relationship between leaders and followers in UK policing by completing the below questionnaire. The project is being conducted by Keith Floyd as a partial requirement for the award of a PhD with the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. Please read the following information carefully before deciding whether to complete the questionnaire. You are welcome to discuss the project with others if you wish before making a decision. Nobody has been selected to take part, all respondents will make their own choice to participate.

Background Information:

Without leaders there can be no followers, and without followers, there can be no leaders. Individuals can perform both roles at different times and in different situations. The purpose of this study is to establish to what extent a better understanding of the follower / leader relationship in UK policing could offer potential benefits to both the public and members of the service.

This survey explores the opinions of Police Officers, PCSO's, Police Staff, Special Constabulary members and Volunteers about leadership. The majority of leadership studies have focussed on the personal qualities or attributes of leaders. I am seeking to understand what the role of the follower is to police leadership.

Procedures:

If you agree to participate you will be required to complete an online questionnaire which should take around 10-15 minutes. The questions come from established surveys and are designed to provide a broad national picture of the relationship between police followers and leaders.

Confidentiality:

The information provided by your answers will be used for research purposes only. It will not be used in any manner which would allow identification of you or your individual responses. Anonymised research data will be securely archived at the University of Leicester in order to make them available to other researchers in line with current data sharing practices. All the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. It will be impossible to identify you from my thesis or any part of it, if published. If published, a copy will be obtainable via the University of Leicester Library. All personal data will be anonymised from the outset. Data from your answers will be amalgamated and analysed along with other responses, therefore it will not be possible to exclude it after September 2018, the estimated date when I will have completed the data analysis.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Completion of this questionnaire is voluntary. There are no reasonably foreseeable discomforts, disadvantages or risks in taking part. *There are no immediate benefits in taking part, other than the opportunity to win a £25 Amazon voucher. The winner will be selected*

randomly. Should you wish to enter the draw for the voucher, please supply a mobile phone number in the space provided when you have completed the survey.

- The questions are short and straightforward so try not to overthink your answers
- All the questions are in the form of statements. You are being asked to what extent you agree or disagree with those statements
- The survey is anonymous, so please feel free to answer the way you really feel
- You can return to the questionnaire if unable to complete in one go by clicking the 'Finish Later' link at the bottom of each page and emailing the survey to an email address of your choice
- You can alter the appearance of the survey to suit your device by clicking the 'View as separate questions instead?' link before each question
- To complete the survey, please only provide one answer per question and answer all the questions

By continuing beyond this point you are confirming your consent to take part.

Appendix Three: Interview Participant Information and Consent Form

Participation Invitation, Information and Consent: Interviews

Follow The Leader: A Critical Analysis of the Relationship Between Leaders and Followers in UK Policing

You are invited to take part in a research project, studying the relationship between leaders and followers in UK policing. This study is being conducted by Keith Floyd as a partial requirement for the award of a PhD with the Department of Criminology at the University of Leicester. Please read the following information carefully before deciding whether to take part. You are welcome to discuss the project with others if you wish before making a decision. You have been selected due to your policing experience or academic knowledge of policing.

Background Information:
Without leaders there can be no followers, and without followers, there can be no leaders. Individuals can perform both roles at different times and in different situations. The relationships between leaders and followers have not previously been studied in UK policing. The study of followership has been neglected compared to the study of leadership. Followership involves analysis of how followers interact with leaders. The purpose of this study is to establish to what extent a better understanding of the follower / leader relationship in UK policing could offer potential benefits to both the public and members of the service.

Procedures:
If you agree to participate in this study, you will be required to take part in an interview lasting approximately 60 to 90 minutes, either face to face, by telephone or video call, according to your preference. The most important thing is to ensure you are satisfied the things you say will remain confidential. You may prefer to be interviewed by telephone rather than in the workplace so you are sure that nobody else knows you have been involved. We can also arrange an interview away from police premises if you prefer. The interview will be audio recorded to allow for transcription and analysis by me at a later date. No other use will be made of your interview without your written permission, and no-one else will be allowed to access the original recordings. The recordings will be destroyed once analysis is complete, estimated around September 2018.

Confidentiality:
The information provided by you during the interview will be used for research purposes only. It will not be used in any manner which would allow identification of you or your individual responses. Anonymised research data will be securely archived at the University of Leicester in order to make them available to other researchers in line with current data sharing practices. All the information you provide will be kept strictly confidential. It will be impossible to identify you from my thesis or any part of it, if published. If published, a copy will be obtainable via the University of Leicester Library. All personal data will be anonymized from the outset. Data from your answers will be amalgamated and analysed along with other responses, therefore it will not be possible to exclude it after September 2018, the estimated date when I will have analysed the data.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Participation in this study is voluntary, you are free to withdraw at any time for any reason and you can choose not to answer particular questions. There are no reasonably foreseeable discomforts,

disadvantages or risks in taking part. Whilst there are no immediate benefits in taking part, it is hoped this research will contribute to the development of police leadership in the future.

Contacts and Questions:
If you have any questions, please contact Keith Floyd on kaf16@le.ac.uk or 07544 293904.

If you have any concerns about your participation in this research, please contact my supervisor Dr Matt Hopkins at mh330@leicester.ac.uk

You can save a copy of this form to keep for your records.
Thank you for reading this information. Keith Floyd, 11/02/18.

If you are happy to proceed and give your consent to being interviewed, please complete the form below.

Please tick the appropriate boxes	**Yes**	**No**
Taking Part		
I have read and understood the information contained in this form.		
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.		
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include being interviewed and audio recorded.		
I understand that my taking part is voluntary; I can withdraw from the study at any time and I do not have to give any reasons for why I no longer want to take part.		
Use of the information I provide for this project only		
I understand my personal details such as name, phone number, home or work address will not be revealed.		
I understand that my words however may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.		
Use of the information I provide beyond this project		
I agree for the data I provide to be archived at the University of Leicester		
I understand that other genuine researchers will have access to this data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my words in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs, only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
So we can use the information you provide legally		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold in any materials related to this project to Keith Floyd.		

Name of participant…….

Signature ……Date ……

Researcher … Keith Floyd … Signature … Keith Floyd … Date 11/02/18.
Adapted from UK Data Archive (2011) 'Managing and Sharing Data: Best Practice for Researchers' (available at http://www.data-archive.ac.uk/media/2894/managingsharing.pdf).

Appendix Four: Participant Briefing Document

Interview Briefing Document

1). Introduction

Thank you for considering taking part in an interview assisting with PhD research into leadership and followership in policing. You have been invited to contribute due to your expertise in policing, leadership or policing research. This document provides both an introduction and a background to the interview by outlining the key findings from a national questionnaire completed by 653 police officers, PCSO's, police staff and volunteers. Statistical analysis of the questionnaire resulted in the development of a new theoretical framework called 'Ideal Follower Leadership'. The current phase of the project forms the second stage of a mixed-method approach. The purpose of the interview is to:

- Capture expert interpretation of the questionnaire results and expert opinion on the validity of the 'Ideal Follower Leadership' theoretical framework.
- Ensure there are no gaps in the literature review and theoretical chapters and no key concepts or theories are being overlooked.
- Elicit expert opinion on the feasibility of an increasing followership culture in policing.
- Test the effectiveness of a hybrid 'Expert Elicitation'/'Delphi Poll' methodology.
- Develop new police leadership theory

This briefing document has been compiled to assist with preparation for the interview. It is designed to inform our discussion, which in turn will provide a reality/quality check for the research. Your insight, knowledge and experience will contribute greatly to the credibility of the research, adding invaluable interpretation of the questionnaire results and prompting a broader discussion of leadership and followership in policing. Please feel free to read the document and make any notes you might find helpful, focussing on the sections which are of particular interest to you. The document contains the following sections:

- Questionnaire findings
- Followership theory
- 'Ideal Follower Leadership'
- Literature review themes
- Critical Leadership Studies (CLS)
- Free text question responses
- Examples of interview questions

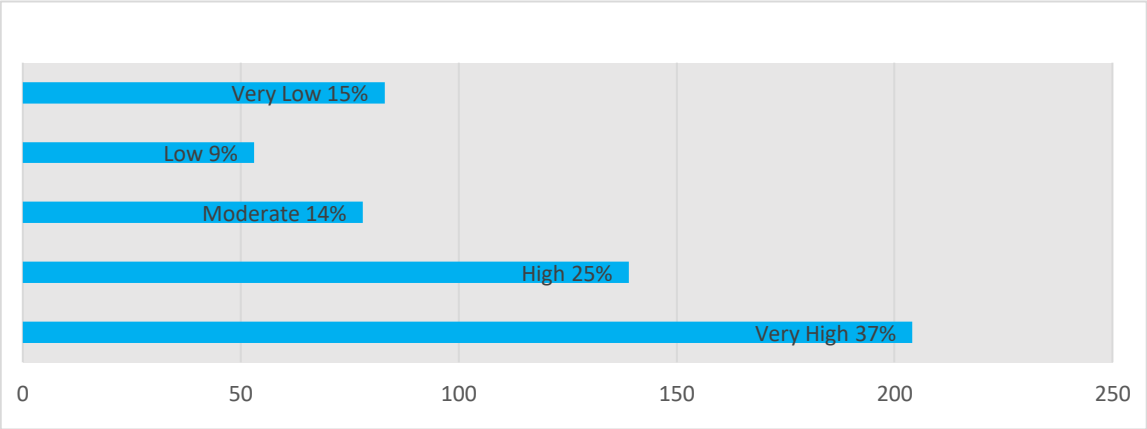
Should you be interested in seeing a summary of the survey responses, they are available

here:https://www.dropbox.com/s/v69ilxmh1zpllmn/Questionnaire%20Response%20PDF%20Redacted%20Summary.pdf?dl=0

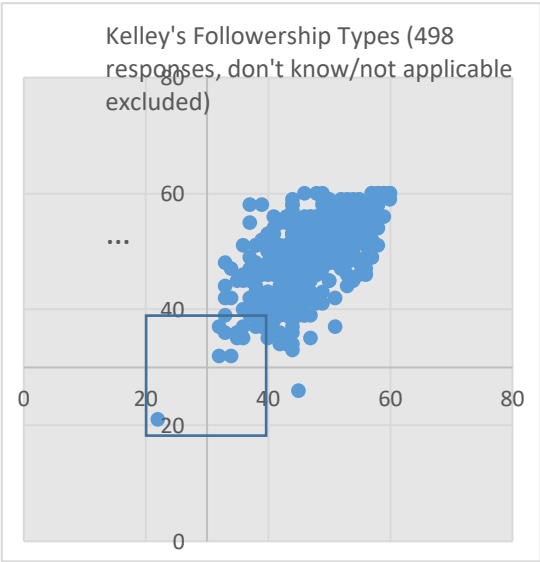
You are respectfully requested not to share this data, it is for your information only.

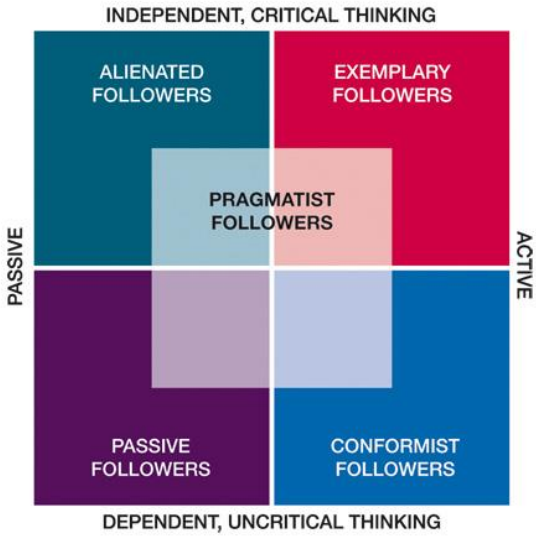
2). Questionnaire Findings

Overall, respondents were supportive of the line manager leadership they currently receive. 67% of responses were positive and 28% were negative, with 5% don't know/not applicable. Further data were collected concerning the relationship quality between line managers and followers. 62% reported positive relationships with the remaining 38% describing their relationships as ranging from moderate to very low quality. This is illustrated in the table below.



Finally, participants were asked self-report questions to assess what type of follower they are, according to the followership typology developed by Kelley (1992).





The vast majority of respondents placed themselves in the exemplary follower category. The skewed result shown above makes further consideration of Kelley and other followership theory worthwhile at this stage.

What are your initial Impressions of the questionnaire results?

3a). Kelley Followership Theory (1992)

A more typical spread of results obtained as a result of Kelley's research, along with explanations for each archetype, is provided below:

Alienated Followers (Alienated / Passive / Critical Thinker) Typically 15-25% of the population

Individuals possessing the ability to critically evaluate the leader's plans, vision and intentions; reaching logical conclusions. Despite this, they feel unable to use this ability. They behave passively, unable to share this information upwards to management, laterally, or downwards to subordinates. Hence they become frustrated, internalising their opinions. Potentially effective followers, but disaffected by previous experiences with supervisors, they retain their ability to critique, but not to critique constructively.

Conformist Followers (Yes People / Active / Uncritical Thinkers) Typically 20-30% of the population

More often found in hierarchical or bureaucratic organisation, these are individuals who behave actively and are willing to take on extra tasks without question. Capable performers, they do not challenge the leader's vision, corporacy or the tasks they are given. They may fall victim to toxic leadership, performing unethical tasks if directed to do so.

Pragmatist Followers (Survivors / Middle Orientated) Typically 25-35% of the population

Pragmatists are situational followers, capable of critical thinking and being active participants but choosing when to apply these abilities, in order to benefit themselves. In the shorter term, they may choose not to question tasks, but strategically in the longer term, they may adopt a more critical approach. Pragmatic followers always belong to another category; in this sample
overwhelmingly 'Pragmatic Followers' overlay, therefore could also be, 'Exemplary Followers'.

Passive Followers (Sheep / Passive / Uncritical Thinkers) Typically 5-10% of the population

Passive followers focus on the task at hand without question. They may require a greater degree of supervision when undertaking unfamiliar tasks and are happy to allow other followers or leaders to think critically. Passive followers in an organisation might be attributable to poor delegation, lack of structures supporting active behaviours or inadequate internal information flow.

Exemplary Followers (Effective / Active / Critical Thinkers) Typically 35-45% of the population

This 'ideal type' group analyse and evaluate options available to them personally, to wider groups of employees and to the leader(s). They actively and constructively share their findings. They are assertive and confident to take risks in order to find the best solutions for everyone, rather than complying with a particular leader, group or cause (Kelley, 1992).

Summary:
The atypical result received from this section of my questionnaire might be attributable to the self-reporting format, with respondents possibly identifying with the ideal-type answers. It could equally be that policing requires employees to be exceptionally independent, decisive, courageous and assertive; all desirable and essential traits, particularly for public-facing roles. Alternatively, Kelley's archetypes may not be appropriate for policing and new scales or descriptors may be required, due to the skewing of the data in this sample.

Is a new followership typology specific to policing required to avoid such a homogenous result? What might it look like?

3b). Other Followership Theory:
In order to provide further background information, a review of a range of other followership theories is provided. Key terminology is summarised in the table below:

Followership Theory	**Key Features**
Baker (2007) Four Tenets of Followership:	v) Followers and leaders are roles, not people with inherent characteristics vi) Followers are active, not passive vii) Followers and leaders share a common purpose viii) Followers and leaders must be studied in the context of their relationship
Howell and Mendez (2008) Followership Approaches	1). Interactive: Followers support and complement the leader, becoming critically important to the achievement of organisational goals. They do this by applying their knowledge and competence, collaborating with the leader, supporting them and positively influencing them. 2). Independent: More skilled, trained and experienced followers assume leadership tasks and behaviours. 3). Shifting: Followers adapt to changing circumstances, whether taking part in decision-making, challenging colleagues or acting as role-models.
Stech (2008) New Leadership – Followership Paradigm	1). Leader – Follower Paradigm: The individual leader is an exemplar or hero. 2). Leader – Follower *Position* Paradigm: Emphasises the formal, hierarchical and bureaucratic structures of an organisation. 3). Leader – Follower *State* Paradigm: Leadership and followership are roles that can be occupied by different people at different times. It is this third paradigm which resonates with the chosen CLS approach of the current study, and concords with Collinson's (2005, p. 1436) call for: "multiple, shifting, contradictory and ambiguous identities of leaders and followers", and Hock's (1999, p.72) assertion: "In the deepest sense, distinction between leaders and followers is meaningless. In every moment of life, we are simultaneously leading and following".

<table>
<tr>
<td><u>Chaleff (2003) Courageous Followership:</u></td>
<td>Chaleff (2003) explained the relationship between leaders and followers as the working towards the achievement of a common goal (Chaleff, 2003). Chaleff's courageous followership model has five dimensions through which leader-follower relationships can improve.
1). Courage to assume responsibility for themselves and their organizations. Courageous followers seek opportunities to fulfil their potential.
2). Courage to serve their leaders and organisations to achieve a common purpose.
3). Courage to challenge anything undermining the organisation's integrity.
4). Courage to participate in change.
5). Courage to take moral action (Chaleff, 2003).
Chaleff (2003) explained a leader's responsibility was to listen, support and respond to courageous followership. Chaleff devised his own typology of followership, as follows:
High Support
Low Challenge
Implementer | Partner
Resource | Individualist
High Challenge
Low Support</td>
</tr>
</table>

<u>4). A new theoretical framework emerging from the questionnaire: 'Pro-Follower Leadership'</u>

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted. EFA is a statistical technique which reveals the most important factors required to define a phenomenon. It achieves this by measuring participant responses to measurable variables which underlie latent characteristics which cannot be defined or measured, such as popularity or sociability. In this case, EFA was used to discover which leadership inputs had the greatest impact on follower outcomes, and what the optimal relationship between leaders and followers might be. The resultant model appears below. Five dominant factors were revealed. The 'central' factor to the model, depicted by the large central circle, summarises an ideal type relationship between leaders and followers. The other four factors demonstrate leader inputs which effect follower outcomes. This model presents a pro-followership situation and is thus reflected in the working title: 'Pro-Follower Leadership'. 'Pro-Follower Leadership' offers an emergent theoretical framework for police leadership which, following analysis of data from these interviews, could be used to develop new theory:


Good Leaders:
Take Difficult Decisions and Calculated Risks
Show Determination
Communicate Vision
Establish Links
Optimum Leader/Follower Relationship
Approachable Open Enabling Leaders
+
Empowered Trusted Followers who know where they stand
Effective Followers:
Prioritise Tasks
Go Above and Beyond
Self-Develop
Committed and Energised
Good Team Players
Fulfilled Followers:
Job Satisfaction
Self Esteem
Committment
Achievement
Less Stress
Good Leaders:
Develop Strengths
Motivate
Mentor
Consider Feelings
Take a Genuine Interest

5). Literature Review

The following topics have been considered in the review of police leadership, wider leadership and followership theory:

- Definitions and theories of leadership, followership, management
- Chronology of police leadership and leadership training
- Leadership and wellbeing
- Police culture
- Police professionalisation agenda
- Critical Leadership Studies
- External challenges, oversight and governance in policing
- Emergent leadership theory from Neyroud Review (2011) (e.g. servant, ethical, authentic, shared leadership)
- New leadership thinking (e.g. Matthew Syed 'Black Box Thinking', new types of organisational culture, e.g. more trusting or learning cultures)
- The effect of power and hierarchy on the relationship between police leaders and followers

Please think about these and any other significant concepts you would expect to see in this list. Please feel free to mention them at the interview.

6). Critical Leadership Studies

The views of the Critical Leadership Studies (CLS) movement have been influential in the literature review. The below quotes provide a flavour of the CLS view on how leadership has operated historically, contrasted with how it might evolve in the future, after reconsidering the leader/follower relationship:

"[followership is] an emergent, alternative paradigm questioning deep-seated assumptions that power and agency should be vested in the hands of a few leaders and exploring the dysfunctional consequences of such power dynamics for individuals, organisations, and societies" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 2).

"the systematic neglect of followers in leader-centric perspectives" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 30).

"Conventionally opposition from followers has been explained in terms of 'misunderstanding' … rather than useful feedback" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 5)

"[leadership quality is measured by the] effective or ineffective exercise of power, authority and influence" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 4)

"[historically] depictions of leaders as miracle workers who do and who should have absolute power, and of followers as people who should unquestioningly commit to the causes espoused by leaders" (Collinson and Tourish, 2015, p. 4).

"To treat leading and following as simultaneous is to redistribute knowing and doubting more widely, to expect ignorance and fallibility to be similarly distributed, and to expect

that knowledge is what happens between heads rather than inside a single leader's head" (Weick, 2007, p. 281).

Your thoughts are invited on how applicable these comments might be to policing historically. To what extent might the study of followership be incorporated into future police leadership practice?

7). Free text Question Responses

The survey closed with a free text question, inviting any additional thoughts about police leadership and followership. Response data to this question were analysed using NVIVO software. The volume of negative or critical headings seem disproportionate to the overall satisfaction with line manager leadership revealed through the quantitative data. The many positive relationships suggested by the quality of relationship result above were reflected in the freetext comments, but critical comments were provided about a sizeable minority of line managers. Arguably this question might have been used in some cases as a platform to 'sound off', but equally the criticisms could be real and justified, albeit coming from a minority of participants.

NVIVO Themes:

Organisational Factors: police culture, too many chiefs, leadership and rank, concepts of leadership, culture of complaint, leaders making change for self-advancement, butterfly syndrome, austerity, acting ranks.
Operational Factors: time pressures, risk aversion.
Leadership Theory: trust, support, leadership vs management, leadership distance, inspiring leadership, ethical leadership, leadership authenticity.
Leadership Negatives: weak, unpredictable, unethical, undermining, unclear communications, uncaring, transactional, slave to corporacy, slave to career advancement, self-interest, reliance on rank, preserving status quo, poor interpersonal skills, part time workers, non-practical leaders, no consultation, nepotism, micromanagement, low emotional intelligence, leader turnover, lack of visibility, lack of trust, lack of personal commitment, lack of people skills, lack of leadership training, lack of integrity, lack of faith, inappropriate leadership for my role, inconsistent use of discipline, inconsistent quality, inconsistency between ranks, favouritism, emotional effect of poor leadership, does not develop me, does not challenge, disingenuine, bureaucratic, bullying, ambition.
Followership Theory: millennials … differing dynamic, leader/follower power distance, do I follow?
Followership Positives: self-motivation, effective leadership, aspirations to improve, appropriate challenge.
Followership Negatives: personal motivation, followership thwarted.
Follower Outcomes: *(negative)* waiting to leave, stressed, picked on, no opportunities, frustration, follow because I have to, let down;
(positive) confidence in leader, job satisfaction, empowerment.
Follower Inputs: Followers teaching leaders, followers challenging leaders
External Factors: leader cowardice to change

Hopefully these themes may provide food for thought. Are they familiar or alien to your experience of police leadership/followership?

8). Example Interview Questions: (These are just a guide; the interview will be semi-structured. Your experience and expertise will dictate the content of the interview).

1. What are your initial impressions of the questionnaire results, Kelley's typology in particular?
2. Does the emergent 'Ideal Follower Leadership' model above resonate with your perception of police leadership and followership? Is it realistic? Is it achievable?
3. Given historical criticisms of police leadership, has the subject of followership been overlooked?
4. Could the application of followership theory, especially as promoted by the principles of the Critical Leadership Studies (CLS) movement outlined above, influence the development of future police leadership styles?
5. What is missing from the 'Ideal Follower Leadership' model? For example, an overarching concept such as ethical leadership; the inclusion of specific leadership styles or leadership legitimacy?
6. What leadership inputs could promote the development of the type of followers described in the 'Ideal Follower Leadership' model?
7. Should the historical hierarchical policing culture be broken down in favour of the promotion of followership culture?
   7a. Can police culture be changed?
   7b. What could followership culture look like?
   7c. How could a followership culture be established?
   7d. Could a rebalancing of power from leaders to followers succeed in policing?
8. Could a greater emphasis on follower autonomy combat the detrimental effects of the austerity agenda?
9. Is transformational leadership still apparent and relevant?
10. Considering external challenges, influences and oversight on policing, can police leadership afford to be experimental and innovative enough to promote followership?
11. Describe your experience of the nature and quality of leader/follower relationships in policing. Does it differ at personal/institutional/national levels?
12. Could raising the profile of followership improve wellbeing? Could you offer examples?
13. Can you describe examples of good leadership/followership practice? What made it good? Did this happen across the organisation or in small specialist departments with flattened leadership structures, reduced power/distance relationships, within different 'cultural bubbles?'
14. Can you describe examples of poor leadership/followership practice? What made it poor?
15. Could lessons be learnt in policing about leadership and followership from other organisations, e.g. military, health, education.

If you have any questions about any of the above before the interview, please don't hesitate to contact 07544 293904 or email: kaf16@le.ac.uk

Thank you once again for your valuable assistance. I will be in touch soon to confirm whether you are still willing to participate and if so, to begin making the necessary arrangements.

Kind Regards, Keith.

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Appendix Five: Generation of Research Sub-Questions

Summary of Conceptual Themes and Research Sub-Questions from Chapters One and Two

A summary of the many overlapping conceptual themes, associated terminology and research sub-questions derived from the literature review and theoretical framework is provided below. These were key in informing the design of the questionnaire in research method one and the question set in research method two.

The tables below summarise a broad range of theoretical themes and terminology informed by the literature review, theoretical framework, initial findings of research method one, and my own reflections. These headings appear alongside the relevant tables below. My intention as a starting point, was to generate as broad a range of research sub-questions as possible. These were then grouped into themes and aligned with the three research aims stated above. Through a process of 'starting wide' and filtering down, the sub-questions became more manageable and would inform the question set for research method two. It also provided a framework, allowing me to be well-informed as interviewees discussed different topics and where necessary, draw them back into the areas I had already defined as being important in fulfilling my research aim and answering my research question and sub-questions.

Firstly, here is a reminder of the high-level themes from chapter one, table one:

Themes from Chapter One:

1). The extent to which transformational leadership is still apparent in current police leadership practice.
2). The continued appropriateness of the transformational leadership style to contemporary policing.
3). The potential benefits a CLS perspective, foregrounding the concept of followership, could bring.
4). The portrayal of police culture and its effect on leadership style.
5). Consideration of how police leadership operates at all levels, particularly leadership.
6). Analysis of emerging issues in policing such as wellbeing, professionalisation and austerity and their effect on leadership practice.
7). The unique external influences on police leadership.

Table 18 Summary of Themes, Chapter One

Further Research Subquestions Generated by Chapter One, Literature Review:

Conceptual Theme from Chapter One	Research Aim	Research Sub-Questions	Research Instrument
The extent to which transformational leadership is still apparent in current police leadership practice.	3	1.1) Do you witness transformational leadership in practice? 1.2) Are you a transformational leader? 1.3) Is there still a role for transformational leadership in policing? 1.4) What elements of transformational leadership are desirable in policing? 1.5) What are the downsides of transformational leadership in policing?	Both
The continued appropriateness of the transformational leadership style to contemporary policing.	3	1.6) What are the biggest challenges to contemporary policing? 1.6) What type of leadership is needed to meet these challenges? 1.7) Is transformational leadership suitable as austerity measures continue? 1.8) Are the claims made for the contribution of transformational leadership still valid? 1.9) Is transformational leadership compatible with the burgeoning wellbeing agenda?	RM2
The potential benefits a CLS perspective, foregrounding the concept of followership, could bring.	1	1.8) What do you understand by followership? 1.9) How could you see followership improving police performance? 1.10) How could you see followership improving police wellbeing? 1.11) Could a greater emphasis on the role of followers work in policing? 1.12) Is the hierarchical nature of policing compatible with followership?	Both
The portrayal of police culture and its effect on leadership style	1,2,3	1.12) Is police culture is a negative or positive force toward change? 1.13) What is the police approach to change? 1.15) What type of leadership works best in policing? 1.16) Do you envisage an understanding of followership in future police leadership training?	Both

Consideration of how police leadership operates at all levels, particularly leadership	1,2,3	1.16) Is leadership adequate? 1.17) How could leadership be improved? 1.18) What are the hallmarks of good leadership? 1.19) What are the hallmarks of good strategic leadership?	Both

Analysis of emerging issues in policing such as wellbeing, professionalisation and austerity and their effect on leadership practice	1,2,3	1.20) What are the internal tensions between leaders and followers in policing? 1.21) What are the external tensions for policing and how can leaders mitigate them? 1.22) Do competing demands in policing require an ambidextrous leadership style? 1.23) Is the emergence of followership inevitable as police organisations evolve?	Both
The unique external influences on police leadership	1	1.22) What are the external influences on police leadership? 1.23) Are these influences all appropriate? Is policing over-policed? 1.24) Can police leadership change to accommodate the needs and expectations of followers?	RM2

Table 19 Research Sub-Questions from Chapter One

<u>Further Research Subquestions Generated by Chapter Two, Theoretical Framework:</u>

Research Aim	Research Sub-Question	Research Instrument
3	2.1) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers in policing organisations?	Both
3	2.2) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to age?	Both
3	2.3) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to gender?	Both
3	2.4) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to ethnicity?	Both
3	2.5) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to rank/grade	Both
3	2.6) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to experience?	Both
3	2.7) Which leadership attributes are most frequently observed by followers, according to organisation?	Both
3	2.8) What are the greatest areas for improvement in police leadership, according to followers?	Both

1,2	2.9) How could followers contribute better to organisational performance?	RM2
1,2	2.10) How could followers contribute better to the formulation of policing strategy?	RM2
3	2.11) Which elements of different leadership theory are potentially most valuable to police leadership?	Both
3	2.12) Which elements of different leadership styles are potentially most valuable to police leadership?	Both
1	2.13) Which elements of followership theory are potentially most valuable to police leadership?	RM2
1	2.14) What is the followership style typology of UK Policing?	RM1
1,3	2.15) What are the characteristics of UK police leaders from a follower's perspective?	Both
1,2,3	2.16) How can leaders and followers detract from an organisation?	Both
1,2,3	2.17) How can leaders and followers add to an organisation?	Both
1,2,3	2.18) Is police leadership ethical, from a follower perspective?	Both
1,2,3	2.19) Do followers witness transformational leadership in policing?	Both
1	2.20) Is there a role for followers to reform police culture?	Both
2	2.21) What is the relationship between leaders and followers in policing?	Both
1,2,3	2.22) Which aspects of specified leadership styles would be welcomed by followers?	Both
1,2,3	2.23) How could the role of followers be promoted in UK policing?	RM2
1	2.24) What kind of follower are you?	RM2
1	2.25) How could you be a better follower?	RM2
1	2.26) Is follower input, if encouraged or offered, viewed positively as useful feedback or as negative dissent?	RM2
1	2.27) What are the relationships between transformational, servant, ethical, authentic leadership and followership?	Both
1,3	2.28) What do followers recognise as the positive and negative attributes of servant leadership for policing?	RM2
1,3	2.29) What do followers recognise as the positive and negative attributes of ethical leadership for policing?	RM2
1,3	2.30) What do followers recognise as the positive and negative attributes of authentic leadership for policing?	RM2

1,3	2.31) What do followers recognise as the positive and negative attributes of shared or distributed leadership for policing?	RM2

Table 20 Research Sub-Questions from Chapter Tw

Further Research Subquestions Generated by the Initial Findings of Chapter Four, Research Method One (Questionnaire):

Research Aim	Research Sub-Question (Generated from Kelley's Followership Questions)	Research Instrument
1,3	3.1) Because almost all participants provided answers which classified them as 'exemplary followers', does this mean there is a potential for a greater understanding of followership to enhance police leadership practice?	RM2
1,3	3.2) Because almost all participants provided answers which classified them as 'exemplary followers', does this mean there is a potential for police leaders to harness such followership abilities in a better way?	RM2
1,3	3.3) Because almost all participants provided answers which classified them as 'exemplary followers', does this mean that many police followers have an exaggerated opinion of their followership abilities?	RM2
1,3	3.4) Because almost all participants provided answers which classified them as 'exemplary followers', does this mean Kelley's followership theory and/or typology is not applicable to policing?	RM2
1,3	3.5) Because almost all participants provided answers which classified them as 'exemplary followers', does this mean Kelley's followership theory and/or typology could be adapted to become relevant and beneficial to policing?	RM2
Research Aim	Research Sub-Question (Generated from LMX7 Questions)	
1,3	3.6) Most leader/follower relationships are described by followers as 'good' or 'very good'. This being the case, is it only a small proportion of police leaders who require the most development in terms of their leadership practice?	RM2
1,3	3.7) In the small but significant proportion of cases where followers report low or very low-quality relationships with their leader, how could these relationships be improved?	RM2

1,3	3.8) In the small but significant proportion of cases where followers report low or very low-quality relationships with their leader, how are these relationships allowed to continue?	RM2
Research Aim	Research Sub-Question (Generated from thematic summaries of qualitative responses)	
1,3	3.9) Why is there such inconsistency reported in the quality of police leadership by police followers?	RM2
1,3	3.10) Is police leadership dictatorial and does rank protect poor leaders?	RM2
1,3	3.11) Are the direct entry schemes to police leadership positions a result of poor leadership development in the past?	RM2
1,3	3.12) Are police rank structures, processes and culture all blockers to empowering followers?	RM2
1,3	3.13) Is austerity policing causing a recurrence of transactional leadership?	RM2
1,3	3.14) Is leadership seen as more about doing things to achieve the next rank rather than actually providing leadership?	RM2
1,3	3.15) Is the abundance of officers in acting ranks detrimental to the quality of leadership?	RM2
1,3	3.16) Why is 'near' leadership more valued than 'distant' leadership?	RM2
1,3	3.17) How will police leadership need to adapt to accommodate recruits from the millennial generation?	RM2
1,3	3.18) Do senior leaders need to encourage lateral thinking and the introduction of new ideas?	RM2
1,3	3.19) Do you agree that honest ideas cannot be had in anything other than online surveys? How can true followership be practiced in such an environment?	RM2
1,3	3.20) How can some leaders show so little interest in staff undergoing challenging personal and professional times?	RM2
1,3	3.21) Why are leaders allowed to make damaging changes to further their careers?	RM2
1,3	3.22) Do you agree that ironically, in times when leadership is required, management comes to the fore?	RM2
1,3	3.23) Why is there such variance between leadership quality and style between forces?	RM2
1,3	3.24) How can leaders be allowed to be innovative and creative?	RM2
1,3	3.25) Is the impact of a poor or good leader on a follower underestimated?	RM2
1,3	3.26) Can a leader be called 'good' if they fail to acknowledge and utilise the skills of their team members?	RM2
1,3	3.27) Do you need to be a competent police officer before you can become a good leader?	RM2

1,3	3.28) Is leadership being stifled by senior officers promoting those in their own image?	RM2
1,3	3.29) Does corporacy stifle leadership? Are leaders afraid taking risks and making mistakes will threaten their careers?	RM2
1,3	3.30) How can lack of promotion opportunities or lateral development be overcome to keep staff motivated?	RM2

Table 21 Research Sub-Questions from Initial Findings of Research Method One

Further Research Subquestions Generated by the Researcher's Own Reflections:

Research Aim	Research Sub-Question	
1	4.1) What is the structure of the model of followership typology in policing?	RM1
1,2,3	4.2) If Kelley's typology is inappropriate to policing, could a grounded theory approach develop a more relevant model?	Both
1	4.3) What are the characteristics of police leaders from a follower's perspective?	Both
1,3	4.4) How can leaders and followers detract from or add to an organisation?	Both
1	4.5) Is police leadership ethical, from a follower perspective?	Both
1,3	4.6) Is there a role for followers to reform police culture?	Both
1,2,3	4.7) What is the relationship between leaders and followers in policing?	Both
2	4.8) Which aspects of specified leadership styles would be welcomed by followers?	Both
1,2,3	4.9) How could the role of followers be promoted in policing?	Both
1,2,3	4.10) How could this research bring beneficial changes to policing?	RM2
1,3	4.11) How can leaders get the best out of followers and vice-versa?	RM2
3	4.12) Do servant, ethical, authentic, or shared leadership styles offer any benefits to police leadership?	RM2

Table 22 Research Sub-Questions from the Researchers Own Reflections

Appendix Six: Quantitative Explanations and SPSS Outputs

In the interests of accuracy of information and ease of completion, participants were offered the same response scale for all non-demographic questions. This allowed them to answer 'don't know' or 'not applicable' for every question, rather than being forced to fit their experience of leadership and followership into a category which did not truly fit. This meant that for each individual question where the 'don't know/not applicable' option was selected, for that question only, the response was treated in SPSS as "missing data pairwise" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p. 613). Other options for dealing with missing data include estimating or deleting data. These options run the risk of reducing the sample size to unacceptable levels which in turn can cause correlations to become artificially high and therefore create factors which otherwise might not emerge (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). By using the strategy of deleting missing data pairwise, the sample size on any given question never dropped below Comrey and Lee's (1992) rating of very good.

Procedure

The following steps were performed in order to complete the EFA process:

1. Data was exported from the Bristol Online Surveys (BOS) questionnaire hosting software interface to Excel.

2. Initial analysis of Kelley's Followership scores and LMX7 scores produced the results in chapter four.

3. Data was then exported from Excel to SPSS. Variables were named, coded, checked for errors and missing data and then recorded in a codebook. Missing data included 'don't know / not applicable' responses. The composition of the sample was obtained in terms of respondent rank/grade, gender, ethnicity, age, and length of service.

4. The only continuous variable relating to the sample demographic, age, was collapsed into a categorical variable to assist later analysis. This was achieved using the 'visual binning' technique in SPSS. Five age categories were requested and SPSS calculated cut points, placing all respondents into age groups (under 34, 34-40, 41-47, 48-52 and 53+). The mean age was 42.99 years.

5. Descriptive statistic tests were performed for the only continuous variable, age, to check for skewness and kurtosis. These tests are not appropriate for checking categorical variables. Skewness was -.180 and Kurtosis was -.632. These negative figures meant the sample was slightly older than expected, ages appearing slightly further right on a graph. Kurtosis meant there was a flatter age distribution when represented graphically, meaning more participants were at the lower and higher age ranges than expected. Skewness did not rule out parametric (normal distribution) tests as the figure was acceptable for those types of tests (e.g. t-test, ANOVA). The Kurtosis result could underestimate variance, but there was a reduced risk of this due to the large sample size (n=653). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 80) recommend using histograms to inspect for normal distribution. This was performed and the finding are described below.

6. The 'Codebook' feature in SPSS was used to further verify at a later stage when types of tests were being selected whether the age sample had a normal distribution so that parametric tests could be performed on the continuous 'age' variable. The median was 44, compared to the mean of 43, with the 25th centile at 35 and the 75th centile at 51 (Md=44, IQR: 35, 51).

7. Descriptive tests were run on each of the categorical demographic variables (rank/grade, gender, ethnicity, age, and length of service) to check for missing data. 18 examples had previously been identified when checking Excel of respondents who claimed to have served for either 31-40 or 41+ years where their ages were incompatible with this. This may have been due to errors when respondents entered their date of birth, or the year of birth or length of service

was deliberately changed to preserve anonymity, despite assurances the questionnaire was anonymous. These 18 examples of incompatible length of service were deleted and appeared as missing system data in SPSS. Other missing data had deliberately been coded for, when respondents returned 'don't know', 'not applicable' or 'prefer not to say' responses. A policy decision was made to select the "exclude cases pairwise" option in calculations where SPSS noted missing data to exclude an individual participant's response for that specific test only, thus maintaining the size of the database.

8. The normality of data was checked for all the questionnaire questions gathering anything other than demographic information, again to inform later decisions on which types of tests could be performed. This was achieved by using the 'explore' option of the 'descriptive statistics' menu in SPSS. This produced tables with measurements of mean, median, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, amongst other statistics. It also returned tests of normality represented in tabular form and histograms, normal probability plots, detrended normal plots and boxplots. For every variable, the trimmed mean was similar to the mean, showing normal results, meaning the extreme returns were not strongly affecting the mean values (Pallant, 2013). Skewness and kurtosis values did not give cause for concern due to the large sample size, as discussed previously. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic value for every variable was .000. Although a non-significant result of .050 indicates normality, and the .000 result violated this assumption, again this was not a matter for concern due to the large sample size (Pallant, 2013). Finally, the boxplots indicated 12 variables with outlier responses. The responses for these questions were checked. In every case the mean and trimmed means were very similar, meaning these very few outliers had no significant effect on the overall results for each variable (Pallant, 2013).

9. At this stage it was not necessary to manipulate any data. This could be revisited at a later date when considering whether statistical tests other than factor analysis were required to answer the research questions (Pallant, 2013: Cone and Foster, 2006). At that point, if the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic values

mentioned in 8 above were to become a factor, three options would present themselves. Firstly, parametric techniques could still be attempted given evidence that most parametric approaches will "tolerate minor violations of assumptions" (Pallant, 2013, pp. 116), especially with a large sample size. Secondly data manipulation could be attempted, transforming variables if normal distribution was not present. Thirdly non-parametric tests could be performed.

10. Next the reliability of all the scales (or non-demographic questions) were checked. Reliability checking requires all questions to be are framed in the positive (Pallant, 2013). An example of this is: "my line manager is consistent…" Consistency is considered a positive, the opposite, inconsistency, is a negative. If the respondent strongly agrees their line manager is consistent, that is a positive framing of the question. All questions were already framed positively, so reliability checking could continue. Cronbach's Alpha values were calculated for the three individual donor questionnaires and the questionnaire in total. The TLQ questions scored .990 overall, the LMX7 questions .957 and the Kelley questions .903. These all compared favourably to scores previously obtained found in relevant literature. According to Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2005) the TLQ scale has good internal consistency, with reported Cronbach alpha coefficients for the six component characteristics ranging between 0.830 and 0.960. According to Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001, the LMX7 scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient reported of .900. According to Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Mertler, Steyer, & Peterson, 1997; and VanDoren (1998), Kelley's Followership scale has good internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha coefficients reported of .840 (Dawson & Sparks, 2008; Mertler, Steyer, & Peterson, 1997) and .870 VanDoren (1998). All necessary checks were made to verify the reliability scores.

11. The final stage for now was to perform the EFA procedure in SPSS. As a precursor, it was determined that the sample size and relationships between variables were adequate. The literature confirmed both were (Pallant, 2013). Kaiser's criterion,

scree tests and parallel analysis were all applied in order to determine how many factors to extract. Kaiser's criterion suggested eight, scree tests suggested three, and parallel analysis suggested five. The decision was made to retain five components based on aggregated advice in the literature. Rotation was then performed using the Promax technique. Rotation is a technique used to "improve the interpretability and scientific utility of the solution" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p.637). This is achieved by maximising high correlations and minimising low correlations between variables, polarising the results. The choice between using an oblique factor rotation such as Promax and a contrasting method, orthogonal rotation, is dependent on the researcher's belief whether theory suggests whether the emergent components are informed by variables which are related to or independent of each other. In the social sciences, the conventional argument exists that components or factors identified through statistical analysis will very rarely be produced by completely unrelated variables. For example, when measuring a phenomenon such as career achievement, it is likely that variables which may contribute such as educational attainment and intelligence will be related to variables such as family background and associates. The case for the use of oblique rotation for any naturalistic data such as data involving human judgements is strongly argued by Field (2013, p. 681): "orthogonal rotations are a complete nonsense … can you think of any psychological construct that is not in any way correlated with some other psychological construct?"

Varimax orthogonal rotation was also attempted and the results were compared. It was observed during this experimental process that consistently more meaningful and workable results were obtained from Promax rotation, and ultimately this was the method used.

Ultimately the results from a five-component oblique rotation provided the only clear and meaningful picture capable of interpretation. The reasons for this are explained below.

A summary of the results obtained is as follows. For further information, see (Pallant, 2013, p. 207)

Summary of EFA Process:

The 69 items of the questionnaire were subjected to Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using SPSS version 24. Prior to performing EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .700 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .978, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix with a value of .000.

EFA revealed the presence of 8 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 50.066%, 9.852%, 3.479%, 3.100%, 2.627%, 1.987%, 1.716% and 1.475% of the variance respectively and 74.303% of the cumulative variance. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the third component, using Catell's (1966) scree test. Parallel analysis suggested the top five components should be retained for further investigation. Parallel analysis showed only 5 components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the same size, containing sixty-nine variables and six hundred and fifty-three respondents.

The five-component solution explained a total of 69.124% of the total variance, with Component 1 contributing 50.066%, Component 2 contributing 9.852%, Component 3 contributing 3.479%, Component 4 contributing 3.100% and Component 5 contributing 2.627%. The rotated solution revealed the presence of simple structure (Thurstone, 1947), one which satisfactorily provided the basis of the Ideal Follower Leadership model.

SPSS Outputs

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	34.545	50.066	50.066	33.808	48.998	48.998	32.391
2	6.798	9.852	59.918	6.297	9.127	58.124	11.140
3	2.401	3.479	63.397	2.058	2.983	61.107	22.218
4	2.139	3.100	66.497	1.369	1.984	63.092	15.306
5	1.813	2.627	69.124	1.248	1.809	64.901	12.440
6	1.371	1.987	71.111				
7	1.184	1.716	72.827				
8	1.018	1.475	74.303				
9	.972	1.408	75.711				
10	.872	1.264	76.974				
11	.769	1.114	78.089				
12	.725	1.051	79.140				
13	.694	1.006	80.146				
14	.652	.945	81.091				
15	.612	.887	81.978				
16	.601	.871	82.849				
17	.536	.777	83.626				
18	.520	.754	84.380				
19	.505	.732	85.112				
20	.473	.685	85.797				
21	.442	.641	86.437				
22	.426	.617	87.054				
23	.405	.587	87.641				
24	.402	.583	88.224				
25	.382	.554	88.778				
26	.371	.537	89.315				
27	.348	.504	89.820				
28	.330	.479	90.298				
29	.326	.472	90.770				
30	.311	.450	91.220				

31	.304	.441	91.661				
32	.292	.423	92.084				
33	.284	.411	92.495				
34	.273	.395	92.891				
35	.266	.386	93.276				
36	.251	.364	93.641				
37	.244	.353	93.994				
38	.241	.350	94.344				
39	.223	.324	94.667				
40	.216	.313	94.981				
41	.211	.306	95.286				
42	.202	.292	95.579				
43	.190	.275	95.854				
44	.186	.269	96.123				
45	.181	.262	96.385				
46	.172	.249	96.634				
47	.157	.228	96.862				
48	.153	.222	97.083				
49	.148	.214	97.298				
50	.147	.213	97.511				
51	.138	.200	97.710				
52	.135	.195	97.906				
53	.127	.184	98.090				
54	.124	.179	98.269				
55	.119	.173	98.442				
56	.111	.161	98.603				
57	.111	.160	98.763				
58	.106	.153	98.916				
59	.101	.146	99.062				
60	.090	.130	99.193				
61	.081	.117	99.310				
62	.079	.115	99.424				
63	.075	.108	99.533				
64	.069	.100	99.633				
65	.064	.093	99.726				
66	.062	.090	99.815				
67	.051	.074	99.890				
68	.042	.060	99.950				
69	.034	.050	100.000				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Table 23 SPSS Total Variance Explained

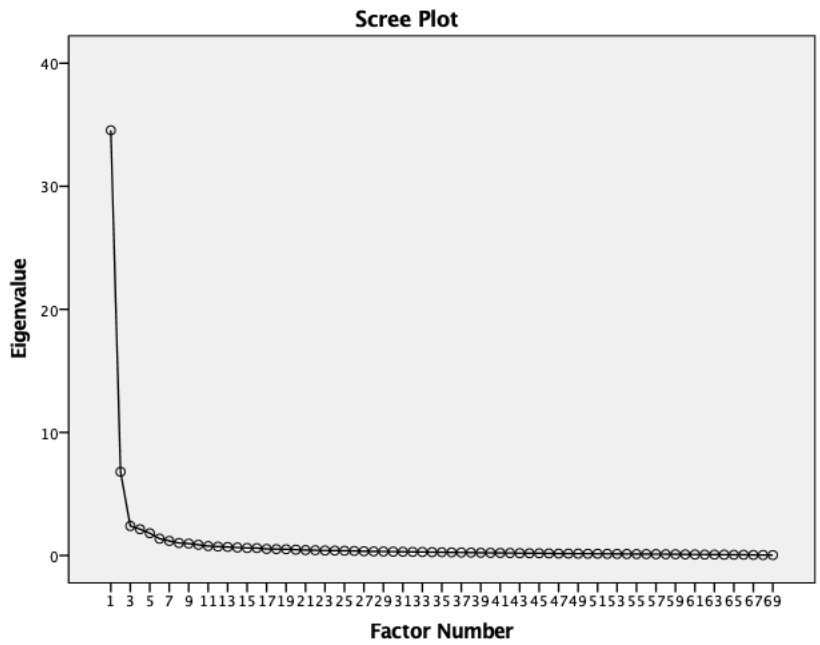

Table 24 Scree Plot

Factor Matrix

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Factor				
1	2	3	4	5
.841				
.812				
.815				
.839			-.330	
.855				
.884				
.711		.365		
.661		.359		
.829				
.794				
.777				
.750				
.748				
.799				
.756				

.733				
.789				
.790				
.731				
.793				
.714				
.777				
.756				
.747				
.805				
.762				
.785				
.702		.469		
.708		.479		
.743		.384		
.793		.389		
.820		.355		
.936				
.925				
.950				
.935				
.951				
.945				
.934				
.884				
.912				
.912				
.787				
.812				
.828				
.845				
.753				
.860				
.852				
	.484			
	.494			
	.686			
	.658			
	.744			
	.696			
	.651			

	.601			
	.708			
	.661			
	.643			
	.638			
	.540			
	.495			
.507	.479			
.377				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.[a]

a. 5 factors extracted. 5 iterations required.

Table 25 SPSS Factor Matrix

Pattern Matrix

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Factor				
1	2	3	4	5
.640			.379	
.485			.515	
.419			.609	
.423			.641	
.462			.573	
.560			.463	
		.642		
		.689		
		.440		
		.535		
		.568		
		.603		
.874				
.801				
.839				
.809				
.663				
.591				
.781				
.837				
.840				
.689				
.965				
.792				
.769				
.789				
.568		.355		
		.762		
		.788		
		.674		
.328		.665		
.416		.592		
.667				
.773				

.788				.365
.810				.373
.715				.466
.708				.466
.761				.449
.782				.336
.641				.411
.601				.395
.948				
.825				
.723				
.714				
.782				
.817				
.930				
	.500			
	.510			
	.733			
	.695			
	.805			
	.763			
	.711			
	.672			
	.786			
	.722			
	.703			
	.702			
	.596			
	.536			
	.511			
	.330			
	.327			
	.328			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Table 26 Pattern Matrix

Factor Matrix

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Factor				
1	2	3	4	5
.825		.608	.695	.450
.763		.584	.773	.503
.750		.586	.835	.536
.763		.587	.874	.578
.787		.610	.845	.578
.828		.626	.800	.588
.674		.792	.473	.380
.603		.786	.438	.409
.745	.341	.799	.617	.615
.723	.347	.815	.565	.540
.710	.323	.816	.566	.506
.690		.810	.540	.464
.796	.330	.491	.363	
.824		.573	.451	.383
.795	.361	.504	.388	.346
.778	.374	.500	.387	
.782	.363	.556	.555	.440
.771	.337	.583	.599	.449
.768		.545	.352	.327
.834		.610	.368	.347
.767		.497	.345	
.783		.597	.458	.413
.832		.490	.370	
.798		.565	.416	
.837		.638	.427	.349
.811		.602	.387	
.782		.713	.456	.398
.670		.845	.356	.380
.672		.860	.369	.386
.697	.320	.839	.407	.458
.754		.865	.458	.454
.786		.849	.462	.483
.887		.723	.621	.662
.898		.684	.567	.616
.912		.681	.585	.677
.900		.635	.581	.671

.887	.331	.667	.627	.757
.880	.321	.666	.621	.753
.880		.623	.614	.728
.856		.601	.545	.621
.848	.324	.675	.603	.715
.837		.659	.671	.729
.845		.491	.442	
.835		.542	.520	.393
.830	.356	.560	.625	.420
.858		.697	.500	.402
.793		.544	.450	
.886		.669	.479	.397
.896		.582	.484	.364
	.535			
	.561			
	.755			
	.717			
	.767			
	.768			
	.703			
	.641			
	.743			
	.687			
	.697			
	.679			
	.561			
	.544			
.492	.619	.449		
.357	.411		.373	

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Table 27 SPSS Factor Matrix

It is important to remember from the outset when interpreting the results of EFA what the purpose of EFA is. (Pallant, 2013, p. 199) provides a timely reminder:

> Remember factor analysis is used as a data exploration technique, so the interpretation and use you put it to is up to your judgement rather than any hard and fast statistical rules.

This mantra proved valuable in informing the researcher's decision-making process described in the previous section when returning to a five-component model. The decision to use oblique rotation, the technique which provided the pattern matrix output in table 16 above; a table which is not produced following orthogonal rotation, was also pivotal in arriving at the final EFA solution.

A five-component solution using oblique rotation immediately returned results which revealed clear, unequivocal themes which were easy to define and name, could be interpreted meaningfully, and resonated with themes revealed in the literature review and theoretical framework. This approach was justified in the literature: "look for the highest loading items on each component to identify and label the component" (Pallant, 2013, p. 205). A similarly pragmatic approach is suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p. 644): "It is clear, then, that a trade-off is required. One wants to retain enough factors for an adequate fit, but not so many that parsimony is lost".

Questionnaire Variables:

At the outset of SPSS analysis, the 69 variables from the 3 questionnaires were labelled according to their type; whether they measured line manager inputs (LMI) (n=26), follower inputs (FI) (n=18), outcomes of line manager inputs on followers (FO) (n=18) or the relationship between leaders and followers (R) (n=7). The SPSS labels for these variables are listed below:

Line Manager Inputs (LMI):

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Follower Outcomes (FO):

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Relationship (R) Between Follower (F) and Line Manager (LM)

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

Follower Inputs (FI):

(Factors removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)

The Ideal Leader Follower model clearly showed the most important leader inputs and follower outcomes required to forge successful relations between leaders and followers.

Appendix Seven: Glossary of Leadership and Followership Theory Terminology:

Summary of Key Words: Follower / Followership Theory (see chapter two)
Positives: Engagement, Discretionary Effort, Pragmatic, Exemplary, Autonomy, Co-Constructed, Dynamic, Contribution, Benefits, Input, Acknowledged, Expert, Synergy, Status, Interactive, Independent, Courageous, Constructive Critic, Devolved Authority, Problem Solving, Joint, Collective. *Negatives:* Alienation, Disaffection, Demoralisation, Alienated, Conformist, Passive, Mute, Subordinate, Dissent, Resistant, Subversive, Neglect, Resistance, Obstructive, Dichotomous Relationship, Inferiority, Frustrated, Asymmetrical.
Summary of Key Words: Leader / Leadership Theory (see chapter two)
Positives: Transformational, Transactional, Leader/Member Exchange, Authentic, Shared, Distributed, Servant, Traits, Behaviours, Social Abilities, Humility, Trust, Financially Aware, Seeks Challenge, Adaptable, Uses Technology, Understands Good Practice, Empowers, Supports, Values Difference, Respects Diversity, Accepts Responsibility, Shows Resilience, Enabler, Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labour, Developmental Culture, Decisive, Genuine Concern, Accessible, Enabling, Encouraging Questions, Caring, Credibility, Challenge, Commitment, Visionary, Reformer, Innovator, Motivator, Has Ideals and Values, Individualised Consideration (Caring), Intellectual Stimulation (Challenge), Inspirational Motivation (Commitment), Idealised Influence (Credibility), Lead by Example, Vision, Persistence, Determination, Sets Expectations and Goals, Admiration, Respect for Followers, Team Spirit, Clear Expectations and Goals, Innovation, High Expectations, Coach, Mentor, Caring, Power/Distance, Moral, Respect, Liking, Reciprocity, Charismatic, Heroic, Situations, Processes, Rationality, Political, Self-Confident, Confidence, Lead by Example, Near Leadership, , Strategic, Extroverted/Introverted, Feeling/Thinking, Networking, Dealing with Complexity, Leading Change, Honesty, Consistency, Integrity, Visionary, Integrity, Authentic Reviews, Clarity, Altruistic,

Humility, Empathy, Empowering, Welfare, Concern, Selfless, Accountable, Legitimacy. <u>*Negatives:*</u> Hubris, Dysfunctional, Corrupt, Shadow Side, Immoral, Hubris, Leader-Centric, Hierarchical.

Figure 12 Summary of Key Words: Follower / Followership Theory

Appendix Eight: Initial NVIVO Coding of Q.18 Questionnaire Freetext Responses

- Organisational Factors
  - Yes Men
  - Workload vs Welfare
  - Training Cuts
  - Sycophancy
  - Specialist Teams better leaders
  - Promotion Processes
    - Overpromotion
  - Poor Welfare
  - Policing Models
  - PCSO
  - Openness to new ideas
  - Officer Staff Relations
  - Nepotism
  - Leadership Distance
  - Leaders not suited to roles
  - Leaders Credibility
  - Lack of Staff Development
  - Lack of Recognition
  - Lack of Flexibility
  - Lack of Accountibility
  - Lack Leadership Training
  - Inability to Change
  - Forces changing culture
  - Followers ignored
  - Direct Entry
  - Different Named Force Leadership Styles

- Culture
  - Too many chiefs
  - Leadership and Rank
- Concept of Leadership
- Complaint Culture
- Change for self-advancement
- Butterfly Management
- Austerity
- Acting Ranks
- Operational Factors
  - Time Pressures
  - Risk Aversion
- Leadership Theory
  - Trust
  - Supporting
  - Leadership vs Management
  - Leadership Distance
  - Inspiring
  - Ethical Leadership
  - Authenticity
- Leadership Positives
  - Real Leaders
- Leadership Negatives
  - Weak
  - Unpredictable
  - Unethical
  - Undermining
  - Unclear Communications
  - Uncaring
  - Transactional
  - Slave to Corporacy
  - Slave to Career Advancement
  - Self Interest
  - Reliance on Rank
  - Preserving status quo
  - Poor Interpersonal Skills
  - Part Time Workers
  - Non-Practical Leaders
  - No consultation
  - Nepotism
  - Micromanagement
  - Low Emotional Intelligence
  - Let down
  - Leader Turnover
  - Lack of Visibility
  - Lack of Trust
  - Lack of personal committment
  - Lack of People Skills
  - Lack of LeadershipTraining
  - Lack of Integrity
  - Lack of Faith

- Innappropriate to my role
- Inconsistent use of discipline
- Inconsistent Quality
- Inconsistency Between Ranks
- Favouritism
- Emotional Effect of Poor Leadership
- Does not develop me
- Do not challenge government
- Disingenuine
- Bureaucratic
- Bullying
- Ambition
- Leader Effect
- FollowershipTheory
  - Millenials
  - Leadership Distance
  - Do I follow
- Followership Positives
  - Self Motivation
  - Effective Leadership
  - Aspirations to Improve
  - Appropriate Challenge
- Followership Negatives
  - Personal Motivation
  - Followership Thwarted
- Follower Outcomes
  - Waiting to Leave
  - Stress
  - Picked upon
  - No opportunities
  - Leader Confidence
  - Job Satisfaction
  - Frustration
  - Follow because I have to
  - Empowerment
- Follower Inputs
  - Followers training leaders
  - Challenge
- External Factors
  - Political Cowardice

Appendix Nine: Redacted Table of Interview Participants

Identifier	Police Rank/Grade	'Pracademic'	M/F	Ethnicity
Academic01			M	W1
Chief01	Chief Constable		M	W1
Sgt01	Sergeant		M	W1
Academic02			M	W1
Academic03			F	W1
Academic04	Ex-PC	Y	M	W1
Academic05			M	W1
CInsp01	Chief Inspector		M	W1
Staff01	Ex-Senior Police Staff	Y	M	W1
Insp01	Inspector	Y	M	W1
PC01	Ex-PC	Y	M	W1
PC02	PC		M	W1
Sgt02	Sergeant		M	W1
Insp02	Inspector		M	W1
Chief02	DCC		M	W1
Supt01	Superintendent		F	W1
Academic06	Ex-Superintendent	Y	F	W1
Chief03	ACC		M	W1
Chief04	Chief Constable		M	W1
Academic07			F	W1
Sgt03	Sergeant		M	BAME
Supt02	Superintendent	Y	M	W1
Supt03	Superintendent		M	BAME
Sgt04	Ex-Sergeant	Y	M	W1
DC01	Ex-DC		F	W1
Sgt05	Sergeant		M	W1
Insp03	Inspector	Y	M	W1
Staff02	Police Staff		F	W1
COP01	Leadership Consultant		M	W1
Academic08	Ex-Police Staff	Y	F	W1
Supt04	Ex-Superintendent	Y	M	W1
Academic09			M	W1
Supt05	Ex-Superintendent	Y	M	W1
Insp04	Inspector	Y	F	W1
Supt06	Superintendent		M	W1
Insp05	Inspector		M	W1
Insp06	Inspector		F	W1

Appendix Ten: Summary Redacted Questionnaire Responses, Research Method One

(Removed due to copyright reasons at the request of Questionnaire owners)