Key Senior Leadership Characteristics and their Impact on Leadership Effectiveness:

A Case study of the Ministry of Interior in the United Arab Emirates Police

By

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the key leadership characteristics and their impact on leadership effectiveness. It develops a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police. Evidence from previous extensive research undertaken in the area of leadership showed that there is a lack of sufficient investigation of leadership characteristics and their relation to leadership effectiveness in Arab nations, particularly in the UAE police organisations.

This study employs a mixed-methods approach. The qualitative component of the research involved 25 semi-structured interviews in a study population consisting of Commanders-in-Chief, their deputies and Director Generals. The quantitative component involved the distribution of 600 questionnaires to the department managers and heads of division. Qualitative and quantitative data were gathered to uncover the current and future perceptions of leadership characteristics and their impact on leadership effectiveness. Finally, documents of the annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership were reviewed to identify further evidence of the current predominant senior leadership characteristics in the UAE police.

The findings of this study showed that the perceptions of leadership characteristics in the UAE police were related to personal qualities, traits and ability to influence others. The findings also emphasised that there was a strong association between leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness. This suggests that specific key leadership characteristics have an effective and strong impact on improving leadership effectiveness in terms of having a positive impact on others and achieving the goals of police organisations.

This study makes a valuable contribution to a number of areas. Firstly, it contributes a better understanding of the leadership characteristics to the current body of literature in this field. Secondly, it develops a model of senior leadership characteristics which helps in identifying relationships between leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness, as it is the first of its kind to directly investigate the key leadership characteristics in the UAE police. Thirdly, this is one of the few studies which addressed leadership characteristics using a mixed methods approach; previous studies tended to adopt a single approach. Fourthly, the outcomes of this research directly influence police organisations and decision makers to raise senior leaders' awareness of the importance of leadership characteristics and their impact on leadership effectiveness; identify, promote and develop leaders based on their characteristics; and generate training and educational programmes for senior leaders, to improve their knowledge and personal development as crucial and necessary.

Keywords: Senior leadership characteristics, Leadership effectiveness, Traits theory, United Arab Emirates police.

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List of Key Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
UAE	United Arab Emirates
MOI	Ministry of Interior
LC	Leadership Characteristics
SLC	Senior Leadership Characteristics
CPSLC	Current Predominant Senior Leadership Characteristics
LE	Leadership Effectiveness
TT	Trait Theory
ARU	Anglia Ruskin University
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy

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KEY SENIOR LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS AND THEIR IMPACT ON LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVNESS:

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis introduces a PhD research investigation into the key leadership characteristics (LC) and their impact on leadership effectiveness (LE). The main aim of this study is to "develop a model of senior leadership characteristics (SLC) for the UAE police". This first chapter of the thesis specifies the background of the study, the purpose of the study, research problem, research objectives and questions and study methodologies and direction. It also outlines the structure of the thesis, and closes with a chapter summary.

Leadership in general is recognised as the steps taken towards the movement of organisations, people or processes to the chosen or idealised 'states of being' (Seibert et al., 2016). In the context of policing, leadership is the act of bringing on change to improve the efficiency, equity and value of operations of police. It is commonly perceived that leadership in the police organisations tends to be designed on the military model in which leadership tends to be based on heroic vision such as that of the Rambo and Delta Force genres (Cowper, 2000). Kopel and Blackman (1997) also agreed with the military-based modelling of the police leadership through arguing that it is this heroic perception of the leadership in the police that leadership in the organisations has been grounded in the fictitious characteristics of authoritarian, centralised controlled mindless subordinates conditioned to shoot first and ask questions later. It is this fallacious notion of the leadership in the police organisations that is creating the hurdles impeding improvements in how law enforcement agencies conduct the business of policing society. For instance, to deal with crime incidents and social disasters, police leaders need to communicate effectively and create a shared understanding of the situation in hand to ease the associated anxiety and ambiguity that subordinates on the ground may have (Al-Jenaibi, 2013). It is these problematic and complex tasks that make police leadership a thoughtful obligation, a prodigious task and an opportunity to transform how an organisation is led. However, the concept of leadership is culturally determined in such a way that cultures that promote clan or hierarchy such as that of the UAE will tend to have police leaders who show authoritarian characteristics of leadership, compared to the participative characteristics that leaders in a democratic culture would portray (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). It is the complex nature of police leadership and

the environmental influence on the very concept that this study aims to investigate based on the key LC and their impact on LE in the context of the UAE's police organisations.

1.2 Background of the study/setting the context

The significance of the concept of leadership in the social sciences can be traced back seven thousand years; however, interest in the leadership in the police organisations has only recently come to prominence among scholars and practitioners (Schafer, 2001). Leadership in the police forces has been discussed as the exercise of command authority in the event of crisis (Haberfeld, 2006). Rowe (2006), however, asserts that it is due to the current inflexibility in the police administration that bringing changes to the police organisation is like attempting to 'bend granite'. This differentiates police, military and public safety from several other working fields, where there is always the time to look for input, produce consensus and communicate underlying principles (Mckinney, 2008). The capacity to perform all of these above mentioned tasks might be needed by the effective police leaders simultaneously, when split-second decisions need to be taken and split-second commands need to be issued. Similarly, police followers should have the capacity to be aware of the times when they are required to show obedient compliance to a supervisor or peer to become an effective police follower. In such an environment, leadership becomes more difficult because the policies and principles adopted by many visionaries of leadership may not be suited to the low frequency, high-impact events which usually constitute police business (Schafer, 2008). Another complexity in the work of senior-level police leadership lies in the fact that those leaders tend to exercise limited supervision over police personnel. It is this limited supervision of the police personnel that differentiates the work of senior police officers from the context of occupational or economic organisations (Allen, 1982). Drawing on the proposition by Engel (2000), the limited supervision of personnel in the police organisations appears to portray the behaviour of their seniors that can be seen in the extent of the use of power, officers' behaviour and overall enforcement behaviour.

The viewpoint of the police leader of the twenty-first century is one of being competitive, well-built, performance-based and self-confident. Lussier and Achua (2010) suggested that to anticipate and explain one's behaviour and performance in the workplace, it is better to understand one's personality first, since personal characteristics affect attitudes and insight of the leaders. According to Fischer (2009), police leaders need to practice inclusive decision-making practices to foster high rank-and-file commitment specifically with regards to

community-oriented policing that does not fit into the traditional hierarchical police management. Traditional LC in police organisations used to incorporate an autocratic style of leadership that is the principle cause of the hindrance to the line officer's empowerment needed to make decisions while patrolling (Gill, 2014). The ideal physical attributes or characteristics which contribute towards the effective performance of police leaders are a number of ideal character attributes (Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008); these include courage, modesty, decisiveness, initiative and truth-telling (Clippinger, 2007). However, the leadership concept is wide, and specific characteristics and traits of successful leaders vary from region to region. It requires leader to be efficient to utilise different sets of skills and attributes depending upon the situations at hand. These conditions and situation vary geographically and temporally, as well as the nature of the problem and the history and culture of a particular region. The police agencies from different countries vary in terms of mandate, expectations of citizens, jurisdiction, responsibilities and organisational values, traditions, norms and culture (Schafer and Boyd, 2010). Schafer and Boyd (2010) also suggested that even if the broad concept of leadership and its related goals might share commonalities across different nations, the required characteristics for leading officers might be relatively different.

1.2.1 Complex nature of policing

Bureaucratisation is considered as a core to the organisational technique whereby civil organisations are led and organised (Haas et al., 2015). However, although the role of police officers is usually specified by the legislation, the discretionary nature of policing work particularly at the lower rank level causes problems for supervision. To this end Nolan (2014) differentiated between police organisation and other public sector organisations on the basis of the nature of the work - for instance, while in other organisations seniors tend to have direct control over the conduct of employees, due to the involvement of discretionary powers of police officers it becomes impossible for the senior police officers to oversee the work of low-rank police officers. Based on this argument discussion in this section focuses on the complex nature of the policing in the context of discretionary powers and police misconduct and implications for senior-level leadership.

Being a public sector organisation and having direct links with the community organisation of policing becomes complex (Johnson and Cox-III, 2005). To this end, Lee et al. (2013) went as far as arguing that violation of integrity and ethics by civil servants such as police

personnel results in paralysing consequences for the individuals not only in the particular organisation but also for the society as a whole. For instance, as a result of risking integrity through accepting bribes or committing misconduct, public trust in police decreases. This is the point at which the destruction of the society can be initiated, it happened in the case of Italy during the nineties when the entire political system of the country was brought down by the revolution against civil corruption (Lee et al., 2013). A much more recent example is of police brutality in the United States currently leading to widespread protest across the country, risking the very unity of the country (BBC, 2016).

Like other police departments across the globe, the police in the UAE are not immune to police misconduct and abuse of power as various cases of police brutality in the country have been reported. Yet due to authoritarian leadership, community cases regarding the police misconduct have never have been resolved and instead have been covered up by the leadership. Mostly such cases have been raised by the Western media: for instance the story of two British men Karl and Grant who saw prisoners being stabbed to death or tortured in a prison cell in Dubai (Charlton, 2016); harassment of twenty-two year old Tunisian journalists by the Abu Dhabi police (Hassan, 2012), and several other cases where police in the UAE have been accused of abusing and beating immigrant workers (South and Bland, 2014). While authenticity of these cases has never materialised due to them usually being claimed as Western media propaganda to defame the Emirates, they never have been properly investigated either, which raises questions on the effectiveness of police leadership in the UAE. According to Elite et al. (2014), incidents in which police personnel cross their limit has led to the emergence of debate on the role of leadership to control police misconduct and their effective accountability not only in the UAE but also across the globe.

Policing behaviour comes under the organisational theory of policing that asserts that through self-regulation police departments can control their discretionary powers that include restricting police ruthlessness, use of excessive force, corruption and other types of police misconduct (Hickman et al., 2016). Although police brutality and abuse of discretionary powers are threatening the overall posture of the police department in the society, it is however important to realise that use of discretionary powers by police is enviable. The constitution of the UAE allows police forces to use discretionary powers under the following situations:

- To conduct spot checking such as stopping and searching individuals
- Need for entering and searching the premises
- To get hold of evidence
- To detain a suspect on the crime scene or on-the-spot checking and detaining the suspect at the police station
- To charge a suspect with an offence
  Source: Al-Shaali and Kibble (2000).

The complexity of the nature of policing and its implications for leadership lies in the fact that leaders lack the power to supervise the conduct of the officers patrolling the streets. For example, although final decisions to detain and charge the suspect are taken at the police station by the limited number of senior police officers, the first decision to arrest a suspect and bring them to the police station lies in the hands of low-ranking police officers patrolling the streets. The discretionary powers of the low-ranking police officers start from the patrolling officers to the officers at the station. For instance, the UAE's legislation allows patrolling officers to detain a suspect for the duration of 48 hours for the purpose of questioning, preparing the report of the investigation and presenting it to the public prosecutor (Cook et al., 2014), hence discretionary powers of the police officers end when they present the investigation report to the public prosecutor who then decides whether to pursue the case further or not on the basis of the sufficiency of the evidence provided in the police investigation report. Overall, it is the concerns regarding the abuse of discretionary powers by the police in the UAE that creates implications for the police leaders and their effectiveness.

While it has been understood as a universal constant that controlling police discretionary powers is impossible for leadership, it has however also been suggested that it can be organised under two domains such as professionalising the police and through increasing bureaucratic control over the activities of the police officers (Layachi, 2015). The professionalisation domain upon which police leaders can exercise their powers encompasses the recruitment of the officers. To this end, Alpert and MacDonald (2001) suggested various strategies, including increasing efforts towards careful screening of the applicants, hiring educated individuals, providing ethical training and paying competitive salary, would result in improving the likelihood that the on-patrol officer would uphold the ethics of due care,

transparency and integrity. However, empirical evidence regarding the impact of the above-mentioned activities fails to materialise any factual decrease in the abuse of discretionary power by the police (Smith, 2004). For instance, while the police job in the UAE is considered as one of the most lucrative across the globe with attractive salary, bonus and other benefits (Kapur, 2016), in the first nine months of 2009 there were 304 complaints of police misconduct made in the UAE of which only 48 were upheld after the internal investigation (Issa, 2009) hence authenticates Smith's (2004) contention about high salary, rigorous screening of candidates and other initiatives does not provide fruitful results when it comes to curbing police misconduct. On the other hand, the bureaucratic domain of the police organisation appears to direct the responsibility of curbing police misconduct on senior leaders since it stresses that rules, procedures and structure of the organisation play an important role in controlling unwanted behaviour of police officers (Hall, 2002). However, considering the fact that it is the rulers of the different Emirates who oversee the policing function in the UAE, yet who hardly play any role in the daily running of the organisation, this leads to structural problems in the policing function of the country, and reduction in efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation (Elite et al., 2014).

The last yet most important dimension of complexity of the policing function in the UAE stems from the minority group threat theory (MGTT). The MGTT draws on the *assumption of conflict* perspective that asserts that stress on the dominant group in a society tends to lead to the use of state apparatus to control minority groups (Blalock, 1967; Blumer, 1958). Despite being an old theory, MGTT still applies to the UAE since, according to Hari (2009), every year, 30 to 40 complaints regarding police misconduct have been made by the expats or tourists visiting Dubai city alone. MGTT has its roots among the non-Hispanic whites at the beginning of the nineties who were acting brutally towards minority groups living in the area (Stolzenberg et al., 2004). However, even after almost a century has passed, it precisely fits into the context of the UAE where expats, who accounts for 89% of the entire country's population (Snoj, 2015), continue to face hostile behaviour from police. One of the reasons for the expats being the victims of the police brutality in the UAE could be the fact that most of the crimes in the UAE are committed by Chinese or Latin gangs who are involved in all sorts of crimes including theft, rape, and murder among others (Emirates 24/7 news, 2015). According to Emirates 24/7 news (2015) the success rate of the Dubai police in successful completion of the criminal cases stands at 97.9%, which hence effectively backs claims of police brutality in dealing with criminals. Despite this, though, figures issues by the United

Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (UNODC) during 2012 showed that the UAE had the highest murder rate throughout the Gulf, accounting for 2.6 killings per 100,000 of the population (Croucher, 2014). These crime figures along with media coverage of police misbehaviour in the UAE further add to the complexity of the effectiveness of senior police leadership. For instance, according to Brown and Mitchell (2010), employees tend to follow their leaders when faced with the question of what is ethical and not ethical. Therefore, leaders who act ethically promote positive employee behaviour that contributes towards the betterment of both the organisation and the society as a whole. From the teleological ethical theory it is perceived that leaders tend to abide morally to act ethically as it establishes utility for all such as for the organisation and the society (Fisher and Lovell, 2009). Therefore, integrity, honesty and transparency can be considered as the core qualities that senior leadership at the UAE require to curb unethical behaviour of the overall police organisation.

1.2.2 Legal system in the UAE

Like other Gulf Cooperation countries (GCC), the legal system in the UAE is underpinned by the teaching of Islamic religion; hence Sharia constitutes the prime law of the country (Chu and Abdulla, 2014). However, the court system in the UAE considerably deviates from the other GCC countries since it does not rely on the Supreme Court situation in the capital city, Abu Dhabi. On the other hand, while other cities such as Dubai and Ras Al-Khaimah have their own court systems, they are not subordinate to the Federal Supreme court in Abu Dhabi (Chu and Abdulla, 2014). On the other hand, there are three main branches of court - civil, criminal and Sharia. Civil courts deals with cases related to commercial enterprises. The crimes of more series nature such as theft, murder or public disorder are heard in the criminal court; however, before a case is logged it is compulsory first to make the complaint in the police station, following which the investigative officer will have 24 hours to send the case to the prosecution officer who - on the basis of the clarity of the evidence - will decide whether to press charges or further investigate the matter to attain stronger evidence (Moller, 2013). Sharia courts work alongside both civil and criminal courts and mainly deal with the domestic cases such as divorce, child custody and inheritance-related issues; however, the jurisdiction of Sharia courts does not apply to non-Muslims living in the UAE (Moller, 2013). However, only the rulers of the individual states such as the ruler of Dubai (Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashed) or the ruler of Abu Dhabi (Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al-Nahyan), possess the power to make the final decision on the death penalty if this is passed by the criminal court (Moller, 2013).

1.2.3 Police system in the UAE

The UAE police department is divided into three separate entities:

1) Federal police departments that work under the Ministry of the Interior (MOI): these include coastguard, police aviation, civil defense and administrative departments that looks after the human resource, administrative and financial aspects of these law enforcement agencies in the UAE (Al-Shaali and Kibble, 2000)

2) Local police departments that also come under the MOI include police forces of the six Emirates (Abu Dhabi, Sharjah, Ajman, Um Al-Qawain, Ras Al-Khaimah and Fujairah) except Dubai.

3) The local police department of Dubai that works under the direct control of the government of the city (Al-Shaali and Kibble, 2000)

The power in the police system in the UAE resides in the dynastic position of the rulers of the individual states and tribal values (Crystal, 2005). According to the Human Rights Report for 2012 for the UAE, the UAE Police is the enforcement agency charged with the responsibility of upholding the law within the Emirates. The main functions of the UAE Police are to enforce the law, maintain peace and order and ensure public safety within the jurisdiction of the Emirate. Policing function in the UAE comes under the jurisdiction of the MOI that is responsible for the functioning of police business in all states of the UAE (MOI, 2016). Moreover, it is the MOI that sets the strategic direction of the policing in the UAE through collaboration with the Supreme Security Council whose members include some members of the royal family, although they are rarely involved in the daily running of the organisation (Alnuaimi, 2013). For instance, since the establishment of the MOI in 1972, police forces of all the Emirates in the UAE except that of Dubai police were merged resulting in them working under the command of the Ministry whose main duties include the following:

1) Control the affairs of citizenship and immigration.
2) Safeguard the federation from the internal and external threats.
3) To supervise the federal security forces.
4) To coordinate and cooperate with the police forces of the federation.
5) To oversee the financial matters of the policing of all Emirates.
6) To supervise and coordinate the security issues of the capital of the federation.
7) To oversee the security of the roads declared as federal roads under the constitution.

8) Comply with the other legislative requirements.
    Source: Al-Shaali and Kibble (2000).

While overall strategic decision of the police departments is made by the MOI police departments in the individual states enjoys various strategic and operational autonomy hence run though the framework of strategic business units (Alnuaimi, 2013). The collaborative work of national police agencies, that comprises the Dubai police, Abu Dhabi police departments and police in other cities, aims to protect the citizens of the UAE against threats to national security and to keep the nation peaceful and orderly. The agencies strive for excellence in public service with integrity, honesty and respect as its core values (MOI, 2016). It believes that it has achieved flexibility, adaptability and durability, which has made it one of the world's finest police institutions. The UAE has a diverse and multicultural society.

As with any other organisation, the UAE policing is required to be dynamic and flexible in adjusting to the daily requirements of their specialties because no two days are the same for them (Al-Ali et al., 2012). Every day is considered different, and thus poses challenges that require different approaches. Every time a new conflict in the Emirate emerges, the entire organisation will formulate a new strategy as to how such problems will be solved and be addressed effectively and efficiently with the available resources. The way police deal with the controlling and maintaining of peace and order in the society reflects the leadership within their organisation. Like every other organisation, the success or failure of the UAE Police depends upon the kind of leadership it has (Ma, 1997).

Over the years policing in the UAE has undergone significant changes. The most significant changes were allowing women to participate in the policing of the country leading to a batch of 17 female police officers joining the Dubai police in 1977; and as per 2014 there were 1400 female police officers working in different states of the country (Zacharias, 2014). Inclusion of women in the police force was a significant step taken by the MOI towards modernisation of the state's police force. Another step towards modernisation of the police force in the UAE was the launch of the Police App to assist people to report crimes aimed at providing a quick response to the crimes (UAE Interact, 2014). Despite this major step taken towards diversification and technological advancement of the police force in the UAE, according to the report by the United States police department (2015) the police force in the

UAE lacks the leadership required to promote autonomy, innovation and motivation. The reason behind lack of autonomy is portray as most of the police officers below the rank of Warrant Officer are expats, who while performing most of the patrolling duties, are not allowed to make independent decision. It is due to this reason that the processing of cases tends to be delayed since expat police officers have to wait for their Warrant officers or above this rank (who are usually Emirati nationals) to make decisions regarding cases or other routine matters. On the other hand, diversification of the police force in the UAE provides a variety of language capabilities to serve the vast number of expats living in the UAE.

In addition, most research studies with regards to the leadership in the UAE's police department to date have focused on the lower levels of police officers and patrol officers (Saba et al., 2012; Kemp et al., 2013). Only few studies have investigated the senior-level of police organisations. Different characteristics required by police leaders to achieve success vary across geography and culture. Most studies have investigated the desired characteristics of police leaders in the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia (Densten, 1999; 2003; Engel, 2003; Devitt, 2008). However, based on varying cultures, problems and geography, the characteristics adopted by police leaders vary across the UAE. This study explores the key LCs that have an impact on the effectiveness of leaders in police organisations. Leaders are described as the backbone of many police agencies; therefore, it is important to identify and recognise the characteristics that affect their daily responsibilities, roles and effectiveness (More and Miller, 2014).

1.3 Purpose of the study

Leaders can play a key role in the success or failure of an organisation. They provide direction for their subordinates to guide employees towards the achievement of organisational goals (Michael, 2010). Therefore, this research considers the LC of the senior leaders in the UAE police organisations with an aim to understand the LC to improve their effectiveness.

Due to the lack of accessibility to the senior leadership, identification of the key characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police organisations could be problematic since, due to tribal cultural characteristics, leaders in the UAE rarely present themselves for any sort of accountability (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). It is the lack of information in SLC in the UAE that has motivated this researcher to develop the understanding of LC in policing in the UAE; the main focus of this research, therefore, is to investigate the current predominant

senior leadership characteristics (CPSLC) of the UAE police and, based on the findings, achieve an understanding of what the desired SLC are in order to improve LE.

1.4 Research problem

Despite the fact that many studies have examined the role of police leaders and their influence on their subordinates (Kelley, 1996; Evans, 2005; McKinney, 2008), there has been less agreement about how to improve police effectiveness and what characteristics must be considered to develop successful leadership. Most of the studies undertaken and theories applied to identify significant LC were conducted in Western cultures including the US, the UK and Australia (Devit, 2008; Schafer and Boyd, 2010), while there is a lack of sufficient investigation of LC in order to improve the LE in Arab nations. However, most of the theories investigated in Western cultures might not be valid in Arab culture nations; as noted above police agencies from different countries vary in terms of mandate, expectations of citizens, jurisdiction, responsibilities and organisational values, traditions, norms and culture (Schafer and Boyd, 2010).

As a result of the above, in terms of culture, norms, and beliefs, the UAE is inherently different from Western society. The culture of the UAE is influenced by the values of Islamic religion that has a profound impact on the shaping of the Arabic culture (Darwish, 2000). The extent of the influence of Islamic values in the UAE can be ascertained from the fact that it incorporates all aspects of people's lives, which also includes business, social, political and economic issues (Al-Sheikh, 2003). In relation to leadership, Islam promotes consultation and cooperation. Apart from religion, culture in the UAE is also influenced by tribal values that directly impact the way management systems are shaped within the country. It is due to tribalism that Arab culture tends to be family-oriented and promotes male domination with a conservative orientation towards risk taking (Bakhtari, 1995). Moreover, the tribal approach promotes a hierarchical management structure within both public and private sector organisations in the UAE. As a consequence, ultimate power of shaping the organisational norms such as rules lies in the hands of the person in authority, leading to rigid, unreactive and dichotomous views of right or wrong, and a tendency to strictly adhere to the social norms (Ali, 1998). Although in theory both tribal and Islamic values promote consultative and cooperative LC, in practice, however, in general decisions are taken without consulting employees (Darwish, 2000). Similarly, due to the hierarchical management structure, responsibility is not delegated among the lower ranks, an omission that has been considered

detrimental to LE in the modern organisations. So, it is unlikely that findings learned from research into LC in the police organisations, which is based on the experiences of Western societies, are directly transferable to the situation in the UAE police. It is anticipated that the culture, norms, beliefs and religion in the UAE might affect the police organisation's need to adopt different characteristics to develop leaders.

The lack of research into SLC in the UAE police forms the central problem that this current study addresses. More specifically, to the best of the author's knowledge, the relationship between LC and LE has not been explored previously. Therefore, a need arises to develop the understanding of desired characteristics and their impact on the LE of police leaders in the UAE.

1.5 Research objectives and questions

Having outlined the study problem which arose from a comprehensive review of the available literature on LC and LE, it is possible to determine the key research objectives for the current study. The five key research objectives were identified from a gap in the literature, whereby LC at higher levels in the UAE police organisations have, to date, not been investigated.

The overall aim of this PhD is *to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations*. This aim was broken down into five objectives, as summarised in the following table:

Table 1.1 Breakdown of the research objectives

Research objectives
Objective 1 Investigate the concept of leadership characteristics and the leadership effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.
Objective 2 Investigate the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police.
Objective 3 Investigate the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future.

Objective 4
Investigate the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.
Objective 5
Identify the key leadership characteristics of effective leaders in the UAE police in order to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations.

In order to achieve the research objectives, the research sets out to answer the main questions which are:

1) **What are the current senior leadership characteristics in the UAE police?**

In order to answer the first main research question the following sub-questions are formulated:

   a. What is the concept of leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness in the UAE police organisations?

   b. What are the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police organisations?

2) **What should the key senior leadership characteristics be in order to improve leadership effectiveness in the UAE police?**

In order to answer the second main research question, three sub-questions are formulated, which are:

   a. What are the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future?

   b. What is the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police?

   c. What should the key senior leadership characteristics be in order to improve leadership effectiveness in the UAE police?

RQ1/a: What is the concept of leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness in the UAE police organisations?

The concept of LC within the police organisations holds vital importance since effective leadership motivates followers to do what is in the best interest of the organisation. Specifically, when it comes to police, the concept of leadership moves from the traditional inspiring and guiding people towards organisational goals (Karmel, 1978) to the ability of making split-second decisions in order to take control of high-voltage situations that may emerge on the streets (Haberfield, 2006). It is due to this definition of the police leadership that line officers are considered as true leaders since they enjoy utmost autonomy and freedom while patrolling or taking charge of a situation. Baker (2006) also agreed with the contention that line managers are true leaders in the policing organisations through asserting that the effectiveness of leadership in the police organisations varies from rank to rank; however all leaders tend to possess similar ability to deal with the sudden situation on the streets. Therefore, this study investigates the perceptions of the LC and their effectiveness in the context of the police in the UAE.

RQ1/b: What are the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police organisations?

Densten (2003) asserted that senior police officers cannot rely on the traditional bureaucratic culture to wield their power. Haake et al. (2015) agreed with Densten's (2003) proposition through arguing that, particularly in the current political scenario of the globe, terrorism is no longer contained in the Middle East or South East Asia; instead it is knocking on the very door of the Western countries, so policing requires a change in the characteristics of leadership from the authoritarian to more modern approaches. This was also reflected by Engel (2001) in the aftermath of the terrorist attack in the USA on September 9/11 2001. However, to bring change within the ranks, senior police leadership has a role to play since success of the change places reliance on the characteristics of the leadership for implementing, supporting and supervising change. Therefore, effectiveness of the policing in the UAE will depend on the characteristics of the senior police leadership, so it is important to identify the current predominant leadership characteristics that senior-level police officers use in the UAE's police organisations.

RQ2/a: What are the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future?

While conducting a systematic review of police leadership, Pearson-Golf and Herrington (2013) concluded that characteristics employed by leaders play a vital role in the effectiveness of the police organisations in recognition of the argument that leadership behaviour is important for organisational effectiveness. However, it is important to mentioned the difference between the characteristics of leadership and management for instance while former is considered as the forger, later is recognised as a follower (Cameron and Green, 2012), thus literature review in this thesis will provide enhance explanation onto the difference between leadership and management. Further, while exploring the ideal leadership behaviour in the American police, Andreescu and Vito (2010) identified two core characteristics that modern police leadership need to be effective; these are a transformational leadership style and a work-oriented leader who would allow subordinates the freedom to make decisions and take the relevant action and who would address the concerns of subordinates in a timely manner. Since attributes of leadership vary across cultures (Schein, 2010), the characteristics of effective leadership identified above by Andreescu and Vito (2010) for the American police may not exist in the scenario of the police organisations in the UAE. House (1995) affirmed the presence of cultural variations in the LC through arguing that leadership theories prevailing in the current literature are primarily based on the North American culture.

In his article *Beyond Leadership? Is it approaching its sell-by date?* Burgoyne (2012, p. 10) concluded that

> The organisations that leaders need to run today, and at least for the foreseeable future, need to be created and will be creative, innovative, learning, knowledge managing, virtual, virtuous (ethical), ephemera listed, networked, generative (co-evolving with the environment, not just adaptive to it).

Therefore, investigating the UAE police as a case study will identify the perceptions of the senior and operational leaders about the most effective LC required to improve the leadership of the police organisations in the future.

RQ2/b: What is the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police?

Assessment of the current literature on the LC suggests that fundamental leadership traits are linked with the success of LE (Kotter, 1995; Ulrich, 1998). This is even more important in the context of the senior-level leadership since leadership at the top of the organisation differs from the lower level in relation to the complexities of the tasks they are engaged in (Campbell, 1988). The importance of the leader-follower relationship in the police is similar to the case in private sector economic organisations. To this end, Friedmann (1992) suggested that followers in the police organisations tend to strive for the same vision as the senior leadership; hence police leaders need to apply various characteristics to influence their follower's behaviour to motivate them to transcend their self-interest for the good of the organisation. In their research on the styles and effectiveness of the police chief leadership in the USA, Sarver and Miller (2013) classified police leadership styles between transformational and transactional characteristics – however, they suggested that leaders who possess characteristics of the transformational leader were more effective as they were more confident, energetic and open minded than leaders who adopted characteristics of the transactional style of leadership. Moreover, in his research on the need for the development of effective leadership in policing, Schafer (2008) concluded that characteristics employed by the police leaders directly impacts operational and behavioural issues of the subordinates. At the operational level, the degree to which police officers perform their duties with professionalism, integrity and accountability directly mirrored the extent to which senior leaders at the department practice their leadership and discretionary powers. At the behavioural level, it is the LC that directly influence the employee's commitment, motivation, and job satisfaction (Abdulla et al., 2011). Hence, considering the twofold impact of the characteristics of leadership on the subordinate's professional and psychological morale, it is important to identify the impact of the characteristics of the leadership employed by the police leaders in the UAE on their effectiveness.

RQ2/c: What should the key senior leadership characteristics be in order to improve leadership effectiveness in the UAE police?

Leaders need to be concerned about the perceptions of followers about their effectiveness since such assessment increases followers' confidence in their leaders that is key for the transformation of followers by their leaders (Chemers, 1997). It is due to this reason that Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) identified various leadership traits required for effective leadership – namely confidence, respect, vision, admiration, commitment, and emotional intelligence – as the factors that legitimise the authority of leaders over their followers. While these characteristics of leadership represent the trait theory (TT) of leadership, when it comes to the police leadership, the trait approach does not appear to fit since police leaders need to adopt characteristics of situational leadership (More and Miller, 2014). While Chemers (1997) and More and Miller (2014) stated that the characteristics of trait and situational leadership are required for effective police leadership, Boal and Hooijberg (2000) proposed that police leaders need to develop a behavioural repertoire as the key element of LE, hence emphasising the *behavioural* approach to leadership. The analysis above shows that there is a lack of collective views among researchers about what the key SLC should be in the police organisations to improve LE. To address this void, this study conducts a survey and interviews to identify the key characteristics that senior leaders in UAE police organisations require to improve their effectiveness.

1.6 Study methodologies and direction

In addressing research questions and achieving research objectives, the UAE's police organisations constitute the case study for this thesis (Yin, 2003). With respect to philosophy, in terms of the epistemological stance of this study, the researcher has followed the interpretive approach, and in terms of the ontological stance, the researcher has followed the pragmatism approach. This study adopts a mixed-methods case study design, using interviews, documentary analysis and survey questionnaires. For qualitative data, in-depth interviews best capture the perspectives of senior leaders at the police organisations on the concept of leadership. Variables identified in the qualitative data are further analysed through collecting quantitative data in a survey, which are subsequently analysed statistically. Furthermore, qualitative variables are further evaluated through documentary analysis that assists in the extensive development of the LC and effectiveness. The analysis of interview data is conducted using NVivo version 11 qualitative data analysis software; and the survey

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data are analysed using IBM SPSS (Statistical Package Program for the Social Sciences) version 22 for the descriptive and inferential statistics. Furthermore, reliability and validity of the findings will be tested through matching them with that of the past researchers.

1.7 Researcher background

The choice of topic for this research reflects my own experience of work. Before embarking on this PhD journey, I spent the last nine years working for the Police Science Academy in Sharjah (UAE) as course manager and trainer. I was involved the development of annual training programmes, as well as supervision and follow-up. While in this post, I delivered a range of courses including behavioural and leadership skills, crisis and disaster management, time management, and self-development. In my role, I was in continuous/frequent contact with professors and senior leaders, and I realised that successful leadership depends heavily on the personal characteristics of the leader. From this was born my interest in and motivation to investigate further the LC and their impact on LE.

1.8 Thesis structure

This section presents a general view of the thesis contents; it consists of five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction. This first chapter of the thesis specifies the background of the study, the purpose of the study, research problem, research objectives and questions, study methodologies and direction and researcher background; it offers a brief presentation of the structure of the thesis, and closes with a chapter summary.

Chapter 2: Literature Review. For a proper understanding of SLC a broad methodical literature review is conducted to understand SLC, through investigating the key LC and the potential impact on their effectiveness. First, the basic concepts of SLC are identified. The key differences between 'good LC and the related concepts of 'traits, qualities, personalities, behaviour and attributes' are discussed. After that, LE is discussed from different perspectives. The second section deals with a comparative identification of key theory and its relevance to LC. The third section is a review and analysis of the key SLC that have been addressed in various research works. The fourth section addresses the current predominant and contemporary characteristics in the UAE police senior leadership. Also, the documents

used as a tool for data collection are identified. Finally, a discussion of the potential impact of key SLC on LE is carried out.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology. This chapter states the purpose of the research, and offers a detailed view of research philosophies, research approaches, research strategies/designs, and research choices. This is followed by a discussion of the research procedures, population and techniques. The rigour of the study is then addressed, followed by a discussion of the validity and reliability of the data and ethical considerations. Each element of the research methodology is reviewed comprehensively and then the decision to adopt a particular research methodology is also discussed.

Chapter 4: Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion. The qualitative findings from semi-structured interviews (open-ended questions) and quantitative data from structured questionnaires (closed-ended questions) are discussed. Furthermore, documentation (which are annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership, 2013 and 2015), are compared with the findings of the questionnaires and from previous literature on the same issue. This chapter suggests answers to the research questions and addresses the research objectives, and undertakes a broad discussion of the research findings in detail. The findings are summarised and analysed to achieve the research objectives. To conclude, the findings are compared with those in the literature review.

Chapter 5: Summary and Conclusion. This chapter contains a summary of the major findings, contributions of the study, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

1.9 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the rationale for the research, commencing with an overview of the research concerning leadership; this was followed by a discussion of the research problem and justification for the study. Then, there was a declaration of the study problem in a statement summarising the focus of the research; this was followed by reporting the research objectives and research questions. Next, the study methodologies and direction were presented briefly to explain the approaches taken to analyse the data. The importance of the study was also stated in this chapter, along with the statement of likely contributions to knowledge. Finally, the structure of the thesis was described to give an overview of the whole

study. The literature of SLC, LE and the potential impact of LC on LE is reviewed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter overview

The principle purpose of this chapter is to review the literature relating to the effective LC to develop a model of SLC which are significant for improving LE in the UAE police.

Literature reviews are essential for a comprehensive understanding of the subject and for providing solid justification for the research question and methodology. According to Tranfield et al. (2003) the main aim of reviewing the literature is to assist the researcher in a critical analysis of the current academic work and expand the current knowledge of the subject of the study. This is supported by Yin (2003, p.14) who argues that a literature review should not be considered as an end in itself but as a means to an end. Thus, the critical examination of a research topic identifies research gaps and builds comprehensive knowledge of the subject of the study.

In order to understand SLC a broad, methodical literature review has been undertaken. First, the basic concepts of SLC are identified. The key differences between 'leadership characteristics' and the related concepts of 'traits, qualities, personalities, behaviour and attributes' are discussed. After that, LE is discussed from different perspectives. The second section deals with a comparative identification of key theory and its relevance to LC. The third section comprises a review and analysis of the key SLC that have been addressed in various research works. Fourth, identification of the current predominant characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police follows. Also, in this section the review of documents as tool for data collection are identified. Finally, a discussion of the potential impact of key SLC on LE is undertaken.

2.2 The basic concepts of the research

In this section, several definitions of leadership terminologies which will be used in the literature review are examined. However, as explained above leadership is culturally determined hence characteristics of effective leadership that may be effective in one culture may not be supported in another culture. This discussion focuses on identifying the relationship between culture and leadership specifically in the context of the UAE's culture.

This also includes the definitions of terms such as 'leader' and 'leadership characteristics', and the related concepts of 'traits', 'qualities', 'personality', 'behaviour' and 'attributes'.

2.2.1 Senior leadership characteristics

2.2.1.1 Leadership

Many definitions have attempted to state exactly what leadership is. This shows beyond doubt that leadership covers a broad range of topics for discussion and debate. More than four decades ago, Stogdill (1974, p. 7) stated that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept". Along with the aim of defining extensively what leadership really is, along with questions of leadership theories, styles and characteristics. Different schools of thought have their own specific definitions of who a leader is or should be, but for the purpose of this study we apply some definitions that are deemed significant in terms of LC.

World history has given us famous leaders yet there is no definitive requirement for being considered one. However, there is a unanimous perception that leadership is the act or power of an individual, groups of individuals or an organisation to motivate, influence and persuade without force in order to achieve goals or to meet objectives (Jago, 1982).

According to Deborah (2001), a leader is an individual who is capable of visualising an improved environment in the future and also able to convince others to join him/her on the journey, while Lanny (2003) considers a leader as someone who is hunted out for his/her expertise in data, guidelines and consultation. However, since experience has an essential role in the description of the leader provided above, Fischer (2016) suggested that a leader is made and not born. Marques (2009) also supported the contention of Fischer (2016) about leaders being made not born through arguing that all leaders are born as are all humans; however they came to lead due to life consequences, circumstances or other factors. While credibility of the arguments of both Fischer (2016) and Marques (2009) cannot be denied, by accepting that leaders may have been born with certain skills that resulted in enhancing their chances of becoming a leader.

In *Great Leaders*, Adair (1989) supported the argument for leaders being made through indicating that leadership potential can be developed but it does not have to be present in the first place. Adair (1989) meant that leadership can be a process or practice of being able to

influence others for the accomplishment of a goal and directing the organisation towards a status that is more organised and consistent. This concept supports the one coined by Northouse (2013, p.5), who asserted that "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common target". Such practices are used by managers through their creative and knowledgeable skills of leadership. On the other hand, it is believed that every individual has unique characteristics or traits that can influence one's own actions hence, again, giving rise to the concept of born theory of leadership that asserts that leaders are born with certain attributes that differentiates them from others (Northouse, 2013). Based on the concept of the born theory of leadership, Gehring (2007) explained how leaders tend to possess various personal characteristics such as emotional intelligence, self-confidence and determination that separate them from followers. While investigating the appropriateness of TT, Stogdill (1974) analysed over 100 studies and concluded that effective leadership is consistent with a number of traits that also include essential characteristics of being in a position of control and dominance over others and knowing the needs of others. The idea of the born theory of leadership appears to be relevant even in the modern organisation as Copeland (2016) asserted that there are a number of traits that separate effective leaders from the ineffective ones. To this end Copeland (2016) identified various traits to distinguish between effective and ineffective leaders that include communication, decision-making, effective management, openness, fair and honest, competent, responsible, flexible and others. While TT has gained both academic and practical lauding (Colbert et al., 2012) it does attract some criticism. For instance, Gehring (2007) criticised the TT of leadership through arguing that it fails to identify a consistent list of characteristics or traits that differentiates a leader from a non-leader. Similarly, Chemers (2014) criticised TT for its inability to differentiate traits suitable for different situations. Looking at the different points of view of authors, it is evident that most managerial concepts are encountering significant challenges in how leadership is conceived in terms of characteristics, traits, qualities, personalities, attributes or behaviour. Against the backdrop of criticism of the trait approach to leadership, other perspectives such as behavioural (Dinh et al., 2014), contingency (Jago, 1982), situational leadership (Hersey et al., 2007) and more contemporary approaches such as transactional and transformational leadership theories have emerged (Gill, 2006). Detailed analysis of each of these theories is provided in the discussion below. Since this thesis focuses on leaders who have characteristics that distinguish them from other leaders, as pointed out by Bingham's (1927) definition of leadership, the author employs the traits approach to identify the traits that are required to be an effective leader in the context of

police in the UAE. This is because, according to Bass (1990, p. 12), a leader is any individual who has the "greatest number of desirable traits of character and personality". Moving beyond made or born concepts of leadership, the bottom line upon which both of the concepts agrees is that both private and public sector organisations required effective leadership to be successful (Key and Dennis, 2011). Effective leadership makes any organisation successfully led. Again, a leader could be seen as any individual who has followers (Killian, 2007); this means that all leaders should have influence over their subordinates. It is important to note the difference between management and leadership here since often these two variables of organisational life are misunderstood as a common phenomenon (Bargau, 2015). For instance, Hayton (2015) found that often management and leadership concepts have been used as both synonyms and interchangeably, yet these two concepts differ from each other in terms of both meaning and scope. Bargau (2015) differentiated between leadership and management through arguing that while leadership is about influencing others to achieve common goals, management is about exercising powers to involve, influence and encourage people to get the daily routine work done. It is due to these differences in the definition of the two terms that the skills set required to be an effective manager and effective leader also differ as shown in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 Competencies required for effective management and leadership

Effective leadership competencies	Effective management competencies
Innovator	Administrator
Being original	Copy others or has someone as their role model
Developer	Maintains things
Focuses on people	Focuses on maintaining systems and structure
Inspires others to create trust	Controls people
Possesses long-term perspective	Possess short-range view
Asks why	Ask how and when things needs to be done
keeps close eye on the horizon	Keeps close eye on the bottom line that is to the work done get

Challenges the old practices and status quo	Accepts status quo
Tends to be his/her own person	Acts as a soldier
Does things right	Does things right

Source: Cameron and Green (2012).

While Table 2.1 above clearly indicates that leadership and management tend to be different, there are also some similarities between the two. For instance, both leaders and management involve and influence people to get the work done or to achieve the common goal (Chiabrishvili and Chiabrishvili, 2013); however it is the scope of the work that differs between the management and leadership.

Drawing on Kingshott (2006), while acknowledging the difference between leadership and management, he however suggested that modern police require an input of both management and leadership characteristics to gain effective results. Using the example of the police service in the UK, Kingshott (2006) suggested that, to provide an ideal progressive model for effective provision of policing services, it is necessary to have a combination of both management and leadership skills as it allows police services to move towards becoming effective, efficient and accountable organisations as is the objective of Home Office and Parliament legislation. However, Kingshott (2006) also differentiated between the characteristics required for senior-level effective leadership and those for effective management. Characteristics required for effective police leadership are as follows:

- Analyser
- Being brave
- Caring
- Change agent
- Communicator
- Committed
- Confident
- Courageous
- Creative
- Delegator
- Dreamer
- Energetic
- Healthy
- Hirer

- Honesty
- Industrious
- Introspective
- Intuitive
- Knowledgeable
- Nurturer
- Open-minded
- Passionate
- Pragmatic
- Reader
- Reflective
- Responsible
- Risk-taking
- Team builder
- Trustworthy
- Well-informed

In contrast, Kingshott (2006) defined police management as a process in which the aim is to identify specific problems, formulate plans of action to deal with the problems, execute the plan, monitor the progress and finally measure the results to evaluate the performance. Specifically, Kingshott (2006) argued that at the operational level – such as constable and patrolling officer – management require high levels of emotional stability, extraversion, openness and agreeableness, and conscientiousness traits. Thus, from the discussion above it would not be wrong to suggest that commander-level or senior-level leadership require both strategic- and psychological-level skills. However, at the management level in policing, psychological strength of officers makes a difference (Kingshott, 2006).

2.2.1.2 Senior leadership characteristics

These are the essential and universal qualities that are believed to be responsible for defining and shaping true leaders. These LC comprise the concepts of leadership traits, qualities, personality, behaviour and attributes. In this part, concepts concerning LC are generally clarified, and these are discussed in detail in sections 2 and 3.

LC in organisations vary from one level to another. In his book *100 Greatest Ideas for Effective Leadership*, Adair (2011, p. 156) observes that it is very clear that leadership in all organisations exists on different levels. In the organisational context there are three broad levels or domains of leadership:

1. Strategic/Senior leaders: the leader of a whole organisation with several operational leaders under his/her personal guidance.

2. Operational leaders: the leader of one of the main parts of the organisation with more than one team leader under his/her control. This is already a case of being a leader of leaders.

3. Team leaders: the leader of a team of some 10 to 20 people with clearly specified tasks to achieve.

For the purpose of this research, discussion focuses on the leaders at senior levels of the organisation and also operational leaders, as referenced by Adair (2011).

LC are extensive but the key to a successful leadership is to link, and make use of these qualities, knowledge, skills and experience in a balanced manner. Since leadership is about the use of acquired knowledge, enhanced skills, collective experience, integrity, affective competence and credibility, it is believed that even those who are deemed to possess innate leadership skills must continually improve and develop their own leadership perspectives to become more competent leaders in an ever-changing global society (Bennett et al., 2003). Different people who can efficiently motivate and modify what the organisation is doing, how it is done and the process by which members relate to one another could bring about different leadership responsibilities and roles (Bennett et al., 2003).

LC incorporate the qualities said to be possessed by great leaders over time, as based on research and studies. Such characteristics can bring about success in the organisation alongside other aspects in their optimum positions. Being an effective leader means being an effective person. Personal principles cannot be separated from an individual's professional ethics; therefore, the persona of the leader is essential (Shrivastava and Nachman, 2007).

2.2.2 Concepts of traits, qualities, personality, attributes and behaviours
2.2.2.1 Leadership traits
The early twentieth century dominated with the search for traits of effective leadership traits yet without any consistent results (Colbert et al., 2012). It was this failure of analysts to identify the robust list of effective leadership traits that led to the scepticism surrounding the TT of leadership to the degree that it began to be considered obsolete (Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959). However, the late nineteenth century saw the revival of the TT of leadership with

House and Aditya (1997) identifying 43 traits required to be a leader. However it was claimed that their research was full of inconsistencies with empirical reality and theoretical alignment with personality theory required for guiding the search for leadership traits. However, Digman's (1990) five-factor model of personality opened up the debate surrounding the TT of leadership. Personal traits were categorised into five characteristics based on the five-factor model; these are neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Judge et al. (2009) used the five-factor model to verify the relationship between personality traits and leadership and established a list of traits needed to be an effective leader – namely, initiative, energy, aggressiveness, persistence, masculinity and, sometimes, authority. Individuals who possess these traits are usually committed to pursuing their objectives, work long hours, and are ambitious and much more competitive than others, yet the list still lacks empirical evidence since it is difficult to identify all those characteristics being held by an individual person. To this end, Metcalf and Benn (2013) presented the concept of cognitive capacity as the principle trait required of an effective leader. Cognitive capacity is comprised of intellectual, analytical and verbal abilities, behavioural suppleness and sound judgment. Leaders who possess such traits are constantly formulating solutions to complex problems, performing better under stress or strict deadlines, adapting to fluctuating circumstances and creating well-organised future plans (Howell, 2012).

According to Chemers (1997), self-confidence is comprised of various traits such as high self-esteem, decisiveness, emotional firmness and composure. Leaders who have self-confidence do not doubt their capabilities and decisions. Such leaders are also able to project their self-confidence onto their subordinates by constructing their dependence as well as their commitments. Integrity is revealed in leaders who are truthful, dependable, principled, unswerving, loyal and honest. It is also very common to see leaders who have integrity sharing these traits with their subordinates. It is usually believed that such leaders often keep their word and remain honest and open with their subordinates. According to Howell (2012), such a trait makes a leader acceptable to the public as they apply diplomatic methods while solving issues. It also enhances their ability to adapt their social identity to the situations at hand. From the above examples of leadership traits, it can be seen that leadership traits are combined patterns of individual characteristic that exhibit a variety of personal dissimilarities fostering reliable LE across a wide range of groups and organisational circumstances (Kemp, 2004).

2.2.2.2 Leadership qualities

Miltenberger's (2004) studies on leadership have proposed some qualities that many individuals often link to leaders. These are:

- Self-awareness –the capacity for "leading" one's own self before leading others.
- Awareness of workplace – the ability to understand the workplace they are leading in and how they are affected by or affecting it.
- Rejection of determinism –the conviction of one's ability to "make a difference".
- Ability to encourage and nurture subordinates – leaders gradually delegate tasks in such a manner that their subordinates gain experience.
- Role modelling – leaders adopt a personality that encapsulates their duty and lead by example.
- Empathy – leaders understand what others are saying, instead of analysing how they say things. In other words, we can sum up empathy as walking in somebody else's shoes.
- Charismatic inspiration – being attractive to others and the ability to leverage this appreciation in motivating subordinates.

Therefore, leadership qualities are the abilities of the leaders to lead and direct their subordinates without misusing their powers, and inspiring their staff while bearing in mind that their behaviours are always imitated by their subordinates (Miltenberger, 2004). Ram (2007) added that these qualities refer to the positive or negative character of a leader. As noted earlier, quality can be described by synonyms like properties, attributes, character and traits.

2.2.2.3 The personalities of leaders

Researchers have found that leaders' personalities and psychologies affect how they interact in their workplaces. Leaders who are both over-ambitious and lack integrity are likely to possess the undesirable characteristic of becoming corrupt. Some of the leadership personalities discussed by Ram (2007) include the following:

1. *Drive and Tenacity* is the ability of some leaders to have inner motors that propel them to get to the root of any problem and find solutions. Unfortunately, if drive and

tenacity are not regulated, leaders may over-adhere to a task that is not operational or to out-of-date assumptions.

2. *Self-Confidence* is the ability of leaders to speak their minds and act decisively, bearing in mind that they can withstand the repercussions. This is not a matter of acting with toughness.

3. *Psychological Openness* is the readiness of leaders to allow their subordinates to influence them and exchange ideas openly. This facilitates know-how. In contrast, if leaders are psychologically closed this can cause problems like strikes, etc.

4. *Urge for Learning* involves developing proficiencies with exposure to diverse conditions with growing levels of difficulty. Leaders should be eager for fresh challenges so that they can learn from them.

Personality theorists view leadership as a one-way influence: leaders possess qualities that differentiate them from those who follow them (Bass, 1990, p. 12). Ram (2007) asserts that leadership personalities may have distinctive leadership qualities, particularly those that distinguish personal characteristics and make leaders socially likeable.

2.2.2.4 Leadership attributes

According to Robert's (2001) study, if one was required to create a register of attributes which are pleasant to subordinates some of them could be:

- Being in touch: makes subordinates feel that their leader is with them, it makes them feel more secure and calms their emotions, and this makes their brains to open to new tasks.

- Visibility: leaders need to ensure that they are seen by their subordinates often. This is essential since it:
  - Makes subordinates feel that their leaders are approachable.
  - Enables leaders to regularly know what is going on.

- Good communication skills: leaders have to be good listeners and good speakers. Studies have shown that those workers who feel that information is shared with them are likely to be more inspired.

- Monitoring emotions: leaders use their emotions in making decisions. Leaders do so by practicing emotional intelligence skills, like the ability to recognise personal

emotions. As one begins to recognise them, one can also decide on the best approach to handling them.

- Inspiring teams: always walking with teams (not in front of them) by automatically revealing one's hopes and goals to teams. Inspiring subordinates helps them gain confidence and they are likely to work harder.

- Placing others' needs above your own: if subordinates believe that their leaders will help them, they will be more willing to help their leaders in meeting organisational goals.

From the above examples of leadership attributes we can conveniently claim that leadership attributes are what it is about a leader that pleases subordinates. It mostly entails how leaders handle their subordinates (Ram, 2007).

2.2.2.5 Leadership behaviours

These arise from attitudes which leaders have in their workplaces. According to Kemp (2004), they include the following:

- Establishment of vision and mission.
- Setting of strategies and priorities
- Role modelling for integrity and ethics
- Building up of teams which are performing highly
- Motivation and inspiring subordinates' teams
- Delegation of duties and empowering subordinates
- Communication skills
- Striving for better results
- Management and evaluation of performance
- Coaching and development of talents
- Management of complexity and ambiguity
- Management of one's time
- Resolution of conflicts
- Collaboration within the workplace
- Demonstration of passion for one's responsibilities.

Therefore, leadership behaviour could be the externally observable responses of an individual to workplace stimuli (Kemp, 2004). Based on the above factors, Dinh et al. (2014) hinted towards a behavioural approach to leadership by suggesting that two types of leadership behaviours exist - task-based and relationship-based. While *task-based* behaviour emphasises getting things done even if it has to be at the cost of psychological destruction of followers, in contrast *relationship-based* behaviour focuses on gaining a follower's intrinsic commitment to the task through supporting them and listening to their views while focusing on getting the task done.

2.2.2.6 The concept of characteristics in the present research

It is evident that Kemp (2004) believes that inspiration of teams is a leadership behaviour, contrary to Robert's (2001) view of it being a leadership attribute. Also, Kemp (2004) feels that communication skills are leadership behaviour whereas Robert (2001) feels that honing one's communication skills is a leadership attribute. This depicts a very narrow gap between leadership behaviours and leadership attributes.

In addition, both Howell (2012) and Ram (2007) perceive self-confidence as a leadership trait and leadership personality characteristic. This also shows how narrow the difference between leadership traits and leadership personality is. Further, Chemers (1997) believes that integrity and ethics are a leadership trait, contrary to Kemp's (2004) view of them being leadership behaviour. Also, Miltenberger (2004) feels that role modelling comes under leadership qualities whereas Robert (2001) feels that one's role modelling is a leadership behaviour. This again depicts a very narrow gap between leadership qualities and leadership behaviours.

LC and other related concepts of traits, qualities, personality, behaviour and attributes are perceived as features that help in identifying, telling apart or describing recognisable leadership. Since the differences between LC and the related concepts seem to be significantly small, hence it is perceived that leadership comprises all the related concepts of traits, qualities, personality, behaviour and attributes (Northhouse, 2015). Any leader who has most of these concepts is believed to have effective LC. This also shows that a leader who wants to be effective has to possess these concepts since they are all interrelated. Therefore, the term 'characteristics', in this literature review, is used to refer to the concepts of traits, qualities, personality, behaviour and the attributes of leadership.

2.2.3 The concept of leadership effectiveness

In this section, the concept of LE is evaluated from different perspectives. One of the ways used for understanding LE is the perspective of followers (Komaki, 2013). According to this definition, leaders are effective when they motivate and inspire their followers. According to the definition of Willcocks (2012), LE can be defined as the way leaders perform their duties. If leaders are performing their duties in an effective manner, such as consistently achieving organisational goals, then leadership is effective. Another definition was presented by Guay (2013) who asserted that personal characteristics and attributes of leaders define LE.

Also, there are different theories and concepts which are used to understand and evaluate LE (Hamlin and Patel, 2012; Hassan et al., 2013). Diverse criteria are used to construct an understanding of the concept of LE, making it difficult to identify the core characteristics needed for effective leadership. According to some studies, the effectiveness of a leader is measured in terms of building a team while, according to other studies, the ability of leaders to motivate their followers reflects their effectiveness (Ayoko and Konrad, 2012; Paulsen et al., 2013).

Willcocks (2012) defines LE as the way a leader performs his or her duties. Leadership is effective when the leaders provide benefits to the followers. The LE relies on the ability of a leader to adapt to the situation in which they are leading, hence successfully linking effective leadership to the concept of situational leadership (McDermott et al., 2011).

The studies conducted on effective leadership have highlighted various characteristics including strategic planning, effective communication, and effective decision making (Birasnav et al., 2011; Paulsen et al., 2013). This shows that planning, communication, and decision making are the pillars of effective leadership, and the strategic planning for both short-term and long-term goals is essential for this to occur. Similarly, constant communication is also an important element of LE (Lindebaum and Cartwright, 2011).

On the basis of various definitions, it can be understood that LE is reflected in the ability of leaders to motivate followers to achieve goals, to make effective decisions, to deal with different conflicts, and ensure effective communication. The concept of LE has been described in different ways in the literature. In some studies, LE has been defined in terms of the personal attributes and characteristics of leaders (Guay, 2013). This approach is known as

the 'trait' approach. The other approach used for defining LE is the 'behavioural' approach; here, effectiveness is explained in terms of perceptions of others. For understanding LE, the 'situational' approach is also used; according to this concept, different behaviours of leaders are effective in different situations. However, the traits which primarily contribute towards LE include motivation, achievement orientation, conflict resolution, and emotional intelligence (Brandt and Laiho, 2013). From the above discussion it would be right to suggest that effective leadership is a mixture of traits and behavioural leadership.

Ajay et al. (2013) described how the concept of LE has been explained in terms of various managerial activities. According to their study, in order to offer effective leadership, the leaders should be able to develop and achieve specific goals, and they should have the ability to motivate followers. The study has further explained LE in terms of the ability of leaders to increase cooperation, trust, and confidence of followers. Leadership is also said to be effective when the leaders show flexibility and adaptability in decision making.

Senior et al. (2012) explained how the understanding of LE has changed over time. Early trait theories defined LE in terms of personal characteristics of leaders; this approach to understanding LE was known as the trait approach. As a result of the changes brought about by the challenges of globalisation, the concept of LE started to shift to the need for transformational leadership. According to this approach, leadership is effective if leaders have the ability to motivate and encourage followers (Lowe et al., 1996). In the current era, the importance of the relationship-based approach has emerged, which has created the need for relationship-oriented leadership. In this case, effective leadership is where leaders form effective relationships with followers. The study of Senior et al, (2012) also argued that in contemporary organisations, effectiveness of leadership depends on values of leaders, including trust, integrity, and competence.

Other studies have also highlighted traits of effective leadership including dominance, social tendency, conscientiousness, and locus of control. Effective leaders are those who have a desire to bring change (Chan and Mak, 2014); and they have a high level of self-confidence, which motivates employees to work harder. Conscientiousness is another characteristic of effective leaders which involves achievement and drive. Social tendency involves the expression of effective leaders, and locus of control reflects persistence of leaders. Some studies have suggested that leadership is effective when leaders are moderate in terms of the

need for achievement because it allows them to influence others (Raelin et al., 2012). On the other side, according to the theory of transformational leadership, LE in organisations is reflected in organisational changes. This theory suggests that leadership is effective if the leader is able to successfully bring about changes in the organisation.

The perceptions of effective leadership differ on the basis of different characteristics. Michael et al. (2011) conducted a study to identify differences in perceptions related to LE; they found that in order to achieve individual-, group-, and organisational-level outcomes, LE is required. Moreover, LE also enhances the satisfaction and performance of followers. Michael et al. (2011) further highlighted that there are differences in perceptions of LE on the basis of gender, management, and organisations; they also found that employees believe that fairness and equality are traits of LE. On the other hand, non-management staff believe that leadership is effective when the leaders reward employees or followers. Similarly, non-management employees in organisations believe that communication is an important trait of effective leadership, while the management staff believe that assistance and support provided by leaders is more important.

Torres et al. (2015) used implicit leadership theory to explain LE. According to the theory, employees form their own perceptions regarding LE, and these perceptions are shaped by culture and the environment. The study conducted by Torres and collaborators presented different characteristics of effective leaders; they suggest that LE is reflected in the organisation of roles and responsibilities among employees. Effective leaders are those who clearly explain work and tasks to employees in organisations. Employees believe that leaders are effective if they assist employees in dealing with different problems and conflicts. This indicates that conflict handling and problem solving are also important characteristics of effective leadership.

Mark et al. (2012) also supported the argument that LE depends on time and context; they also highlighted the importance of vision for LE. The compelling vision of leaders is essential to ensure organisational success. Mark et al. also argued that the concept 'leadership effectiveness' considers integrity, leadership, and effective judgment. Integrity of leaders can be defined as their ability to adhere to codes of ethical leadership, while another important trait of effective leadership is good judgment. In addition to good judgment, leaders must also be equipped with flexibility in decision making; this flexibility allows them to adjust

according to different situations. Trust is also an important value trait of effective leadership. In this context, trust can be defined as the reliance between leaders and followers, and is considered an important leadership trait because it increases the commitment of followers. Moreover, trust also contributes towards enhancing the performance of employees.

Mark et al. (2012) further highlighted the important of fairness of leaders. Justice and fairness can be defined as equal treatment of followers by leaders. Leadership is said to be effective if all followers are treated equally regardless of their gender, age, and other characteristics. Mark et al.'s (2012) work has enhanced the understanding of LE from the trait-based approach, and led to the conclusion that LE is not only determined on the basis of attainment of organisational goals and perceptions of employees but also on the basis of values.

Mark et al.'s (2012) contentions regarding the importance of situation for LE has also been supported by Nel et al. (2015), who used situational leadership theory to explain that the effectiveness of leadership depends on a specific situation. Based on the situational leadership theory, Nel and colleagues argued that leadership is effective if leaders behave appropriately in different situations. This suggests that LE is the interplay between leaders and different situations. They further argued that LE also depends on perceptions of followers and their readiness to accept responsibility. Moreover, the relationship between leader and subordinate also plays an important role in ensuring LE. The relationships are considered to be important because their presence can minimise conflicts between leaders and followers. Similarly, effective relationships also result in superior performance and high morale of followers.

The concept of LE cannot be fully understood without understanding the global perspective. Caligiuri and Ibraiz (2013) examined LE in the global context. The understanding of culture may be the key to success in the global business environment (Banutu-Gomez, 2014; Rohman, 2014). Therefore, in a global context, it is important for leaders to possess cultural understanding. Caligiuri and Ibraiz (2013) suggest that a single definition of LE is not applicable in the global business environment; moreover, their findings also indicate that the definition of LE in the global context is different from that of the local context. According to the study, the tolerance of ambiguity ensures LE in the global environment. This argument indicates the importance of dealing with ambiguous situations in the global business environment. The international business environment is uncertain and unknown; therefore, if

leaders do not possess required knowledge and expertise, they would not be able to achieve success. As explicated by Caligiuri and Ibraiz (2013), if leaders possess an understanding of global cultures, they can effectively deal with uncertain situations. The personal traits of leaders, alone, are not effective in ensuring effective leadership. In fact, the knowledge of the environment is also a critical factor associated with LE. Therefore, it is important for global leaders to develop a tolerance for ambiguity and enhance understanding of global culture in order to survive and succeed in the global business environment.

The research has discussed the concept of LE from different perspectives. For instance, Willocks (2012) defined LE from the perspective of performing duties, whereas McDermott et al. (2011) defined LE from the perspective of influencing followers and allowing them to accomplish goals and objectives. In addition, Mark et al. (2012) have argued that the concept of LE is defined according to specific context and time. This argument has also been supported by Nel et al. (2015) who believe that the concept of LE depends on a specific situation. This shows that there are multiple perspectives on LE; however, for the purpose of this study, the researcher adopts the concept of LE that focuses on influencing followers and achieving the goals of policing institutions in the UAE. The rationale behind focusing on the influencing power of leaders roots itself into the very nature of police leadership in which employees such as the lower ranked police officer tends to have little or to some extent no supervision (Sarver and Miller, 2013). For instance, according to Caless (2011) meeting for briefing or any other ceremonious events are the only occasions where senior-level police leaders tend to have direct contact with their subordinates; hence hierarchy in police aims to utilise such events to influence subordinates' behaviour and conduct to achieve social goals.

In conclusion, organisations face the challenges of ensuring efficiency in operations and being able to adapt according to the changing business environment. Leadership is the most important factor that allows an organisation to deal with these challenges. Leaders allow organisations to achieve short-term and long-term goals; and in order to achieve such goals, leadership must be effective. So far, this work has defined and discussed LE from different perspectives. According to the arguments presented above, leadership is effective if it motivates and inspires followers to achieve goals. LE is not only reflected in the ability to make decisions but also in motivating followers to accept responsibility for their decisions. This study has also discussed that the perceptions of LE differ according to different situations and contexts; therefore, a single concept of LE cannot be applied to every situation.

In the global environment, LE depends on the adaptability and cultural understanding of leaders. The global business environment also demands that leaders are able to deal with different ambiguous situations. It can therefore be concluded that understanding and evaluating the concept of LE is highly context-specific.

2.3 Culture and leadership

The most traditional definition of culture was presented by Schien (1990) who argued that culture of an organisation tends to be based upon three factors - assumption, values and artefacts. Assumptions are taken-for-granted principles regarding the construct of work and its place in society. Values are shared principles and regulations that underpin the daily work activities and, finally, artefacts are verbal and physical norms that govern the operations of an organisation. There are inherent limitations in transferring culture across borders; for instance, what works in one culture may not work or may even prove disastrous in another culture. The theories of cultural dimensions described in cultural studies such as those of Trompenaar (1994), Hall (1976) and Hofstede (1991) have proved the incompatibility of management theories from culture to culture. Among these cultural theories, Hofstede's (1991) theory of cultural dimension gained tremendous support from both academics and practitioners. Hofstede (1991) attempted to differentiate culture along four dimensions – these are power distance, individualism, masculinity and uncertainty/ambiguity avoidance. The score of a particular nation on the *power distance* cultural dimension describes the extent to which hierarchy dominates the workplace. Similarly, the score of a particular nation on *uncertainty avoidance* describes the extent to which a nation accepts or shows intolerance towards uncertainty. The score of a particular nation on *individualism* informs us about the extent to which the interest of the individual is given preference over that of the whole society and, finally, the score on *masculinity* describes the extent to which women's participation is accepted in the workplace. Very recently, Hofstede extended his cultural model by adding two more cultural dimensions - *long-term orientation* and *indulgence* (Hofstede, 2016). Long-term orientation means the extent to which societies aim to maintain some links with their past while facing external challenges, both present and future ones. Finally, the indulgence characteristic of Hofstede's model evaluates the degree to which people in a society possess the power to control their desires and impulses. Due to the newness of both long-term orientation and indulgence characteristics there is no score for the UAE on these two dimensions (Hofstede, 2016); hence they will not be included in the discussion.

While researching cultural influence on leadership and organisations, House et al. (1999) linked Hofstede's (1991) theory of cultural dimension to the value/belief theory of culture that asserts the degree to which certain behaviours of leaders will be accepted in a society. For instance, in the Arab culture, due to their high score on power distance cultural dimensions, leaders who tend to consult subordinates while making decisions are considered as ineffective, hence naturally promoting a transactional style of leadership. The fundamentals of the UAE's culture stems from Islamic religion that shapes the country's culture. According to Darwish (2001), Islamic values encourage leaders to be honest, just, consultative and cooperative. Moreover, Islam also directs leaders to work with complete dedication as one of its virtues and considers justice and generosity in the workplace as a vital condition for social welfare. Another sentiment that influences culture in the Arab world, including the UAE, is related to the tribal system that promotes the importance of the family system (both immediate and extended), and utmost and unquestionable respect towards hierarchy. It is due to this tribal system that an authoritarian management structure usually prevails in the public sector organisation in the Arab world (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Moreover, drawing on Darwish (2000), management in the UAE shows a tendency towards participative decision-making style; however most of the decisions are made without consulting subordinates; or the views of subordinates are ignored in favour of the views of the upper levels of the hierarchy.

Drawing on the literature of the relationship between leadership, organisational culture and organisational performance, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) argued that conscious alignment of leadership and organisational culture is necessary to gain a positive outcome. However, while acknowledging the direct relationship between organisational culture and leadership, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2015) argued that leadership is culturally determined. To substantiate their argument, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2015) suggested that culture is an organisational variable. In contrast, regarding the link between culture and leadership Bass and Avolio (1993) argued that culture is an integral part of an organisation; hence it is culture that shapes thinking, feelings and responses of leaders. Considering the conflicting views of authors about the way leadership and culture are linked with each other, Schein (1992) suggested that both concepts are actually intertwined. Similarly, Bass and Avolio (1993) further expanded on the argument of Schein (1992) through arguing that the relationship between culture and leadership represents an ongoing interplay where leaders shape the culture and in turn are shaped by the new culture, inferring that leadership and culture cannot

be separated from one another. Discussing the impact of culture on the LE in the public sector organisation, Nica (2013) highlighted the impact of various leadership styles on the culture. According to Nica (2013), while transactional leaders tend to confine themselves within the existing organisational culture, transformational leaders tend to frequently work towards changing the organisational culture according to their vision, so effective leaders in this context are those who develop capabilities and skills that enable them to alter cultural aspects to improve organisational performance.

Moreover, due to cultural differences between nations not only leadership style but also the perception of effective leadership varies from country to country. For instance, while running Project Globe as part of assessing the cultural influences on leadership and organisations Dorfman et al. (2012) found such cross-country variations in the perception of effective leadership: For example, in the USA, those who empower and encourage people to use their own initiatives are considered effective leaders; however, the Dutch tend to be suspicious about leadership values so the very concept tends to be stigmatised in Dutch society; Arab leaders are like father figures and would be considered as such as long as they are in power; for the Iranians, the effectiveness of leaders is gauged in the extent to which subordinates seek power and strengths in their leader; and for the French, charisma is a core characteristic of leadership. According to Dickson et al. (2012) globalisation has led to mass immigration across the globe; as a result, having knowledge of culture is vital for both public- and private-sector leaders as it challenges their effectiveness.

2.4 Leadership theories

2.4.1 Background: leadership theories development

The task of theorising the concept of leadership has been taken up by both analysts and philosophers for more than a century (Thompson, 2002). The modern connotation of the leadership theories began during the 1930s (Rost, 1993) and, since then, various approaches have been developed to refine the elusive concept of leadership. Figure 2.1 below represents the sequential emergence of the leadership theories without implying that earlier theories of leadership become obsolete as new theory emerged.

Figure 2.1 Theoretical development in the leadership theory
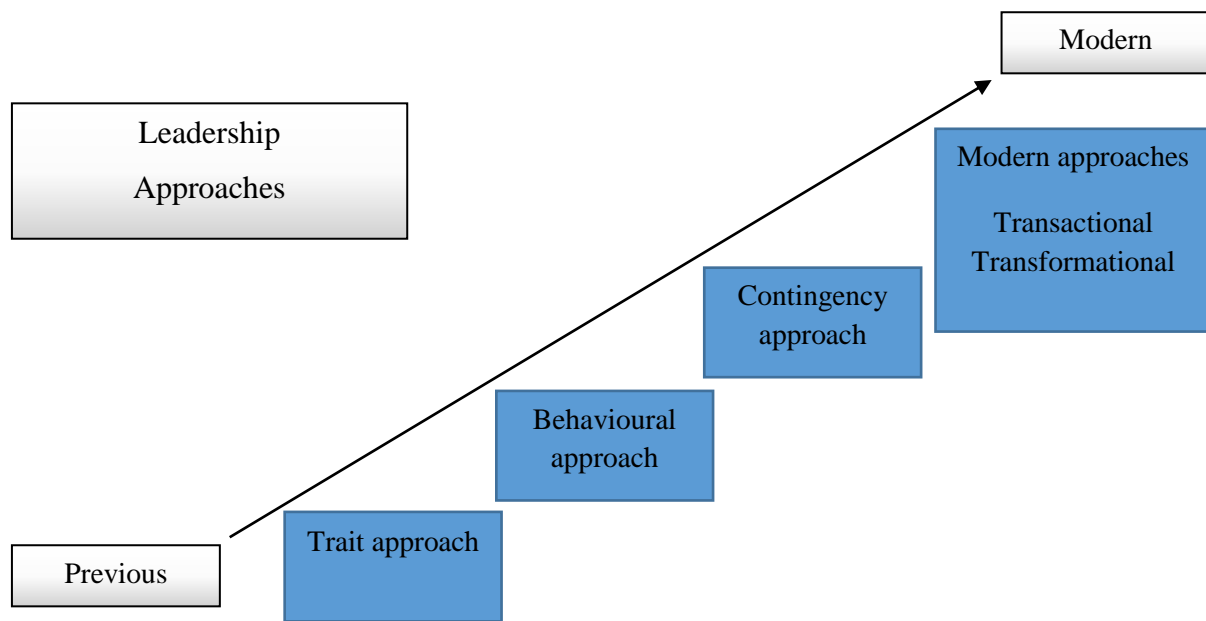
Source: Alnuaimi (2013).

Trait theory

The earlier research into leadership was simply an investigation of the traits of the leadership paradigm. Judge et al. (2002; 2004) and Mumford et al. (2007) established that there are various traits seen in leaders, i.e., skills, abilities and personality. These traits can predict the effectiveness of leadership. Among those early theorists, Tead (1935) assembled various traits to distinguish between leaders and followers such as physical and psychological energy, sense of purpose, having clear vision, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence and believe as the necessary qualities and attributes required to be a leader. However, due to the lack of empirical support, TT lost its authentication since different sets of traits are required to deal with different situations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1979).

Behavioural approach

Critiques of trait-based leadership theories (Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959) prompted scholars to revisit the traits and conduct further research in order to evaluate the behaviours of leaders and determine what constituted effective leadership (Sashkin and Burke, 1990). This turned the focus of research towards behavioural theories of leadership (Hemphill and Coons, 1957; Stogdill, 1974). The behavioural theories tried to identify the relationship between the behaviours and LE of good leaders (Yukl et al., 2002). The research in this area outlined two aspects of leadership behaviour; one is the task of focusing on the achievement of goals, and

the other focuses on people's feelings and comfort by offering supportive leadership (Yukl et al., 2002). The behavioural paradigm not only sets the foundation of new leadership theories but also provides analytical evidence that advocates for the behaviours of leaders as the key factor in leadership research, investigation and effectiveness (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Identification of leadership dimensions such as initiation and consideration structure has been considered as the core contribution of behavioural theories of leadership (Johns and Moser, 2001). 'Initiating structures' means the degree to which the leader structures their own role and those of their followers towards the achievement of goals. In contrast, 'consideration of structure' is defined as the degree to which the leader is likely to build job relationships with followers based on trust, mutual respect and consideration of feelings.

Contingency approach

According to the contingency model, LE is the outcome of both the qualities of the leader and the requirements of the situation (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). House (1971) developed the Path-Goal Model, according to which the performance and contentment of the worker are affected by the conduct of the leader. In the same context, Vroom and Yetton (1973) highlighted the importance of determining the level of subordinate participation in leader's decision-making process. They link this concept to the productivity of workers with the motivation to perform, hence effectively linking the path-goal theory of leadership to Vroom's (1964) theory of motivation. In line with the contingency theory, Fielder (1967) presented the least preferred co-worker (LPC) model that stresses that task-oriented leaders tend to be more effective in low or moderate control-related situations. Similarly, Hersey and Blanchard's (1970) work on contingency theory resulted in the formation of situational theory that incorporated relationship and task dimensions into the LPC model and asserted that effectiveness of leadership can be ascertained the way leaders adapt to different situations. It was the required situational adjustment of the leaders in the situational leadership that led to the development of the theory of adaptive leadership (Heifetz et al., 2009). The premise of adaptive leadership is based on the need for organisations to continuously change to meet the requirements of the external and internal business environments (Alnuaimi, 2013). Therefore, according to the adaptive leadership theory, to be an effective leader one needs to be able to navigate the waters of change that can be rough and dangerous. Accordingly, to be successful in navigating the ship in a flood, the leader should be able to adapt to the direction of the waves and sea environment.

Girodo's (1998) work on police leadership closely linked police leadership with the concept of situational leadership as police officers need to quickly adapt to changing situations. However, Engel (2001) declined the argument of the compatibility between situational style leadership and police leadership through arguing that while low ranked or patrolling officers required situational leadership, senior-level leaders need to possess traits of influencing others. Therefore, it would not be wrong to argue that police leadership style varies from rank to rank. While various leadership theories that emerged under the umbrella of the contingency model of leadership have received praise from both academics and practitioners, they still come with their own limitations. For instance, according to Bass (1981), the contingency approach fails to identify the way leaders can adapt to different situations. Bass's (1981) argument was based on the assumption that the complexity of the situations leaders face requires them to be able to quickly analyse situations for which they would not otherwise have time. Bryman (1992) also supported Bass's (1981) critique of the contingency model of leadership as he found inconsistent results and confusions that leaders faced while making quick decisions.

Modern approaches of leadership (Transactional and transformational)

Breevaart et al. (2014) linked influence, charisma, transformation, power and vision as words to describe the contemporary approaches to leadership. The transactional style of leadership is defined as the contract between leaders and followers that defines their relationship and hence is influenced by the power. In contrast, transformational leadership theory pays attention to the personal attributes of leaders that gain subordinates' commitment through influencing their values and behaviour. Therefore, by virtue, transactional leaders tend to provide rewards while recognising the commitment of subordinates (Hollander and Offermann, 1990; Yammarino and Dansereau, 2002). According to Eeden et al. (2008) there are three separate processes by which transactional leaders accumulate power over subordinates – these are 'active management by exception', 'passive management by exception' and 'contingent reward'. According to Sarver and Miller (2013), traditionally police leadership has been perceived as a *transactional* style of leadership since it was observed that police leaders tend not to allow followers to participate in the decision-making process; however modern policing has turned its attention to more democratic ways of leading subordinates referred to as the *transformational* style of leadership.

While the transactional theory of leadership insists on gaining employee commitment through contingency reward, transformational leadership theory pays attention to motivating staff through improving their self-efficacy aimed at gaining their intrinsic commitment (Antonakis and House, 2014). In a nutshell, transformational leadership theory stresses the aligning of the follower's goals with that of the organisation hence gaining intrinsic commitment of employees towards the success of the organisation (Burns, 1978). Patterson (2003) linked Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory to the model of servant leadership. Like the transformational leadership model, the concept of the servant leadership model focuses on building relationships with employees to positively impact their commitment, job satisfaction and as a consequence output through creating participative and supportive working environment. However, Northouse (2013) differentiated between transformational and servant leadership theories through suggesting while transformational leaders tend to focus on the needs of the organisation, leaders adopting servant style tend to focus on the needs of the followers. However, in both leadership styles, leaders tend to proactively engage followers and work in the best interests of employees to ensure that they remain committed to the organisational goals. Choudhary et al. (2013) also supported the argument that giving consideration to employees' interest' contributes towards organisational results.

Analysis of the leadership theories above shows that the concept has been studied against various perspectives and theoretical frameworks over the years. However, the majority of theories and research on leadership view it as an individual characteristic of a person (Fiedler, 1967; Drath and Palus, 1994). They have defined leadership in terms of behaviours, traits and qualities. Additionally, studies of leadership have been extended towards cultures and theoretical beliefs (Horner, 1997). Most recent theories of leadership such as strategic leadership, adaptive leadership and change leadership view it as a process (Dinh et al., 2014). These theories focus on followers as members of a community, and on practices instead of individuals. They link leadership with a social process in which members engage and perform a collective leadership role (Horner, 1997). Similarly, while reviewing the literature on the leadership theories, Dinh et al. (2014) identified the link with the social exchange theories. Social exchange theories tend to link leaders and followers in a dyadic approach. Based on the concept of social exchange theories, Dinh et al. (2014) asserted that trait approach has reappeared in the modern-day leadership debate and is still of great interest to the researchers. For instance, while reviewing the research on leadership during the past 25 years, Day et al. (2014) found that there were 117 instances where the trait approach interested researchers

and 106 times when the trait approach was linked with modern leadership approaches such as transactional, transformational, ethical and servant leadership. Similarly, while assessing the LE, Judge et al. (2009) asserted that the core idea behind most of the modern theories of leadership has been taken from the trait approach. For instance, to be task- or people-oriented, individuals require certain types of traits (Colbert et al., 2012). To this end, while reflecting on the leadership concept during the past 100 years, Gregorie and Arendt (2014) went as far as to suggest that the trait approach possesses all the characteristics of leadership prescribed in the modern-day leadership theories. Table 2.2 below provide evidential proof of TT being the founding father - as it were - of all other theories as it clearly indicates that characteristics of the leadership identified in the modern theories to be an effective leader has been extracted from the trait approach.

Table 2.2 List of leadership traits and link with modern theories

Authors	Traits	Link with modern theory
Hamphill and Coons (1957)	Behavioural characteristics required to be an effective leader to direct activities of followers towards shared group	Behavioural approach (Stogdill, 1948) Transformational theory (Burns (1978)
Kirkpatick and Locke (1991)	Institutional, psychological and radical traits are needed to engage, satisfy and motivate followers.	Transactional style of leadership is known for bringing radical change (Cameron and Green, 2012) Contingency approach asserts on leaders to have psychological strength to analyse and react to the situation (Fiedler, 2005).
Schein (1992)	Leaders require traits of steeping outside of the organisational culture and start process of change.	Transformational style of leadership has been linked for bringing cultural change (Bass, 1993).
Yukl (2002)	Leaders require high emotional intelligence traits to be able to influence others through understanding their feelings and to agree about what needed to be done.	Transformational theory of leadership is directly linked with the leader's ability to influence others (Cameron and Green, 2012).

Source: Adapted from Gregorie and Arendt (2014).

The link of the leadership traits identified in the table above with the modern theories clearly indicates that trait approach of leadership is very much alive even after a century as it was first identified in the early 1900s (Gregorie and Arendt, 2014). Avolio and Gardner (2005) also supported Gregorie and Arendt's (2014) claim through arguing that research in leadership is very much focused on identifying traits needed to meet the need of the modern organisation Furthermore, while assessing the leadership development process in the police organisation, More and Miller (2014) also emphasised that it is the individual's personality traits that assists human resource in the police to identify the future leaders. Schafer (2010) also asserted that few in police organisations attempt to utilise the development opportunities despite of the fact that those opportunities are available to all. By this Schafer (2010) meant that it is the personality traits that attracts individuals to leadership position; hence it would not be wrong to argue that even the process of leadership development is concerned with the traits (Herrington and Colvin, 2015). This further substantiates the use of TT in this research to identify the characteristics required of effective leadership in the UAE police.

2.4.2 The trait theory of leadership

This section deals with a comparative identification of the key theory and its relevance to LC. This sets the theoretical structure for the rest of the research. Previous scholarly and empirical research on SLC in police organisations is explored in this section.

The TT suggests that personality characteristics play an important role in determining a person's potential to act as a leader (Furnham, 2005). This theory postulates that leadership is a natural attribute of an individual's character. This approach was developed by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959). According to previous research, a leader's traits can be categorised into demographics, task competence-related traits and interpersonal attributes (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Bass, 2005). In the same manner, the behaviours of leaders have been discussed in previous studies in terms of task practices, relational dynamics and variation (Yukl et al., 2002). This conceptual framework provided a structure for determining SLC for the formulation of a new LC model for the UAE police.

This section also considers the chief leadership traits and characteristics required to formulate and implement an effective SLC model for the UAE police. For that matter, the theoretical framework should also be elaborative to the extent that it covers behavioural aspects of LC as well.

The focus of this research is on leadership traits and their impact on LE. A leader is an individual who has desirable characteristics and personality traits (Bass, 1991), whereas LE is the skill of enhancing the performances of groups and teams, using organisational resources efficiently, and attaining desired objectives in a timely manner (Zaccaro, 2007).

2.4.3 Leadership traits through trait theory

In the late 1990s and early twenty-first century, controversy has prevailed regarding the leadership traits (Rickards, 2015). The 'Great Man' theory has traditionally argued that leadership traits are inherited by people, particularly the ones who come from the upper class. However, over time, the 'great man' argument has devolved with Slater and Bennis (1990, p.70) arguing that "The passing years have… given the coup de grace to another force that has related democratisation - the great man' who with brilliance and farsightedness could preside on the throne ruling by dictatorial powers as the head of the growing organisation". Over the years the great man theory laid down weapons in favour of TT. The core distinction between the great man and trait theories is that while the former made reference to the characteristics inherited by individuals, the latter did not make any such indication of inheritance: instead, TT suggested that it is the traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Yukl (2010, p. 8) defined leadership as *"the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives"*, while according to Hemphill and Coons (1957, p. 7), leadership is *"the behaviour of an individual directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"*.

Trait leadership theory was one of the earliest attempts to define leadership. At the beginning of the twentieth century, LC were studied to define what prepared certain people for the role of leader. It was thought that certain individuals were natural leaders who were born with these traits and that only a few lucky individuals possessed them. Throughout this time, investigation focused on defining the definitive traits that evidently distinguished leaders from their followers (Bass, 1991). The major leadership traits and skills identified by Stogill (1974) are listed in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3 Leadership Skills and Traits

Traits	Skills
- Adaptable to situations	- Clever (intelligent)
- Alert to social environment	- Conceptually skilled
- Ambitious and achievement-orientated	- Creative
- Assertive	- Diplomatic and tactful
- Drive	- Fluent in speaking
- Tenacity	- Knowledgeable about group task
- Energy	- Organised (administrative ability)
- Ability to take initiative	- Persuasive
- Honesty and integrity	- Socially skilled
- Charisma	- Creativity
- Emotional stability	
- Cognitive ability	
- Cooperative	
- Decisive	
- Dependable	
- Dominant (desire to influence others)	
- Energetic (high activity level)	
- Persistent	
- Self-confident	
- Tolerant of stress	
- Willing to assume responsibility	

Source: Stogdill (1974).

In the mid-twentieth century, the TT was confronted by investigations that questioned the universality of LC. In a key appraisal, Stogdill (1948) recommended the view that no one rigid set of traits distinguished leaders and non-leaders across a variety of circumstances.

2.4.4 Modern research on the trait approach

During the second half of the twentieth century researchers started to shift their focus to leadership research. The major focus was on the behaviours of leaders, which gave rise to behavioural theories of leadership. The emergence of five factors (Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism) of personality traits has renewed the concept of the trait approach to leadership (Costa and McCrae, 1992).

The TT has been given much attention among investigators for its explanation of how characteristics influence leadership processes (Bryman, 1992). For instance, an examination by the preceding trait study established that personality traits were strongly related to

persons' insights into leadership. Similarly, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) claimed that real leaders are essentially distinctive kinds of people in numerous crucial respects. The TT has attracted renewed interest through the present importance ascribed by many academics to charismatic leadership theory (Zaccaro, 2007). For instance, charismatic leadership has been projected for public consideration in relation to the 2008 vote for the first elected African-American president of the United States, who is charismatic, amongst numerous other qualities. In a research study to define what differentiates charismatic leaders, Jung and Sosik (2002) proposed that charismatic leaders have dependable traits of self-control, personal branding, a stimulus to achieve public influence, and a drive to accomplish self-actualisation. Thus, in essence, TT is sound and continues to thrive. It began with an emphasis on recognising the makings of great individuals, developed to embrace the impact of circumstances on leadership and then moved back to thoughtfully re-emphasise the role of characteristics in efficient leadership.

Even though inquiries into traits traversed the whole of the twentieth century, a respectable summary of this methodology was set up in two investigations accomplished by Stogdill (1948, 1974). During his first investigation, Stogdill examined and created more than 124 leadership studies directed between 1904 and 1947. During his second survey, he examined another 163 studies published between 1948 and 1970. This work shows how personal traits help a person to develop into a leader. Stogdill's (1948) first review recognised a set of significant LC that were connected to how individuals became leaders in numerous contexts. He maintained that the normal individual with a leadership character is dissimilar from a regular group member with respect to some key LC. This includes intellect, vigilance, vision, accountability, creativity, perseverance, self-assurance and sociability. It is also indicated that an individual does not become a leader solely because that individual possesses certain traits. To some extent, the characteristics that leaders have must be appropriate to the challenges with they face. As specified before, leaders in one state of affairs may not automatically be leaders in another state of affairs. The outcomes displayed the fact that leadership was not an inactive state but caused by connecting with the work situation. LC are one of the most widely debated themes in the management sciences (Bennis, 2007).

Evaluations of the leadership trait model (Mann, 1959) encouraged researchers to see past leadership traits and deliberate on how the actions of leaders help to achieve efficiency. In studying trait theories of leadership, Bass (1991) posed two questions: What traits

differentiate leaders from non-leaders? How great is the scale of those alterations? With reference to the first query, leadership academics have largely inspected leader characteristics connected to demographic variables like age, gender and literacy, task capabilities like intellect and meticulousness, and interpersonal qualities like friendliness and extraversion (De-Hoogh et al., 2015). Considerable awareness of the comparative validity of leader characteristics is significant because traits might not be self-determining. For instance, there are natural and social explanations for why males and females score inversely on characteristics and intellect (Halpern, 1997). The biological approach postulates that gender differences are a matter of inborn differences between genders; however the social approach postulates that social and cultural influences directly cause dissimilarities. A thorough consideration of these representations is outside the scope of this study; nonetheless it is obvious that gender dissimilarity exists for both intellect and behaviour (Hedges and Nowell, 1995). Additionally, meta-analyses on the connection between intellect and disposition propose that openness to experience is connected to intellect. This outcome is particularly stimulating seeing that openness is a personality trait that has been found to have robust interactions with leadership efficiency. Consequently, it is probable that the properties of gender, intellect and behaviour are not self-determining. According to Halpern (1997), Kickul and Neuman (2000) and Pearce et al. (2003), there is a general consensus that characteristics can be fitted into two classes: interpersonal traits and change-oriented traits. While interpersonal traits are needed to build working relationship with the followers to gain their intrinsic commitment to the organisation, change orientation is required to set the future direction of the company. Discussion below further elaborates on the interpersonal and change-oriented traits of leadership.

➢ *Interpersonal leadership traits:*

The actions of thoughtful leaders define more interpersonal traits. Specifically, leaders express feelings of concerned admiration for individual group associates, and are approachable and open-minded (Friedrich et al., 2016). A shared theme amongst these interpersonal traits is that the leader carries out behaviours that shape follower admiration and inspire followers to emphasise the well-being of the group. Nonetheless, generally speaking, occupational leadership is intellectualised as a set of actions intended to produce and enable change in administrations, like the UAE police organisations.

> *Change-oriented leadership traits:*

Leader actions concerned with enabling and leading change in groups and institutions characterise a second classification of leader actions that is theoretically diverse. Change-oriented leader actions include evolving and collaborating visualisation for change and inspiring state-of-the-art rational activities (Pearce et al., 2003). For example, change leaders focus on collaborating on a gripping vision for the times to come; additionally, change leaders pursue different viewpoints from those of the team members, experiment with convention, and take calculated risks. These change leadership traits conceptually differentiate it from occupational leadership behaviours.

From different points of view, traits leadership theory and charismatic leadership theory are intertwined with each other. For instance, while charismatic leadership theory pales in comparison to TT, as TT provides a broader and all-inclusive framework of LC instead of relying chiefly on charisma, on the other hand, TT can also be effectively amalgamated with other theories of leadership to accomplish maximum LE. For example, trait and behavioural leadership theories have been productively combined to enhance leadership performance (Zaccaro, 2002). Additionally, TT can be successfully adapted to any function, industry and/or region.

2.4.5 Limitations and weaknesses of the trait theory of leadership

Despite being one of the most researched and established leadership theories, TT also has some limitations and weaknesses (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2008). The following list summarises the weaknesses of TT applicable to this research study:

- Leadership traits required to accomplish leadership might not be the same as those that are required to maintain a leadership position.
- Some characteristics are acquired and learned; they might not be hereditary.
- Trait theory does not provide an explanation regarding why leaders fail despite the fact that they possess the required traits for leadership.
- The theory overlooks environmental factors, which may differ from condition to condition.

Finally, in spite of some criticism of TT, leadership traits or characteristics are among the most important factors in leadership theories, and it is clear that traits do contribute to leadership (Colbert et al., 2012). From the perspective of the researcher, TT is more convenient than other theories for the nature of this research, which aims "to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations". This is due to several aspects, including:

- The strength of TT lies in its emphasis on the leader himself or herself, not on followers or conditions, and this is commensurate with the aim of this research to explore and identify the LC that are key to improving LE. Thus, TT fits clearly with the research aim. Police officers often find themselves in challenging law and order situations and have to make prompt and accurate decisions (Schafer, 2010).

- Trait theory has a century of research to back it up and, throughout this time, investigations have focused on defining the traits required in order to improve LE (Bass, 1991).

- As mentioned above, the traits approach has offered us appraisals that define and explain the leadership traits and characteristics which distinguish leaders from non-leaders (Stogdill, 1948; Zaccaro, 2007). Therefore, based on the findings of this approach, personality and assessment can be used to provide valuable information about strengths and weaknesses and ways to improve LE. Once again, this will serve the research through exploring and identifying the key LC and their impact on LE. Thus, the UAE police organisations can define the traits that are significant to them for specific senior leadership positions and then use personality appraisal tools to determine whether an individual suits their requirements. The supposition behind these measures is that choosing the right police officers will increase the UAE police's effectiveness.

- The TT is also relevant to the personal consciousness and growth of police officers. By examining their own traits, police officers can gain an impression of their strengths and flaws, and can gain an impression of how others in the UAE police organisations perceive them. Trait evaluations can benefit police officers by allowing them to find out whether they have the potential for promotion or to move to other places in the UAE police organisations. Trait appraisals can also give leaders a

stronger image of who they are as senior leaders and how they can fit into the administrative pyramid (Kaiser and Hogan, 2008).

2.5 The key senior leadership characteristics that emerge from the literature
2.5.1 Critical analysis of senior leadership characteristics
This section of the literature review analyses the available literature in order to reveal some of the LC which are believed to be responsible for improving LE in any police organisations - like the UAE police.

Various research conducted on the characteristics of senior leadership and their effectiveness both in the context of UAE and other regions have been analysed in this paper (Al-Shaali and Kibble, 2000; Alpert and McDonald, 2001; Schafer, 2009; Lee et al., 2013; Sarver and Miller, 2013; Eitle et al., 2014; Nolan, 2014; Haas et al., 2015; Hickman et al., 2016). [This effort is geared towards obtaining a better picture of what is available from different research strands and applying it to the improvement of LE in the UAE police organisations.]

While analysing this research, each of the following critical questions is considered:

- What are the key characteristics that have been discovered?
- Which methodology was applied?
- Compatibility of the methodology used in this research with that of the past researchers.
- What was found by the research?
- Which limitations were linked with the study - things not covered?

i. Job satisfaction, morale and organisational commitment
What is job satisfaction?
Before assessing the impact of LC on employee job satisfaction, it is important to list the characteristics and antecedents of job satisfaction. Randeree and Chaudhry (2012, p. 64) defined job satisfaction as "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering". Put simply, the phenomenon of job satisfaction is grounded in the degree of positive or negative perceptions held by an employee about his or her job (Hulsheger et al., 2013). This is the contentment of any senior leader or

subordinate with his/her daily responsibilities. These results relate to the passion for work (morale) that ultimately encourages everybody in the organisation to be committed to their responsibilities. Based on this definition, Mosadeghrad (2003) asserted that job satisfaction includes an employee's feelings about both extrinsic and intrinsic job elements. Extrinsic elements tend to be hard in nature such as overall reward policy; however more intrinsic elements are concerned with soft factors in which leaders play a vital role. Intrinsic elements of job satisfaction include the extent to which the employee is empowered, motivated and recognised for his/her work by the leaders.

In 1979, Jermier and Berkes carried out a survey of 158 police sergeants and lieutenants in a mid-western US police department. The survey was designed to test whether particular behaviours related to the police 'leaders as commanders' style (also known as 'instrumental leadership') had effects on job satisfaction and organisational commitments among subordinates. Three distinctive behaviours went through the testing process, each of which involved leaders undertaking greater monitoring of the work of their subordinates. Two were asserted to have no effect on job satisfaction and organisational commitments – designing of procedures and assigning of any tasks. A third behaviour – stipulating the remits of officers' roles (role clarification behaviour) - was noted, with weak supporting evidence, as having positive effects if subordinates' jobs required high degrees of co-operative work with other police officers.

Additional evidence supporting the relationship between leadership role clarification behaviours and job satisfaction was also established in a related study which was published three years later (Brief et al., 1981). The study applied a related methodology, even though it was carried out in a different mid-western US city, and in that instance only 68 police officers - all subordinate to the rank of inspector - were considered. This meant the findings were less dependable.

Initially, the extensive research by Jermier and Berkes (1979) concerned two different leadership styles in the police organisations – participative and supportive. The study established that the two related positively to job satisfaction and organisational commitments. The sample sizes were small but some evidence was unveiled showing that whenever jobs were predictable, supportive leaders had their largest positive impact on employees. Meanwhile, participation was more vital whenever jobs were not predictable. Participative

leaders lead by example - they do not just delegate duties but also get involved in attending to these tasks. Directive leaders only delegate duties and evaluate what their subordinates are doing. When a task is mutually dependent, consultative and participative styles, as opposed to a directive style, are appropriate for improving job satisfaction and organisational commitments.

Research for the UK Home Office (Dobby et al., 2004) used a survey of 1,066 officers from all ranks and police employees from 36 forces in England and Wales. Those participating were requested to rate their line managers against some 14 aspects of transformational leadership. They also completed questionnaires regarding the behaviours of line managers which could have psychological effects on them. It was noted that those leaders who scored high for transformational behaviour were likely to exert positive psychological effects on their subordinates. It was also evidenced that those leaders who scored low on the transformational scale possibly exerted negative psychological impacts on their subordinates. The scale scores, which had the strongest correlation with the psychological outcomes, were a matter of genuine concern for colleagues' welfare and improvement. It was noted that those leaders who had the highest ratings in this aspect were likely to influence their subordinates' commitment positively in undertaking their duties, as well as their confidence, self-worth, feeling of job satisfaction, fulfilment, commitment to the organisation and inspiration to surpass expectations. The research also noted that any line manager who displayed one of the aspects of a transformational leader was more likely to exhibit the others.

A case-study write-up about 'Shared Leadership' initiatives in Oklahoma, USA (Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008) generated a small amount of evidence that similar schemes might improve the morale of police officers. A 'Leadership Team' was set up and charged with the responsibility of making almost all the policy decisions - with delegates from all the police ranks and citizen workers. Before and after studies of the police officers and workers in this sample indicated that they felt strengthened, committed and encouraged to some extent in their workplaces after this participative management was introduced. However, the very small sample sizes of the survey (n = 32) dilutes this evidence. Possibly, these results might have been altered by multiple confounding factors, e.g., the police chief being replaced impromptu before the new initiative began. Some of the unique circumstances which surrounded this incident included the very minimal levels of morale after the study, meaning that these results cannot be generalised for other police organisations. It is worth noting that

this is the only study in the literature review that tries to connect leadership to police performance measures. The authors reported some exceptional improvements in job satisfaction and force productivity after the shared leadership initiative was introduced - although the cause for this cannot be established.

In past research looking at leadership in three police departments in Canada, evidence was found that almost all the police officers who participated in the study wished to take part in making management decisions. However, authors such as Macdonald (1986) also assert that the degree to which employees may wish to have an input depends to a certain extent on the psychological predispositions. The research write-ups (considered for the literature review) include a tiny amount of information on the methodology and findings. They also present results with magnificent conclusions. The interviews were carried out with nearly all the police officers, including staff sergeants and above and about 20% of officers below these ranks. Three hundred hours of observations were considered and perceptual information was drawn from responses from about 220 questionnaires (60% supervisors and 40% operational police officers).

ii.   Influencing and improving performance

Different researchers have found that this can be achieved through the following:

- Making extra efforts
- Changing behaviour.
  Sources: Fiedler (1964); Gilley et al. (2009).

Making extra efforts

Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990) applied Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) to explain how leadership usually works and the theory underpinning it (while acknowledging that both this instrument and the model have been continuously criticised in recent years.) Their questionnaires are applied so as to establish the leadership styles of leaders under the Full Range Leadership (FRL) models, which categorises leadership into three parts with related behaviours:

- Transformational: individual considerations, intellectual stimulations and idealised impacts.

- Transactional: contingent rewarding and management-by-exception (active).

- Passive/avoidance: managements-by-exception (passive) and a laissez-faire attitude.

Full Range Leadership models also consist of three leadership results: the readiness of subordinates to put in effort, perceptions of leader efficiency, and satisfaction with leaders. The MLQ instrument is meant to be applied as a 360-degree tool, with the leadership being evaluated by its subordinates, peers and superiors. However, it may employ lesser ratings or become a self-rating instrument.

Two American pieces of research employed the MLQ for measuring the application of more effort. Their researchers discovered some evidence indicating that transformational leadership was more effective in comparison to transactional leadership in motivating subordinates to put in more effort (also recuperating job satisfaction). Morreale carried out research on 177 line-police officers - who reported on their immediate managers - in some 75 New England police branches (Morreale, 2003). The laissez-faire type of leadership resulted in reduction of efforts.

In 2004, a Nigerian study by Adebayo (2005) applied a different survey tool in gathering opinions from 184 officers (police leaders up to the rank of an inspector) on the straightforward leadership behaviours of their supervisors. The survey found that perceptions of fairness in workplaces and transformational leadership behaviours related positively to participants' work motivation. However, additional write-up research by Densten (2003) stated that various styles had differing impacts on police officers of different rankings. The transactional style of management-by-exceptions might be a positive signal of leadership efficiency for senior sergeants. Laissez-faire leadership was a positive prediction of more effort for police superintendents. Densten also suggested that these findings were not usual compared to other working environments and might reflect the unique nature of some dimensions of police work.

<u>Changing behaviour</u>

An earlier research study by MacDonald (1986) used qualitative research evidence and interviews with police sergeants and some subordinate police patrol officers. The study is criticised by some individuals since it was a small survey of only three case-study police forces from Canada. However, there were some extensive interviews, 300 hours of observations were undertaken and perceptual data were extracted from 220 questionnaires. A major conclusion of this survey was that police officers who were 'self-legitimators' (more motivated by personal evaluation than external praise) might be influenced to alter their character by their managers by means of improved common understanding and meaning. The authors also stressed the essence of leadership in making roles, duties and expectations sharp and ensuring that operational staff had a clear understanding of the police's purpose in society. They were concerned that the forces in the research were missing the opportunity to influence behaviour with the use of effective leadership. It is worth noting that the write-up considered for the literature review did not entail elaborative or comprehensive findings or explanations about the methodology employed.

iii. Decision making

Murphy and Drodge (2004) reported that the method with which leaders make decisions plays its part in proving themselves through knowledge and activities so as to gain respect from their subordinates. Densten (2003) reported that many police executives, superintendents and senior sergeants view their leaders as being more efficient whenever these leaders do not abandon their duties or delay the making of decisions.

In agreement, Schafer's (2008) research, which studied a portion of middle-level leaders in the US police force, found that it was not only the ability to make decisions but also the ability and readiness for making disliked - albeit accurate - essential decisions. However, such decisions should be up-to-date and grounded on appropriate research. Besides decision making, the participants reflected that the criterion of leading change effectively "couldn't be attained with commanding power only" (Meaklim and Simms, 2011). This seems to contradict Dick's (2011) findings, which reported that certainty with regard to the requirement(s) of one's role was an essential concern for any constable and senior ranking officer in terms of evaluating good leadership. Meanwhile, Meaklim and Simms' (2011) observations suggest that leaders do not automatically know the desires of their subordinates. They also claim that leaders are always engaging in iterative and experimental processes in

which they test and re-test their decisions instead of committing to a particular path with confidence. Dick (2011) reported that involving other police officers in decision making resulted in effective leadership. This was as a result of enhanced job satisfaction amongst these subordinates, who felt that they mattered in the organisation.

Following on from the above findings, Silvestri (2007) reported that female police leaders constantly and subconsciously engaged in participative styles of making decisions, stressing consultation and delegation of tasks. She noted that this specific style of decision making conflicted with the old-style culture of police leadership, which demanded quicker making of decisions. Those policewomen who were interviewed by Silvestri (2007) admitted that consultations in decision-making processes inarguably took more time, and a possible repercussion of this in a police set-up was that such leaders were perceived as inefficient or ineffective. The argument of the need for consultative behavioural trait of the leader has also been supported by Schafer (2010) whose investigation of effective police leadership traits communication traits has been considered as one of the most important traits that differentiates effective from ineffective leaders.

iv.   Care for subordinates

Murphy and Drodge (2004) interviewed police officers from Canada - from constable to superintendent ranks - and asserted that leaders have to be sincerely concerned about what their subordinates needed. Similarly, in their research, Bryman and Stephens (1996) interviewed police officers of many ranks in the UK from constables up to intermediate leaders and chief constables. They noted that, in the view of these interviewees, the extent to which their leaders were concerned with the needs of each of their subordinates was an essential factor to consider when making judgements about effective leadership. In comparison, Densten (2003) drew on a survey of Australian police officers concerning the type of leadership they were experiencing. Densten found that care for followers was only an essential concern at the ranking of senior sergeant, and particularly in providing chances for subordinates to be coached and mentored.

Fleming (2004) reported on interviewing the (then) Australian federal police serving commissioner. Fleming found that it was essential for police managers to perceive policing more holistically, and that, by considering the wellbeing of subordinates, organisational goals might be effectively attained. The police commissioner - Mick Keelty - felt that the usual age

of most of the policing executives in his police workforce was 40 years, with 20 years of working time still awaiting them. It was therefore vital for the police organisation to issue efficient inspiration for that set, which would not all go on to become commissioners. The commissioner responded further that 70% of the staff in that domain possessed tertiary education and that, consequently, the responsibility of the leaders was to inspire such highly educated subordinates by looking for better chances to develop their current skills. The study only involved the opinions of a n=1 set, which could infer some weakness in the study. However, it is evident from that study that it is vital for leaders to show some acts of care towards their subordinates. A similar report by Moore (1994) in the US pointed out that a major task for police managers was ensuring that policing was satisfactorily adequate to maintain the best younger subordinates in the police force.

v. Emotional intelligence and personality

Hawkins' and Dulewicz's (2007) work on Scottish police service leadership research applied 360-degree surveying (looking at both research participants, and their subordinates and leaders) to test the link between emotional intelligence and effective police leadership. The research defined emotional intelligence as the "ability of recognising and managing emotions in oneself and others". It also used several questions about the following topic areas as measures: self-awareness, emotional resilience, instinctiveness, interpersonal sensitivity, influencing, motivating and consenting. A total of 577 surveys were carried out for this research and feedback was provided on 120 police managers from several ranks. The outcomes gave backing to the idea that emotional intelligence and the performances of police leaders were positively related to each other. It also partially supported the role of 'emotional intelligence' as explaining further variances in responsibility as a leader than those explained by IQ and management capability.

A small piece of research using questionnaires in an average-sized law enforcement organisation on the American West Coast (Yocum, 2007) supported the perception that a high degree of emotional intelligence is usually a recommendable characteristic for police managers for securing improved rating from subordinate(s). However, there were some limitations. Fifty-three supervisory leaders completed personal assessments on their degrees of emotional intelligence, capacities for good reasoning and their likelihood of being selfish. Sixty-one of the police officers completed research on the personal leadership styles of their supervisors and to what extent they trusted them. Emotional intelligence was measured in

terms of levels of ability in "using emotions" and "managing emotions". The results from the research were that any highly selfish manager who had strong abilities in terms of "using emotions" was perceived to be a less effective leader, and such leaders had less developed senses of ethical reasoning in comparison to their colleagues who were supervisors. The blending of high selfishness and elevated skills in the "use of emotions" division of emotional intelligence was also noted as producing leaders who were not trusted much by their subordinates. Also, selfish supervisors with high degrees of ability in the "management of emotions" division of emotional intelligence scored higher on ratings of subordinates' trust. The authors suggested that this can result in moral leadership.

Some American PhD research (Greenbaum, 2006) found no substantiation for the connection between personality and leadership efficiency. This research involved 161 attendees of the FBI National Academy responding to a survey on their character styles and leadership types. DISC models were applied to measure character types (dominating, influential, persistent and diligent) and situational models of leadership were applied (telling, tutoring, support and delegation). Leadership efficiency was measured in terms of how those who were participating reacted to written situations, assuming that there were best LC for a particular situation. According to these reasonably limited methods, there were no variations between character types and leadership efficiency at least in the training environment.

vi.   Political skills

Dantzker (1996) requested police managers to rate the characteristics that they felt all of their police chiefs were supposed to have. The results showed that leadership was the most essential skill - although Dantzker did not give further explanation of what was meant by this - followed by communication and making decisions. Dantzker (1996) similarly noted the essential nature of organisational and staffing skills, although he again failed to give a definition of what was meant by these. Surprisingly, Dantzker also noted that participants ranked political skills as the eleventh most essential skill for a manager, which was comparatively lower in importance given other evidence and the established wisdom that many police managers need to have political astuteness. For instance, O'Leary et al. (2011) noted that their sampling of patrolling officers, commanding officers, community leaders, youth advocates and constitutional generals consistently found that political awareness was a vital necessity for any police leader.

2.5.2 Effective senior leadership characteristics

From the research carried by different researchers in different police environments, it is evident that there are some LC that can be considered essential. There is a deep consensus regarding what makes an effective leader. Significantly, however, all of these results were grounded on the beliefs of either one category of people or on the beliefs of subordinates or senior leaders instead of using objective measure(s) of success. With regard to this review of the literature, the following preliminary list has been drawn up of the characteristics required of an effective leader:

1. Organisational commitment
2. Influencing and improving performance
3. Decision making
4. Caring for subordinates
5. Credibility
6. Experimenting and taking risks
7. Political skills.

Each of the aforementioned points is discussed in greater detail below.

2.5.2.1 Organisational commitment

In contrast to job satisfaction, organisational commitment has been defined as the strength of the connection with and interest that an employee takes in an organisation (Meyer et al., 2004). There are three types of commitment that an employee could have towards their organisation - affective, continuance and normative (Joseph and Deshpande, 1996). The first type of commitment, *affective*, relates to the cognitive and emotional affection of the individual towards their organisation; the second type of commitment, *continuance,* is about the fear of associates' costs and risks with leaving an organisation that leads an employee to continue to work with their employer and, finally, *normative commitment* is about moral dimensions that give a person feelings of obligations and responsibility to one's employing firm.

Factors leading to job dissatisfaction among employees

Underpayment: subordinates may attempt to stretch their earnings further in buying expensive goods and paying high health insurance costs. Whenever employees are stressed

because of their inability to pay bills they are likely to feel demoralised in their job (Rose and Demand, 2013).

Stagnant growth and advancement in their career: those workers who have notions that they are trapped in their job positions lose their self-motivation to maintain high productivity. Showing appreciation of employees' efforts through promotions can encourage many employees to commit themselves to the organisation (Rose and Demand, 2013).

Lack of interest: most workers like to have engaging and challenging job responsibilities. Boring work makes workers lose job morale. A bored and unchallenged worker feels detached from the productivity of the organisation (Rose and Demand, 2013).

Poor management: micromanagement and dictating to workers may result in decreased productivity from workers. Other workplaces have highly political cultures that possibly discourage employees from valuing their responsibilities in the organisation (Armstrong, 2012; Rose and Demand, 2013).

Potential consequences of job dissatisfaction

According to Kate and Demand (2013), the following are possible effects of job dissatisfaction among employees:

Job stress: this is basic human nature – whenever employees are not doing what they enjoy, the chances are that they will be feeling dissatisfied and minor things will make them unhappy with their workplace.

Poor overall morale: whenever one employee is not satisfied with his/her job, other workers may be influenced and the organisation may experience widespread demoralisation followed by an eventual sharp decline.

Negligible productivity: job dissatisfaction blended with low worker morale amounts to negligible productivity in workplaces. Whenever an employee is unhappy, he/she cannot concentrate well and cannot pay attention to responsibilities. Such employees may find several other things to do that make them happier while ignoring their responsibilities. Whenever one member of a team is insufficiently productive, it is only natural for other colleagues in the team to become dissatisfied, leading to lower productivity.

Increasing employee turnover rate: employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs are likely to resign and look for a job which they will enjoy doing.

2.5.2.2 Influencing and improving performance

Factors negatively impacting job satisfaction

Sleep deprivation and fatigue: some workplaces have tight working schedules which force the employees to remain working for long hours and sometimes sleeping for less than four hours a day. Lack of sleep and fatigue in employees makes them less productive. It is also said that those employees who have less time for rest have higher chances of being dependent on alcohol. However, since senior managers will not entertain drunkenness in their workplaces, such employees will be working while they are exhausted. This may cause them to have decreased performance (Crunchmode, 2013).

Stress and depression: overworked employees experience a great deal of stress and depression generated from both their families and their workplaces. Whenever the time meant for employee recreation is diverted to organisational work, employees remain worn out and less productive. Those workers who are stressed and do not have access to guidance and counselling may eventually show decreased performances in their workplaces (Crunchmode, 2013).

Necessary tasks: all employees, irrespective of their positions, have some tasks which they have an interest in. These might include running errands, shopping, payment of bills, and picking up children from school, among others. If employees are overworked, they will not have enough time to attend to their personal issues. Thus, they will be looking for time in their work schedules to attend to their personal issues. This could include extended lunch breaks (Crunchmode, 2013).

2.5.2.3 Decision making

What are some examples of poor decision making in organisational leadership?

1. Whenever a leader makes bad decisions so that others might feel honoured.
2. Letting other employees make decisions so as to please them.
   Source: Armstrong (2012).

Why do good managers sometimes make bad decisions?

Over-reliance on their experience: some leaders might think that since they have a proven track record of past success they can apply past approaches to current decisions. Some of these leaders are not mindful of their organisational environments, co-workers, facilities, or how to create momentum in such dynamic working conditions. Some force their past decision-making approaches, expecting similar results to those in the past (Finkelstein, 2010).

Addiction to organisational politics: any leader who has been caught in political traps will be driven by other individuals' agendas and intentions. Since most of these intentions do not auger well for their organisational beliefs, such leaders will ultimately be poor decision makers (Finkelstein, 2010).

Lack of clarity: whenever purpose has become disrupted, leaders lose touch with their instincts and start decision-making processes without the appropriate dependency and resources they need for making sound decisions (Finkelstein, 2010).

Misleading pre-judgment: this is any preceding decision or judgment that might mislead a leader when making any current judgment. Any misleading pre-judgment is most probably to create biases whenever a leader evaluates likely outcomes: it might cause the leader to be dedicated to an incorrect plan. Also, it might cause leaders to be preoccupied with certain plans of action – usually concepts which have worked before (Finkelstein, 2010; Smith, 2014).

2.5.2.4 Care for subordinates

Further to the previous discussion, how do some leaders show that they do not care about their subordinates?

- Not giving subordinates what they need: some leaders do not put themselves in the shoes of their subordinates. They sometimes work with a particular section of subordinates and ignore the remainder. Some do not organise relevant seminars, training etc. for their subordinates. This eventually makes the work of such leaders both hectic and erratic (Arte, 2011).

- Not getting everyone involved: such leaders do not have enough confidence in their subordinates, for no good reason. They complain that some of their workers are not beneficial to the organisation whilst ignoring these subordinates' efforts. How can a leader expect subordinates who do not feel connected to the leader to work effectively (Arte, 2011)?

- Not being kind and humane: some leaders do not show acts of kindness to their subordinates. Such leaders are brutal whenever a subordinate is in the wrong and are not willing to reason with the subordinate. Some punish their subordinates in an exaggerated manner such that other subordinates complain about their actions. Such leaders have very few subordinates who are willing to share with them ways of improving so as to achieve organisational goals. Subordinates will opt to work on their own without consulting such leaders since they know that these leaders do not value their subordinates (Arte, 2011).

- Not acting fairly: some leaders treat their subordinates in a biased manner. They sometimes do not have time to find out the circumstances which led to a mistake being made by a particular subordinate. Some go to the extent of rewarding (e.g., promoting) only their "friends" and leaving those who are not close to them unappreciated (Arte, 2011; Clarke and Mahadi, 2015).

2.5.2.5 Credibility

Credibility is considered as one of the founding element for both leadership and organisational effectiveness (Engelbrecht et al., 2015). To this end, Northouse (2015) went as far as arguing that credibility element is a core ingredient of the effective leadership that works as a catalyst to bond leaders and followers together. Similarly, Shaw (1997) also supported the above claims through arguing that success of an organisation requires two factors: a sharp strategy and an executioner. However, having a sharp strategy will not work if the executioner of that strategy does not have credibility and trust. Basically, if leaders have credibility and invite trust, they are much more likely to win the hearts and minds of followers resulting in acquiring the intrinsic commitment of followers (Covey, 1991). Kouzes and Posner (2007) administered questionnaires to 75,000 people throughout the globe, asking them about the qualities in a leader which they felt were essential. Their results were

consistent on various characteristics, which received more than 60% of the votes across the world. These were:

1. Honest
2. Forward-looking
3. Inspirational
4. Competent
5. Emotional intelligence

This study by Kouzes and Posner (2007) noted that honesty was at the top of the list for the respondents. For leaders to have followers right up to boardroom level, they must have moral principles and be truthful. People are greatly admiring of leaders who seem to stand on their principles with confidence. Sometimes people feel that integrity and character are inseparable and both help to make a leader honest.

More than 70% of the respondents in the study carried out by Kouzes and Posner (2007) ranked being forward-looking high on their lists. Subordinates want leaders who have a sense of direction and are concerned about the future of their workplace. Subordinates expect their leaders to have enthusiasm, energy and positivity about the future. Inspirational leaders are always breathing life into subordinates' dreams and visions and making them sign up, more willingly, for the duration. Competence refers to the track record of leaders accomplishing things successfully. This requires leaders to take time and learn from the organisation in order to be effective. Moreover, Goleman et al. (2015) asserted that for leaders to gain followers' trust and credibility they need to possess high levels of emotional intelligence skills since emotionally astute leaders exude confidence and trust, resolve conflict and encourage optimism. Similarly, Nafukho et al. (2016) suggested that those days are gone when leaders were asked to leave their emotions behind the office door since to influence employees' emotions and behaviour one needs to be emotionally astute. While studying the minds of leaders from the perspective of emotional intelligence, Goleman et al. (2015) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor and manage own and others' emotions to guide the decision-making process. On the other hand, drawing on Al-Ali et al. (2012), emotional intelligence skills are a must for the jobs requiring direct public contact such as that of police work. Similarly, Duas and Ashkansay (2005) suggested that emotional intelligence is important for effective police leadership since police leaders are usually

required to manage not only their own but also that of their followers while dealing with crisis situations. Based on the importance of emotional intelligence of leaders, Eberly and Fong (2013) suggested that emotionally intelligent leaders tend to possess high credibility since emotional intelligence skills result in winning the hearts and minds of followers.

2.5.2.6 Experimenting and taking risks

Kouzes and Posner (2007) asserted that leaders should constantly be willing to attempt things that might fail in the future, generate minor victories and learn fast from these experiences. By thinking too broadly, leaders may overwhelm their subordinates and make tasks too daunting. Leaders should also encourage their subordinates to be less fearful by generating small wins in the progress towards victory. These small wins eventually bring about excitement, commitment and hard work. Kouzes and Posner's (2007) advice is that leaders can be effective if they start by splitting their tasks into small parts which are more manageable. These small parts make the subordinates more motivated to work than if they are confronted with complex ones. Also, the authors (2007) posit that leaders should be willing to learn from their experiences. Since they are likely to make mistakes, they cannot easily know what they are capable of doing and what they are not. By somehow allowing subordinates to fail and learn, overall performance can be improved.

2.5.2.7 Political skills

According to the Center for Creative Leadership (CCL) (2013), politically astute leaders possess the following skills:

Thinking before speaking: they have control over the impulse to speak. They constantly try to weigh up their organisational conflicts with wisdom and size up circumstances before making any decision on the best approach to presenting their ideas to subordinates. Leaders who really deliberate over whether or not to speak of their thoughts or feelings, and who are mindful about the scheduling and performance of whatever they have to communicate, are less likely to upset their careers (CCL, 2013).

Managing up to a point: police leaders should be capable of skilfully communicating with their seniors and higher officers. Nevertheless, political skills also involve the maintenance of good relationships with officers at different levels in the workplace. The CCL (2013) asserts that people who are particularly good at "managing up" have a tendency to put a great deal of

energy into their seniors' needs, rather than neglecting them while leading their individual teams.

Practicing influence: an effective influencer builds strong interpersonal relationships and has good rapport with subordinates. Leaders who are confident in their interpersonal powers are likely to be effective in knowing when to assert themselves, which amounts to more cooperation in the workplaces. A skilled influencer is not often overtly political but plays the political games with fairness and minimal effort (CCL, 2013).

Honing powers of perception: any socially astute leader tends to be a perceptive observer of subordinates and social circumstances. Such managers value social interaction and, in any social setting, they correctly interpret their individual behaviours in addition to those of others. They possess strong judgment abilities and extraordinary self-awareness (CCL, 2013).

Learning to network: leaders who have strong networking abilities build friendships and helpful working relationships through the laying down of support, negotiations and managing conflicts. Skilled networking leaders often recognise when to call for help and are usually ready to reciprocate (CCL, 2013).

Being sincere: politically skilled leaders exhibit extraordinary degrees of integrity, genuineness, sincerity and legitimacy. They are - or seem to be - honest, open and forthright, inspiring trust and confidence. For leaders to hone their political skills, they should try to be genuine with the subordinates in their organisations. If a leader tries too hard, subordinates will see right through it (CCL, 2013; Petrovsky et al., 2015).

2.6 The current predominant senior leadership characteristics in the UAE police organisations:

In order to assimilate the analysis of the literature, this research pursues this line of inquiry: What are the CPSLC in the UAE police?

According to the Gulf News (2007) and the Police College (2013), most of the LC which are predominant in the UAE police organisations are taught at the Police College, whose foundation was enshrined in Federal Law No. (1), issued in 1985. Across the collected works, there was extensive agreement (Standing Bear, 1986; Schafer, 2008; Isla and Kodz, 2011)

about which LC are predominant in the UAE police organisations, and these can be summarised as follows:

1. Fairness
2. Role elucidation
3. Role modelling
4. Communication skills
5. Perceptions of leaders' effectiveness and subordinate responsiveness to leaders.

Every police leader in the UAE police organisations is supposed to bear in mind and successfully operate in a multi-part social, political and organisational set up (Casey and Mitchell, 2007). Effective leadership is usually perceived to be fundamental for excellent performance in any police organisations, of which the UAE police organisations are no exception (Dobby et al., 2004; Boedker et al., 2011). Thus, the urge for effective police leadership is increasing over time (Meaklim and Sims, 2011).

Schafer (2010) surveyed 1000 police leaders present in the FBI's National Academy. He noted that the most frequently observed features of success for effective leaders were linked to personality and inter-personal skills like being compassionate and communicative, instead of technical characteristics like decision making.

For success to be achieved in senior leadership, a different way of reasoning about the most appropriate way of marshalling the available resources of an organisation needs to be formulated and implemented as a strategy. This approach to reasoning balances a purposeful analytical perspective with the human dimensions of strategy making. When these practices are blended with an obligation to manage time so as to engage the entire organisation in a strategic dialogue, a strong foundation for building a winning organisation capable of defining, committing, adjusting and adapting the strategy quickly can be laid (Sarver, 2008).

Murphy and Drodge (2004) asserted that police leaders have to be principled, based on the objectives of their organisations, and must be humane in their dealings with their subordinates. Leadership abilities are said to lie in the characters of leaders, without consideration of the personal attributes which are connected to anticipated LC.

Rubin et al. (2010) argued that there is a connection between employee management and organisational performance. The behaviour of ethical police leaders can have a positive effect on individuals, the organisations, and society as a whole. This behaviour manifests in three aspects: being fair, power sharing and role elucidation (Kalshoven and Hoogh, 2011). An effective ethical connection between these parties results in operational competence, which is related to decreased staff turnover and cost reduction. Currently, this is not very evident in the UAE police, although the organisation is gradually embracing the policy of ethical handling of its workers through implementing particular strategies like parity, employee rewards and rigid policies on "whistleblowing". Simply put, organisations that embrace or encourage ethical behaviour among their leaders and teams will definitely reap positive rewards.

2.6.1 Fairness and transparency in the UAE police

Some questions arise over how fairness is portrayed by senior leaders in the UAE police organisations. These include:

a) How do employees' annual awards conserve fairness in the UAE police organisations?
b) Does gender sensitivity feature in these awards?

This is a reaffirmation that all employees in the UAE police organisations should be equally recognised. One of the best ways of eroding a workplace's reputation for fairness can be issuing of unequal recognition. This challenge is somehow negated when the leaders adapt their annual employee awarding events in a quest to promote fairness amongst UAE police officers (Trenberth and Collins, 1994).

There is a Feigenbaum Leadership Excellence Award which is meant to pay tribute to individuals in the Arab world. It is conferred for commendable management in leading workplaces into fulfilling their roles in businesses and societies, for rigid styles of instigating quality criteria, for embracing a culture of hard work, and for being role models to many. This award is based on fairness, irrespective of the employee's gender. For instance, in the year 2013, Captain Rashid Abdullah Al Dosari was awarded the Feigenbaum Leadership Excellence Award (Gulf News, 2007). This officer won the Women Leaders and Rising Stars group of award, which is overseen by the Virtual Executive Club (VEC), in Hamdan bin

Mohammed e-University in Dubai (HBMeU). This in effect raises three important critical questions:

- How does this award encourage leadership performance/effectiveness?
- How operational are these incentives?
- Is there any alternative to awarding/giving incentives as a way of encouraging effectiveness?

These awards have always encouraged subordinates to constantly work harder so as to attain set goals (Gulf news, 2007). These awards in effect challenge those who have not achieved them to work harder. The awards have also brought in the notion that individual efforts by subordinates are valued by their senior leaders. All these awards have ultimately motivated the UAE police organisations to strive to do their best in their duties and responsibilities.

In addition, a Golden Jubilee celebration in 2007 was organised and directed by Lieutenant General Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed, the Minister of the Interior. During the event, there were mass weddings of over 50 nationals, community programmes and sports activities, amongst other social activities. This, according to the Gulf News (2007), exhibited the fact that the UAE police organisation upholds fairness in both the nation and among its officers. It is yet to be seen what impact this will have on performance.

An alternative to awarding UAE police officers is giving promotions. Senior leaders relentlessly perpetuate the notion that promotions are fairly handled. When an employee laments that a colleague's promotion is not rational, his or her underlying question might be, "how come I've not been promoted?" When any worker starts feeling that a particular promotion was not based on merit, the leadership will be perceived by the employee to be promoting subordinates on the basis of corruption. Eventually this is likely to demoralise employees. The acts of selecting particular people to promote over others also bends to the cultural factors of the UAE such as high collectivism that results in the promoting of nepotism as high collectivism means that individuals with connections will make their way further (and quicker) up the hierarchy compared to those who have no connection. Put simply, when it comes to recruitment, promotion and appraisal in the Arab world, there is more to *who* you know than *what* you know (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). However, nepotism

is considered an anathema to the effective leadership as it demoralises and demotivates staff and results in high staff turnover. Contrary to this, if a UAE police officer is to be demoted as a result of disciplinary issues or underperformance, the top senior leaders try to carry this out in a manner which the whole UAE police fraternity will feel is fair. However, promotions and demotions in the UAE police organisations are sometimes marred by unfairness and quite a large number of subordinates have sedulously complained about this (Gulf News, 2007).

The UAE police management addresses this by ensuring that all its workers usually receive regular, constructive feedback and that they are provided with personal support for professional progression. In order to make sure that this experience is balanced, police employees are also given the opportunity to give upward feedback to their senior leaders. This also triggers the question:

- How does this "feedback" translate to improving effectiveness?

Whenever subordinates are allowed to air their views on any performance or promotion, they are more likely to feel valued by their managers. Through listening to the opinions from their subordinates, senior leaders are able to answer the following questions:

1. Were our decisions on promotions, awards and demotions based on merit?
2. How do our subordinates feel about our leadership styles?
3. Which of our leadership styles need to be improved so as to achieve the set targets and goals?

There is also some candid transparency and commitment to equity with regard to the pay cheques of UAE police officers. When referring to the term "fair pay", it is important to recognise that it is not simply the sum on the pay cheques that matter. The intelligibility of the compensation systems and clear commitments to equity by the UAE police organisations are critical in ensuring that the police officers feel fairly paid and rewarded. This also raises the following critical question:

- How have fair salaries and remuneration impacted upon performance?

Top leaders are always ensuring that the salaries and remuneration given to the police officers are fair to all. The salaries are based on the police officer's rank, academic level and the number of years of service. The fair salary and remuneration of the UAE police organisations motivates employees to go the extra mile so as to have sufficient appreciation in terms of salary. This has made the UAE police leadership liked by the subordinates and is significantly helping to improve the performance of top leaders in the police organisations. The argument regarding the salary and level of job satisfaction in the UAE's police has also been supported by Abdulla (2009) as, in his study on the ingredients of job satisfaction among employees in the Dubai police, he concluded that due to the cultural norm of materialism, wealth status is usually considered the sole predictor of the personal lifestyle; hence, salary and incentives are considered the key motivators for employees in the police in Dubai. This further generates more critical questions:

- What were the factors that led to the police being awarded for those years?
- What were they doing differently, particularly at the top levels of leadership?

Lieutenant-General Dhahi Tamim stated that the good reputation, fairness and transparent standards being exercised by the UAE police officers had given a remarkable reputation to the UAE police organisations, making it stand out across the world for its transparency and wise leaders, as well as their policy of rigidly defending human rights (UAE Interact, 2013). During an award ceremony, where the UAE police was considered the best for the third consecutive year in the region, Dhahi Tamim said that ever since the award was first given in 1997 the UAE police organisation has often been a frontrunner. He also commented that although the UAE police was not awarded in the past, it was usually told that it was the winner of this award but understood that the organisers saw that it was not wise to always announce the UAE police as the winners as it might discourage others from competing in the future. During this event, the Lieutenant-General also stated that in the last 15 years of the Dubai Government Excellence Awards, the UAE Police had gained 78 awards and this was a reflection of the noteworthy transparency the UAE police organisations had exhibited under its brilliant leadership (Khaleejtimes, 2013). The awards show that the UAE police organisations have been upholding and maintaining transparency and fairness in their daily routines. It is evident that most of the senior leaders have been at the forefront of advocating fairness and transparency in the UAE police organisations.

According to UAE laws, all UAE citizens are supposed to be treated fairly; thus all senior UAE police organisation leaders are expected to offer fair appeal processes to their subordinates (UAE interact, 2016). It is vital for police officers to bear in mind that they can access a fair opportunity to have their grievances listened to by their management. The UAE government stated that, on 25 August 2013, the court in Dubai convicted two Emirati policemen over allegations that they had kidnapped, unlawfully arrested, abused their authority and committed theft. These officers were reportedly detaining street vendors, locking them up in their police vans and stealing the sellers' money. The senior UAE police leaders did not take kindly to this and as a consequence the officers involved were first suspended and subsequently lost their jobs.

On 26 August 2009, in contrast, a Dubai court heard the case of a British woman who testified that an Emirati police officer had raped her. The senior leaders in the UAE police defended the defendant fairly on the basis of being innocent until proven guilty by the law. The victim alleged that she had been beaten and raped twice. She stated that this happened once in the officer's car and then in her Dubai home. The case continued to the end of the year. Later, as no credible information/verdict was established about this case, the police officer was set free. On the other hand, the woman was sentenced to 16 months imprisonment.

The procedures for arrest and treatment while being held in detention by the UAE police prohibit the arresting or searching of any Emirati citizen without feasible cause. The leadership in the UAE police continuously implements an open-door policy for all its police leaders and various upward response mechanisms. This programme has always allowed Emirati police organisation team members to have an opportunity to voice concerns or constructive criticism to those who are outside of their usual communication channels. These questions are projected towards the police chief and are internalised to only him, the vice president and the prime minister. Also, police employee advocates arrange ordinary visits at each of the UAE police locations, so as to ascertain whether all the police officers have reliable avenues for airing their grievances (Khaleejtimes, 2013).

2.6.2 Role elucidation in the UAE police

This generates the following questions for research:

1. Who oversees the UAE subordinate leadership in the UAE police organisations, and how?
2. How are subordinates made aware of their responsibilities?

UAE police officers, like employees in any other organisation, have different management roles ascribed to them. The police chief oversees these different roles within all the police organisations. This has been made effective through specialisation in the UAE police leadership. Specialisation is the process whereby the tasks in a system are separated and carried out by particular individuals. In the UAE police leadership, specialisation facilitates the achievement of otherwise unachievable goals.

Management in any police department, large or small, comprises various parallel managerial duties. Schafer (2008) made a controversial observation when he surveyed 700 US police leaders present at the National Academy of the FBI. Schafer found that quite a number of the most crucial lessons learnt in police leadership commands were painful, and changes are hard to implement and are not frequently called for. Politics is everywhere, and the police chief is a public figure. This is contrary to the findings of Vito et al.'s (2011) study of 126 police leaders who defined their perfect police leaders as those who express the values of being servants and not superiors. The study also revealed that if a police leader gave humane commands subordinates would not have negative attitudes towards these commands in the police organisations. However, Macdonald (1986) challenges Schafer's (2008) findings and believes instead that effective leaders are those who share their daily routines with their subordinates and try to create an environment which is "free of commands".

Police officers in the UAE therefore often attend seminars organised by their senior leaders about the responsibilities that their ranks entail. In these seminars, the UAE officers are also trained on how they should respect the roles assigned to their colleagues. This considerably reduces the time wasted on chaotic responsibilities (Police College, 2013).

2.6.3 Role modelling in the UAE police organisations

While approaching the impact of role modelling in the UAE police organisations, the literature review attempts to respond to these questions:

1. What does the available literature say about role modelling by senior police leaders?
2. How does role modelling affect leadership in the police organisations?
3. Is the senior leadership in the UAE police organisations applying role modelling?

Police College (2013) reported that the top senior leaders in the UAE police, just like those in any other organisation, are usually emulated by their subordinates. The leaders in most flourishing organisations are ethical leaders in the sense that they are role models and therefore are probably perceived as workplace prototypes. Therefore, the prototypes in these organisations are more trusted and efficient.

A 2004 piece of UK research from the Home Office (Dobby et al., 2004) used responses from 1066 police officers (from various rankings) and police officers in 36 police forces from England and Wales. The participants were asked to rate their immediate senior managers against 14 aspects of role-modelling leaders. They also answered questions about how the behaviours of their immediate senior managers could alter the character and psychology of their workplaces. The study revealed that police leaders who scored highest for role modelling behaviours were likely to have a positive psychological influence on their subordinates. The research also showed that the converse was true – those leaders who scored low on the role modelling calibrations had a high chance of having a negative psychological influence on those who followed them. The scale score achieving the strongest relationship with psychological impacts was having 'genuine concerns for others' success and development'. Police leaders with the highest ratings in this dimension were noted to be hardworking leaders who positively influenced/encouraged the commitment of their subordinates in doing their duties, self-confidence and self-esteem, feelings of job contentment, fulfilment, dedication to their organisation, and enthusiasm for surpassing expectations.

The UAE leadership has applied components of ethical leadership in using rewards (like promotions) and punishment (like fines and demotion) when stimulating ethical conduct. Brown et al. (2005) defined ethical leaders as those who "demonstrate normatively suitable

behaviour through individual characters and interpersonal relationships and promote such behaviour to their followers by using two-way communication, corroboration and decision making" (p. 120). The rewards given to the UAE police organisations are one effective way of encouraging other subordinates to emulate those who are awarded promotions and take them as their role models. This has also helped some police officers to seek advice from these "role models" on how to be effective in their work.

Some researchers applying social exchange theories concentrate strongly on the custom of reciprocity and argue that police subordinates like those in the UAE police are ready to give in return when they are subjected to fair treatment and shown concern (Mayer et al., 2009). In the context of the social exchange point of view, researchers have perceived ethical leadership as embodying the component of the anxiety that exists in connecting altruistic and egoistic intents. They have suggested that any leader who is a role model to subordinates is propelled by a system of time-honoured beliefs and suitable judgments as opposed to self-interest, which could be of assistance to subordinates, workplaces and societies (Aronson, 2001; Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001; Turner et al., 2002). Researchers like Randeree (2012) have focused on how leaders like those in the UAE police organisations use their powers in decision making, actions and means of influencing others. Correspondingly, De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009) view leadership using role modelling as a process of manipulating - in a socially accountable manner - the actions of an organised group (like UAE police organisations) towards goal achievement.

Karianne and Hartog (2009) asserted that it is very clear that those senior leaders who are role models to their subordinates (like those in UAE police) are normally perceived by their subordinates to be effective. Therefore, since some of the UAE top leaders are believed to be affected by their followers, they can probably influence their followers in attaining the goals of the UAE police organisations. In addition, those leaders believed to be working in an effective way have been going along with the job-related requirements of their followers. Karianne and Hartog (2009) suggest that, in addition to being overall ethical leaders, the precise scope of fairness and clarification of roles also facilitate the perceptions of the efficiency of these top leaders. However, power-sharing is possibly less essential for such leaders to be seen as effective. Brown et al. (2005) also found that role modelling and trust were vital mediators in such a working environment. More explicitly, the findings suggested that a leadership style whereby leaders are perceived to be good role models to their

subordinates is felt to be an idealised workforce prototype. This 'prototype' perception strongly catalyses confidence in this top leadership, which consequently enhances diligence and perceptions of efficiency. In a study of 480 senior policemen from Australia, Densten (2003) found that senior sergeants, inspectors and chief inspectors viewed their leaders as efficient if they were noted to be exhibiting behaviours consistent with the idealised influence. Johnson (2006) acknowledged role modelling by senior police supervisors to be one of the major components facilitating behavioural change in subordinate police officers. During his period of command of a West African army, Obasanjo (1980, p. 86) lends weight to this view when he asserts that he has come to realise that, through training and practice, the effectiveness of a leader is deeply conditioned by the status and prestige which his followers accord him. Thus, a leader's ability and his image as perceived by his followers determine his status and prestige. Consequently, the top senior leaders in the UAE police organisations are expected to bear this in mind as well as the fact that the characters of police subordinates are influenced by the characters of their senior leaders.

The findings from this literature review also add to the latest research on exemplary leaders. The report by Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008) states categorically that trust can act as a mediating factor in the relationships between the exemplary and top leaders' efficiency in the UAE police organisations. Therefore, those senior leaders in the UAE police organisations who are role models are strong examples for their subordinates. This is in conjunction with connected preceding research that shows that any leader who is perceived to show procedural fairness (i.e., procedural justice) is often perceived to be prototypical (like Platow and Knippenberg, 2001 and Lipponen et al., 2005). Consequently, the literature review supports the essence of role modelling for senior leaders in the UAE police organisations as stressed by Brown et al. (2005). However, most studies in the exemplary leadership research field are based on experiments and only a few are field studies. Consequently, our study on the significance of role modelling in the UAE police organisations leadership brings an extra field-study dimension to the literature.

2.6.4 Communication skills within the police organisations

This gives rise to the following questions:

1. Is effective communication essential in the UAE police organisations?

2. How are senior UAE police leaders ensuring that effective communication skills are possessed by all subordinates?

Effective communication skills are absolutely vital in the UAE police organisations (Abdulla et al., 2011). Often, police officers are expected to talk to various types of people, some of whom may be in difficult situations that these officers could assist them with. However, this is not the case with all senior UAE police leaders since due to cultural characteristics of high distance senior leadership tend not to invite subordinates in the decision-making process (Rees et al., 2012). Therefore, the police leadership is expected to put effort into promoting the issue of effective communication whenever UAE police officers deal with a wide range of individuals with different areas of need. Some officers try to understand what each individual does or does not want to hear. Schafer (2008) described the need for effective communication for the police leadership through arguing that officers, particularly those who are usually on patrol, get very little time to directly interact with the senior leadership. Subsequently, most work is done with minimal supervision, so senior leaders need to possess high levels of communication skills to translate the idea, vision and goals of the organisations to the lower-level employees in short, precise and effective communication.

As the UAE is gradually becoming more diverse in its culture, UAE police officers have, in recent times, been encouraged by their senior leadership to be very careful whenever they deal with people from other cultural set-ups. What is believed to be normal in the police officer's culture might not be to some people from different ethnicities. For instance, in some cultural and religious set-ups it is prohibited for a woman to utter any words to a man who is not married to her. This may result in a chaotic situation if a police officer is not aware of this and insists on speaking to a woman. This also works in whichever way it is perceived because most of the ethnic groups that come into the UAE community do not necessarily have to adhere to all the laws governing citizens (Isla and Kodz, 2011).

UAE police leaders often organise programmes in which police officers are educated on the best communication skills to use within and outside the workplace (UAE MOI, 2016). Police officers are sometimes told they need to adjust their tones of voice and their attitudes depending on the situations they are handling; it is important to note, though, that attending seminars does not make UAE police officers excellent communicators. UAE police officers are expected to always be sympathetic and comforting to victims as well as upholding the law

and being assertive and authoritative at the same time. Some of the top senior leaders in the UAE police organisations strive to switch their emotions on and off; but they are always aware that they are police officers first and foremost. They are also supposed to be conscious of the flexibility of their emotions and attitudes while dispensing their duties. This has helped a few of these leaders to handle the disciplinary cases of their subordinates objectively. This has also contributed to the UAE police organisations enjoying good performance for a long period of time (Adair, 2011). It is in this vein that Schafer (2008) argues that efficient police managers recognise the essence of effective communication skills and are motivated to explain and elaborate on decisions or actions in a manner that means they will gain support from their subordinates.

According to Metcalfe and Mimouni (2011), senior-level police leadership in the UAE are expected to take control of traumatic conditions solemnly, and collaborate with their subordinates in resolving these issues. These senior police leaders must always strive to put their personal emotions and feelings aside so that they can deal with the circumstances at hand successfully. Top police officers look for ways of de-escalating situations before the issue gets out of hand. Some of them do so in a manner that almost all of those who are involved in any particular circumstance concur with. Instances of this include suicidal subject calls or any call that involves the mentally ill. Both incidences are very complicated for these leaders to deal with, particularly if the police officers who directly deal with these calls have no relevant experience or training in how to attend to such incidents. In such circumstances, there are highly charged and volatile circumstances and thus appropriate communication skills are needed for smooth resolution (Al-Shaali and Kibble, 2000). Therefore, top UAE police leaders must try to evaluate such situations and propose ways of meeting the requirements of the subjects; but at the same juncture still exhibit authority. Leaders are sometimes not keen on such instances because just a small number of wrong deeds or actions may be disastrous to all concerned (McConnell, 2000).

Police officers are also as good as their reports. In addition to senior police leaders handling several calls daily, they are also expected to document all that happens during these calls and later collate the information into report form for future reference. Adair (2004) noted that most of the senior police officers use up a huge amount of their time having telephone conversations. This means that they cannot always vividly recall everything in any conversation they might have been involved in. Therefore, senior police officers are expected

to ensure that they put everything in their police report forms. They are also obliged to make their reports legible and comprehensive so that anyone reading them can clearly understand what is being stated. This becomes even more vital when such a case is taken to court and senior UAE police officers are interrogated and asked by the plaintiff to give explicit details of the suspects, dates, times and locations of crimes. The duties of the top senior leaders in the UAE police organisations are sometimes very complicated and thus they have to employ razor-sharp communication skills (Adair, 2004).

2.6.5 Perceptions of leader effectiveness and subordinate responsiveness to leaders

This yields the following questions:

1. Do subordinates in the UAE police organisations expect particular leadership types from their senior leaders?
2. Why are some leaders perceived by their subordinates to be effective?

Most of the senior leaders in the UAE police organisations are eager to find out how their subordinates perceive their levels of efficiency, particularly in the discharge of their duties. These senior leaders regularly attend seminars on training and have learnt a great deal about achieving a positive perception from their subordinates. The tips learned from such leadership training echo what Macdonald (1986) revealed.

While interviewing some active policemen in three police departments in Canada, Macdonald (1986) noted that the supervisors who attracted more respect were the visible ones, those who spent some time in the field, those who asked for input from their immediate officers, and those who discussed operations, the objectives of officers, rumours, and other aspects. Based on the available literature, it seems that UAE senior leaders are learning that high standards, trying to make tasks more exciting, having knowledge and ability, and supporting their officers whenever needed, creates a better perception among their subordinates. Conversely, any senior leader who is perceived by subordinates to be slack and ego-centred is not highly rated. The research also noted that the application of excess monitoring, enforcement, discipline and measurement of efficiency using numbers is not common and there is no cover-up for ineffective behaviour (Macdonald, 1986).

A major conclusion was drawn in Beito's (1999) American research in which there was an extraction of responses, using questionnaires from 421 'community officers', from the police force. It was found that any perception of democratic leaders had a positive correlation with perceptions of the effectiveness of leaders. In most police forces from other parts of the world, dictatorship is commonly exercised by senior leaders (Sarver and Miller, 2013). Subordinates tend not to like such dictatorial leadership. The senior leaders in the UAE police organisations are realising that acting as "commanders" is less fruitful and should gradually be minimised. Khaleejtimes (2013) confirmed that some UAE senior leaders are also realising that when their subordinates feel appreciated and valued by their seniors, subordinates eventually perceive leaders as effective and willing to give their all. Most senior UAE leaders regularly hold meetings with their subordinates, whereby they ensure that more attention is given to their subordinates. The subordinates in the UAE police organisations expect their senior leaders to be aware that they are the ones who are on the ground and have the most information about most incidences of crimes. By being democratic leaders, senior leaders can now get inflows of information from their subordinates. Unfortunately, only a few of these senior leaders regularly exercise democracy in the line of duty.

Beito's (1999) study unearthed the fact that managers who were perceived to be 'technical experts' (i.e., possessing high levels of training) were also likely to be perceived as more effective. This was even though their experience (in terms of years in their supervisory posts) did not have quantifiable impacts on feelings of effectiveness. These leaders had some training when they were recruited into the police force but this is not enough since the world is dynamic. It is in the light of ever-changing circumstances that senior leaders in the UAE police organisations attend many leadership training courses so that they can acquire more knowledge of how to handle their colleagues.

Two PhD studies (from America) tested the authenticity and generality of the competency models for executive police management (Silva, 2004; Weiss, 2004). The two surveys drew on the initial stage of the survey – which reported interviews with eight 'star performing' top-level leaders in a particular American police department concerning the important characteristics of the police leaders. This led to the production of a list of 24 fundamental skills. Four of these proficiencies were considered the most essential: credibility, communication, leading employees, and courage.

Silva's (2004) PhD research tested credibility, leading employees, communication and courage by sampling 687 police officers and citizen staff from 13 police departments. The essence of each of these skills was rated. Participants were requested to rate the skill levels of their respective senior leaders. It was clear that interpersonal skills were highly rated. It is for this reason that the UAE leaders advocate leadership training so that they can learn more about interpersonal skills.

To identify more about the CPSLC in the UAE police, the researcher reviews some documents (i.e., police organisation documents). Since researcher is an employee at the MOI in the UAE specifically in the Police General Headquarters of Sharjah, there was no problem for the researcher to access those documents through personal contact with some of the leaders with regard to LC. Some documents were reviewed with a special focus on LC. Specifically, the annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015) were reviewed. A more detailed explanation of the whereabouts of these documents is provided in the methodology chapter of this thesis.

The LC that were identified from the documentation: the ability to think strategically, the ability to carry out institutional planning and use resources, the ability to prepare/develop new leaders, the ability to delegate power, the ability to manage time, vision and mission, the role of modelling, the ability to undertake strategic development and planning, encouragement, transparency, the ability to change, the ability to make the necessary decisions, empowerment, and justice. While the CPSLC in the UAE police organisations as identified in the literature review (section 2.6) were: fairness/justice, role elucidation, role modelling, communication skills and perceptions of leaders' effectiveness and subordinate responsiveness to leaders. These characteristics are supported by the police organisation documents. Three of these five characteristics were also identified in the documents: justice, being a role model and transparency.

2.7 The potential impact of the key senior leadership characteristics on leadership effectiveness

In this section, discussion picks up from the characteristics of leadership identified generally in the available literature to identify the potential impact that those characteristics have on the effective leadership.

As the researcher mentioned above, the term 'leadership' is broad because it can be defined from different perspectives. Leadership has been defined in terms of individual characteristics, behavioural characteristics, and the organisational characteristics. In organisations, strong leadership is required to achieve optimal effectiveness; that is, organisations need effective leaders to achieve the vision. The definition of LE also differs on the basis of various consequences and contexts. Although the understanding of LE differs, it is vital for the success of an organisation (Phipps and Prieto, 2011).

The different characteristics which have been addressed in the available literature are of great significance to the LE of senior leaders in any organisation. While responding to these characteristics, we answer the following questions:

1. Which of the addressed LC in the available literature are vital in any organisational management?
2. How are these characteristics likely to improve LE?

2.7.1 The future vision of the leader – forward looking

What distinguishes a leader from the ordinary decision maker is the ability to look forward and consider all relevant factors before making decisions. In order to be a successful and motivational leader, it is necessary to develop the ability of foresight. In fact, the quality of a leader is to shape the future. Leaders are the strategists and executors; they shape the future and make things happen.

As mentioned by Van der Helm (2009), generally, people focus on their day-to-day problems, but a leader is the one who focuses on tomorrow. In simple words, the true leader is the one who thinks differently and is innovative. In today's world where the competition is intense, organisations are always looking for successful ideas to transform their business. The technological advancement has allowed leaders to think beyond the limitations, making plans and ensuring their execution. According to Posner and Kouzes (2009), the ability of any leader to look forward is ranked highest. On an average, almost 70% of workers worldwide consider 'forward-looking' as the key leadership skill. Many leaders influence their teams by preaching the benefits and advantages of 'future' after achieving the desired result.

According to Russell and Gregory-Stone (2002), without the forward-looking quality of a leader, he/she cannot influence people. The employees are always curious about what comes next. To address this challenge, the leader looks into the future, develops understanding, and plans things. On the other hand, a leader who does not manage the future is just a manager and thus cannot influence the people to the desired level. If the team of the organisation does not know much of the future, they will not be as productive and motivated.

Future uncertainties can prove exciting; thus this should be seen as an opportunity to encourage and make people happy. As postulated by Posner and Kouzes (2009), a forward-looking leader identifies the positive aspects of the future, develops opportunities, and extols their value to the people he or she oversees. This way, the leader can successfully influence his or her people and create a sense of belonging among them, which motivates them to stay loyal and attached to goals and objectives.

In the UAE, leaders are placed as the most important factors in providing a means of motivation and prosperity to the employees. There is a political revolution also known as the Arab Spring taking place in the Middle East due to increasing numbers of competitors from all around the world requiring governments to be more responsive to public needs and subsequently raising the need for effective leadership (Lynch, 2013). The organisations are becoming more and more innovative and stepping up efforts to develop an edge over their competitors. The need for leadership has therefore risen and, according to Masi and Cooke (2000), organisations are looking for leaders who can switch on the organisation and be victorious in the market.

One of the biggest retailing, tourism, airlines, hotel and leisure provider groups in the UAE, Emirates Group, believes that leadership is the most crucial part of the group in driving the most successful Middle-east economy. As argued by Barhem et al. (2008), the leaders' effort in making things happen has been excellent; they pioneered the vision, and developed and executed the strategies that were all well calculated.

Nataraja and Al-Ali (2011) stated that Sheikh Ahmed bin Saeed Al Maktoum, chairman and chief executive of the Emirates Airline and Group, has devoted 25 years of his leadership with the view of ever-enhancing goals and objectives. He believes in his ability to achieve the remarkable economic development through the successful expansion of aviation in the UAE.

He is highly recognised; that is evident from his contribution to investment, economic and fiscal policies.

How far ahead can a leader see?

Unlike the ordinary person, a leader is someone who is concerned not only about the day-to-day challenges but look into the future. According to Visser et al. (2013), nowadays, most organisations are focusing on their existing challenges and neglecting the future consequences. However, foreseeing can help in overcoming major barriers to business success. The importance of foresight applies on all managerial levels; from front-line supervisors to strategy makers.

Development of future focus

To consider the future consequences, it is important to develop the complexity of the future (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). The leader looks at the organisation with all the aspects; its customers, shareholders, employees, and suppliers, among others. Most businesses fail due to little knowledge of the impact of these stakeholders on business in future. That said Schoemaker et al. (2013) suggested that great achievements are realised through 'throwing cannonballs in the harbour, not by merely playing violins in the ballroom'. It means that leaders need to diffuse their vision of the future into the minds of the followers to achieve the intended results. However, nothing could be achieved without foresight of both internal and external organisational environments. It is for this reason that Shoemaker et al. (2013) argued that leaders need to possess *insight*, *outsight* and *foresight* of an existing situation and navigate the ship through unknown waters. A leader can use these three dimensions to stay focused on the future.

- First: Insight. According to Gardner et al. (2005), insight refers to exploring the past. A leader draws on the past results of the organisation to resolve an existing problem. This creates a sense about what has been achieved and what could be done in the future.
- Second: Outsight. As mentioned by Leask (2013), outsight refers to imagining the possibilities. The ability could be developed in the individual who spends most of his time in thinking, reading and exploring the future. Most successful leaders have a vast knowledge of past and future through articles, the internet and blogs. They keep on circulating the information and ideas and design the future accordingly.

- Third: Foresight. In this context, foresight refers to ability of leader to see what others cannot. As indicated by Calof and Smith (2012), the leaders should be optimistic and they tend to be more successful. They are risk takers and have a broader view of opportunities. They have the ability to understand the reality or situation more than the ordinary managers and people can.

The above-mentioned three skills of leadership can be linked to the concept of strategic leadership. The core definition of strategic leadership is that an organisation is a reflection of the insight, outsight and foresight of a leader (Carter and Greer, 2013). Similarly, in his study on the spirituality of leaders, Phipps (2012) suggested that leaders in an organisation are considered as spiritual messiahs in that they possess the foresight of the future and through their ability to forecast the future of the organisation they can ground the on a successful footing in the future. Although Shoemaker et al. (2013) recognised that having insight, outsight and foresight are the core characteristics required of strategic leaders, they however suggested that effective utilisation of these three strategic components of leadership depends on six leadership skills, as follows:

- The ability to anticipate
- Ability to challenge
- Ability to make decisions
- Skills required to interpret a situation
- Aligning skills
- Learning skills

The concept of strategic leadership is even more important for effective police leadership. Drawing on Fisher and Kirby (2014), the fundamental aspect of police business is to provide a quality service to its citizens, and provision of a high-quality police service to citizens cannot be possible without adopting a strategic methodology. To this end, Fisher and Kirby (2014) argued that having foresight requires police leaders to possess outsight of both external macro- and external micro-level factors. The external macro factors in policing involve community-oriented policing while the external micro-level leadership is about having awareness of the issues facing individuals in a community. To this end, Fisher and Kirby (2014, p.2) provided examples of the police departments in the USA and the UK that

adopted community- and individual-oriented policing approaches that have improved public confidence and reduced crimes. Having awareness of the macro- and micro-level factors would not make a difference if a leader lacks the ability to anticipate the future issues (having foresight) and make and implement timely decisions. However, the process of making and implementing decisions would require the leader to challenge their own and others' assumptions, encourage having an outside view of the future problem, and align the organisation through securing buy-in from both external and internal stakeholders (Shoemaker et al., 2013). The process of aligning the organisation requires leaders to have an insight of the organisation as they can use their past experiences of resolving problems to solve current and future problems. Drawing on Caless and Tong's (2015) study on police leadership it can be suggested that to ensure provision of basics of policing – that is to provide quality service – it is important for the leaders to possess strategic insight, outsight and foresight of the issues facing a community, as street-level police culture tends to be vested in the strategic decisions taken at the top level for the purpose of fighting crime.

2.7.2 Leadership and role modelling

According to Sarros and Santora (2001), role modelling is an effective way to help people learn new skills. A fine leader is always a role model for his team in the organisation. A leader should be a role model for the whole organisation and every employee. Leadership is best learnt through the process of reflection and identification.

As postulated by Jansen et al. (2008), a role-modelling leader represents a platform for other people to learn the behaviours, attributes and qualities of how to successfully lead. Role modelling is a component of teaching for both the leader and his people in the organisation. It should be taken as that the people have more or less developed the same thinking patterns as their leader. A proper and appropriate way of role modelling can help people change their behaviour about the organisation.

From the viewpoint of Shalley and Gilson (2004), first, it is important to look at why people are more inspired by role model leaders. It is assumed that people shape their minds through social interactions. In short, our wellbeing is dependent on our connections with others. The leaders see this theory as a tool to influence people; be a role model and lead. Learning to be a role model for those in the organisation also counts as part of the process of leadership development.

Apart from that, as indicated by Marsick and Watkins (2003), it is empirically proven that people tend to follow the footsteps of their role model due to the inspiration they receive. Moreover, role modelling can be seen as the goal for others; everyone needs to accomplish some goals in life. For subordinates and workers, these role-modelling leaders provide courage and motivation to move forward in life. According to Malafouris (2004), the brain adopts what it sees and what it feels comfortable with. Simply finding ways to be a good leader is not enough; instead, people need someone from whom they can learn attributes, reactions and thinking patterns regarding the organisation. A person puts into practice what he or she learns.

In the end, it is confirmed that role models are the most crucial assets of the organisation. They are the intellectual property of the firm and are highly valued. The leader is a complete guide for his people, and is their role model. This is a part of leadership but it is also necessary to define what leadership behaviour is acceptable in the context of the organisation. The role model leader shares stories of success with his or her subordinates, clarifies the reasons for success, and defines the behaviour and factors that lead to the road to success.

2.7.3 How does good time management help in improving the effectiveness of leaders?

Drawing on Tyssen et al. (2013), effective time management is one of the key skills required for effective leadership. Effective time management has been recognised for bringing both professional and social benefits. Professional benefits come from the context of the job itself; these include reducing job-related stress, reducing chances of job burnout, and improving job satisfaction and overall performance (Goetsch and Davis, 2014; Combe and Carrington, 2015). At the social level, effective time management brings positive impacts on the social lives of the individuals as they tend to find time for social interaction and physical well-being. Most importantly, effective time management reduces the incidence of stress, anxiety and depression which have been recognised as the core causes of illness among human beings (NHS, 2016). In the policing business, effective time management is an important part of the job particularly for the patrolling staff since they have to make decisions in split seconds while dealing with street crimes, natural disasters and other precarious situations (Schafer, 2010). The context of time management skills of leadership falls into the perspective of the leadership ability to prioritise organisational activities and initiatives, timely setting of goals, timely completion of tasks, setting short-term and long-term goals, elimination of

procrastination, evaluating the right time for succession and, finally, improving employee performance (Yukl, 2010).

Prioritising of activities: senior leaders will be able to prioritise all their daily projects and responsibilities. Leaders will be able to rank them in order of preference and eventually produce prioritised or to-do lists. This will keep them and their subordinates focused on a daily basis (Adair, 2011).

Setting of goals: after leaders have set long- and short-term goals, they will be at liberty to plan for deadlines and adjust them if need be. Setting goals will also encourage self-improvement and career growth (Adair, 2011).

Increased productivity: when leaders focus better on tasks and timelines they are likely to use more efficient methods to complete tasks. Also, leaders who usually have difficulties in finding solutions for completing tasks will seek help sooner rather than later (Aronson, 2001). Increased performance: after productivity has been increased, overall leadership performance will be improved. This allows leaders to attend to special tasks or long-term goals. Leaders will also have the ability to collect information for review (Aronson, 2001).

Elimination of procrastination: leaders will have the ability to schedule the right task at the right time. Also, leaders can make sure that their subordinates understand that a task is expected to be completed without any excuses (Adair, 2011).

Development of subordinates: when senior leaders assemble a list of responsibilities for new subordinates, they will be able to train these employees while developing themselves simultaneously. These senior leaders will be able to lay a strong foundation and build on it. New subordinates would learn the right practices and eventually there will be expectations of them as future leaders (Adair, 2011).

Tracking employees: by using employee time management software, senior leaders can track their subordinates' time clock punches. These mechanisms allow the tracking of all punches, including morning reports, lunches, breaks, and leaving work. This will create a fairer working environment with no opportunity for time abuse. This will also provide a better

opportunity for senior leaders to collate crucial information for performance reviews (Aronson, 2001).

Changing behaviour: According to By and Burnes (2013) one of the critical task for leaders in both private and public sector organisations is to lead change. To this end, Lewin's (1951) model suggests that leaders needs to change their possibly challenging behaviour considering the interlinked resistance to change that comes naturally due to the psychological states of locus of control, and job insecurity, among others. Therefore, it is important for the leaders to possess vision for change and communicate that vision effectively to the employees to ensure their intrinsic commitment to the change. Achieving this will also improve productivity and performance (Treviño et al., 2003).

Subordinate motivation: To ensure that employees remain committed to achieving organisational goals, leaders need to motivate employees. In line with various theories of motivation such as Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of need theory and Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, subordinates can be motivated through fulfilling their various needs and expectations as this will enhance their self-efficacy, resulting in employees achieving self-actualisation.

Life improvement: through judicious time management, leaders will achieve calmer working lives with less chaos and will also maintain the smooth running of their workplaces (Adair, 2011).

How will setting and achieving set targets and objectives help in improving the effectiveness of leaders?

According to Larson (2001), set goals and targets can help leaders to focus on the minutiae of what is expected of them; this links with the path-goal theory proposed by House (1971), since this theory posits that leaders can improve the performance, satisfaction and commitment of followers through clarifying the paths to goals and linking the achievement of the goals with the relevant incentives. Any distraction can be easily dismissed if perceived in the light of the ultimate goals. Written goals can clarify priorities and keep leaders on track. Any task which is not related to the set goals can be postponed or even excluded. By setting goals, senior leaders can be empowered to believe in the outcomes and retain positive

attitudes while trying to achieve that goal. A feat which at first seems to be cumbersome can be broken down into precise, more manageable steps (Treviño et al., 2003).

If senior leaders take time in setting their goals, then priorities and individual requirements and wishes can be more defined. Goal-setting can fuel leaders' dreams and turn ideas into reality. By setting goals, leaders will take into consideration their colleagues and think about how they are likely to be affected. They will also look at ways in which their goal can be attained and what types of resources are accessible for realisation of that goal (Treviño et al., 2003).

While setting goals, leaders are advised to set those which can be achieved. Moderate goals are usually preferable as opposed to very difficult ones since achieving any set goal can motivate individuals to persevere in setting and attaining extra goals. The set goals have to be measurable, explicit and realistically achievable (Aronson, 2001).

2.7.4 How can leadership and team building help in improving the effectiveness of leaders?

Drawing on Lee et al. (2010), LE in team building is the core determinant of the leader's personality traits. In a nutshell it is the approach used by the leader, such as transactional or transformational, that determines the different components of the team; these include team communication style (Wang et al., 2014), the decision-making process in teams (Aktas et al., 2016), knowledge-sharing attitude (Lee et al., 2010), interpersonal familiarity (Northhouse, 2015) and set components of team structure such as size and diversity (Lee et al., 2010). Moreover, influence of leadership on the effectiveness of a team has also been recognised by Bradely et al. (2013) for having a direct positive correlation with the team performance. To this end, Bradely and colleagues (2013) identified various key skills required of leaders for effective team management; these include emotional intelligence, interpersonal skills, effectiveness in resolving team conflict, communication skills and ability to influence team culture. On the other hand, while describing the significance of team cohesion for the success of the team, Bertolotti et al. (2015) identified various other skills required of leadership including enthusiasm, integrity, toughness, fairness, warmth, humility and confidence. Table 2.4 below provides an explanation of each of the skills identified by Bertolotti et al. (2015) for effective team leadership.

Table 2.4 Skills required for effective team leadership

Skills	Explanation
Enthusiasm	Leaders must be seen to take extreme care with whatever they are doing.
Integrity	Sincerity and honesty are an integral component of effective team leadership since these personal attributes result in creating followers' trust in the leadership.
Toughness	Toughness means that leaders need to push to maintain high standards.
Warmth	Leaders should be seen as good, warm human beings.
Humility	Emotionally intelligent leaders are better able to create job satisfaction among followers.
Confidence	Personal self-assurance of the leader creates confidence among followers.

Source: Bertolotti et al. (2015).

There are various pros and cons of having an effective team leadership. The discussion below provides critical discussion on the pros and cons of effective team leadership.

Pros:

1. Good teams allow participants to work together with the UAE leadership.

Barner (2012) asserts that team building develops personal and group responsibility through focusing on personal and team achievements. Team-building managers, who will be perceived to be successful, are required to overcome the temptations of "vague" commitments within their teams. Vigilant project management in these teams will allow participants to be committed to the performance of particular responsibilities. Meetings will allow senior leaders in the organisation to check off the performed duties and achieved goals (Platow and Knippenberg, 2001).

2. "What's next?" is the team's slogan.

Due to leadership's ability to provide a future vision to the team and challenging the existing situation, this results in the entire team constantly revisiting and clarifying the vision and organising action priorities (Lee et al., 2010). Engagement of the subordinates occurs because members of the leaders' teams are inspired to give their best at work. Subordinates tend to be motivated by their leaders' abilities to decipher organisational trends and translate them to the tasks at hand. Thus, subordinates are likely to achieve more satisfaction (Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001). However if team building is unsuccessful, there will be limited positive outcomes. This amounts to a 'con' in the implementation of team building.

Cons:

While effective team-building leadership does provide an impetus for the success of the organisation as it results in the establishment of innovative teams. However if weaknesses are present among the leadership, this could also lead to some cons such as, according to Lencioni (2010), the failure of leaders to see the big picture or the details of organisational objectives can lead to the following:

1. Superfluous internal team meetings will fill the calendars of members.
2. Political unrest occurring in these teams. If team leaders seem to be encouraging time-wasting, positive reinforcement by such managers cannot be evident. Some subordinates might be socially comfortable with working under particular team leaders, while a few of them might criticise other leaders. This might result in politics within these groups and this would yield diminished results.

Team building in an organisation can be advantageous since the subordinates desire positive reinforcement from their senior leaders. If an organisation has satisfied team members, then the leaders will be happy and make long-term contributions to the organisation (Platow and Knippenberg, 2001).

2.7.5 How can decision making impact police organisations' leadership?

Considering what makes somebody an extraordinary leader, one characteristic that strikes a chord is good decision-making skills (Eitle et al., 2014). One cannot believe that leaders who come over as vague and uncertain can be effective; they should instead have the capacity to rapidly make the right decision and convey the objectives to others.

Great leaders can be characterised by the ability to make good decisions. This is determined by the person's accountability, tolerance of risks and whether he or she is value-oriented. Good decision making can help organisation leaders to make fearless decisions concerning the delegating of duties and responding to policing matters, as well as being ready to be held accountable for every outcome of the decisions they make (Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001). Ideally, effective decision making can help to overcome traits of slow decision making and procrastination. Such characteristics include risk avoidance, fear of confrontation and fear of change. Quick decision making helps leaders to see challenges in the decisions they make regardless of the risks that may result from the same. Also, the decision-making process can

help leaders determine which approaches are most applicable at what time; who is to be involved in making decisions; and the strength of every person's voice that is involved in the decision-making process (Sarita, 2011). Furthermore, it can equip leaders with knowledge of how to overcome common obstacles to decision making in the organisation. This includes dealing with disagreements that arise between decision makers while trying to evaluate past decisions, and the alternatives at hand, as well as the facts presented to back up strategic projects. Good decision making can also be crucial in the strategic planning of the organisation since decision making lies at the heart of strategic management (Aronson, 2001).

Saaty (2008) reflected that leaders frequently need to settle on difficult choices, for example, what direction to move in; whether to keep a worker, re-position them or replace them; whether to share "bad news" with stockholders, and numerous other such challenges.

Incredible leaders see how to adjust with reason and settle on choices that singularly affect them, their workers, their clients and sub-ordinates, and their organisations (Wageman, 2001). Making great choices in difficult circumstances is no small accomplishment in light of the fact that these sorts of choices include dealing with change, tension, anxiety, and unfavourable responses of others. Great leaders likewise know when to move rapidly and continue with the accessible data, versus when to take additional time and assemble extra data. At the point when leaders elect to seek extra data, they should also know when to stop. While a great repository of information may be ideal, the data-gathering procedure can take a great deal of time, and huge data collection can deflect attention away from the core objectives (Southworth, 2002).

Quality Findings
According to Cooper et al. (2005), when a leader is faced with challenges, they look for facts and figures that are directly linked with that challenge. A true leader does not waste time searching for data that are unrelated to the current issue. Extracting the useful information in a limited time when someone has to work hard to control the circumstances represents a fine quality in a leader. Finally, executing the action plan to make good decisions is a key aspiration of the leader.

Managing risk and uncertainty

According to Polasky et al. (2011), risk and uncertainty is attached to every decision that a leader makes. In order to avoid or reduce the risk, the leader is supposed to make contingency plans and analyse different outcomes of the decision they are going to take. Planning out the best solution for the organisation as a whole is a foremost quality of any leader. Risky decisions are always more fruitful; and the true leader believes in taking risks to swing the direction of the organisation. However, it takes ability and courage to do so with the support of his team in the decision-making process. While propensity for risk taking is considered one of the core elements required for effective leadership, however, in the context of the UAE's culture that is marred by the high score on uncertainty avoidance cultural dimension of Hofstede's (1980) model, this means that leaders in the country would be risk-averse rather than risk takers (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). Therefore, this study also explores the risk-taking propensity of the police leaders in the UAE.

Trusting intuition

Once the leader has taken the decision, they should have confidence in themselves that the outcome will be positive. However, if the outcome does not meet expectations, the leader should still reveal the positive aspects of the outcome. On the other hand, trusting the decision leads to satisfaction for the leader and his team. As indicated by Mumford et al. (2000), great decisions need practice; thus, the leader should consider every decision as a practice and keep on believing in his potential to take better decisions in the future.

2.7.6 How can communication and presentation help in improving the effectiveness of leaders?

Communication at both the interpersonal and organisational levels is a key element of effective leadership (More and Miller, 2014). Good communication with others can positively affect the subordinates to achieve institutional goals from several aspects including:

Helps with diversity: effective communication skills in the leadership of an organisation can help reduce barriers erected as a result of cultural and language differences. Organisational leadership can avoid cultural misunderstandings and this can eventually lead to increased performance, decreased errors and smoother running of operations (Larson, 2001).

Team building: effective communication among the organisational leadership can help senior leaders and their subordinates to form highly effective teams. Subordinates will then comfortably trust both their colleagues and their senior leaders. Effective communication can reduce superfluous competition within organisational departments and help the police officers to work together in harmony. This improved team building will eventually - and significantly - increase levels of productivity, responsibility and integrity. Since subordinates will know their roles in their respective teams, they will feel valued by their senior leaders. Leaders can correct their subordinates' mistakes without resulting to hostile working conditions. By openly communicating with their subordinates, leaders will construct positive relationships that could eventually be beneficial to the company as a whole (Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001).

Employee morale: organisational subordinates will appreciate the good communication skills displayed by their senior leaders. This will result in a healthy working environment. Since subordinates will be content with their roles, they will be able to effectively perform their responsibilities with a positive attitude (Herzberg, 1959). Where poor communication skills are exhibited in the workplace, there will be increased levels of frustration and confusion amongst police officers. However, senior leaders can lessen the severity of such hitches by ensuring that the lines of communication are always open (Hackman, 2009).

2.7.7 Effects of credibility on leadership effectiveness

Credibility can be defined as the feature of being trusted and believed in by others (Ping et al., 2012). Credibility is essential since it backs up the value of a leader and keeps subordinates from doubting one's ethics and qualities. Credibility enhances the belief that other individuals have in a leader and keeps them from believing any information that might contradict it. In businesses, credibility enhances the readiness of other partners to relate with and undertake their business tasks with credible parties or organisations (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

Credibility is essential since it can prevent individuals from trusting falsified information. A credible resource will open the way for everything to be run more smoothly. Leaders who are believed to be objective and truthful are believed to have more credibility than those who are not. When subordinates feel that their leaders are credible, they tend to be confident in and proud of them. They also feel that their leaders are efficient and can be their role models.

Subordinates respect leaders who own up to their mistakes as opposed to those who cover up their mistakes (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

Conger (1998) argues that those leaders who are credible are trustworthy to listen to and are constantly working in the best interests of their colleagues. When a leader is associated with building commitment and co-operation and known for being level headed, everyone in the organisation will be happy to have such a leader in their team. Goleman (2002) reports that a credible leader more easily retains subordinates compared with a counterpart who tends towards negative moods.

What are some of the impacts of leaders who have a high degree of credibility?
According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), subordinates:

1. Always feel comfortable being associated with the organisation.
2. Feel attached to the organisation.
3. Feel that they have some sense of ownership in the operation of the organisation.
4. Feel a stronger sense of team spirit.

2.7.8 Motivation and effectiveness

Motivation, effectiveness and leadership are all interlinked. Drawing on Wright et al.'s (2012) study on the relationship between leadership and employee motivation it has been suggested that extent to which the LE influences employee behaviour positively correlates with the employee's motivation. To this end, Wright et al. (2012) referenced Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory to argue that leaders can influence both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation levels of employees in various ways that include engaging employees and using reward mechanisms. In contrast, in his book on work motivation in organisational behaviour, Pinder (2014) identified various components of high-performance work practices that leaders can employ to influence employee motivation; these practices include empowerment, direct communication, recognition, provision of promotional opportunities, and flexible working practices among others. In summary, for the employee to be motivated through effective leadership, it is important to create the impact of recognition (the acknowledgment of achievement) and empowerment to achieve organisational effectiveness in terms of goals and objectives (Manzoor, 2012). Manzoor's (2012) argument for the link between employee motivation and organisational effectiveness is based on the components of the conceptual

framework provided by Gilley et al. (1999) as shown in figure 2.2 below. According to Gilley and colleagues (1999), attainment of employee motivation depends upon recognition and empowerment given by the leaders to the employees that then directly impacts on the overall organisational effectiveness.

Figure 2.2 Impact of motivation on organisational effectiveness
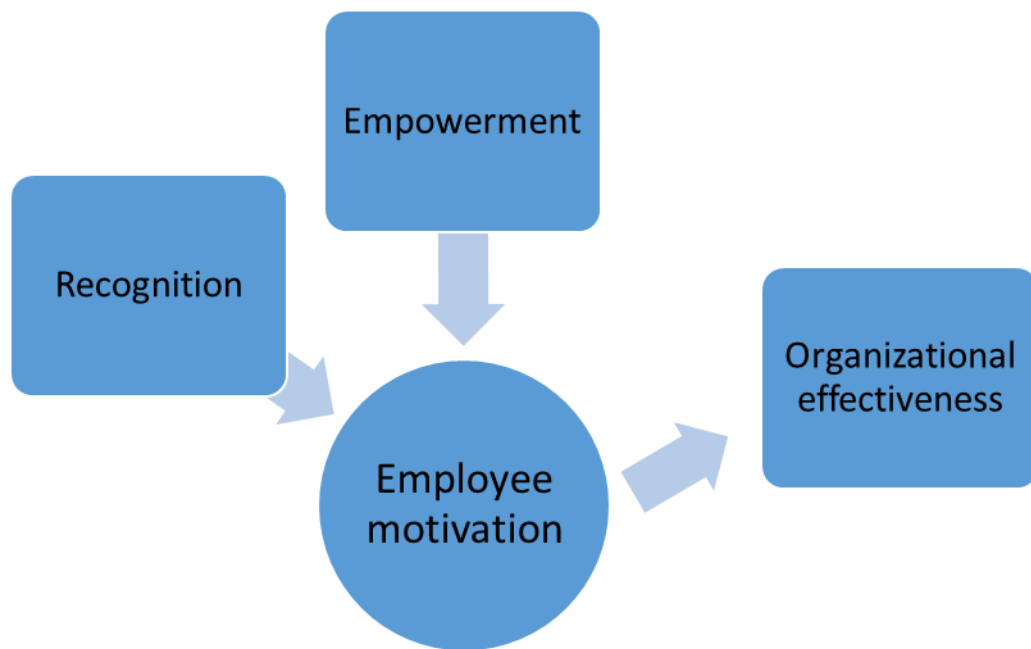
Source: Gilley et al. (2009).

Empowerment

Through the larger control of 'how' the job is done, the leader can bring empowerment to achieve growth and productivity (Zhu, 2008). The right distribution of power and control enhances the organisational effectiveness. These are linked in a way that the leader practices his power to control things around him, challenge the business environment and build an effective team to confront those challenges.

Empowering makes people feel that they are valued and appreciated in the organisation and, to achieve this, it is necessary to provide feedback of their performance. According to Zhu et al. (2012), to successfully apply empowerment, it is crucial for the subordinate to put in efforts and execute actions where they feel responsible for what they do. Employee participation and empowerment consist of their contribution in the decision-making process of the organisation. This includes creation of policies, strategies and objectives. In short,

employee empowerment is related with the standards and principles entertained by the organisation for their motivation.

Recognition

Reward and recognition is the most important tool used by leaders to make their leadership effective. The purpose of reward and recognition is the ultimate motivation for employees to participate in the achieving of organisational goals and objectives. According to Maak and Pless (2009), when the organisation pays attention and affords status to the employee, the productivity increases. Leaders use this tactic as fundamental to making their leadership effective.

Recognition creates a business environment where the employee - both socially and personally - feels that he is an important part of the organisation and thus puts in effort to come up with desired outcomes (Kaplan et al., 2014). An individual would know exactly his importance for the organisation not just from the day-to-day perspective but in the overall strategic policy-making outcomes. A leader therefore helps his team to build strong relationships with the organisation and helps them to be different and innovative in order to be recognised by the organisation.

According to Zhang and Bartol (2010), money is a great motivation for people: but in many cases, it cannot be used as a motivating tool alone. For instance, there are other non-financial motivators that help the leader to encourage employees that includes recognition, promotion, and training and development opportunities, among others.

Provide fuel to the team

Rather than being a 'bossy' leader, they should aspire to be the sort of leader who strives to convey enthusiasm and positive energy to the work environment consistently (Sparks et al., 2015). Building an effective team results in creating cohesion among group members that is an important tool required for an organisation to succeed.

Don't just work all the time

Extraordinary leaders have profound reserves of physical and passionate energy, and that energy is generally fuelled by ensuring they have space, customary activity, a healthy way of life, and put aside time for reflection (Grissom et al., 2013). It is these extra curricula

activities of the leaders that can be used as a motivator since finding similar interests with subordinates (such as a sport, or a hobby) could build long-lasting relationships.

Leaders put their people first

Employees are an asset for any organisation. The truth of the matter is that in the individual's business—the matter of procuring, preparing, and overseeing individuals to convey the product or service you give. The individuals are the basis of your prosperity, and to be an incredible leader you have to take care of your people with deep insight.

The act of integrity

Integrity of leaders becomes even more important in the context of policing due to the deposition of extra amounts of freedom into the hands of the lower-ranking police officers (Cook et al., 2014). The concept of the integrity of the leaders stems from the concept of ethical leadership and it is perceived that, through promoting ethical behaviour, leaders promote positive employee behaviour (Fisher and Lovell, 2009). Therefore, integrity is considered as one of the key components of the effective leadership.

2.7.9 Effects of fairness on leadership effectiveness

Kose and Shields (2009) asserted that justice is one of the important aspects of leadership. As in any other area in the organisation, the leader should demonstrate justice. Nevertheless, the justice can be split over into two segments from the viewpoint of leaders. First, they should uphold justice with their people and secondly, they should uphold justice within the organisation. Like accountants and doctors who have social and professional responsibility to others, leaders should also uphold such responsibility.

Similarly, fairness and honesty also play major roles in leadership. A leadership body should be transparent across all dimensions. As indicated by Knippenberg and Cremer (2008), one dimension is fairness, truthfulness and honesty. Fairness is the key quality of a leader; without this he or she may be questioned in front of their people. Fairness is also embedded in ethics, and reflects the truthful representation of the leader in the executing of plans.

According to Van de Bos and Lind (2002) fairness is treated as a virtue in management. According to researchers, most effective leaders are those who treat their employees with consistency and dignity. Apart from this, they make decisions based on information that is

accurate and complete. Making decisions on inappropriate bases and using unsuitable tools will result in their abilities and decisions being questioned. Being fair in all business dealings and with their people allows the leaders to earn respect.

Fairness pertains to any action, process or consequence that, according to generally accepted standards of such, seems to be morally right, honourable and equitable. Therefore, it could be argued that fairness brings about moral standards in decision making that will affect others. Fair decision making, according to most subordinates, should be carried out in a suitable manner and on the basis of suitable criteria (DiPaola and Hoy, 2005a).

Leaders who embody fairness comprehend the essence of workplace fairness as a step in the right direction in facilitating working results for all individuals regardless of their rank, race, disability or gender. When subordinates perceive their senior leaders as fair, respectful and equitable, they are likely to exhibit desirable working behaviours that may exceed minimal contractual expectations and will be beneficial to these individuals and the organisation. Desirable working behaviours that exceed contractual expectations may include, but are not limited to, volunteering to serve on organisation improvement committees, issuing an innovative suggestion for the overall improvement of organisational quality, contacting a relevant authority after working hours, giving advance notice before taking personal leave, and being willing to make time for planning or staying at work after working hours to serve in the office. Together these "additional role-proficient" behaviours may help to enhance organisational achievements as measured by standardised performance measures (DiPaola and Hoy, 2005b).

On the other side of this, fairness in leaders also means being fair with all the people in the team. Discrimination is strongly opposed in leadership. The true leaders are the role models – thus, showing discriminatory behaviour may have disastrous effects both on the organisation and on the employees. One of the quickest ways to overcome this is that the leader should offer equality among all the subordinates (Ullrich et al., 2009). Moreover, when a team member feels disappointed about why they have not been promoted, a leader should address the member's concerns by giving feedback. Reflected by Harcourt (2009) as part of the justice demonstrated by the leaders, it is important to continually provide personal support to the employees about their professional development.

According to Cotton and Hart (2003), there is nothing more demoralising than attempting to play a game when you do not have a clue about the rules, or they keep changing. In the same way, if leaders are not clear about the 'rules of the game' in the organisation, this can lead to a great degree of disappointment and be a critical drain on the morale of employees and on organisational execution. That is particularly valid for performance reviews, promotions and hiring. With regards to anything that relates to the successful running of an organisation – objectives, procedures, arrangements, processes, society, rules – whatever – these need to be built up, recorded, and imparted. At that point the leader avoids being excessively bureaucratic.

2.7.10 Effects of influencing on leadership effectiveness

As indicated by Yukl (2008), to be an example for others to follow, the leader must be self-motivated. This means the leader must have enough potential to be successful in his personal goals so as to influence the people around him. In short, people are inspired by success. On the basis of a leader's success, he can lead and direct the organisations easily. There are many tools and tactics that a leader uses to influence his people in the organisation.

According to Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2002) the purpose of a leader is to 'lead', so without knowing his team closely, he cannot prosper in this role. A leader who sees his people as the most important factor for organisational success pays good attention to them. Therefore, a true leader is someone who cooperates with his team, continually coordinating with them in the workplace. The leader also has to show good manners to his people. In a complex organisational environment, a good-mannered leader can relax his team. When the leader is well-mannered and answers every question calmly, this creates a good impression on his team which in turn can inspire them. The team members then do the same to their subordinates and everything goes well (Alon and Higgins, 2005).

Reiter-Palmon and Illies (2004) mention that leaders are problem solvers. Nowadays most leaders are excellent at making plans but fail at the time of execution, whereas the influential leader is the one who not only makes the plan but executes it, so that the team is confident that the plan is achievable. According to Zhang and Kheng (2009) the leader takes control of everyone's ideas and comes up with a plan that satisfies everyone concerned. They are good at communicating with people and developing a connection with them. They do not hide;

instead they move confidently around the space, personally coordinating their team when necessary. In short, they are visible to everyone present.

Hoffman et al. (2011) reflected that the personal attributes of a leader includes his body language, voice and touch. Other than words, sometimes appearance matters too. People are sometimes influenced by a charming personality and good looks (in a formal way). For example, a leader with an inspiring, strong voice can capture attention more easily. Similarly, the way the leader communicates verbally and nonverbally also matters.

According to Clark (2010), an efficient leader should be a teacher, mentor and role model and should accomplish the vast majority of the work through influence, not authority. Leaders influence their subordinates to perform their duties so as to achieve set organisational targets. When subordinates are influenced by their leaders positively they will definitely do their best in their organisations. Influencing others makes almost all responsibilities less arduous, whether one wants to convince an investor to buy into one's invention or to heal a relationship involving disgruntled stakeholders. It enables organisations to move towards their set targets in a positive manner. When leaders use appropriate communication approaches they have a positive influence on other individuals. Leaders can influence their subordinates positively by being practical in their instructions, and this in turn can encourage workers' willingness to work longer hours without any supervision. Influencing workers enables them to be conversant with and feel confident in the responsibilities delegated to them.

Ultimately, influential leaders stand out from the crowd due to their traits and the things they say and do every day. They are born with influential personalities or they have developed such attributes. The ways they speak, share, motivate, stand out, and communicate makes them exceptional. These qualities should never be ignored in any way because they collectively represent a fundamental principle of inspirational and successful leadership.

According to Cable and Judge (2003), a leader has different types of influence tactics that he uses to influence his followers. Basically, there are two major types of influence tactics - *hard* tactics and *soft* tactics. Soft tactics allows the follower to be influenced with more freedom in deciding whether to accept the influence or not, whereas hard tactics takes the

more autocratic approach. However, there are a number of tactics that the leaders can use, some of which are described below.

The leader can take advantage of his position and exert pressure on his followers to accept any decision. This includes 'demand, threats or orders' to convince them to accept a proposal but the effectiveness of this approach is quite low. The second approach is 'exchange' where the leader conveys the benefits of the proposal to the follower. The chances that the follower will be influenced are moderate in this approach. On the other hand, the most effective approach a leader can choose is to 'consult' with followers. As postulated by Denis et al. (2001), integrating the advice, suggestions and ideas of followers will allow a leader to broaden his view as well as create loyalty among the followers.

The success – or otherwise - of the leader's influence attempt can be defined in terms of the follower's response. According to Druskat and Wheeler (2003) there are three response outcomes. The first outcome could be *resistance*; the follower that a leader is trying to influence may not change his behaviour, or resists the efforts of the leader by either ignoring or not reacting to the situation. The second outcome could be *compliance*; the person being influenced accepts what a leader sets down, but not enthusiastically. Lastly, the person may show *commitment* after the influence attempt by a leader.

2.7.11 Innovation and leadership

According to Vaccaro et al. (2012), the inventive leader needs a capable creative energy and outstanding skills at interchange. He likewise needs to have trust in his group and their capacity to cooperate to accomplish goals. Eisenbeiss et al. (2008) contend that the innovative leader is not a smaller scale administrator. He concentrates on the larger view and works with imaginative thinkers who can add to that vision and make it more worthy. Small-scale managers, though, have a tendency to smother imagination and focus almost exclusively on the points of interest.

Maybe more than any other, the imaginative leader should have the capacity to impart his vision and attract a positive reaction to it. His group should have the capacity to see the vision themselves and be willing to put their time and efforts into accomplishing it. As indicated by Sarros et al. (2008), innovative leaders realise that 'initiative by interest' is far less powerful

at empowering imagination and development then 'authority through inspiration and motivation'.

According to Gumusluoglu and llsev (2009b), an innovative leader can create an organisational environment where its employees can apply innovative thinking for the purpose of problem solving. Moreover they design their thinking in such a way to develop a new product or service. It is not just about hiring innovative people in the organisation but creating a culture that encourages imagination and innovation at work. Further, it not only refers to utilising the resources available but also brings ideas to the business.

Innovative thinking is not just dependent on past experience or known actualities; it also envisions a desired future state. As opposed to recognising right answers or wrong replies, the objective is to locate a superior approach and investigate various potential outcomes. Innovative thinking is a vital expansion to conventional business thinking (Rosing et al., 2011). It permits the conveying of new thoughts and brings vitality to the leader, as well as helping them to challenge difficulties encountered. It further regulates innovation within the organisation.

Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009b) suggest that innovative leaders are not just the strategy makers of companies; instead they can be anyone who leads the team, the managers, and divisional managers and project managers. The purpose of every leader is to bring something new to a team/organisation and be innovative. The project manager who would be acting as a leader must bring those techniques and tools to expand the likelihood of project success, not just working on pre-planned resources to make things happen as they should.

In all professions that understand the criticality behind any product or service, the leader should also understand the principles that underpin any product or service. As asserted by Garcia-Morales et al. (2008), it is common that, when organisations hire a leader, they expect something exceptional. That exceptional outcome comes from innovative thinking and bringing new ideas to the business.

What distinguishes a manager from a leader is the presence of imaginative thinking. Talking about the implementation of innovation, the leader can bring new ideas in the day-to-day challenges or to the future executions of plans as mentioned by Bel (2010). The purpose is to

explain that innovation is not just limited to future considerations. Lastly, innovative leaders are the reason for exceptional success of businesses. One of the greatest examples of this type of leader is the late CEO of Apple, Steve Jobs.

2.7.12 Effects of political skills on leadership effectiveness

Such skills can improve the efficiency of leaders in managing and assigning duties to subordinates with respect to the law and working in compliance with both local and international rules and regulations. The application of political skills can be important to police agencies enforcing the law through planning and applying technology to meet their dynamic operational requirements through training, research, technical help and professional development. Political histories, legacies and physical archives can be used in investigative departments to establish relevant departments and reveal hidden national information (Clark, 2010).

Political skills can also help leaders gain influence over their subordinates. Leaders, who have more political influence than subordinates, have more influence in the workplace. This can be helpful since it may assist leaders to work and improve effectiveness and performance (Clark, 2010).

2.7.13 Effects of care for subordinates on leadership effectiveness

The extent to which seniors show concern for their subordinates can be a vital factor contributing to leadership success in any organisation. If seniors - from stationed officer, investigation officer, public prosecutor and finally members of the supreme Security Council and the MOI (Moller, 2013) - are concerned with the needs of their immediate subordinates, the whole activity will enhance effective leadership in the organisation. Ensuring the wellbeing of all subordinates can significantly raise the probability of achieving organisational goals and objectives. Among the activities that are easy to manage for an organisation that cares for subordinates is the recruitment of new employees. This is because an organisation's workers will praise it to many and so many others will aspire to work in that organisation. The support of subordinates assists the organisation in identifying and selecting the most suitable recruits, and training and mentorship of employees at every organisational level will be eased since the needs of employees at different levels are already known. Special motivation and inspiration could also be important for different employees in consideration of their efforts, ages, levels of education and future ambitions. For instance, the

leaders can gain good experience of handling a crisis that may arise from workers demanding promotion for their long-term experience and those demanding promotion after getting a certificate for a higher level of learning. It is vital for senior leaders to ensure that the working environment has the most suitable younger subordinates in the organisation. It is also critical for the managers to provide better opportunities for subordinates with high educational levels so that they can improve their existing skills set (Evans and Ward, 2007).

2.7.14 Effects of job satisfaction, morale and organisational commitment on leadership effectiveness

Workers are the most essential resource in any organisation. Continuous productivity in an organisation is dependent on its workforce, job satisfaction levels and commitment. When employees are satisfied, they have enhanced motivation and performance, and reduced absenteeism and turnover. Job satisfaction levels cause employees to have either positive or negative attitudes towards their duties and the workplace in which they perform their job (Kinnear and Sutherland, 2000).

According to Storey and Quintas (2001), those workers who have high morale in their organisation are likely to be willing to give their best in their duties. It is also hard for such workers to leave their workplaces to look for better jobs. However, if workers are not satisfied with their job, they are likely to be demoralised and will eventually lack commitment to their organisation.

2.8 Chapter summary

This review of the research articles on the key SLC, which were identified from different pieces of literature, has identified several key characteristics. These are organisational commitment, influencing and improving performance, decision making, caring for subordinates, credibility, experimenting and taking risks, and political skills.

CPSLC were identified from the literature for the UAE police leadership. These were fairness, role elucidation, role modelling, communication skills, perceptions of leader effectiveness, and subordinate responsiveness to leaders. In addition, some documents were reviewed and analysed with a special focus on CPSLC. Specifically, the annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015) were reviewed. The LC that were identified from the documentation include the

ability to think strategically, the ability to carry out institutional planning and use resources, the ability to prepare/develop new leaders, the ability to delegate power, the ability to manage time, vision and mission, the ability to undertake strategic development and planning, encouragement, transparency, the ability to change, the role of modelling, the ability to make the necessary decisions, empowerment, and justice.

One of the gaps found in the literature is that there is insufficient investigation of the effect of LC on LE. One of the objectives of this study was to address this gap in the literature with both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the research. This pioneering research has the potential to contribute understanding of the potential impact of LC on LE. In their article *Police Leaders and Leadership Development: A Systematic Literature Review,* Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) concluded that the characteristics that they refer to in their literature review are those that have emerged from the literature. This literature relies heavily on self-reported perceptions of what amounts to good leadership, and as such does not allow them to establish clear and objective measures of what good police leadership is. This indicates that the link between LC and good organisational leadership has not been established, and perhaps this research will help establish (or disprove) that link. It can be argued that a model of LC could be extremely useful in understanding the relationship between LC and LE.

Another gap in the literature is the lack of investigation of the development of LE based-on characteristics. According to Kasim and Abdul Ghaffar (2012), various research endeavours have been executed in the Arab world, which suggests that leadership in the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative trends (e.g., Ali et al., 1997). These are all out of date by more than a decade and thus seem to have no significant relevance to subordinates in today's police organisations. Dahhan (1988) studied the leadership styles of Jordanian managers and concluded that they were following an authoritative type of leadership, a result that had also been established by Badaway (1980) for Middle East leaders. This inclination demonstrates the impact of Islamic and ethnic values and beliefs (Ali, 1989a; Randeree and Faramawy, 2011). Such aspects result in dominant ethnic groups attempting to destroy the languages of any subordinate ethnic groups or even attempting to ban their language and impose the use of the dominant language. As a result, there is uncertainty concerning the effect of LC on LE in the UAE police (Kasim and Abdul Ghaffar, 2012).

Relatively recent research by Randeree and Chaudhry (2007) in the Middle East noted that job satisfaction affects the level to which employees are productive in culturally diversified set ups. Although some facts are available, research in the Middle East on this matter is split and, on occasions, self-contradictory.

According to Ali (1989b), a significant gap exists in the literature on police differences in terms of LC between Western countries and Arab countries. This is specifically the case in the UAE and can affect LC. Previous research posits that the LC in the UAE are fairness, role elucidation, role modelling, communication skills, and perceptions of leader effectiveness and subordinate responsiveness to leaders (Trenberth and Collins, 1994; Treviño et al., 2003; Isla and Kodz, 2011). However, the LC that have been addressed in the literature in Western countries are job satisfaction, influencing and improving performance, care for subordinates, emotional intelligence and personality, and political skills (Dantzker, 1996; Densten, 2003; Dobby et al., 2004; Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2007; Dick, 2011). However, none of the above research has established a relationship between education and job satisfaction. From the above research it is clear that emotional intelligence has attempted to integrate everything about IQ and thus falls short in terms of specificity and clarity. Also, the multidimensional aspect of emotional intelligence has resulted in the problem of how to distinguish emotional intelligence from any other type of intelligence or personality trait. The research, however, has not specifically determined the differences in LC in relation to emotional intelligence and intelligence quotient.

On the whole, this literature review concurs with the contention that a large part of the impact of role-modelling leaders' behaviours on leader effectiveness might involve the role modelling of suitable characteristics and a mounting sense of trust among UAE police organisations employees. In line with the research questions, discussion in this chapter started through an explanation of the concept of leadership and the characteristics required to be an effective leader; these include leadership qualities, personality, attributes and behaviour. Afterwards, discussion moved towards evaluating the concept of the leadership effectiveness along with differentiating between leaders and managers. It was important to differentiate between qualities of leaders and managers because sub-research question one required clarification to distinguish between operational and commanders-in-chief leaders at the UAE police. The discussion then moved towards identifying the current leadership characteristics prevailing in the UAE police that include fairness, role elucidation, role modelling,

communication skills, perception of leaders' effectiveness and subordinate responsiveness to leaders. Next the discussion moved towards addressing the second research question about identifying current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leaders in the UAE police and linking it to the second-sub-research question. This resulted in setting the scene for the comparison of the *perceived* effective leadership characteristics and *actual* leadership characteristics currently prevailing at the UAE police organisations, subsequently paving the way for further research.

The next chapter presents the research method adopted to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 introduced the research problem and background context for this study. Chapter 2 reviewed the relevant theory, empirical research and documentary evidence on the concepts of LC and LE at senior levels of police organisations, from various perspectives. It also identified the current predominant characteristics of senior leadership in the UAE police, and discussed the impacts of the key characteristics on LE. The present chapter describes and justifies issues relating to the selection of the most appropriate research methodology, i.e., the procedural framework that underpins how the research is conducted (Remenyi et al., 1998, p.28), by reviewing differences between research philosophical viewpoints and the main research implications arising from these for this study. The research methods are then described and justified including the selection of a sequential mixed-methods single-case study design, in which qualitative followed by quantitative data collection and analysis were undertaken in a single organisation. Selection of that organisation is justified, and development of the data collection tools, and procedure, documentary evidence, interviews, questionnaires, ethical considerations, data analysis and study rigour are explicated. The research methods are described in sufficient detail to allow replication of this study, as recommended by Burman, Reed and Alm (2010).

The study began with an in-depth literature review and also a review of documentary evidence (which comprised annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership, for 2013 and 2015). This was followed by a descriptive qualitative study and then a cross-sectional survey. Finally, a mixed-methods analysis (qualitative thematic analysis and quantitative statistical analysis) was undertaken to answer the research questions outlined in the first chapter. The data were integrated through interviews, questionnaires and documentation in order to develop a new conceptual model of key LC for the UAE police organisations, and draw study conclusions.

3.2 Purpose of the research

To determine the appropriate methodology and research methods, it is first important to consider the purpose of the research (Creswell, 1994). The purpose of this study is to identify current and key LC of effective leaders in the UAE police organisation, in order to achieve

the main research aim as outlined in Chapter One to advance police leadership theory, and practical assessment, selection, training and leadership development.

In all contexts, leaders face many challenges from the complexities of real-life situations. Every day police leaders manage risk, traumatic situations, unpredictable events and emergencies, as well as complex operations; thus the leaders should act in contextually appropriate ways (Snowden and Boone, 2007). They make difficult decisions that can affect the safety and confidence of local communities, the lives of their police officers and the population as a whole, and influence the competence, wellbeing and work-life balance of their staff. It could be argued that effective police leadership in the Emirates requires a special set of characteristics. However, no previous published study has investigated this issue. Therefore, this research can be considered exploratory (novel), descriptive (as it aims to describe LC rather than test a theory, or make predictions), and inductive (as it involves theory building).

The three most common purposes for undertaking research are (1) exploratory; (2) descriptive; and (3) explanatory (Creswell, 2012; Muaz, 2013). Although distinct, these research purposes can be combined. For example, Cuthill (2002) suggests that both exploratory and descriptive research can be combined in a single study.

An *exploratory* research study is used to explore research problems that are novel/under-researched. The main focus is on obtaining insights and ideas. It is conducted when few or no studies related to specific research problems are available for reference (Cuthill, 2002). It can be formative (i.e., preliminary research used to develop knowledge to inform further research), and is often qualitative. For some aspects of this research, an exploratory design is appropriate and has been employed. One of the important methods in an exploratory study is to review the literature, to make the descriptive research more effective. Parts of study objectives 1, 2 and 4 could only be achieved through an in-depth literature review to obtain background information on the research problem (Sheilds and Tajalli, 2006).

In *a descriptive* research study, the main emphasis is on verifying the regularity with which a particular phenomenon occurs. There is no manipulation of variables, or intervention (to cause change in some outcome), and no causal inference - the phenomenon is merely described. It can provide insight into an issue, population or problem. Prior to the initiation of

a research study, descriptive research makes available the research questions, populations or methodologies for analysis (Anastas, 1999; Babbie, 2007). A descriptive study is employed to acquire information regarding the present status of trends and to explain "what exists" about variables or forms in a situation (Anastas, 1999; Creswell, 2002).

An *explanatory or analytical* research study attempts to examine relationships between variables, to understand cause and effect, test hypotheses, determine the effect of interventions, predict the relative contribution of various factors on some outcome(s), or test a conceptual model, among others. This means that researchers want to explain what is going on, and make inferences from a sample to the population of interest (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

Based on the above classifications, this study can be considered exploratory (novel) and descriptive (as it aims to describe current and key LC in the UAE police, with an attempt to investigate the relationships between LC and their effectiveness, or to implement a training intervention to improve LE in the UAE police organisations). The present research is not explanatory, as there will be no attempt to develop hypotheses, or to test the new model, which is developed from the study findings. Such explanatory research is recommended for future research, as this model will need to be validated. The aim of this research is to investigate the SLC that are key to improving LE where such characteristics have not been previously well identified or fully articulated. This aim addresses the "what" question in the study. Another reason for choosing the descriptive approach is that it provides insight into a situation without changing the environment and observes the environment in its natural setting (McNabb, 2008). This research is interested in gaining rich descriptions and deep understanding of the key LC within UAE police organisations under study in a natural setting. As there is no aim to experiment with or change the environment of the subject, a descriptive design best suits the study. Anastas (1999) suggested the selection of a descriptive research design when there is a need to answer particular research questions other than "why". The main research questions for this study are:

1) **What are the current senior leadership characteristics in the UAE police?**

The first main research questions generate the following sub-questions for this study, so as to better fulfil the stated aim:

a. What is the concept of leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness in the UAE police organisations?

b. What are the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police organisations?

2) **What should the key senior leadership characteristics be in order to improve leadership effectiveness in the UAE police?**

In order to answer the second main research question, three sub-questions are formulated, which are:

a. What are the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future?

b. What is the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police?

c. What should the key senior leadership characteristics be in order to improve leadership effectiveness in the UAE police?

3.3 Research philosophies

It is important for the researcher to understand the research philosophy in order to choose the appropriate methodology for the research (Clough and Nutbrown, 2012; Creswell, 2002). As the goal of research is to gain new knowledge in a systematic way, the researcher must clearly define what they consider to be 'knowledge', as there are different philosophies and hierarchies concerning the quality of research evidence (Bowling, 2005; Remenyi et al., 1998). Two frequently cited research philosophies are Positivism, which uses the natural sciences approach, and states that knowledge must be collected and analysed objectively, typically using empirical quantitative data and hypothesis/theory testing; whereas Interpretivism uses the social sciences approach and states that knowledge is interpreted/constructed, and values a more subjective, open-ended approach to collecting/analysing typically qualitative textual/audio/visual data (Creswell, 2003). Both philosophies have different underlying assumptions about what knowledge is and how it should be created. This presents a difficulty for a researcher who wants to collect both quantitative and qualitative data, if he or she must take one philosophical epistemological

stance. Creswell (2002) defined research philosophy as a term that concerns the creation of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge (epistemology). An appropriate research philosophy will help with attaining research aims, purpose and objectives (Creswell, 2002; 2003). Many studies now integrate different research philosophies, with increasing publication of mixed-methods studies, which can enhance validity of research findings (Creswell, 2003).

Prior to carrying out research, a proper understanding of research philosophy is significant for several reasons: a) it assists the researcher to be clear about the intended research strategy, b) it assists the researcher in critically evaluating the different types of methodologies and methods available, and c) it makes the researcher more innovative and creative in selecting or adapting appropriate methods which were previously outside his or her experience (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). It was therefore important to analyse the current research philosophies to identify the most appropriate research strategy to answer the research questions.

Research philosophies are knowledge claims which are set by researchers to start the study with certain suppositions or assumptions related to *how* they will find out and *what* they will find during investigation (Creswell, 2002; Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Martens, 1998; Neuman, 2000). Depending on the empirical and logical findings which are associated with the evidence, researchers generally follow various paradigms that are used in a process of research (Blanche and Durrheim, 2004). It has been explained that philosophies are the standpoints which give a rationale for the research study and direct the researcher to use procedures to collect data, to observe and to interpret. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) highlight that understanding the philosophical issues of research methodology is a dynamic aspect of research design. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 105) also emphasise the significance of research philosophy, arguing that,

> *Both qualitative and quantitative methods may be used appropriately with any research paradigm. Questions of methods are secondary to questions of paradigm, which we define as the basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental way.*

Saunders et al. (2009) claim that the term 'research philosophy' relates to the progress of knowledge, and to the nature of that knowledge. On the other hand, Collis and Hussey (2009, p 55) define the term's paradigm by referring to it as the "progress of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge; in this context, about how research should be conducted".

In order to understand the chosen research design for the present study, it is necessary to state the researcher's ontological and epistemological stance, and consequently the methodological premise upon which the research is grounded. Simply put, epistemology focuses on knowledge and ontology focuses on the reality we seek to know. This is discussed and justified in the next section. Accordingly, in terms of the epistemological stance of this study, the researcher is following the **interpretive approach**. On the other hand, in terms of the ontological stance, the researcher is locating the research within the **pragmatism approach.**

3.3.1 Epistemological stance of this study

As the researcher discussed above, several authors (Creswell, 2002, 2003; Guba and Lincoln 1994; Saunders et al., 2009; Collis and Hussey, 2009) have suggested that the main elements of the choice of research philosophy can be either positivist or interpretive. Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) differentiated the two philosophies by positing that grounded in the positivist paradigms is the belief that the world is external and objective, while in the interpretive paradigm the world is socially constructed and subjective. In the former, the observer is independent of what is investigated while, in the latter, he or she is part of the investigation.

By employing the positivist paradigm, the researcher has to focus more on facts. The investigation will then lead to a condensed phenomenon with the simplest elements retained (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). In the interpretive paradigm, the researcher must try to understand what is happening by looking at the totality of the varying situation presented. He/she has then to develop ideas through the induction of information collected using a variety of procedures to establish diverse outlooks from as many different schools of thought as possible (Carson et al., 2001). One would assume from this description that the interpretive paradigm is better than the positivist paradigm. However, the positivist paradigm has dominated many research disciplines, including management, psychology, science, and clinical health research. The latter classifies interpretivist/qualitative research as the lowest quality of evidence on the hierarchy of research evidence (Bowling, 2005). This bias is now

being challenged by many researchers, who argue that much of the knowledge produced by positivist research explains what, and how, but has not explained 'why' (Creswell, 2003; Knox, 2004).

The challenge of analysing hypotheses is generally undertaken by way of positivistic studies (Buchanan and Shortliffe, 1984), whereas interpretive research states that the truth can be scrutinised as a collective factor, like language realisation and shared meaning (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998). The subjectivity dilemma, as well as how difficult it is to make a decisive estimation of public fact with the idea that the examiner cannot avoid disturbing the analysis by explaining the fact, is the main drawback of interpretive research. The path along which the research topic is viewed shows the difference between the two concepts (Bordens and Abbott, 2002). The positivist anthology debates the idea that the truth is independent from our opinions of it. As analysts argue, the truth cannot be alienated from its natural setting even though studies regard human action as a social issue (Bordens and Abbott, 2002).

Collis and Hussey (2009) summarised the main differences between these two paradigms, as shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Differences between positivism and interpretivism

Positivism tends to:	Interpretivism tends to:
• Use large samples • Have an artificial location • Be concerned with hypothesis testing • Produce precise, objective, quantitative data • Produce results with high reliability but low validity • Allow results to be generalised from the sample to the population of interest	• Use small samples • Have a natural location • Be concerned with generating theories • Produce 'rich', subjective, qualitative data • Produce findings with low reliability but high validity • Allow findings to be generalised from one setting to another similar setting

Source: Collis and Hussey (2009, p.62).

As the main aim of this study is to develop a model of SLC, using the UAE police organisations as a case study, it is justified that the appropriate paradigm to be used should be the interpretive approach. Since the aim is to understand the situation not just from one angle

but in terms of multiple facets, the interpretive paradigm is the more appropriate choice (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003). Furthermore, the belief of interpretivism that social world possesses an external existence and that its diverse properties can be measured through objective methods hence should not be inferred as a subjective matter based on intuition or reflection (Singleton and Straits, 2005). In their critical analysis of the concept of the leadership and related studies Alvesson and Spicer (2012) also assert that one needs to consider the very concept and practice of leadership from beyond procedural and abstract form since leadership is not a concept or art that can be learned through following procedures. Instead it is an emotional state that comes into being in a person through reflexivity of a situation. Furthermore, reflection of a situation needs to be objective to be able to impose some sort of influence; hence, the interpretive philosophical nature supports the present research due to its credentials of emphasising objectivity and considering the social being as an external phenomenon.

This research mixes methods by using both qualitative and quantitative data. With qualitative data, small samples are used for an in-depth understanding of phenomena. Meanwhile, with quantitative data, it is necessary to have a large number of participants for sampling and accurate statistical analysis (Greene, 2008; Greene et al., 1989). The advantage of employing a dominant-led interpretive approach in this study is that the data yielded will be rich and detailed, and the gathering and analysis of these data will be subjective due to the level of involvement of the researcher. Another reason for choosing an interpretive approach is that positivists rely more on past research to develop hypotheses; therefore, they carry out a literature review and their findings are normally based on the results of prior studies. Interpretivist researchers, however, while going through the literature, look for the related topics, literature gaps and differences between the scholars (Onwuegbuzie, 2000).

3.3.2 Ontological stance of this study:

Collis and Hussey (2009) examine some assumptions behind each approach, which are compared in Table 3.2 (below). The researcher feels that it is important to understand the expectations of each philosophy in order to enhance the choice of research methods.

Table 3.2 Different assumptions of the paradigms

Assumption	Questions	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological	What is the relationship of the researcher to that researched?	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological	What is the role of values?	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process Cause and effect Static design-categories isolated before study Context-free Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understating Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Context-bound Emerging design-categories identified during research process Patterns, theories developed for understanding Accurate and reliable through verification

Source: Collis and Hussey (2009).

Philosophically, the research paradigm here revolves around the claim that there are unique LC for the UAE police and these LC can improve LE (ontology) through the achievement of the research objectives 3, 4 and 5 (See the research objectives in the first chapter). The question of how (epistemology) to find characteristics and the link between characteristics and leader effectiveness should be consistent with the above-mentioned claim. This research study expands the knowledge of SLC to enhance the LE of the UAE police (axiology) and the reasonable approach should be used to generate results (methodology) (Creswell, 1994). Thus, the research cannot support the view of positivism that would consider leadership in its entirety or components required for effective leadership as a social reality that exists irrespective of the human participation – rather, it would expect effectiveness of leadership to

emerge without the participation of the human being (Singleton and Straits, 2005). However, this is not the case in all the theoretical paradigms of leadership: for instance, neither trait nor behavioural, situational, transactional and transformational theories of leadership deny the existence of individuals as leaders. Instead all the theories agree that certain qualities and attributes in individuals contribute to the formation of leaders (Alnuaimi, 2013). Therefore, positivism does not support the philosophical nature of this thesis.

The discussion above clarifies the incompatibility of the positivists' approach for meeting the complexities of the nature of the leadership effectiveness. However, despite its ability to facilitate the establishment of in-depth analysis of concepts, views and ideas, interpretivism alone may not be sufficient for the present thesis, since the author's personal inclination with the MOI and policing in the UAE further paves the way for potential bias and prevents the results from being applicable to a wider audience (Sekaran, 2000). Consequently, based on the conflict between ontology and phenomenology, the pragmatic approach appears to be more suitable for this research. According to Murphy (1990), pragmatism is not dependent on a severe dualism between the mind and realism entirely free of subjectivity. The paradigm of pragmatism recommends establishing a research design based on the nature of the research questions. The ontological stance in mixed-methods research is that reality can be described through the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, with the researcher deciding on the nature of reality (Clark and Creswell, 2008). From this perspective, the research questions establish the framework for understanding knowledge, with answering the research questions considered more important than the specific worldview or ontology used to guide the development and implementation of the research methodology. It seems to be a "what" and "how" investigation based on its intended results (Cherryholmes, 1992). Pragmatism is the knowledge claim or philosophical approach which is suitable for this research as it does not consider that there is an absolute unity in the world (Murphy, 1990), and this belief underpins this current study. It does not assume that one philosophical stance is better than another, but integrates different research paradigms, to understand a problem or issue holistically, from multiple perspectives, which overcomes mono-method bias (Creswell, 2003). It also assumes that research takes place only in historical, social, political and other circumstances; which, unlike the positivist stance, does not assume that findings may be universally generalisable, or try to establish universal laws (Cherryholmes, 1992), which opens the door to different worldviews and assumptions. The pragmatic approach - grounded in the realistic context and

naturalistic settings - is more suited to addressing real-world current problems. On this basis the researcher has chosen the pragmatism approach (Rorty, 1990).

The suitability of other research philosophies such as positivism, post-positivism and realism, among others, is questionable in investigation of the context of the LC. For instance, ontological and epistemological assumptions of alternative research philosophies come in direct conflict with the research on LC.

The positivism and post-positivism research philosophies tend to be based upon the realist ontology; thus they aim to make presumptive reflections on the investigated topic. It is this presumptive nature of the positivism and post-positivism philosophies that allows rejection of the facts that have not been identified in the existing theories. Therefore, these philosophies do not support this research since it intends to develop a new model for effective leadership in the UAE police. Moreover, post-positivism is based on the assumption that knowledge is hypothetical and that absolute reality can never be searched. Therefore, according to Phillips and Burbules (2000), facts found in post-positivist research are - for all time - weak and imperfect. Proponents of this approach also believe that research is the method of generating claims and then improving or discarding some of them for other knowledge claims more strongly guaranteed. This kind of research paradigm seeks to generate appropriate true statements which can describe the situation in hand, or explain the causal relationships (Creswell, 2002). This current thesis is not based on any scientific facts or methods, and is not testing causal relationships. The problem or issue being studied does not imply the need to test the LE in a cause-and-effect scenario (Somekh and Lewin, 2005). Future research might consider testing the model developed herein to determine its causal validity, but this is not an aim of the present study. Therefore, the post-positivism knowledge claim was deemed inappropriate here.

In contrast to positivism and post-positivism, constructive research philosophy aims to use socially realistic ontology as it assumes that it is the human beings as social actors who develop knowledge of both a normative and a subjective nature. It is due to this assumption of constructivism that it does not allow the use of epistemology for investigating a scenario based on subjectivity of the reality. Instead, constructivism assumes that individuals are connected with the social happenings that reflect their social and historical views (Crotty, 1998). It also assumes that the basic formation of meaning is at all times social, emerging

from both interaction and non-interaction (Creswell, 2002). These diverse assumptions tend to widen the views rather than narrowing them down to specificities (Schwandt, 2000). In this study, the researcher has not experienced a leadership position in a police department. Therefore, this approach does not fit in this study as researchers in constructivism identify with their own experiences to form their understanding, and they locate themselves within their research to recognise how their analysis will prescribe their own social values and norms (Crotty, 1998; Schwandt, 2000).

Kemmis and Wilkinson (1998) described the advocacy-participatory approach as dialectical or recursive, which places more emphasis on bringing about revolution in practices. It also puts emphasis on supporting individuals to free themselves from limitations found in language, media and work processes, and in the dealings of control in learning environments. The main goal of the advocacy-participatory approach is to generate political discussion and debate so that change will take place. This study is not attempting to bring about change; it is more concerned about the identification of useful LC in UAE police department, and then to analyse the role of these characteristics in the effectiveness enhancement (Stringer, 2007). Therefore, as a collaborative and practical approach, the advocacy research paradigm is inappropriate for this type of study because it is an inquiry-based approach which is accomplished *with* others instead of *to* or *on* others (Sherman and Torbert, 2002). Another reason not to choose this paradigm is that, mostly, these methods are applied by practitioners who wish to improve understanding of their training, or by social change advocates who want to employ change (Lewin, 1946).

3.4 Research approaches: Deductive and inductive

Creswell (2002) stressed the importance of the research approach as a useful strategy for enhancing the validity of social research. The research questions, along with the research objectives, are considered crucial components in the selection of the research approach. According to Saunders et al. (2009), the research approach can be divided into two groups: inductive and deductive. In the *inductive* approach, a researcher collects and analyses data to develop a theory. In the *deductive* approach, a researcher formulates hypotheses (based on previous study findings/theory), and then collects and analyses data to test a theory and hypothesis. Neither approach is mutually exclusive, as any theory developed (inductive), must be tested (deductive) to ascertain its explanatory power; therefore the deductive approach tends to follow from an inductive approach.

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Figure 3.1 below outlines the steps involved in both inductive and deductive research approaches in business research (Cavana et al., 2001, p.36).

Figure 3.1 Deductive and inductive approaches.
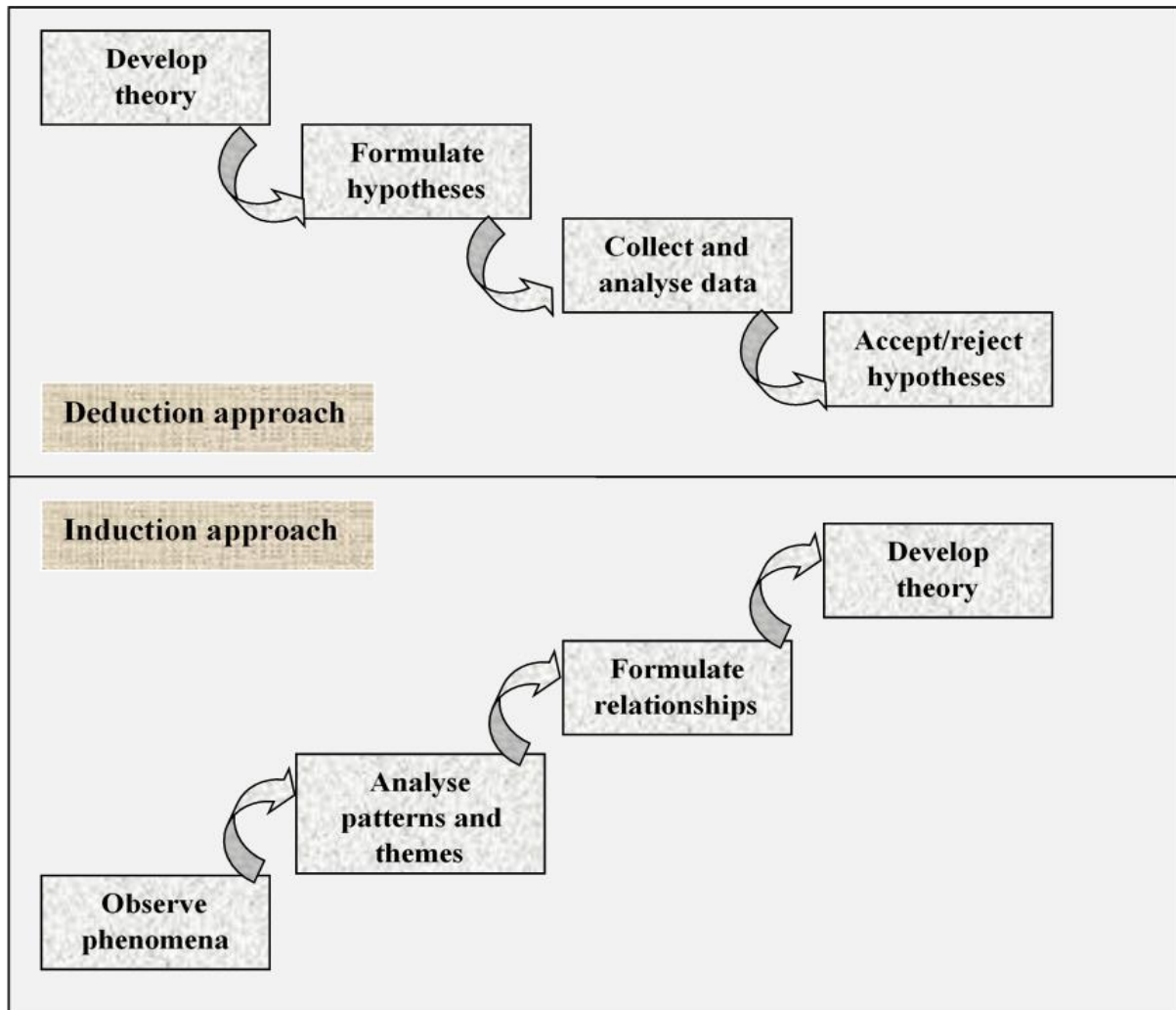
Source: Cavana et al. (2001, p. 36)

Table 3.3 below differentiates between inductive and deductive approaches of the research on the basis of logic, generalisation, use of data and theory.

Table 3.3 Differences between inductive and deductive approaches

	Deduction	Induction
Logical	It is presumed that during the inference if premises are true than derived conclusions will also be true.	In the inductive approach known inferences are used to derive an untried conclusion.
Generalisability	Generalisation usually moves from the general to a particular cornerstone.	Research aims to creates generalisation from specifics.
Use of data	Data are collected to test or evaluate a suggestion or hypothesis linked to an current theory.	Data are collected to explore a new phenomenon, theme or scenario with an aim to establish a new theory.
Theory	Theory is tested either to reject or verify its assumptions.	Theory building.

Source: Saunders et al. (2016).

3.4.1 Deductive approach

According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), the deductive approach is used by a researcher when the work progresses from general to specific information. For this reason, the approach is sometimes called the "top-down" approach because the researcher starts from the top with a wide range of information and then comes down to a particular conclusion. With a topic of interest, the researcher starts with a related theory, from which he or she narrows the theory down to the main idea and creates specific testable hypotheses. When observations are gathered to test the hypotheses, the already constructed hypotheses are again narrowed down even further. This ultimately enables the researcher to test the hypotheses with data which are specific, leading towards verification (or not) of the original theory and reaching a conclusion (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Deductive researchers glance at the data from an external viewpoint and then reduce the data so as to highlight the answer. At the same time, the deductive approach does not require a thorough observation of a number of observational facts to arrive at a conclusion. Researchers can easily begin with generally accepted statements or sayings before reaching conclusions by working on these axioms. The deductive approach is more concerned with developing hypotheses which are based on current theory - then a research strategy is designed to test the hypotheses (Wilson, 2010). Put simply, the deductive approach is more concerned with deducing conclusions from the propositions or premises of a theory (Monette et al., 2005). Deductions start with a projected pattern that is then evaluated against observations, while induction starts with observations

and tries to find patterns within them (Babbie, 2010). The deductive approach investigates a known phenomenon or theory and examines whether that theory is applicable in a given situation (Beiske, 2007). This approach closely follows a logical path starting with theory and ending at confirmation or rejection of hypothesis after testing through observations (Snieder and Larner, 2009). The deductive approach tends to be used in positivist, quantitative research, where data collection is controlled, objective and standardised, and analysis tends to use statistical inferential techniques, to make causal inferences from a study sample (specific) to the population of interest (general). A strength of this approach lies in its ability to quickly verify, refute or revise testable theories, and development of theories (Singh and Bajpai, 2008). Hence, it is used a great deal in science, clinical research and business management research.

3.4.2 Inductive approach

According to Holyoak and Morrison (2005), the inductive approach works in the opposite direction, moving from particular observations towards wide generalisations and theories. For this reason, it is called a "bottom-up" research approach. In this approach, research starts with specific observations and measures and then proceeds to detect regularities and patterns (Punch, 2009). Then, in order to explore further, the researcher creates some tentative hypotheses and finally develops some general theories or conclusions. In the early stages, the nature of the inductive approach is exploratory and more open-ended than the deductive approach.

An inductive researcher starts to look at data internally before evaluating the information which is needed to identify an answer (Creswell, 2002). The inductive research approach is more widely used among scientists in comparison to the deductive approach as it generates concrete conclusions regarding nature that are supported by a number of observational facts. If one of the argument bases of an inductive approach proves false, other observational facts can be added to the basis in order to save the argument. However, the same is not true of the deductive approach. The inductive approach generally refers to an approach which first and foremost uses comprehensive readings of raw data to identify themes, concepts and models through the researcher's understanding of these particular raw data. Put simply, a researcher starts with the area of study and then generates a theory form that gathers data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). A strength of the inductive approach is that it tends to be very in-depth and produces detailed theoretical explanations of some phenomena (Saunders et al., 2007).

However, the approach is very time-consuming, as the researcher collects large amounts of data, which then have to be reduced and analysed to identify connections and produce a coherent theory.

For the purpose of this research, the inductive approach is applied in addressing the research aim, which is to investigate the key SLC and their impact on LE in order to develop a coherent model of essential LC for future UAE police LE. Creswell (2003) and Patton (2002) indicate that one of the main differences between these approaches lies in how existing literature and theory are used to guide the research. The deductive approach is designed to test a theory; thus, the literature is used to identify questions, themes and interrelationships *before* data are collected.

In the current research, the researcher drew on TT to guide the development of a theoretical framework, due to the primary focus on identifying a group of characteristics and their impact on LE. While previous theory is used, it is not being tested to support or refute hypotheses, but as additional data, to build a model from the ground up, in addition to the primary interview and survey data. As hypotheses are absent from the start of this study, an inductive approach is appropriate to answer the research question.

3.5 Research strategies/designs: Case study methodology for the investigation of leadership

Saunders et al. (2009, p.141) state that having a research strategy is essential because it helps the researcher to answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives; and argue that "the choice of research strategy will be guided by the research questions and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available, as well as the researcher's philosophical underpinnings".

There are a variety of research designs or strategies that can be employed for a particular study, including experiments, surveys, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research. Yin (2009) lists different types of research design, and these are summarised in Table 3.4 (below):

Table 3.4 Examples of research strategies/designs

Strategy/Design	Form of research question	Requires control over behavioural events	Focuses on contemporary events
Experiment	How, why	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes
Archival analysis	Who, what, where, how many, how much	No	Yes/No
Action-based research	How, why	No	No
Case study	How, why	No	Yes

Source: Yin (2009, p.8).

In order to achieve the objectives outlined in Chapter One, this study has adopted a single-case study cross-sectional design and sequential mixed-methods research approach as the most appropriate alternative. In phase one, documentary evidence was collected on the current LC in the UAE police. In phase two, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were selected to explore the views and opinions on LC pertaining to effective leadership among senior leaders in the UAE police; and in phase three, a questionnaire was developed, drawn from the interview findings, to investigate mid-level operational leaders' perceptions of LC.

The case-study approach satisfied the purpose and limitations of the study, as follows. Yin (2003, pp. 13) defined a case study as an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". A case study is the preferred and most appropriate technique when the following conditions exist: (1) In the scenario that a researcher possesses low or little control over the happenings (Saunders et al., 2016); (2) the investigation is linked to the real-life scenario that exists in nature (Saunders et al., 2016); (3) when a complex issue being studied is difficult to distinguish from its context (e.g., the UAE police organisation setting); and (4) when multiple levels of analysis are required, using data from multiple sources of evidence (Gillham, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Case studies emphasise detailed contextual examinations of a limited number of conditions or events and

their associations (Shepard and Green, 2003; Thomas et al., 2011). In addition, "a case study approach is often the best methodology for addressing problems in which understanding is sought in order to improve practice". (Merriam, 1988, p.8)

Case studies are typically a qualitative research technique, and may include descriptive surveys, observations and interviews (Dul and Hak, 2008; Thomas et al., 2011) that explore existing real-life scenarios as the sources for the application of new ideas and expansion of methods (Remenyi et al., 1998; Yin, 1994). They investigate a current trend within a real-life situation when the limitations of a phenomenon and perspective are not visibly apparent. For a successful case study, it is important to use a variety of sources and a variety of types of data as part of the investigation, whose results hopefully converge (Denscombe, 2003; Yin, 1984). Rewely (2002) also states that case studies are useful in providing answers to 'what' and 'how' questions. In this study, the main research questions are 'what' ones, since they concern the identification of the most influential characteristics in terms of LE. Also, 'how' questions are of importance to understand the impact of LC on LE.

The current study used a case-study approach which gathered descriptive data in an exploratory way through constant comparison (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) to develop a model using several UAE police site visits, interviews and questionnaires to understand the multiple perspectives of police leaders. This mixed-methods case-study approach combined the interviews and questionnaire with other documentary data such as annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015). Initial discussions with key decision-makers in the MOI were followed by visits to the UAE police site.

Justification for selection of the case-study design

Justification for using case-study design for this research is that LC and LE involve complexities of real-life situations which cannot be isolated and captured through alternative designs. The case-study method facilitates understanding of real-life scenarios from an internal, more holistic stance. Furthermore, a case study provides better insights into the detailed perceptions and behaviours of the participants. According to Benbasat, Goldstein and Mead (1987), the case study is considered viable if the research is undertaken in an area lacking in previous research in the same field. In this study, one of the gaps found in the literature is a lack of sufficient investigation of LC to improve LE. Very few studies have

attempted to develop a conceptual framework for LC in Arab countries in general, and specifically within the UAE. Given that, externally, Arab countries tend to be perceived as homogenous, but internally perceived as differentiated - and given that results from Western leadership studies cannot necessarily be generalised to Arab countries - the case-study approach is important, to build comprehensive data from the ground up. These data can then be compared and contrasted with studies from other countries, to determine if findings are unique or consistent. According to Kasim (2012), some research which has been conducted in Arab countries suggests that leadership in Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative trends (e.g., Ali et al., 1997). These research studies are all out of date by over a decade, indicating that SLC have not previously been given much attention, particularly in Arab countries.

Justification for selection of the case study for the UAE police organisation

Next, the author presents various reasons why the UAE police organisation has been chosen as a suitable case study for this research. According to the official website of the MOI in the UAE (2014), in the 2nd Government Summit in the UAE, held on 10 February 2014, Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior, urged leaders to be exceptional and to constantly seek excellence. He stated that the UAE had become a benchmark thanks to its exceptional leaders. This speech encouraged the researcher to evaluate the characteristics that earned those leaders their international reputation. He stated:

> *"I have realized that honesty, transparency, wisdom, role modelling and moderation, combined with persistence and unstinting efforts to build a country from scratch, are the main characteristics of the founding fathers".* Shaikh Saif continued: *"UAE leaders have been known for their accuracy and precision. Our founding father Shaikh Zayed has always encouraged people to put words into action [credibility], to show vision and perception. His Highness the President has followed this path and adopted these characteristics, as he launches his initiatives with confidence and transparency before the whole world, and sets a clear timeline to achieve his visions".* (Al Nahyan, 2014)

Therefore, the UAE police organisations continually seek strong effectiveness, which leads to great achievements by urging leaders to expand their LC.

The researcher is also an employee of the UAE police organisations, and therefore maintains a personal interest in the improvement and development of the organisation through defining and identifying effective LC based on empirical case-study research.

Alternative strategies such as experiment, survey, archival and documentary, action research, ethnography and grounded theory were not appropriate for research investigating LC and their impact on LE. In the next section, the researcher explains the reasons for the rejection of the alternative strategies.

Experiment strategy does not suit the present research since it has its roots in natural science and is often considered laboratory-based research (Saunders et al., 2016). Experimentation strategy is often used in research that requires gold-standard precision such as medical, nuclear, and mechanical, among others. Although experiment research strategy has also been used in the psychological and social sciences its use in the human resource or management research has been limited. The reason for the unsuitability of experimental research in management science lies in the fact that, usually, experiment-based research aims to identify –statistically (quantitatively) – the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Merriam and Tisdall, 2015). The dependent variable has been defined as that may change or adapt in response to changes in other variables (Saunders et al., 2016). On the other hand, independent variables are those that are being manipulated or which obstruct the measuring of the impact of that change on other variables. Considering the situational nature of the police leadership, whereby both management and constables have to adapt to changing situations, here 'situation' can be considered as a dependent variable and 'LE' as an independent variable to test LE (Sarver and Miller, 2013). However, testing the variables via the experiment strategy would mean establishing different scenarios and observing the actions that individuals would take to resolve the problem of the particular scenario. However, considering the fact that an individual might be aware of the fact that they are going to be judged while performing their duty, this means that they might not act naturally or may be biased in their choice of decision which they may not take in normal conditions (Guillemin e al., 2016). Thus, based on the practical implications of situational uncertainty, it is not possible to adopt the experiment research strategy in this research. Another reason for unsuitability of the experiment strategy for the present research lies in the fact that, to achieve precise results, the experiment strategy requires a control variable such as planned change management process used for controlling and monitoring the implementation plan (Saunders

et al., 2016). However, leadership in law enforcement agencies is continuously in freefall, as it is required to adapt to continually changing situations (Can et al., 2016); thus it is both literally and practically impossible to identify any controlling variable with regards to the LE. This hence justifies the rejection of the experiment research strategy in this thesis.

In contrast to the experiment strategy, survey strategy can be null and void for the purpose of designing research in this thesis due to the conflict between approaches. For instance, survey strategy has been identified as compatible with the deductive research approach (Saunders et al., 2016); however, to achieve the main aim of the study as specified in Chapter One, the present research adopts the inductive approach as a bottom-up strategy for conducting documentary analysis. The next step is to then collect real-time data via conducting interviews and surveys. Another reason for not adopting the survey strategy in this research lies in the fact that data collected from surveys tend to possess narrow scope (Saunders et al., 2016, p.182). However, the assessment of the effective leadership under TT requires investigation of the LC from a wide range of factors such as job satisfaction, positive morale, intrinsic organisational commitment, ability to influence others, being energetic, able to change behaviour, effective decision-maker, high-level emotional intelligence skills, honesty, forward looking, competence, and inspirational, among others, as mentioned in the previous chapter. It is due to this wide-ranging requirement for the development of an effective leadership model that the survey strategy does not suit the present thesis.

While experiment and survey research strategies do not match with the *nature* of this research, archival and documentary research strategies does not address the *scope* of this investigation. For instance, archival and documentary research is usually adopted under circumstances when research aims to document a scenario that requires data to be collected for the purpose of exposing a social problem within governmental or non-governmental organisations, or within wider society (Saunders et al., 2016). In contrast, the aim of this work is to contribute towards existing literature on LE in the police department. While there is a plethora of literature available on the law enforcement leadership, there is a lack of studies on how to continuously improve the LE (Schafer, 2010). Another reason for incompatibility of the documentary research strategy in the scenario of the current research lies in the use of the mixed-methods approach to achieve the main aim of this study as outlined in Chapter One, whereas archival and documentary research strategies tend to

restrict themselves to the qualitative method of research (Saunders et al., 2016). Hence, this approach does not support the present thesis.

The action research strategy does not suit this research either because its aim is to develop a conceptual model for the improvement in the LE in the police department in the UAE. In contrast, the aim of employing action research is to identify the methods by which an organisation can implement change through identifying issues, planning to resolve the issue, taking action and finally evaluating the action (Saunders et al., 2016, p.190). On the other hand, some similarities exist; for instance, the present research aims to resolve the real organisational issue of effective leadership, something which can be achieved through the use of action research (Coghlan and Brannick, 2014). On the other hand, unlike the present thesis that set its question prior to conducting further research, the research questions in action research are usually prone to change since it works through several stages (Saunders et al., 2016). Further reasons for the incompatibility of the action research with the aims and objectives of this study is that while LE in the police is something that requires long-term sustainability for the government to achieve its goals (McDermott and Husle-Killacky, 2012), action-based research tends to be more inclined towards resolving short-term projects such as technological change (Saunders et al., 2016, p.191).

The ethnography research strategy is not suited to this research because it is generally used to study culture or the social world (Saunders et al., 2016). Moreover, traditionally, the roots of the ethnography research strategy are embedded in the qualitative research methodology as it was developed to support administration and control of the colonial powers (Saunders et al., 2016). In contrast, this research employs both qualitative and quantitative research methods to derive its conclusion. Hence there is also a methodological conflict between ethnography and the present thesis.

Finally, the grounded theory research strategy is one of the strategies that most closely fits with the context of the present research. In a nutshell, grounded theory strategy is used to develop theoretical explanation of a social phenomenon - for example, effectiveness of leadership in the UAE police (Saunders et al., 2012). Hence, it supports the key aim of the present research. However, while grounded theory strategy also supports the research approach of the present study since it takes into account the inductive approach, however usually it tends to move between induction and deduction (Saunders et al., 2012). For

instance, the overall aim of the grounded theory strategy is to produce a theoretical framework from the accounts of the social actors rather than incorporating existing theories to evaluate an existing situation and then develop a piece of research, which is the case of the present thesis. Therefore, on the basis of the conflict between grounded theory and this thesis, the grounded theory research strategy is not suitable. Another justification for the incompatibility of grounded theory with the current research lies in the insistence of the grounded theory to not allow existing theories to influence the way data are structured such as targeted population, and sampling, among others (Saunders et al., 2016). For instance, use of grounded theory in this research would mean that the TT of leadership would be null and void; instead it would suggest the ideas of the LE framework to emerge from the data collected (Bryman, 2015). However, this is not the case in this research since it aims to develop a model of SLC for the UAE on the basis of the TT of leadership and not from the ideas that could be generated from the data. Rather, the premise underpinning the collection of data in this research is to analyse the authentication of the variables of effective leadership identified in the TT. Therefore, this present research does not support the use of grounded theory approach to research strategy.

3.6 Research choices

According to Dash (2005) research choices involve the processes followed to select the method of gathering data or information required to make the final decision regarding research methods. The choice involves deciding whether to use a mono-method (e.g., qualitative only), mixed-methods (e.g., both qualitative and quantitative), or multi-methods (e.g., qualitative, quantitative, documentary evidence). The type of data collection method chosen must be in line with the overall research problem presented as well as the specific research questions that the study wishes to answer (Creswell, 2002).

Types of Research Choices

3.6.1 Qualitative approach

Qualitative research is used to collect, analyse and interpret non-quantitative/non-numerical information, such as textual data, interview/focus-group narratives, visual observation, and images, among others forms, to achieve insights into a specific event of interest (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2006). It is an intensive way to collect data, which are analysed inductively through organising and categorising them into different patterns, which further produces a narrative and descriptive synthesis.

Features of the qualitative research method

Punch (2009) stressed that a major attribute of qualitative research is that it studies phenomena in their natural settings. Qualitative research methods are composed of the following features (Punch, 2009): (1) The researcher's job is to achieve a holistic view of the perspective under study and (2) researchers endeavour to obtain data on the local performer's perceptions 'from inside'.

Advantages of qualitative research:

Qualitative research details the qualities or characteristics of the phenomena investigated and as such cannot be represented by numbers, unlike quantitative research. However, qualitative data can be quantified through an encoding process and thus be applied with statistics, making the results closer to quantitative research. Qualitative research studies can highlight aspects of human behaviour, emotion and opinions, which quantitative studies cannot offer (Norman and Yvonna, 2005). Data are typically collected in the form of some kind of naturalistic scrutiny or structured interviewing in which a researcher must scrutinise and document needs, behaviours, opinions, trends and other information before knowing which data will be significant to the study (Madrigal and McClain, 2012).

Qualitative researchers analyse the data for trends and themes rather than performing a statistical analysis. These themes can be theoretical (derived from the literature) or data-driven (emerging from the data), or a combination of both. They look for statements that are identical across dissimilar research population samples when it comes to identifying trends. Having a statement from just one participant is anecdotal and from two a coincidence. When the same statement comes from more people than that then it becomes a trend. The trends that researchers recognise can guide business decisions, product development and marketing strategies (Pasick et al., 2009).

Qualitative interview research can help to explain the 'why' and 'how' of a phenomenon, as participants are encouraged to openly discuss their views, experience, insights and recommendations in a spontaneous, detailed way, which can produce much richer descriptions of some phenomenon, to identify *the essence* of that phenomenon, and also to highlight both typical and unique perspectives/experiences. Because the setting is more naturalistic and the discussion more open-ended and spontaneous, new information can be revealed, and insights emerge that the researcher who uses a standardised quantitative method

might not have considered, or found in previous literature. This is particularly important in the present study, as few studies have explored leadership in the UAE police.

Criticism of qualitative research

Unlike quantitative research, which requires uniformity of data collection for statistical comparison (e.g., use of structured questionnaires, and standardised instruments), because of its flexibility, qualitative research allows for reactions to user data as they emerge during a session. It is extremely expensive and time-consuming to collect large amounts of qualitative data. Second, applying behavioural coding to qualitative data is also very time-consuming and costly, and only an expert researcher is qualified to encode behaviour, making the technique difficult for novices. Also, it is not possible to computerise qualitative data collection as effectively as quantitative data collection (Johnny, 2012). Studies employing qualitative research cannot validate trends by calculating a significant p-value or an effect size because trends cannot be subjected to statistical analysis in the same way as quantitative data (Johnny, 2012). Qualitative data analysis is also highly subjective, increasing the risk of interpretation and reporting bias. While a huge amount of data can be collected, only a tiny proportion of those data is presented back to an audience (e.g., presenting appropriate verbatim quotations from participants to support identified themes/trends). The presence of the researcher during interviews, and the rapport they establish with their participants, can influence the quality of data collected. Due to very small sample sizes, the findings cannot be generalised to the population of interest unless, as in the present study, they are combined with quantitative research and documentary evidence, to increase validity of the results.

3.6.2 Quantitative Approach

In contrast to qualitative research, the quantitative research method collects numerical data from a target sample (Singh, 2007), typically from experiments, surveys or databases. These data can be analysed quickly using various statistical packages, but it requires statistical sophistication to check data quality, implement appropriate data analyses, assess test assumptions, and interpret and report results effectively. The quantitative approach uses numerical information such as means and medians to explain variables (Bieger and Gerlach, 1996). These numerical data also include correlations of coefficients and regression to indicate the relationships between the variables.

It has been suggested that quantitative methods are those in which the analyst first and foremost uses post-positivist claims for creating knowledge such as causal studies, reduction to definite variables and hypotheses, the use of dimensions and investigation of theories. Thus, to investigate their hypotheses, researchers generally use quantitative techniques including testing, surveys and encoded instruments (Creswell, 2011). Quantitative research provides information that can be expressed in numbers and thus quantified; and since the information provided is in numeric form, trends and forecasting can be extracted from the data. This form of data analysis can be undertaken by statistical techniques and methods which include descriptive statistics like the mean, median and mode, and inferential statistics like t-tests, ANOVAs and chi-squares. The analyses arising from these statistical techniques and methods draw relevant information from research data that includes trends, differences and demographics (Muijs, 2004). Some statistical tools break the data down even further and determine what factors can be attributed to differences between specific groups, such as age, status and race (Madrigal and McClain, 2012).

Advantages of the quantitative approach

The advantage of cross-sectional quantitative research is that it provides descriptive data that represent a snapshot of a target population; yet difficulties are encountered when it comes to interpretation. The p-value is a measure of probability measured from 0 to .1, where a value less than .05 is said to have a 5% chance that the results were coincidental (Goodman, 1999). These values are also dependent upon sample size, and a bigger sample will give higher accuracy to tabulated results, but a huge sample can inflate statistical significance for marginal differences or effects. Conversely, if a sample size is too small, the analysis may fail to detect significant effects that exist. The appropriate sample size can be determined using a power calculation to strengthen the results' statistical power. Statistical significance reflects that results of the study are real, and there is only a 5% risk that they are due to chance. Increasingly, the effect size is considered a better indicator of results significance, as it adjusts for the sample size being too small/large/different across multiple studies. It is important to take both statistical significance and effect size into account when interpreting data (Punch, 2009).

A major advantage of quantitative studies is the speed at which they can be designed and implemented. For survey research, many standardised instruments exist to measure relevant constructs, which facilitate speedy questionnaire construction; data can be collected quickly

and inexpensively using online surveys, and analysed quickly using statistical software. As larger samples are required than for qualitative research, the results are more representative of the target population; although this will be increased if some form of random sampling strategy has been used, and all possible confounding/covariate factors have been controlled for (Bowling, 2005). In some disciplines, quantitative research is considered a higher quality of research evidence than qualitative research, which makes it easier to attract research funding, to publish study results in high-quality journals, and to convince key policy/decision-makers to implement the recommendations derived from this type of research.

Criticism of the quantitative approach

Many research studies that use this type of analysis provide data about a subject but do not provide the crucial information necessary to interpret such data (Creswell, 2002). Without this crucial information, it is difficult to say why things happen the way they do. In research involved in making innovations, this data deficiency can lead to critical errors in the initial stage of the product design. Moreover, only a statistical expert or someone under their guidance should analyse and interpret quantitative data in conducting such a study. There is also an over-reliance on the p-value and large sample size in most studies that use quantitative analysis, as the research study findings can be inaccurate if the sample size is too small (Given, 2008).

3.6.3 Mixed-methods paradigm

Traditionally, management and business studies adopted methodologies taken from the natural sciences, which mainly rely on the 'Positivist' research paradigm. Today, qualitative approaches (Patton, 1990), such as the case study (Yin, 1994), play an important role in management research. However, Remenyi et al. (1998) argued that case-study research is not necessarily qualitative, and it can combine elements of both positivism and phenomenology; for example, statistical and inferential analysis and open-ended questions about lived experiences, meaning and sense-making could be combined. A case study could first develop a theory (inductive-approach) and then test it to make generalisations (deductive-approach). Today, many researchers no longer endorse one research philosophy over another. Indeed, Creswell (2003) and Knox (2004) argue that the various research philosophies are not polar opposites; and the recent pragmatist approach argues that the appropriate methodology is (are) one(s) that best answer the research question(s). A case study by definition collects

multiple sources of data from archival/documentary data to interviews (open-ended and survey questions), and direct observation (Remenyi et al., 1998), which involves mixed methods and triangulation, to increase validity of the evidence and conclusions.

3.6.3.1 Mixed-methods approach

Mixed-methods research refers to the combining of qualitative and quantitative research methods to collect and analyse data (Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007). As mentioned above, mixed methods is a pragmatic approach, which does not adhere to one research philosophy, but selects the most appropriate methods to best answer the research question (Creswell, 2008). Campbell and Fiske (1959) developed the mixed-methods approach when they were calculating the validity of psychological characteristics through multiple methods. They influenced others to use their matrix of multiple methods to observe different approaches to data collection in a single research study. Their use of multiple methods encouraged others to use mixed methods; it rapidly became associated with approaches to field-study methods including interviews and observations (qualitative data), and merged with traditional quantitative surveying (Sieber, 1973). Mixed-methods research is suitable for improving the understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Teddlie and Tashakori, 2009). Mixed methods can be employed sequentially (in consecutive phases) or concurrently (in parallel) (Creswell, 2002). The strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative research can be minimised by the integration of data. The following table (3.5) summarises the strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods research.

Table 3.5 Strengths and weaknesses of the mixed-methods approach

Strengths	weaknesses
• Derives conclusions after evaluating multiple sources of evidence. • Statistical analysis methods can be used to evaluate the quantitative data; then linking the results with the assertions made in the qualitative research hence automatically validates the reliability of the data. • Fitting into the scenarios of both deductive and inductive approaches to research. • Removing research from the shackles of	• Threat of discussion losing or ignoring the main aim and objective of the research due to vast amount of data. • Art of mixing different methods presents a challenging task that researcher might need to learn. • The researcher needs to ensure that both qualitative and quantitative methods are given the right balance in

the research method provides freedom to the researcher with respect to widening the research scope.	the research to avoid the threat of one method getting preference over the other.
• Use of the multiple method of research complements the weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative methods of research.	• The mixed method tends to be expensive often consumes more time-consuming.
• Multiple premises are touched to derive conclusion unlike in single method research where researcher has to limit the research to limited premises	
• Use of mixed method allows greater diversity of views to be reflected in the study	

Source: Saunders et al. (2016, p. 168).

Yin (2003. p.15) states simply that "case studies may be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence". The triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data may lead to a credible/reliable understanding of the case.

3.6.3.2 Rationale for using Mixed Methods

It has been recognised that every method has some limitations, and researchers have observed that biases in one method could cancel or neutralise the biases of other methods. In this way the triangulation approach was born, which seeks convergence among quantitative and qualitative methods (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Flick (2009) stressed that the mixed-methods approach to research combines the strengths of qualitative and quantitative research while overcoming some of the weaknesses that emerge when research depends only on a single approach (Flick, 2009). Green, Caracelli and Graham (1989) explained the mixed-methods approach as one in which the results from one method help in developing the other method. In this way, one method can be combined with the other to give an understanding of different levels (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998), which can produce more comprehensive or conflicting results (Creswell, 2003). These methods have also been developed in some of the methodology literature - e.g., the multi-method, convergence, integrated and combined approaches.

In this study a sequential mixed-methods approach (dominant qualitative, minor quantitative) was adopted to address the study objectives. This was based on the assumption that the reality under investigation is too complex to capture using only one research method (Snow and Anderson, 1991); and that the independent use of either quantitative or qualitative research methods was not appropriate to fully answer the research questions of this study (Creswell, 2003). In the first phase, qualitative semi-structured interviews were carried out with police leaders at the senior level, represented by the Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general in accordance with the organisational structure of the Ministry of the Interior (Home Office) in the UAE. In the second phase, a quantitative survey was administered to the mid-level operational leaders, represented by the departmental managers and heads of division within the Ministry of the Interior (Home Office) in the UAE. The justification for using a sequential two-phase design was to collect the views and data on LC from senior leaders with direct experience of this phenomenon, to inform the development of the questionnaire for the mid-level operational leaders, in order to verify the results presented by the senior leaders in a larger sample. Both sources of evidence were also compared with documentary evidence, as a further validity check. In addition, secondary literature and documentary evidence were integrated with the primary data in the analysis stage. These multiple sources of data facilitated triangulation. Developing a credible theory for future replication and validity testing requires collecting multiple perspectives of senior police leaders who have direct experience of the issue under investigation using in-depth interviews; as mid-level police leaders have less experience of police leadership, and represent a larger population, a larger survey was appropriate to collect their views on LC.

The initial dominant qualitative phase of the study used a case-study approach to investigate the concept of LC and the LE of the senior leadership in the UAE police, investigate the key LC that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future, and the impact of LC on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

The subsequent quantitative phase of the study used a survey questionnaire to investigate the concept of LC and the LE of the senior leadership in the UAE police, investigate the CPSLC in the UAE police, and investigate the key LC that operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future.

The strength of the mixed-methods approach is that the problem statement for the researcher is more important than the methods, and all approaches will be used to recognise the problem (Cherryholmes, 1992; Newman and Benz, 1998; Patton, 1990; Rossman and Wilson, 1994). The purpose of using mixed methods is also to gain a better understanding of the research problem by converging details from qualitative research and numeric data from quantitative research (Creswell, 2003; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The other reason for choosing the mixed-methods approach is to generalise the results to the population of interest (Creswell, 2002).

Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) identified reasons for mixing methods, including triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion. After analysing these reasons, the researcher finds that expansion is helpful for providing insights into the research questions. Expansion generally seeks to extend the range and breadth of an investigation by incorporating different methods for different investigation components (Creswell, 2003; Greene, 2008). Mixed methods also help with exploring results in more depth (Morse and Niehaus, 2009).

The key strength of the quantitative phase of the study is its ability to investigate the CPSLC in the UAE police, on a broader level, and then compare the results with what has been found in the interviews and the literature regarding the same issue. The quantitative method, however, has weaknesses in the investigation of phenomena affected by different variables, some of which cannot be easily identified or measured. The strengths of the qualitative research method overcome some of the weaknesses inherent in the quantitative research method. The formative qualitative method allows the senior leader participants to define the relevant topics in the investigation, with the informants able to provide detailed information based on their experiences. As a result, the qualitative method can provide deeper and novel insight and understanding related to the research questions by investigating the key SLC for improving LE that may not have been established in the literature, or considered by the researcher. The qualitative method, however, has limitations due to the potential for researcher bias, particularly given that the researcher is (a) an insider, with an interest in working at leadership level himself; and (b) has reviewed the literature in-depth, which may bias his focus of investigation during interviews. In addition, (c) because of his close involvement with the participants in this study, the researcher may be more cautious in posing certain questions or debating certain issues regarding current and perceived effective

leadership; hence boundaries may be more restrictive in the scope of investigation, than would be the case for an external investigator, and (d) finally, the national Arab culture and customs may further bias both questioning and response style, which as an Arab insider, the researcher may not be conscious of.

3.7 Research procedures, population and techniques

3.7.1 Data collection for the case-study approach

There are many ways to collect research data. According to Yin (2009), the key major sources of evidence to be used in the case-study approach are documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participation/direct observation, questionnaire and physical artefacts. Table 3.6 below outlines the strengths and weaknesses of each source of case-study evidence.

Table 3.6 Data collection for the case-study approach

Source of evidence	Strengths	Weaknesses
Documentation	- Stable: Can be reviewed repeatedly - Unobtrusive: not created as a result of the case study - Exact: contains exact names, references and details	- Retrievability: can be low - Biased selectivity, if collection is incomplete - Reporting bias: reflects bias of the author - Access: may be deliberately blocked
Archival Records	- Same as above - Precise and quantitative	- Same as above - Accessibility may be limited for privacy reasons
Interviews	- Targeted: focuses directly on case studies - Insightful: provides perceived causal inferences	- Bias due to poorly constructed questions - Response bias - Inaccuracies: interviewees say what they think interviewer wants to hear
Direct observation	- Reality: covers events in real time - Contextual: covers context of event	- Time-consuming - Selectivity: poor, unless broad coverage - Reflexivity: events may be processed differently

Participation/direct observation	- Same as for direct observation - Insightful into interpersonal behaviour and motives	- Same as for direct observation - Bias due to investigator's manipulation of events
Physical Artefacts	- Insightful into cultural features - Insightful into technical operations	- Selectivity - Availability

Source: Yin (2009, p 102).

Yin (2003) recommended that combining multiple sources of evidence can help to clarify meaning and strengthen the arguments of the phenomenon being observed; and it should be applied for the purposes of triangulation. In this study, the researcher has used multiple sources to gather data, including qualitative face-to-face interviews with senior UAE police leaders as the dominant data-collection method, as well as quantitative questionnaires for mid-level operational UAE police leaders, and UAE police documentation as the additional sources of evidence, to satisfy the requirements for research validity and reliability.

Multiple data sources provide the ability to triangulate data, based on the assumption that the reality under investigation is too complex to capture using just one data collection method (Snow and Anderson, 1991). The semi-structured interview guide and survey questionnaire measures were developed following a comprehensive literature review of SLC, and their role in improving LE.

3.7.2 Population of the study

The research population has been defined as the group of people that has been targeted for the purpose of investigation (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009), from which a study sample is selected. In this study the target population are UAE police leaders representing two leadership ranks: (1) senior leaders including the Commanders in chief, their deputies and directors-general, and (2) mid-level operational leaders, including Departmental managers and heads of division. The sampling strategies of the qualitative and quantitative phases are presented in detail in sections 3.7.5 and 3.7.6 below.

3.7.3 Gaining access

Gaining access to the police organisations in the UAE police in order to collect the data (qualitative and quantitative) was unproblematic since the researcher is a UAE police employee and the Sharjah police had sponsored the research. However, it was important for the researcher to gain the official approval of the MOI to undertake the study with regard to LC. Later, the MOI distributed a formal letter to the Police General Headquarters to make them aware of the research and to request their support in meeting the researcher's requirements.

3.7.4 Phase 1 Documentary Evidence Study

It is claimed that records can be crucial sources of information when an investigator undertakes a case study (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003) and that they can be used to complement other data sources and to facilitate the researcher's development of an extensive image of the research phenomenon. Documents are employed in this study as a supplement to questionnaires, rather than as a standalone data source. Myers (2009) stated that using documents can help researchers to acquire a richer picture than could be obtained by interviews or questionnaires alone. According to Yin (2009), documents provide specific details that can support verbal accounts, and they can include letters, agendas, newspaper articles, administrative documents or any document related to the investigation. Yin also stated that documentary information is likely to be closely related to the case study. In this study, the researcher has used documentary evidence to obtain reliable (objective) data, and to overcome the low reliability (subjectivity) of the data produced from the interviews.

Documentary analysis

In addition to collecting interview and questionnaire data, this study has also examined documents to investigate the CPSLC in the UAE police. Some documents were reviewed and analysed in the literature review chapter with a special focus on LC. It is claimed that records can be crucial sources of information when an investigator undertakes a case study (Bryman and Bell, 2003; Yin, 2003) and that they can be used to complement other data sources and to facilitate the researcher's development of an extensive image of the research phenomenon.

In the current study, documents were employed to complement the questionnaire data, to reduce any bias arising from the sole use of documentary evidence. The researcher thoroughly examined documents including the annual assessments of some individual leaders

and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015). These are confidential reports hence the identity of their source needs to be kept anonymous. In a nutshell, two reviewed documents talk about the characteristics that the police department in the UAE seeks in the prospective senior leaders at both personal and general levels. A review of the first document revealed that characteristics such as ability to think strategically, ability to conduct institutional planning and effective use of resources, ability to identify and develop future leaders, ability to delegate power and empower others, and the ability to manage time are the characteristics that the police department in the UAE seeks in the leaders at the personal level. On the other hand, a review of the second document revealed general-level characteristics that senior leaders in the police department in the UAE are expected to possess; these include vision and mission, being a role model, ability to promote and prepare future leaders, the ability to conduct strategic development and planning, encouragement, transparency, the ability to manage change, being just and, finally, able to make quick decisions. Due to their confidential nature much cannot be said or written about their report; in fact it is prohibited to quote a statement from the report so only a snapshot of the key factors of LC identified in the report has been included in this thesis.

3.7.5 Phase 2 The Descriptive Qualitative Study
3.7.5.1 Interview Design

According to Bogdan and Taylor (1998) all researchers believe that an agenda should be followed so that similar key areas of enquiry are pursued with every interviewee, thereby helping to ensure a certain level of consistency. An interview guide (see Appendix D) was constructed in order to achieve the research objectives and followed on from each other in a logical manner. An important point to be noted here is that the interview guide comprised open questions to minimise any bias (Easterby-Smith et al., 2004). Silverman (2006, p. 286) supports this view and states that every respondent must interpret the questions in a similar way.

This study was a descriptive qualitative study. It aimed to understand the views of senior leaders on 1) the concept of LC and LE; 2) investigate the key LC that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future; and 3) investigate the impact of LC on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police. Qualitative data were collected at one time-point using face-to-face semi-structured interviews with senior leaders.

Silverman (2006) also notes that interview schedules have to be piloted before the real-life event to ensure reliability. In the first stage, the interview questions were prepared on the basis of an extensive review of the appropriate literature that related to LC and LE. These questions were then discussed in detail with the researcher's supervisors and modified according to their suggestions: some questions were removed as not suitable to achieve the goals of the research. With the removal of these questions, the interview guide was translated into Arabic. This was then discussed with some PhD researchers/co-workers whose native language is Arabic, to ensure clarity and accurate translation. The transcript was given to one of the senior lecturers within the Police Research Centre in Sharjah (the UAE) to assess the validity of the content (Saunders et al., 2003). Next, some police leaders in Sharjah were chosen as the pilot test sample and on, the basis of this exercise, some further re-working of questions was undertaken to introduce more simplicity and clarity into the interview guide.

3.7.5.2 Interview Sampling Strategy

Non-probability (non-random) sampling is usually employed to recruit people for interviews. In this technique, participants are selected with a purpose, based on their deep knowledge/experience of the phenomenon being investigated (Bowling, 2005). Purposive sampling is used by many qualitative researchers (Silverman, 2006), since they are looking for specific groups that have good collective knowledge about the phenomenon under study. According to Gliner and Morgan (2000), purposive sampling is about selecting a population for the purpose of research whose members can be accessible and are ready to participate in the research. Saunders et al. (2003) state that purposive sampling makes it easier for the researcher to pick up informative cases that are known to be able to help answer some of the research questions and hence to achieve the research aims.

There are a number of key criteria that can be considered important to achieve a satisfactory result of the fieldwork research. According to Yin (1994) the managers involved in the study should be at a level of influence and authority where they are likely to be involved in the implementation of strategic initiatives; they have confidence in the professionalism of the interviewer; and where the interviewer is experienced. The researcher selected with care the interview participants, because they are more likely to provide quality data in situations where they understand the purpose of the research; for their ability to adapt to many and varying situations at an extremely high level; they have confidence in the professionalism of the interviewer; and where the interviewer is experienced. Therefore, purposeful sampling

was used for the qualitative phase in order to select the most appropriate participants for the study. Inclusion criteria for the interviews were eligible participants who had the most experience of leadership positions, and best understanding or experience of this phenomenon in the UAE police organisation (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). Overall, the positions, experience and background of participants indicates they are subject matter experts of senior leader roles. Accordingly, they are likely to be appropriate to evaluate the content of a domain or construct (Sireci and Geisinger, 1995).

3.7.5.3 Interview Sample Size

With interviews, small samples are used for an in-depth understanding of phenomena. This can even involve a single case study, selected after an extreme vetting process, for the purpose of achieving the research objectives and answering its questions (Patton, 1990; Saunders et al., 2016). Twenty-five interviews were conducted with eight Commanders-in-chief, seven deputy commanders-in-chief, and ten director generals. There is some concern in qualitative research over the ideal number of interviewees that should be chosen so as to be able to generalise the outcome. In this regard, Kvale (1996) argues that the sample size should be determined by the need to secure the data required; therefore, one should interview as many subjects as are needed for this. On the other hand, Miles and Huberman (1994) believe the issue of sample size in qualitative research to be of relatively little concern, since the aim of such research is to generate in-depth analysis, rather than generalisable results. It was decided here to employ purposive sampling, which is used by many qualitative researchers according to Silverman (2006), since they are specifically looking for certain groups that have good knowledge about the phenomenon being researched, in contrast to the use of random sampling for the questionnaire, the aim of which was to gain information that could be generalised to the total population. Saunders et al. (2003) also comment that purposive sampling makes it easier for the researcher to pick up informative cases that are known to be able to help answer some of the research questions and hence to achieve the research aims. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) also described sample size range as required to achieve saturation (they propose a sample range between seven and 12 as sufficient). They also described a sample that is selective (i.e. senior managers who are subject matter experts) as reducing the sample size requirements for saturation. It seems, therefore, that to secure valid qualitative data via interviews, researchers must pay attention to the process of collecting data and their analysis, rather than worrying unduly about the sample size (Saunders et al., 2003). It was decided that a diverse sample would be used for the interview

exercise, thereby ensuring that the interviewees involved would be experienced and knowledgeable in respect of the LC within the UAE police. Accordingly, 25 interviews were considered sufficient for this research.

3.7.5.4 Interview Participants

Table 3.7 below shows the interview sample. As can be seen, the interview sample included three hierarchical ranks within the senior leadership. These included eight Commanders-in-chief (32%); seven deputy Commanders-in-chief (28%); and ten Directors-general of the Ministry of the Interior (40%).

Table 3.7 Interview sample

Interviewees' Position	Numbers	Percentage
Commander-in-chief	8	32%
The deputies of Commanders-in-chief	7	28%
Directors-general of the Ministry of the Interior	10	40%
Total	25	100%

Source: Field study.

3.7.5.5 Interview Data Collection Procedure

In qualitative research, the most viable way to collect data is to conduct interviews with respondents. Interviews are acknowledged as one of the most commonly used methods in modern business-related research, particularly in case studies (Yin, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016). Interviews are an essential means of assessing, in detail, an individual's perceptions, definitions of different situations and meanings given to different conditions, and then the construction of certainty (Punch, 2009). It is a technique in which both interviewer and interviewee exchange personal information (Ruane, 2005) with an aim to cooperate with each other to discover and address an issue that is of interest to both parties (Ruane, 2005). The participant is informed of the specific interview topic and purpose of the interview in advance, to keep the interview responses focused. The semi-structured interview allows the researcher to include probing questions, prompts, and requests for examples of what respondents discuss, and to add/omit certain questions from the interview guide, as appropriate. Open questions, rather than leading or closed questions are used, to help draw

out rich responses from participants (Creswell, 2003). Interviews are thus the most popular and vital research tools in qualitative research (Middlewood, Coleman and Lumby, 1999).

Open-ended questions are those questions which give the respondent the opportunity to use their own choice of words, decide their own length of answers and decide on the types of issues to raise in the answers (Denscombe, 2003). Closed questions, in contrast, do not provide such opportunities for the respondents as they limit the respondents to answering within the categories established by the researcher in advance (Denscombe, 2003). The responses to the closed questions in the interviews were helpful in determining quantitative data through examining frequencies of responses and sorting out the associations among answers to various questions.

The advantage of employing an interpretive approach, as the dominant data collection method in this study, is that the data yielded are rich by nature; however, the gathering of data has been subjective due to the level of involvement of the researcher.

The dominant qualitative phase of the research used an interview protocol (see Appendix D), which consisted of five open-ended questions on various topics that were linked to the research questions posed by this study (Wengraf, 2001).

All interviews were scheduled in advance to facilitate the interviewees with the proper time and locations, according to the availability of the interviewees. These interviews were conducted in the participants' offices, and averaged 60 minutes in duration, ranging from 45 minutes to 1:15 hours. To ensure comprehensive recording of each interview conversation, audio recorders were used to capture all aspects of the interviews for subsequent analysis (Hall and Howard, 2008). Written consent to audio record each interview was obtained from each participant, in advance, after briefing participants on what the recorded information would be used for, who would have access to these recordings, how it would be stored confidentially, and the fact that these recordings would be destroyed after the study. This ethical consideration is essential, and helps to establish trust and safety for participants to enable them to relax and share information fully and openly.

3.7.5.6 Interview Data Analysis

Qualitative analysis using NVivo

Based on the above description and discussion of different techniques, the data collected from qualitative have been analysed using NVivo version 11 qualitative data analysis software. According to Wong (2008), NVivo provides a range of advantages to the researcher that includes improving research quality, making it easier to analyse data and evaluate meaningful results. Significantly, due to its ability to deal with complex data it saves a great of the time for the researcher.

Bazeley (2007) identified key five advantages of using NVivo:

- It has the ability to analyse complex data in various formats that include identifying trends in the raw survey results, and identifying important factors in the transcripts of the interview, observations and official documents.
- It aims to links the data trend with the variables identified in the research framework.
- It aims to confront data to identify any conflicting situation.
- It presents data in a visible manner such as through diagrams
- It produces a transcript report from the analysis of the data that can be used to test the assumptions made in the research.

Thematic analysis using NVivo

The audio interviews with senior UAE police leaders were transcribed and subjected to thematic analysis following Braun and Clarke's (2006) approach, using NVivo qualitative analysis computer software. Thematic analysis is "*a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes within data*" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79), and is also is a theory-neutral data reduction technique which involves a series of steps that even a novice researcher can learn quickly. The justification for using thematic analysis over other qualitative methods, such as grounded theory or IPA (interpretative phenomenological analysis) lies in its ability to identify rich and detailed themes without following a pre-existing theoretical framework (Braun and Clarke, 2006). For example, IPA comes from health psychology (Smith, 1995); it is focused on exploring people's lived experiences of some phenomena, and understanding how they make sense of that experience. It is suitable for very personal topics (e.g., experience of illness, personal identity, coping with difficult

situations, etc.); it draws on Husserl's philosophy of hermeneutics and takes an idiographic (case-by-case analysis) approach. The IPA approach was not deemed appropriate to this study, as the topic is not personal, but is more socially/organisationally focused.

Thematic analysis also seems suitable to case-study research; as Braun and Clarke (2006, p.9) noted, "Thematic analysis can be used as a method both to reflect reality and to unpick or unravel the surface of reality". An additional justification for selecting thematic analysis is that this technique enables the researcher to identify themes in the data in an inductive 'bottom up' way (data-driven coding), or in a theoretical/deductive 'top down' way. Thus the research can identify themes which are of theoretical interest, omitting what is not of interest/relevance from the transcript during analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Both data-driven and theoretical coding can be employed, which makes this approach to qualitative analysis very flexible.

Thematic analysis steps

Following transcription of the audio-recorded interview data, the first step in conducting thematic analysis involves reading and rereading the transcripts to familiarise and immerse oneself in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). This can help with finding initial meanings and patterns.

The second step involves initial coding generation, where the researcher assigns initial codes, which are summaries of anything significant, important, interesting, and/or relevant that that identified in the data. The researcher then organises the codes into meaningful groups/categories (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). It is important to decide if a data-driven and/or theory-driven approach will be used, so that either the full dataset is coded line-by-line (data-driven), or selected parts which are most relevant to the research question/previous literature are searched for and coded. While the theory-driven approach can be faster (as it involves a more focused search), it can result in the omission of potentially important emerging themes.

The third step involves theme generation, after the initial coding is completed. At this stage, different codes and categories are reorganised - some may be connected; others split into separate codes or categories - and are then sorted into potential themes (Howitt and Cramer, 2011). The potential themes must be coherent, and tell a meaningful story; therefore, the

researcher needs to keep the research questions in mind at all times, to ensure that the analysis and reporting of key findings remains focused. From the initial coding stage, once themes are decided they can be illustrated using visual diagrams, tables and thematic maps, in addition to writing clear descriptions of each code, category and theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The themes should then be reviewed and discussed again to test the coherence of the themes with each other, against the original data, and in relation to the research questions and literature (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). The reviewing process may result in some themes being discarded, others being split, or collapsed into sub-themes. Each final theme should be distinct, but have some connection to the meaning or story being conveyed from the transcript data (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

The fourth step involves defining and providing concise descriptive names for the final themes. This helps to describe what each theme represents, and to show it is distinct (unique) from the other themes, but at the same time coheres with other themes, as part of the overall story (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011).

The final step involves reporting the thematic analysis findings (report writing). This report should tell a story about the data, linking them back to answer the research question(s) (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). Verbatim quotations from the transcript should be included in the written description of each theme to provide evidence for the theme. The quotations should be interpreted within the theme description, to include the researchers' thoughts/reflections on what they mean or suggest, rather than being presented as superficial descriptive analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011). It is also important to look for things that were not said in the data, look at how things were said, and to consider both the participants' background and current context, and the researcher's own assumptions and expectations, to bring more reflexivity to the research, and move beyond superficial to deeper analysis. Ideally, the final themes should be presented back to the participants (participant feedback) to validate if they are a true reflection of their narratives. All the transcriptions were sent to the participants for feedback, some were returned with minor modifications to the original reported data. The goal of this process is to ensure authentic original and reliable findings to ensure that these transcriptions reflect their views and experiences, and to reduce the incidence of incorrect data and the incorrect interpretation of data.

Although thematic analysis is flexible and easy to learn, which is advantageous, it has its potential limitations. A disadvantage is that researchers who use thematic analysis tend to use descriptive analysis, which can be superficial, and not look for deeper meaning in the data. The purpose of thematic analysis is not just to reduce the data and describe what participants said but to look for overall patterns - what is *shared* among the respondents - to find the *essence* of what they mean, and also to look for inconsistencies within and between participants, unique cases, and different ways that the data could be interpreted. This is also achieved by using reflexivity to remain mindful of the potential for researcher's subjective bias. As thematic analysis has no underlying theoretical framework, its quality can depend on the interpretative power of the researcher, and can sometimes yield contradictions, which - because of the small sample size - means it can be difficult to know if these are exceptional patterns/cases, or whether these are true of other individuals in this study population and in similar settings (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Hence, there can be issues of transferability to other settings. This however is a limitation of all qualitative research. As stated above, by conducting thematic analysis following the appropriate steps using NVivo, and being deeply informed and interested in the subject area, most of these limitations can be overcome.

3.7.6 Phase 3 The Cross-sectional Survey
3.7.6.1 Questionnaire Design

Questionnaire design is an essential consideration to answer and meet research objectives; according to Collis and Hussey (2003), several elements must be taken into account in the drafting of the instrument. These are:

- The objectives of the questionnaire must be clear.
- The questionnaire should be pilot tested.
- There should be no unnecessary questions, or questions that are answered elsewhere in the instrument, even if asked a different way.
- All questions should be clear, and address just one issue.
- The questionnaire should be short (around 20-30 minutes is acceptable for administered questionnaires).

(Collis and Hussey, 2003).

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2009), the researcher should take the following matters into account when designing a questionnaire:

1.   The wording of the questions.
2.   The classification and coding of the variables of the questionnaire.
3.   The layout and general appearance of the questionnaire.

As the purpose of the questionnaire is to help achieve the research objectives and to answer the research questions, structurally, the questions were chosen carefully and guided by theories related to leadership traits (Zikmund, 2003).

The quantitative phase of the study employed a self-administered cross-sectional survey questionnaire (see Appendix E) to collect data from department managers and heads of division within the Ministry of the Interior (Home Office) in the UAE. The questionnaire was designed to investigate the concept of LC and LE; to investigate the CPSLC of these leaders; and to investigate the key LC that operational leaders in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future UAE police. The results from these questionnaires were then compared with findings from previous literature on the same issue; with the themes identified in the senior leader interviews; and with relevant documentary evidence.

3.7.6.2 Questionnaire Sampling Strategy

A representative sample can be appropriately selected when the study population is clearly identified (Sandelowski, 2000). A simple random sampling technique was used to identify participants from among the study population, in order to ensure the inclusion of all mid-level police ranks, so that every eligible operational leader had an equal chance of participating in the survey. Gliner and Morgan (2000) recommend random sampling for disseminating questionnaires to the study population because the study population is finite and can be identified by members of the population. Thus, the participants are the department managers and heads of division within the Ministry of the Interior (Home Office) in the UAE. The researcher selected the participants in this phase due to their dealings with the senior police leadership - whether directly or indirectly - through the work they do; therefore they are in the best position to observe and identify the characteristics possessed by leaders in policing organisations. In this phase, these data are collected to identify and/or validate data that have been explored/collected through literature in the UAE.

3.7.6.3 Questionnaire Sample Size

In determining the appropriate sample size, this is very often a matter of judgment as well as calculation (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Several factors must be considered when making that decision (Sandelowski, 2000: pp.246–255):

- The tolerable level of accuracy and error on the part of the researcher.
- The amount of confidence the researcher has in the data.
- The variation in the entire population.
- The extent to which resources like time and cost are available.
- The expected responses rate.

Hair et al. (1998) recommended that the sample size should be 100 units or more. Saunders et al. (2007) indicated that the economists suggest that a minimum number of 30 for statistical analysis. In this study, a total of 600 MOI staff members were selected randomly with the support of the HR Department, which held all employees' details. The questionnaire was evenly distributed across the department managers and heads of division in the MOI. Of these, a total of 513 fully completed questionnaires were returned (85.5% response rate). As the response rate exceeds 80%, it is large enough to enable valid inferences to be made from this sample to the study population (Sivo, 2006).

No one single variable can be used to determine the sample size, and as Miles and Huberman (1994) observe, it is not rational to be absolutely precise in numerical terms. Each questionnaire was then filled out and returned to the HR Department, which had granted approval for the survey.

3.7.6.4 Questionnaire Participants

Table 3.8 below shows the survey sample. As can be seen, 59.3% of the sample comprised Heads of Divisions (n=304), and 40.7% were Department Managers (209).

Table 3.8 Questionnaire sample

Participants' Position	Numbers	Percentage
Department managers	209	40.7%
Heads of division	304	59.3%
Total	513	100.0%

Source: Field study.

3.7.6.5 Pilot-testing of the Questionnaire

With respect to the piloting of the questionnaire, Neuman (2006) strongly argued that a questionnaire should be piloted/tested before it is finally administered, to ensure that participants do not experience any difficulties or challenges in understanding the questions and answering them. Such piloting/testing testifies to the validity of a questionnaire and the dependability of the data. Consequently, the questionnaire used in this research was subject to several piloting/testing exercises before it reached its final version, as follows:

In the first stage, the questionnaire was prepared on the basis of an extensive review of the appropriate literature and consideration of earlier questionnaires that were relevant to LC and LE. The draft tool was then discussed in detail with the researcher's supervisors and modified according to suggestions relating to similar questions, before being translated into Arabic by the researcher. Afterwards, the questionnaire was discussed with some PhD researchers whose native language is Arabic to check the nuances of translation. On the basis of this discussion, some changes were made; for instance some items were removed in order to reduce the overall length of the questionnaire.

In the second stage, this improved version of the questionnaire was given to one of the senior lecturers in the Police Research Centre in Sharjah (UAE) to confirm the validity of the content, who agreed that the quality and validity of the questionnaire would allow it to achieve its objectives, as stressed by Walsham (2005).

In the third stage of piloting, at the beginning of 2015, ten Sharjah police officers were asked to complete the questionnaire to determine whether any challenges existed to their ability to respond to the questions therein. Accordingly, only very few items were reworded to improve their clarity. These changes led to the final version of the questionnaire.

3.7.6.6 Questionnaire Data Collection Procedure

Collis and Hussey (2003) and Saunders et al. (2003) suggest designing items in a questionnaire as follows: Self-compilation questionnaires should look attractive and professional; there should be a brief introduction to ensure informed consent; and the first section should seek background (demographic) information relating to the participant if that is necessary.

It is also of importance to consult the literature relating to the topic of the proposed questionnaire to ensure that the questionnaire is not attempting to gain information of which there is already a surfeit in the literature. Consequently, in this study, the LC and LE literature was examined to determine what was already known about the concept of LC and LE, the CPSLC in the UAE police, the most important LC for the senior leadership in the UAE police to improve their effectiveness in the future, and the impact of LC on their effectiveness. These broad areas formed separate parts of the questionnaire which was eventually constructed.

As suggested above, the first part of the questionnaire was designed to collect general information regarding the profile of the study participants (UAE operational leaders). Section (A) consisted of six demographic questions relating to the respondent's gender, age, the position in the organisation, rank, education level and length of experience. Section (B) was designed to get the perceptions of the participants regarding the concept of LC and LE (Q8 and Q9), the CPSLC in the UAE police (Q10), the most important LC for senior leadership in the UAE police to improve their effectiveness in the future (Q11), and the degree of impact of LC on their effectiveness (Q12).

Each eligible individual received an invitation in person from the researcher to participate in the study. The invitation included a description of the research purpose and a survey questionnaire. It also provided guarantees of confidentiality, to encourage frankness in the responses. This issue is discussed further in the ethical issues section below.

3.7.6.7 Questionnaire Data Analysis

The data collected from closed questions were analysed quantitatively by using IBM SPSS (Statistical Package Program for the Social Sciences) version 22 for the descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics including percentages, frequencies, standard

deviations and variable skewness were utilised to describe the responses and to assess 1) the concept of LC and the LE of the senior leadership in the UAE police, 2) the CPSLC in the UAE police, and 3) the key LC that operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future for enhancing LC. Statistical procedures were performed using SPSS by following the step-by-step guide provided by Pallant (2005). The significance level was defined as p<.05 for statistical significance.

3.7.7 Mixed Methods Analysis: Integration of the Mixed Data Triangulation

Triangulation is a key part of this study, and the term is used to describe the process of collecting data or information from a variety of sources and in a variety of ways (Blanche and Kelly, 2004; Flick 2009). To achieve effective triangulation, Denscombe (2003) encouraged researchers to use more than one data collection method on the topic of the investigation, and to recognise the importance of using various methods for data collection; in particular, this leads to richer understanding of the context and enhances data validity.

In addition to the collection of data from interviews and questionnaires, data have also been collected from documentation and the review of literature. After conducting the data collection process, the final conclusion is based on triangulation.

To examine the most important characteristics of UAE police leaders and to provide recommendations for police departments to help identify potential leaders with important traits, the study needs to validate the conclusions and results more reliably. Four different kinds of triangulation were proposed by Flick (2009); these are i) data triangulation - in which different sources of data are used to investigate a single theory; ii) investigator triangulation which involves the utilisation of various researchers to reduce the probable biases from having just one investigator; iii) theory triangulation data which are approached through multiple hypotheses and perspectives in one's mind, and iv) methodological triangulation where there is a distinction among between-methods and within-methods triangulation. The conclusions from the interviews were compared with the literature review in order to validate the data in this study.

Yin (2003, p.15) states that a case study can be carried through a merging of both qualitative and quantitative data. The triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data can lead to a credible understanding of the case.

In this study, the researcher has used a variety of sources of data collection including interviews, questionnaires and documentation. Thus, the fieldwork generated a huge amount of data from these different sources. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), the big challenge with qualitative data is how to summarise complex information and convert data into meaningful conclusions.

Drawing from Seidman (2006) and Lichtman (2009), to deal with the mixed data, these general analytical procedures have been followed. The consent forms were stored in a safe place. Any important notes were converted to written records, to keep records of what had been said. The researcher ensured that any material collected from interviews, questionnaires, documentary, observations or direct observations was correctly referenced, including dates and sources. The researcher commenced coding the interview data for each concept or theme as early as possible; this coding allowed for storing data, retrieving them and organising them. The data were classified into shared/common themes, sub-themes or similar dimensions of information collected from the interview respondents. These themes were captured by single statements to express the views of respondents regarding investigated issues. At different stages of fieldwork the researcher wrote summaries of the findings. The process was continued until the researcher was convinced that the generalisations emerging from the data are solid enough to analyse existing theories or build a new theory.

3.8 Rigour of the Study

According to Collis and Hussey (2003), the value of an analysis of qualitative data depends mainly on the interpretations of the researcher. Lincoln and Guba (1985, in Collis and Hussey, 2003) indicate that one important criterion which can be used is credibility. The researcher can improve his/her credibility by involving himself/herself in the subject under study for a long period of time to gain depth of understanding, and by triangulation using different sources of evidence. Among those techniques, the credibility of this study has been enhanced and strengthened through triangulation of the data collection by different sources of evidence such as interviews, questionnaires and documentation.

Credibility has also been enhanced by peer and colleague reviews, and the researcher and other researchers from the Lord Ashcroft International Business School within Anglia Ruskin University held periodic meetings to discuss their research and research methodologies.

3.9 Validity and reliability of the data

Validity and reliability are basic standards for evaluating the quality of a study (Bowling, 2005). According to Golafshani (2003, p. 604) in qualitative research, *"reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in the qualitative paradigm".* In quantitative research, Cavana et al. (2001) explain that validity refers to how well a test/questionnaire measures what it is intended to measure; whereas reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results across participants' responses in cross-sectional surveys.

A high-quality study is both valid and reliable; however, this is not always the case in published research (Bowling, 2005). To better understand validity and reliability, Klassen (2014) provides an explanation in Figure 3.2, below:

Figure 3.2 Assessing validity and reliability of research.

Reliable, not Valid   Valid, not Reliable   Neither Valid, nor Reliable   Both Valid, and Reliable
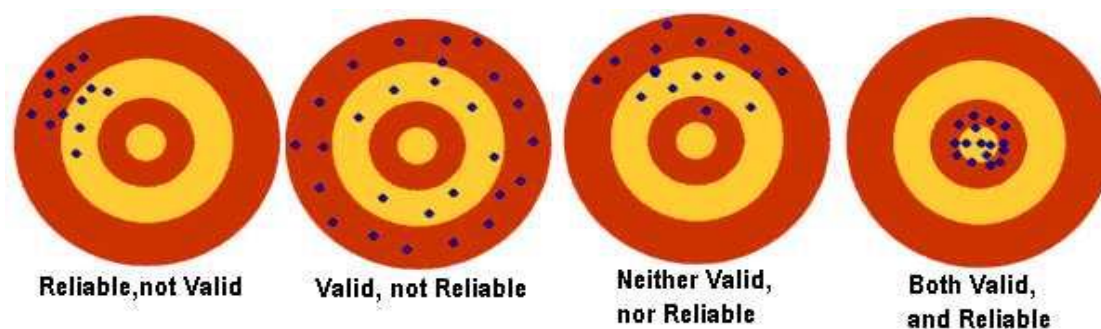
Source: Klassen (2014).

Klassen explains that:

Reliable, not Valid: occurs when measurements are consistent (clustered), but they do not hit the target. This missing the target usually indicates that the concepts [being measured] require substantial rethinking (Klassen, 2014). **Valid, not Reliable:** occurs when measures are scattered widely around the target but they are not tightly clustered. This wide spread indicates that the indicators are not focused on the core concepts (Klassen, 2014). Deleting

items with low alphas (below 0.7) can help to improve reliability for tests of internal consistency of scales (Pallant, 2005). **Neither Valid, nor Reliable:** occurs when measures are scattered but not focused around a core concept. This missing the target without clustering indicates that the entire tool needs to be rethought (Klassen, 2014). The tool/scale has no coherent structure, and participants do not respond to items in the scale in a consistent way (Pallant, 2005). **Both Valid and Reliable:** The measurements are consistent and tightly focused around the core concept. This indicates that the tool is a solid measure of the concept (Klassen, 2014).

Most published standardised measurement instruments have high validity and reliability, as a result of repeated testing and revision (Bowling, 2005). However, it can be an issue when a researcher has constructed a new/adapted questionnaire; hence validity and reliability should be assessed and reported in every study.

3.9.1 Validity

According to Collis and Hussey (2009) and Hair et al. (2010), validity is the extent to which a concept, conclusion or measurement is well-founded and corresponds accurately with what is really happening in reality. Yin (2009) proposes the following types of validity as appropriate for a case study design:

- Internal validity is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationships. Thus, internal validity is only relevant in studies that try to establish a causal relationship. This requires the use of appropriate analysis techniques to ensure that theories and data are consistent (Yin, 2009). In this research, general analytical procedures for qualitative data analysis were used. Also, draft transcripts of interviews were validated by participants to make sure that they accurately represent what they have said. Moreover, the researcher documented the fieldwork, in both the data collection phase and the analysis, in a manner that allows others to examine and confirm the validity of the procedures and conclusions.

- External validity is the extent to which the results of a study can be generalised to other situations and people, and is more relevant to quantitative research, which makes inferences from the sample to the population of interest, than qualitative

research, which is not generalisable to the population, but is transferrable to similar settings (Bowling, 2005). External validity in surveys is affected by sample size, sampling strategy, and sample composition, as these will affect how representative the sample is of the target population. This requires carefully selecting participants and explaining why and how each participant was chosen. Larger sample sizes increase external validity (i.e. the ability to generalise the results to the study population) (Bowling, 2005); and random sampling strategies increase external validity; whereas non-random sampling strategies introduce selection and sampling bias. This is due to the fact that not every eligible individual has an equal opportunity of being chosen to participate; and some individuals who self-select to participate may differ from the typical population in their views or experiences (Bowling, 2005). Riege (2003) argues that case studies depend on analytical generalisation in order to achieve external validity, whereby particular findings are generalised to some broader theory. He also states that the external validity problem has been a major impediment in conducting case studies, and recommends some tactics, shown in Table 3.9, to overcome this.

Table 3.9 Tests and techniques for establishing internal and external validity and reliability of case-study research

Case study design tests	Design tests	Case study techniques	Qualitative techniques	Phases of research in which techniques are used
Construct validity	- Conforming to the philosophical nature of the research	- Utilises various sources of evidence - Creates range of evidence - Main research participants are involved in reviewing the draft of the research	- Assessing the data, derived findings, interpretation of findings and derived conclusion and recommendation through conformability audit	- Data collection - Data collection - Data collection and analysis
Internal validity	- Giving research credibility	- Matching the patterns of the data through cross-research analysis - Interpretation is based on building explanations	- Triangulation of data - Transparency in the research through self-monitoring and ensuring the	- Data analysis - Data analysis - Data collection and data analysis

		- Systematically linking internal coherence and concepts used in the findings	researcher stays objective and avoids subjectivism	
External validity	- Transferability	- Use of replicative logic identified in multiple case-study research - Identify, define and understand the research scope and its limits for establishing analytical generalisation for the research	- Pre-determined and focused questions - Cross-case analysis	- Data analysis - Research design - Data collection
Reliability	- Upholding research protocols - Organising, developing and updating research database	- Checking reliability of the data through matching the results with the relevant past research	- Identifying relevant research	- Data analysis

Source: Riege (2003).

In this research, numerous interviews with police leaders at senior level in one organisational case study (the Ministry of the Interior in the UAE) are conducted in order to achieve replication and theoretical (analytical) generalisation.

- Construct validity in case-study research concerns whether empirical data in multiple situations lead to the same conclusions, and whether these data are improved by using multiple sources of evidence (Voss et al., 2002; Yin, 2009). Moreover, Collis and Hussey (2009) explain construct validity in terms of there being phenomena which are not directly observable, such as motivation, satisfaction and ambition, which exist as constructs which may explain observable phenomena and which should be accurately defined, operationalised and measured. To increase construct validity, the researcher used multiple sources of data collection to ensure that the constructs of LC and LE are accurately measured by interviews, questionnaire and documentation.

To increase the construct validity of the qualitative research, the interview questions were carefully prepared to ensure they accurately assessed the constructs under investigation; and were refined with the help of the doctoral supervisor until the researcher and his supervisor were satisfied they were suitable.

Furthermore, member checking was done throughout the interview process to increase the credibility and validity of the qualitative study. All interview transcripts were sent to the participants by the researcher for their feedback. They were returned with some minor modifications. The goal of this process, as discussed above, is to ensure authenticity of the transcribed data.

3.9.2 Reliability

Concerning reliability, if the same phenomenon is measured more than once with the same instrument, then the same results should be obtained (Mason, 2004). Thus, a measure is reliable if it produces the same results when used repeatedly. Whilst quantitative studies lead to higher levels of reliability, it is difficult to replicate qualitative studies exactly and obtain the same results (Maylor and Blackmon, 2005).

Yin (2003) suggests that two tactics to achieve reliability are the use of a case-study protocol or the development of a database, and both are included in the data collection phase, as shown in Table 3.9. A formal protocol is significant for ensuring that procedures are consistent across case studies. The case study protocols include a research design/process, a set of semi-structured interview questions, and data analysis techniques. In this study, all the steps taken in carrying out the case study were clearly explained.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct this research project was sought from ARU Ethics Committee. The research proposal included full details of the research design, study population, sample and setting, sampling strategy, inclusion and exclusion criteria, research timeline, data collection tools and procedure, ethical considerations, and data analysis strategy. The appendices included a range of recruitment criteria including Ethics approval, Participant Information Sheet, Participant Consent Form, Interview Questions and Survey Questionnaires. The study was approved on 22nd December 2014.

This section outlines the main ethical considerations that the researcher needed to consider in his research (Remenyi et al., 1998, pp.227-238). Cooper and Schindler (2008, p. 34; cited in Saunders et al., 2009) define ethics as the *"norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others."* According to Remenyi (1998, p.227) ethics in research go beyond moral considerations of right and wrong (Singer,

1994), but are essential for a major doctoral research project "*not to be queried on the grounds of questionable ethical practice*" (Remenyi et al., 1998, p.227). Ethical considerations ensure that there is no breach of trust; that the doctoral research study is warranted; and is competently conducted; is for research purposes only; provides openness with informants and ensures integrity of the evidence; acknowledges assistance from others; ensures originality (not theft) of ideas; and safeguards all participants and data collected in the course of the study. The rationale underpinning considering the above-mentioned factors is to ensure avoidance of risk to the participants, target organisation, or university; to ensure that research participants are aware of the research purpose, nature and duration of the study, and what their involvement in the study will require; that participation will be voluntary with informed consent obtained; all the participants must be informed that they possess the right to withdraw themselves from the research at any point without explanation; that no deception is involved in the study; that all data collected will be stored confidentially and all identities of the participants anonymised to protect their anonymity; and that the researcher is competent to conduct the study professionally (Bowling, 2005; Remenyi et al., 1998).

According to Fontana and Frey (2005), these ethical concerns in research revolve around three essential topics: informed consent, the right to privacy, and protection from harm. Accordingly, the researcher has implemented the following steps to ensure that all ethical considerations were met:

- Participants were informed (briefed and debriefed) regarding the purpose of the research and the way their response is going to be used, following which they provided informed consent.
- The personal information of the research participants and safeguarding of the confidential documents achieved from the UAE police organisation was protected securely, along with anonymity of the participants (see below for details on how confidentiality and anonymity were ensured).
- Participants took part in the research in a voluntary manner, free from any coercion or deception, and had the right to and awareness that they could withdraw from the research at any point without penalty.

From the perspective of the researcher, breaches of confidentiality and anonymity were deemed to be the main risk to the participants in this study, because they might lead to the disclosure of negative comments made by the participants about their employers/leaders or co-workers; which could have potential negative repercussions. This is particularly true of in-depth interviews, where the senior leaders could not talk openly and freely about their views on UAE police leadership, unless they had complete assurance of the confidentiality of their conversation; and anonymity of their identity. As the researcher is an 'insider' in the organisation, it was essential that he build and protect the trust established with each co-informant, who might on the one hand feel a shared understanding with the researcher as they are members of an 'in-group' (the UAE police organisation/leaders), who understand this context and setting well, but may also feel a possible unease, as the researcher does not leave once the research is completed, but is an employee (still present) in the organisation. Hence, the researcher must clearly separate his identity as a police leader and his identity as a doctoral researcher; and maintain appropriate professional boundaries, respect and trust. To maintain strict anonymity of participant identities, the researcher used code numbers for participants in both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study without knowing the identity of the participant. In addition, transcripts of the interviews and completed questionnaires were stored securely in a safe place. The following measures were taken to ensure the integrity and transparency of the research:

- Transcript of the raw data were placed in the researcher's own safe.
- Computer that was used for the processing of the raw data is the author's own personal computer.
- The computer that was used for the processing of the raw data was further password-protected.
- Folder in which files related to the quantitative data was saved password-protected.
- All the documentary evidence was accessed through the consent of the police management.
- After analysis, documentary evidences were returned to the relevant department.
- Transcripts of the raw data for both survey and interviews were disposed of after electronic processing. For the purpose of disposal, the transcripts were burnt.

A related risk of the research is the probability that participants would not provide honest and accurate information on the topic of investigation, despite the assurances of confidentiality. This may be due to socially desirable responding/impression management (Bowling, 2005); whereby mid-level/senior leaders want to give a positive impression of LC in the UAE police, so as not to damage the reputation of their organisation; and/or to reflect well on themselves. The participants may also wish to please the researcher, by telling him what they think he wants to know, and/or they may wish to frustrate the research efforts through omission or misinformation. Participants may also feel nervous about being interviewed on such a sensitive/political topic as leadership, or be afraid of revealing confidential information that they are not meant to disclose. To attempt to minimise these risks of information bias, the researcher used large samples for the quantitative phase of the study, and undertook lengthy and in-depth involvement with the interviewees in the qualitative phase of the study, to build trust, and increase the probability that the results are based on accurate data, taking time to put interview participants at ease during the interview warm-up, in order to build empathy, using an open conversational interview style, listening with interest and respect, and observing participants' body language for signs of ease, avoidance, or discomfort.

There is also a possibility of researcher bias, which could affect data collection in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Drawing on Smith and Noble (2014), research bias is defined as a deliberate attempt to prejudice or conceal facts to gain personal benefits. This is because of the high degree of personal interaction between the researcher and the participants of the study as mutual employees of the UAE police organisation. Both parties may have an interest in presenting a positive image of UAE police leadership; and/or the researcher may notice more of those LC mentioned that he has experience of/approves of. However, to maintain integrity of the research, this author has exposed both positive and negative aspects of the police department in the UAE. For instance, in the first chapter of this research discussion has been provided that exposes the incidents in which policing in the UAE has been maligned by unethical behaviour - for instance, the alleged brutal handling of the cases of the two British men was discussed and the authoritarian style of the police leadership was criticised for not being able to handle the case appropriately (Charlton, 2016). These issues justify the integrity of the research.

Moreover, bias of the research could also be influenced during the data collection process particularly when the respondent is probably going to become the superior of the author in his/her future career as could be the case in this research. For instance, the researcher's interview style might vary depending on his working relationship with each informant (as co-employees), which could influence the quality and content of each interview. To ensure that personal relationship does not influence transparency of the conclusion derived in this research, it has been ensured that all the participants were provided with similar questionnaires in both interview and survey. Moreover, participants were informed about their rights such that they can withdraw from the research at any point and that they are not obliged to answer all the questions. Moreover, personal identity of any of the participants was disclosed at any time of the research.

The researcher is also somewhat biased by having conducted a thorough literature review, in advance, on this topic, which may influence the characteristics he looks for in the data. Moreover, the literature largely overlooked the Arab police leadership context, which as a fellow Arab, the researcher may also overlook during interviews and analysis, as people do not tend to notice idiosyncrasies of their own culture, as they are insiders (i.e. cultural blindness bias) (Gould, 1980a; Remenyi et al., 1998, p.231). To reduce these risks, the researcher employed a triangulation approach with the mixed methods to reduce the impact of researcher bias through the use of multiple collection and analysis procedures to verify the integrity of the evidence (Creswell, 2002; Hubbard, 1979; Remenyi et al., 1998).

3.11 Chapter summary

This chapter has described and justified the research paradigm underpinning this study which is *pragmatism*, a contemporary approach which allows for mixing of different research philosophies, such as positivism and phenomenology in one study, for example, in case study management research (Remenyi et al., 1998; Yin, 1994).

The study aims were exploratory, descriptive and inductive, to collect novel, descriptive data on the characteristics of effective leaders in the UAE police, in order to develop a conceptual model to enhance leadership theory and practice, in the context of the Arab world, and specifically in the Emirates. Thereby, the concepts of LC and LE of the senior leadership in the UAE police were identified through interviews and questionnaires. Then, the CPSLC in the UAE police are considered through documents as a tool for data collection and

questionnaires. After that, the key LC that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future are identified through interviews and questionnaires. Finally, the impacts of LC on LE are identified. This is achieved through critical analysis of objective 3 which is to investigate the key LC that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future. Next, the key LC of effective leaders in the UAE police are identified in order to develop a model of SLC for the UAE police organisations.

The author selected a cross-sectional sequential mixed-methods approach (documentary evidence, interviews, survey), as he deemed it appropriate to conduct interviews with a small sample (N=25) of senior leaders; followed by a larger, more representative sample of operational leaders (target N=600). The results from multiple data-collection sources were then integrated, and used to inform developments of a new conceptual model of effective leadership characteristics in the UAE police organisation. The primary research findings are based on perceptions of leaders. Hence, the model requires validation in future research to ensure it is an accurate tool for predicting leadership success.

Data presentation, analysis, and discussion are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described the methodological approach adopted for this mixed-methods research, including research designs, research paradigms, research philosophies, research methodologies and research strategies. It has also shown how the adopted research philosophy was identified, chosen and justified. The setting, population, sample, ethical considerations, data collection procedure and instruments used to collect data have also been described, as well as the ways in which these data were analysed.

To reiterate, the main aim of this PhD research study was "To develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations". This chapter reports the data analysis findings for each of the following five study objectives:

1) Investigate the concept of leadership characteristics and the leadership effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

2) Investigate the current predominant senior leadership characteristics in the UAE police.

3) Investigate the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future.

4) Investigate the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

5) Identify the key leadership characteristics of effective leaders in the UAE police in order to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations.

Initial sample profiles for the interview and survey participants will be described in detail, followed by an integration of the qualitative and quantitative findings (with qualitative leading) to address each research objective, in turn. This allows readers to understand the thought processes and meanings behind the interview informants' responses, followed by the

broader pattern of responses from the survey respondents, which minimises the risk of researcher bias being embedded in the interpretation, and allows for any inconsistencies or similarities between findings from the two data collection methods to spur further critical analysis and insight. The researcher then interprets the significance of these primary research findings in relation to what is already known about the research problem from the reviewed literature. The discussion part of this chapter also links to the introduction in Chapter 1, by answering the research questions that the researcher formulated, and to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The literature review undertook an in-depth review of a number of case studies (for example, Jermier and Berkes, 1979Bass, 1985; MacDonald, 1986; Dantzker, 1996; Stephens,1996; Densten, 2003; Morreale, 2003; Dobby et al., 2004; Fleming, 2004; Murphy and Drodge, 2004; Adebayo, 2005; Greenbaum, 2006; Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2007; Kouzes and Posner, 2007; Yocum, 2007 and Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008) in order to identify the key LC of effective leaders.

The literature review findings show evidence that there are some LC that can be considered essential. There is a strong consensus regarding what makes an effective leader. With regard to this review of the literature, we can summarise the characteristics of effective leaders; these are organisational commitment, influencing and improving performance, decision making, caring for subordinates, credibility, experimenting and taking risks, and political skills. Overall, the discussion of findings explicates how this study has increased our understanding of the SLC of the UAE police, from an in-depth review of the literature, supported by qualitative and quantitative data, and based upon a logical synthesis of the findings. The researcher explores potential improvements of the police leadership that could be made to develop this research further.

The survey data were analysed using IBM SPSS (Statistical Package Program for the Social Sciences) version 22 for the descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.1.1 Profile of Interview Participants

The study population for interviews consisted of police leaders at the senior level, represented by the commanders-in-chief, their deputies, and directors-general in accordance with the organisational structure of the MOI (Home Office) in the UAE. The researcher specifically chose the participants in this phase because they are more likely to provide quality data in situations where a) they understand the purpose of the research; b) for their ability to adapt to

many and varying situations at an extremely high level; c) they have confidence in the professionalism of the interviewer; and d) where the interviewer is experienced. Therefore, purposeful sampling was used for the qualitative phase in order to select the most appropriate participants for the study. Twenty-five interviews were conducted with eight commanders-in-chief, seven deputy commanders-in-chief, and ten director generals (see Table 4.1). All interviewees were male. Limited demographic information was gathered during the interviews, to prevent identification of the individual participants. This limits transferability of the interview findings to other settings. However, these participants' views are assumed to reflect their police 'position', rather than specific demographic characteristics (such as age, education, tenure, etc.) In addition, each interview had time constraints, preventing detailed demographic questionnaires from being collected. To protect interviewees' identities, the researcher committed to conduct the research within Anglia Ruskin University ethical guidelines, so that all results are reported using random numbers to protect individual identities (for example, participant 1, participant 2, etc.). These interviews averaged 60 minutes in duration, ranging from 45 minutes to 1:15 minutes. Data were obtained from audio-recorded dialogue and in some stages via verbatim transcription. The analysis of interview data was conducted using NVivo version 11 qualitative data analysis software.

Table 4.1 Breakdown of the interviews sample by post in the general headquarters of police (N=25 males)

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
What is your post in the general headquarters of police?	Commander-in-chief	8	32%
	The deputies of commanders-in-chief	7	28%
	Directors-general of the MOI	10	40%
	Total	25	100%

Source: Field study.

4.1.2 Profile of Survey Participants

The study population for the quantitative survey consisted of operational leaders who hold leading positions in police departments in the UAE (i.e., departmental managers and heads of division). As mentioned by Adair (2011) an operational leader is the leader of one of the main parts of the organisation with more than one team leader under his/her control. A stratified sample was selected randomly to ensure the inclusion of all police ranks, so that every eligible police officer had an equal chance of participating in the survey. The

researcher chose the participants in this phase due to their dealings with the senior police leadership on whether to observe directly or indirectly through their work, and who therefore were considered most qualified to identify the characteristics possessed by leaders in policing organisations. Questionnaires were distributed to 600 operational leaders consisting of the department managers and heads of division. Of that number, 513 fully completed questionnaires were returned (85.5% response rate). The response rate exceeds 80%, which is the threshold to enable valid inferences to be made from a sample to the population (Sivo, 2006). Table 4.2 (below) shows that the achieved sample size was 513 police officers in total, of which 304 participants were heads of division (59.3%), and 209 participants were departmental managers (40.7%).

Table 4.2 Breakdown of the survey sample by post in the police department (N=513)

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
What is your post in the administration?	Department managers	209	40.7%
	Heads of division	304	59.3%
	Total	513	100.0%

Source: Field study.

Table 4.3 (below) presents the demographic characteristics of the survey sample. The results show that the vast majority (95.5 %, n=490) of participants are male. The researcher realises that the participant samples of women are low (4.5 %, n=23). In recent times, females have started to get the opportunity to get high-ranking promotions in the UAE police organisations, so this number is representative for females. Further, 42.5% (n=218) of the sample are under the age of 40 years; 42.3% (n=217) are lieutenant colonels, the large majority (71.5%, n=367) have attained Bachelor's degree educational level, and 52.8% (n=271) have more than 20 years of experience in the police organisations, followed by 46.5% who have 11-20 years of experience. Hence, the typical survey participant is male, university degree educated, with over at least one decade of police experience.

Table 4.3 Demographic characteristics of the survey sample (N=513)

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
Gender	Male	**490**	**95.5%**
	Female	23	4.5%
Age	30-39 years	218	42.5%
	40-49 years	**273**	**53.2%**
	50-59 years	19	3.7%
	60 years and older	3	0.6%
Military Rank	Colonel	162	31.6%
	Lieutenant Colonel	**217**	**42.3%**
	Major	109	21.2%
	Captain	15	2.9%
	First Lieutenant	10	1.9%
Educational level	Diploma	15	2.9%
	B.A. Degree	**367**	**71.5%**
	Higher Diploma	38	7.4%
	MA	68	13.3%
	Doctorate	15	2.9%
Experience in the police organisations	5-10 years	8	1.6%
	11-20 years	234	45.6%
	More than 20 years	**271**	**52.8%**

Source: Field study.

4.2 Research Objective 1

Objective 1 of this study was to **investigate the concept of leadership characteristics and the concept of leadership effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.** This objective was addressed through analysis of the literature, the senior police participants' responses to interview question one, and operational police participants' responses to survey section (B), question eight.

4.2.1 The Concept of Leadership Characteristics - The Interview Findings

To investigate the senior leaders' concept of LC, the researcher posed the following question: "How would you define leadership characteristics in the UAE police organisations?" Five themes emerged from the transcript data, which defined LC as qualities, the ability to influence others, traits, behaviour, and skills. The relative frequency of each category mentioned is presented in Table 4.4. The two largest categorisations were Qualities, which was mentioned by 50% of the interviewees, and ability to influence, which was mentioned by 21% of the interviewees. A much smaller proportion of interviewees categorised LC as traits (13% of interviewees) and behaviour (13% of interviewees), while skills was mentioned by only one interviewee. Hence, the most prevalent concept of LC had to do with personality, rather than a behavioural model of leadership.

Table 4.4 Definition of leadership characteristics from the perspectives of senior leaders (including commanders-in-chief, their deputies and the directors-general)

Definition of leadership characteristics	Frequency of Mention, n (%)	TOTALS
Qualities	19 (50%)	19
Ability to influence	8 (21%)	8
Traits	5 (13%)	5
Behaviour	5 (13%)	5
Skills	1 (3%)	1
TOTAL	38	38

Source: P 1: Transcripts.doc

The following Figure (4.1) shows further illustrates the relative frequency of each categorisation.

Figure 4.1 Definitions of leadership characteristics by the senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and the directors-general) in the UAE police (N=25)
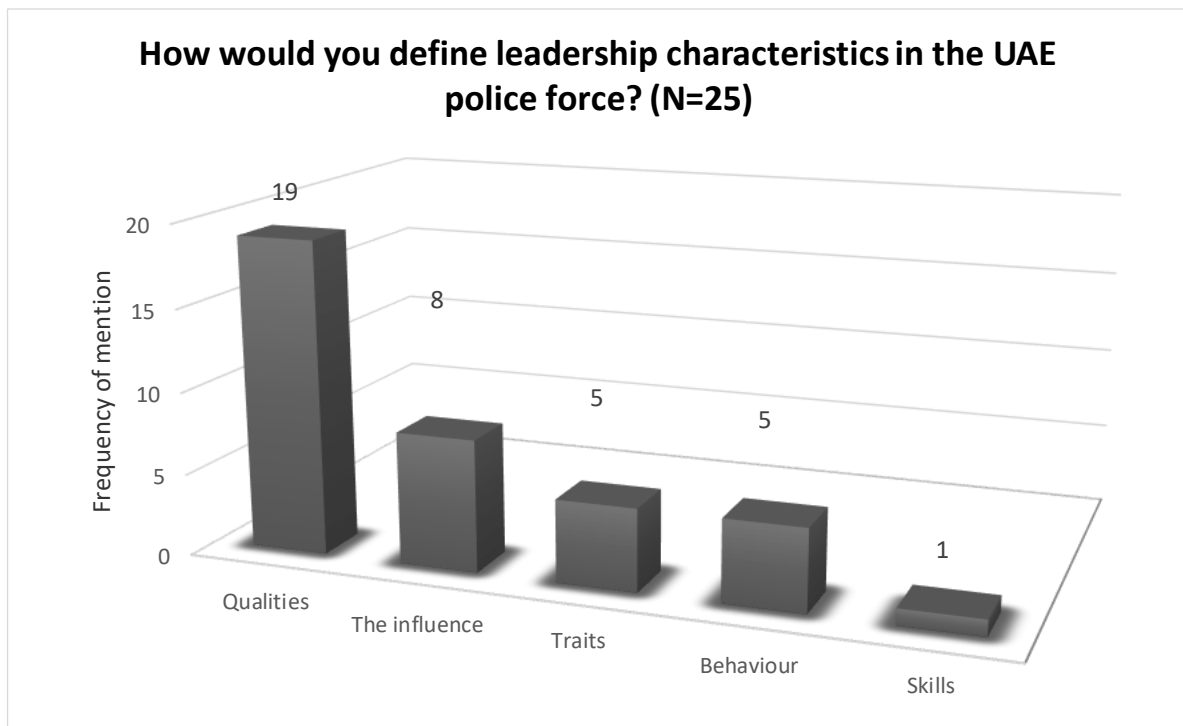
Each of these themes is described in detail below with supporting quotations from the transcripts as exemplary evidence for each theme.

Overarching Themes

Theme 1: Leadership as personal qualities

At least eight of the participants distinctly referenced LC as **personal qualities**, which a leader possesses, which distinguish a leader, which determine their willingness to interact with their staff and situations, or to maintain distance; they are personal qualities which can inspire subordinates to voluntarily follow them, and which can influence them to achieve the organisation's desired goals. For example:

> *"They are **a set of personal qualities** that a leader possesses, which captures the hearts and minds of his/her subordinates".* (Participant 1)

"They are a set of personal qualities that distinguish a leader, which determine the extent to which he/she is prepared to interact with the surrounding atmosphere that includes subordinates and different situations". (Participant 2)

*"They are the **personal qualities** that inspire others and make them follow their leader passionately and enthusiastically".* (Participant 4)

*"They are a set of **distinctive personal qualities** through which a leader can influence others to attain his/her goals".* (Participant 8)

*"They are **leadership qualities** that relate to influencing people to reach the desired goals".* (Participant 14)

*"They are **a set of qualities** a leader possesses which distinguish him/her from others, and make his/her subordinates follow him/her voluntarily".* (Participant 15)

*"They are the **personal qualities** possessed by the leader which enable him/her deal with different circumstances".* (Participant 17)

*"They are **integrated patterns of personal qualities** of a leader that distinguish him/her from others, and enhance his/her effectiveness in dealing with his/her subordinates or w facing different circumstances".* (Participant 20)

Theme 2: Leadership as the ability to influence others

Some participants described the ability to influence others as the key characteristics of leaders, and that this ability is related to the leader's personal qualities, whether inherited or developed by experience:

*"In my view, the essence of leadership **is to influence others**. The influential power stems from the positive impact that subordinates feel from their leader. Consequently, leadership characteristics are the influential personal qualities that a leader owns, whether inherited or acquired, to direct others".* (Participant 5)

Theme 3: Leadership as traits

At least three of the participants referred to leadership as traits, and in comparison to the above, gave a more psychological/scientific definition of traits, but - similar to qualities - they

were described as distinctive, which can vary from person to person (i.e., everyone has traits, but not everyone has leadership qualities), and which can be innate or developed by experience, i.e., they are inter-related genetic, environmental, and/or educational factors. A limitation of these definitions of leadership as traits is that participants have described what 'traits' are, but have not described what traits are specific to leadership. They have just described general traits.

> *"Leadership characteristics are the set of **distinctive traits** that a leader possesses, be they innate or acquired over the years".* (Participant 9)

> *"They are the **traits that distinguish** the leader from others, which depend on genetic, environmental and educational factors and correlate positively with the cohesion between one factor and the other".* (Participant 10)

> *"They are the **personal traits** of a leader, which vary from person to person, including cognitive traits such as (forward-looking abilities, culture, intelligence, etc. ...); social traits (such as good communication with others, the art of dealing and capturing hearts, etc. ...) besides other traits".* (Participant 23)

While the views of these respondents include a behavioural perspective, they still define LC using a TT of leadership, i.e., starting with personal qualities/traits, which influence a leader's behaviour, and ability to influence others. This is consistent with Deborah (2001) who defined leadership as an ability to influence others, and described a leader as an individual who is capable of visualising an improved environment in the future and able to convince others to join him/her. Killian (2007) described a leader as any individual who has followers, and stated that all leaders should have influence over their subordinates. This concept is also supported by Northouse (2013, p.5), who asserted that "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common target". Moreover, Northouse (2013) believed that every individual has unique characteristics or traits that can influence one's own actions. These personal elements possessed by leaders give them particular or distinct characteristics that make them unique.

At least two of the participants used the terms 'qualities' and 'traits' interchangeably, and they consider that these qualities or traits of a leader can be inherited or developed by experience, that make him distinct from others. Eight participants mentioned that leadership qualities or traits are something that makes that person **distinct/distinguished from others.** For example:

> *"They denote **a set of qualities or traits** that a leader possesses, whether inherited or acquired through expertise and experience over the years, in order to lead others voluntarily and willingly to accomplish a public benefit".* (Participant 11)

> *"They are the **personal qualities and basic traits** of a leader that make him distinct from others".* (Participant 12)

The five characteristics of leadership defined by the UAE senior police interview participants are in line with previous literature that reflects the importance of the personal characteristics of the leaders, such as qualities, traits, and behaviours. Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell (2010) defined the leadership characteristics as qualities and capabilities of the leader in a certain position to achieve the required outcome. Miltenberger (2004) added that leadership qualities are the abilities of the leaders to lead and direct their subordinates without misusing their powers, and inspiring their staff while bearing in mind that their behaviours are always imitated by their subordinates. According to Bass (1990) personality theorists see leadership as a one-way influence: leaders possess qualities that differentiate them from those who follow them. Ram (2007) asserted that leadership personalities may have distinctive leadership qualities, particularly those that distinguish personal characteristics and make leaders socially likable.

According to Chemers' (1997) expert opinion, traits could be important for the individual. Those who possess these traits (like initiative, energy, aggressiveness, persistence, masculinity and sometimes authority) are usually committed to pursuing their objectives, work long hours, and are ambitious and much more competitive than others. Howell (2012) indicated that cognitive capacity is comprised of intellectual, analytical and verbal abilities, behavioural suppleness and sound judgment, which reflects the participants' descriptions above concerning leadership traits. Leaders who possess such traits are constantly

formulating solutions to complex problems, performing better under stress or to strict deadlines, adapting to fluctuating circumstances, and creating well-organised future plans. He added that the trait of self-confidence makes a leader acceptable to the public as he applies diplomatic methods while solving issues. It also assists them in retaining the ability to adapt their social identity to the situations at hand.

Theme 4: Leadership as behaviour

Only one participant explicitly described LC as a behavioural pattern, which distinguishes a leader from others. With this behavioural pattern, the leader can influence others.

> "*It is a **behavioural pattern** which distinguishes a leader from others. When it is said 'so and so has no personality', it means that he/she doesn't have special qualities. On the other hand, when it is said 'so and so has a strong personality', it means that he/she has an **influential personality** towards others and has an independent entity and will*". (Participant 24)

Theme 5: Leadership as skills

Only one participant referred to LC as skills in addition to qualities, specifically they set the leader apart (make him/her distinctive) from others:

> "*They relate to **qualities and skills** that a leader possesses which set him apart from others and through which he/she can influence others to achieve organisational objectives*". (Participant 3)

In summary, personal qualities was the dominant categorisation of leadership according to 25 senior police leaders, followed by the ability to influence others. Although participants did not describe attributes of those personal qualities in depth, they repeatedly referred to something that distinguishes the leader from others that 'makes them distinct.' This may be the 'charisma' or 'natural authority' in the literature, which enables these individuals to influence others to achieve the police organisation's goals. Notably, decision-making, which is considered a key characteristic of leadership in the West, was not mentioned by the participants. This may reflect their collectivist, high power distance hierarchical culture, where even senior leaders are implementing decisions from the top-down (from The

Ministry), using their personal qualities to influence others and achieve the organisation's goals, rather than thinking strategically, independently, and initiating change. It would be useful for future research on the UAE police to examine in more detail what specific personal qualities are considered to characterise effective leaders. Collaboration with other senior leaders was also not mentioned as a characteristic of effective leaders in UAE police; neither was being recognised as an expert in their field, nor were effective communication, negotiation, delegation, leading meetings and solving problems. Hence, we do not know if these are not desired characteristics of UAE police leaders, or were simply not disclosed.

4.2.2 The Concept of Leadership Characteristics - Survey Questionnaire Findings

Next, the researcher examines the conceptualisation of leadership from a larger survey sample of 513 participants, to see if the views of the 25 senior police leadership interviewees correspond with a larger, more representative sample of the operational UAE police, represented by the departmental managers and heads of division in the MOI in the UAE. The researcher posed the following survey question: "In your view, leadership characteristics can be linked to which of the following traits", where respondents were asked to indicate if they conceive LC as being personality, behaviour and skills, all of these, or something else (other). In the surveys, question items with nominal response options (e.g., choose from categories) were adopted to check the first objective, while ordinal response options (ranked responses) were used to check the second, third and fourth objectives measured on a five-level Likert scale, as follows:

Table 4.5 The five-level Likert scale used in the study tool

Classification	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Weight	1	2	3	4	5

In order to determine the degree of importance of the sample responses in relation to the different leadership standards, the researcher used arithmetic means and standard deviation, and determined the rank of each question according to its importance (where rank 5 means the most important). Similarly, the arithmetic means were divided into five intervals to match the scale used in this tool in order to explain the degree of importance, as shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 The arithmetic means on the five-level Likert scale used to determine the degree of importance

Arithmetic mean	1 - 1.79	1.80 - 2.59	2.60 - 3.39	3.40 - 4.20	4.21 - 5.0
Degree of importance	Extremely poor	Below average	Average	Above average	Excellent

Source: Abdel Fattah, Izz Hassan (2008). Introduction to descriptive statistics and inferential statistics using SPSS. Jeddah, Khwarizm Academic.

Table 4.7 (below) shows survey respondents' conceptions of LC ranked from highest to lowest, for department managers and heads of division. Whereas the senior leaders in the interviews described five LC (personal qualities, ability to influence others, traits, behaviour, skills), four options were presented to survey participants (personality, behaviour, skills, all of them), based on the literature.

Table 4.7 The concept of leadership characteristics from the perspectives of departmental managers and heads of division

Leadership characteristics	Department managers			Heads of division		
	Number	Percentage	Rank	Number	Percentage	Rank
Personality	160	76.6%	1	163	53.6%	1
Behaviour	1	.5%	3	4	1.3%	4
Skills	1	.5%	3	5	1.6%	3
All of the above	47	22.5%	2	130	42.8%	2
Others	0	%0	0	2	.7	5
Chi-Square Statistic	28.5					
Significance level	.001					

A 5 (Q1 item response) x 2 (police position) Chi-square test was performed to see if the views between the departmental managers and heads of division groups differed significantly in their conceptualisation of LC, which was highly significant at the p<.001 level. Table 4.7 shows that LC were most frequently associated with personality (76.6% of department managers), whereas fewer heads of division held this view (53.6%). Only one survey respondent selected behaviour, and only one selected skills; whereas 22.5% of the participants indicated that LC involve All of the Above.

This is interesting as these survey results are in line with the interview findings of the senior police leaders, as Personality in the survey question refers to both personal qualities and traits, which were mentioned by the senior leaders, and selected as the dominant response by operational leaders in the survey. Similarly, one-fifth of the survey respondents characterised leadership as involving All of the Above (i.e., personality, behaviour, skills), which was also reflected in many participants' interview responses, as they also described how personal qualities influence the leader's behaviour, and are also affected by their skills.

Having addressed above the definition of characteristics of leadership based on senior police leaders' interviews and survey of operational leaders in UAE police organisations, which is part of research objective 1, the following section addresses the second part of research objective 1, which is the concept of LE in the UAE police.

4.2.3 The concept of leadership effectiveness - The Interview Findings

Two major themes emerged on the concept of LE from the interview discussion including (1) having a **positive impact** on others and (2) **achieving the desired results**, as expressed clearly by participants 2, 3, 4, 9, 13, 15 and 17, below:

> *"As a result, I think that leadership effectiveness refers to achieving the desired results and having a positive impact on others"*. (Participant 2)

> *"I think that leadership effectiveness is related to the extent of achieving organisational goals and meeting the needs of the society within which we live"*. (Participant 3)

> *"We can say that achieving leadership effectiveness through personal characteristics constitutes the ability to make a positive impact both on subordinates and situations"*. (Participant 4)

> *"When we talk about leader effectiveness in terms of its meaning, we say that it is the successful practice of a leader to be able to influence others to accomplish specific goals"*. (Participant 9)

> *"Thus, the leaders' effectiveness is determined by the extent of achieving goals"*. (Participant 13)

"In my view, leadership effectiveness depends on the ability of a leader to reach the desired results through dealing with others and influencing them to achieve the required business objectives. The higher the positive influence on others, the more wonderful the results would be". (Participant 15)

"Leadership effectiveness means achieving specific goals through a leader's behaviour resulting from the possessed personal characteristics when dealing with others". (Participant 17)

The results show that there are different responses in how LE is understood; the majority of the interview participants of senior leaders (56%) agreed that LE can be defined as the ability to make a positive impact/influence on others and achieve the desired results. That is; eight participants described LE as the ability to have a positive impact /influence on others and achieve the desired results. Four participants defined LE as achieving the organisation's goal only, while two participants described LE as the ability to have a positive impact /influence on others only. On the other hand, 11 interview participants (44%) provided definitions which reflect that their understanding of LE was not in line with that of the other participants, and it seems that there is still a lack of understanding of LE in police organisations. This group variously defined LE as the ability to control the employees' performance, the process to accomplish tasks in less time, and with less effort and cost (this reflects a misunderstanding between effectiveness and efficiency), and to implement the orders and instructions. Accordingly, this research aims to assist senior leaders to achieve a better understanding of what LE means, and to contribute to the development of the concept of leadership effectiveness among leaders in the UAE police organisations.

These two themes (positive impact, achieving organisational goals) support previous literature (Ayoko and Konrad, 2012; Hamlin and Patel, 2012; Ajay et al., 2013; Hassan et al., 2013; Paulsen et al., 2013) which reports a behavioural approach to leadership: that effectiveness of leadership can be assessed by the outcomes of leadership behaviours such as having a positive impact on subordinates and the situation, and achieving specific goals of the police organisation. They are also in line with Brandt and Laiho (2013) who stated that the traits (e.g., 'possessed personal characteristics', and 'able to influence others' mentioned by the interview participants) which largely contribute towards LE include motivation,

achievement orientation, conflict resolution, and emotional intelligence (although these specific traits were not mentioned by the interview participants). Willcocks (2012) proposed that LE can be defined as the way a leader performs his or her duties. The interview findings suggest that LE for UAE police leaders means more than just 'performing duties,' as having a positive impact on subordinates and situations is broader than just meeting duties, as is achieving police organisations' goals. Furthermore, the interview findings echo the views of Ajay et al. (2013) who explained that leadership is effective when leaders are able to develop and achieve specific goals, and when they have the ability to motivate followers (e.g., 'able to influence others'), and increase cooperation, trust, and confidence among followers ('having a positive influence/impact').

This is the first study to explore the concept of LE in the UAE police organisation. As no previous literature exists, the researcher had no pre-conceptions about what LE means for UAE police leaders; therefore these findings are a novel contribution to our knowledge, although largely consistent with other countries' research. Nevertheless, the researcher expected such themes to emerge, given the national culture of the UAE, as in the UAE - like in other Middle East countries - the culture is classified according to Hofstede's (1959) cultural dimension as collectivist, with high power distance, meaning that the culture is group-based (collectivist) rather than focusing on the individual (individualist). It is also a high power distance culture, which means that the followers (e.g., UAE police subordinates) would expect their leader to have significant powers (and accept more power imbalance between leaders and followers), more hierarchical leadership structures, and leaders who are not to be argued with or questioned. The UAE culture tends to have positive expectations of their leaders, and to trust that they will meet organisational goals, and respond effectively to deal with subordinates and situations, as compared with low power distance cultures (such as the United Kingdom), where the culture encourages people to be more critical and sceptical of their leaders.

4.2.4 The concept of leadership effectiveness - Survey Questionnaire Findings

A different question was posed to the survey respondents, with four response options, concerning the concept of LE for them. A Chi-square test was used to determine if concept differed between of the departmental managers and heads of division. The results in Table 4.8 indicate a significant difference at the 0.05 level. Department Managers were more likely to define LE as 'Doing the right tasks, and completing activities and achieving goals' (79.4%),

as compared with Heads of Division (60.9%), X2=23.9, p<.001; although both groups ranked this outcome first, and both groups ranked All of the Above as the second aspect of effective leadership, suggesting they hold similar perspectives on effective leadership in UAE police organisations. Only two Heads of Division and no Department Managers considered Performing Duties the Right Way to define effective management; and only nine Heads of Division and no Department Managers considered effective leadership to involve 'increasing productivity with minimal time and fewest available resources,' suggesting that the need to increase productivity in the UAE police is not a focus for these senior and operational leaders. Overall, views on what characterises effectiveness management are similar, in terms of leadership priorities, but somewhat more varied among the Heads of Division, than Department Managers.

Table 4.8 The concept of leadership effectiveness from the perspectives of department managers and heads of division

The concept of leadership effectiveness in terms of outcomes	Department managers			Heads of division		
	Number	Percentage	Rank	Number	Percentage	Rank
Performing duties in the right way	0	%0	0	2	.7%	5
Doing the right tasks, and completing activities and achieving goals	166	79.4%	1	185	60.9%	1
Increasing productivity with minimal time and fewest available resources	0	%0	0	9	3.0%	3
All of the above	42	20.1%	2	102	33.6%	2
Others	1	.5%	3	6	2.0%	4
Chi-square Test	23.9					
Significance level	0.001					

Discussion of Objective 1 Findings on Leadership Effectiveness

The survey findings are consistent with the research literature that supports a behavioural approach to effective leadership (e.g., references). They are in line with the findings of Torres et al. (2015) that LE is reflected in the organisation of roles and responsibilities among employees; effective leaders clearly explain work and tasks to employees in organisations. Furthermore, as highlighted by Michael et al. (2011), assistance and support provided by leaders is important, as well as fairness and equal treatment.

Research literature also indicates that effective leaders are those who have a desire to bring change (Chan and Mak, 2014). The study data were also supported by Michael et al. (2011) who investigated differences in perceptions related to LE. According to their study, LE is required in order to achieve individual-, group- and organisational-level outcomes.

Mark et al. (2012) highlighted the importance of vision for LE. The compelling vision of leaders is essential to ensure organisational success. The findings in the current research as indicated in Table 4.8 demonstrate the same – that department managers and heads of division believe that the concept of LE is viewed as doing the right tasks and completing activities, and that achieving goals is key.

The results indicate that there are common denominators in most of the concepts of LE in both samples. All participants endorsed that effective leadership results in the achievement of organisational goals, although they differed slightly in how to achieve those goals. Senior leaders' (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and the directors-general) views of LE involved having a positive impact on others and achieving the desired results.

This research has discussed the concept of LE from different perspectives. Willocks (2012) defined LE from the perspective of performing duties whereas Mark et al. (2012) have argued that the concept of LE is defined according to specific context and time. This argument has also been supported by Net et al. (2015) who believe that the concept of LE depends on the specific situational context within which it occurs/is practiced. On the other side, McDermott et al. (2011) mentioned that LE is the successful influence of leaders on followers, which allows them to accomplish shared goals. These views are also in line with those of Chan and Mak (2014) who stated that effective leaders are those who have a desire to bring change. Other studies have suggested that leadership is effective when leaders are moderate in terms

of the need for achievement because it allows them to influence others (Raelin et al., 2012). This shows that there are multiple perspectives on LE. Therefore the researcher, based on the findings, will adopt the concept of LE that focuses on having a positive impact (influencing) on others and achieving the goals of policing organisations in the UAE where leadership can be a process or practice of being able to influence others for the accomplishment the goals. This concept supports the one coined by Northouse (2013, p.5), who asserted that "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common target". On the other hand, it is believed that every individual has unique characteristics or traits that can influence one's own actions (Northouse, 2013). This is also supported by Jago (1982) who stated that the role of leadership is to motivate, influence and persuade without force in order to achieve goals.

4.3 Research Objective 2

Objective 2 of this study was to **investigate the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police.** This objective was addressed through an integrative analysis of the literature, documentation comprising annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015), and participants' responses to survey question 10.

4.3.1 The current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police - Survey Questionnaire Findings

To investigate CPSLC in the UAE police, the researcher posed the following survey question to departmental managers and heads of division: "Here are a number of current leadership characteristics that may or may not apply to your leadership represented by the commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general in the police organisations. Please tick (√) (1= Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree) next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement".

The means and standard deviations were calculated, and the current predominant characteristics were ranked according to the participants' views, as shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 The current predominant leadership characteristics from the perspectives of department managers (n=209) and heads of division (n=304) in the UAE police

Current predominant leadership characteristics	Statistical indicator			
	Mean	**Standard deviation**	**Significance level**	**Rank**
Integrity	4.86	0.479	High	1
Sincerity	4.85	0.462	High	2
Credibility	4.19	0.570	Above average	3
Commitment	4.19	0.806	Above average	4
Being a role model	4.14	0.573	Above average	5
Fairness/Justice	4.11	0.670	Above average	6
Ability to make the right decision	4.11	0.653	Above average	7
Hard working	4.09	0.791	Above average	8
Being a good communicator	4.07	0.558	Above average	9
Having a forward-looking vision	4.03	0.624	Above average	10
Self-confidence	4.00	0.925	Above average	11

Trustworthiness	3.99	0.776	Above average	12
Efficiency	3.94	0.747	Above average	13
Taking care of subordinates	3.88	0.729	Above average	14
Ability to clarify tasks	3.81	0.720	Above average	15
Ability to delegate power	3.79	0.732	Above average	16
Humility/Modesty	3.77	0.829	Above average	17
Being a good listener	3.76	0.789	Above average	18
Having impact (influence)	3.73	0.824	Above average	19
Wisdom	3.66	0.878	Above average	20
Taking risks	3.66	0.868	Above average	21
Transparency	3.64	0.855	Above average	22
Having political skills	3.62	0.789	Above average	23
Creativity	3.62	0.817	Above average	24
Ability to inspire others	3.60	0.802	Above average	25
Taking initiative	3.56	0.841	Above average	26

Table 4.9 shows that the highest rank is given to integrity (mean of 4.85), indicating that is the most important current predominant leadership characteristic in the UAE police. This ranking is followed by sincerity (mean of 4.84); indicating a strong consensus among participants' views on the importance of these two characteristics. These rankings are followed by credibility (4.19), commitment (4.18), being a role model (4.14), justice (4.10), ability to make the right decision (4.10), hard working (4.08), being a good communicator (4.07), having a forward-looking vision (4.02), self-confidence (3.99), trustworthiness (3.98), efficiency (3.94), taking care of subordinates (3.87), ability to clarify tasks (3.81), ability to delegate power (3.79), humility/modesty (3.77), being a good listener (3.76), having impact/influence (3.73), wisdom (3.66), taking risks (3.65), transparency (3.63), having political skills (3.61), creativity (3.61), and ability to inspire others (3.59). The least important characteristic for UAE leaders is taking initiative (3.56). Note that all the characteristics included in this study are present to an above-average to high degree among police leaders in the UAE, according to the participants. The following figure (4.2) further illustrates the most important to least important characteristics ranked by department managers and heads of division.

Figure 4.2 Mean ranking for current predominant leadership characteristics by department managers and heads of division in the UAE police

Mean rank of current predominant leadership characteristics by department managers and heads of division in the UAE police

Leadership characteristics	Mean value
Integrity	4.86
Sincerity	4.85
Commitment	4.19
Credibility	4.19
Being a role model	4.14
Ability to make the right decision	4.11
Justice	4.11
Hard working	4.09
Being a good communicator	4.07
Having a forward-looking vision	4.03
Self-confidence	4
Trustworthiness	3.99
Efficiency	3.94
Taking care of subordinates	3.88
Ability to clarify tasks	3.81
Ability to delegate power	3.79
Modesty	3.77
Being a good listener	3.76
Having impact	3.73
Taking risks	3.66
Wisdom	3.66
Transparency	3.64
Creativity	3.62
Having political skills	3.62
Ability to inspire others	3.6
Taking initiative	3.56

The CPSLC in the UAE police organisations as identified by Standing Bear (1986), Schafer (2008), and Isla and Kodz (2011) were justice (ranked 6th in the present study), being a role model (ranked 5th in the present study), and being a good communicator (ranked 9th in the present study). These characteristics were also identified as predominant characteristics in the present study.

These findings also support Khaleejtimes (2013), who noted that Lieutenant-General Dhahi Tamim (Deputy Chief of Police and Public Security in Dubai) stated that the good reputation, fairness and transparent standards being exercised by the UAE police officers had conferred a remarkable reputation to the UAE police organisations, making them stand out across the world for their transparency and wise leaders, as well as their policy of rigidly defending human rights. These characteristics are clearly important to the UAE police leaders also, as they ranked integrity, sincerity, credibility, commitment, being a role model, and justice in the top 10 most important characteristics for their police organisation.

The findings from the literature review also add to the latest research on exemplary leaders. First, the data echo a report by Giessner and van Knippenberg (2008) which states categorically that trust (ranked 12th in the present study) can act as a mediating factor in the relationships between the exemplary and top leaders' efficiency in the UAE police organisations. Additionally, those senior leaders in the UAE police organisations who are role models are strong examples for their subordinates. Such a view is also supported in the literature, which shows that leaders who are perceived to show procedural fairness (i.e., procedural justice) are often perceived to be prototypical (Platow and Knippenberg, 2001; Lipponen et al., 2005). Consequently, the literature review supports the essence of role modelling for senior leaders in the UAE police organisations as emphasised by Brown et al. (2005).

In this regard, some documents were reviewed with a special focus on the CPSLC. Specifically, the annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership (2013/2015) were reviewed. The data are also supported by the General Leadership Assessments of Sharjah Police report, which evaluated the leadership in the Sharjah Police. The results from the reports indicated that the leadership in the Sharjah Police was effective in being a role model. Justice and ability to make the right decisions (ranked 7th in the present study), having a forward-looking vision (ranked 10th), ability to delegate power (ranked 16th), and transparency (ranked 22nd) were consistently identified by the respondents in the current study.

4.4 Research Objective 3

Objective 3 of this study was to **investigate the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future.** This objective was addressed through the participants' responses to interview question three, and survey question 11.

4.4.1 The key senior leadership characteristics that senior leaders in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future - The Interview Findings

To investigate objective 3, the researcher posed the following question: "What are the leadership characteristics that you believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the UAE police in the future?"

Table 4.10 (below) shows the different codes created from the relevant primary data. It is important to note that the results indicate that key SLC among the police in the UAE are associated more with, and are crucial to improving LE.

Table 4.10 Key leadership characteristics that senior leaders in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future, based on the interviews

Future leadership characteristics	P 1: Transcripts.doc	TOTALS
Having a clear vision and outlook	10	10
Credibility	8	8
The ability to influence others	8	8
The ability/courage to take the right decisions	8	8
The ability to communicate well with others	8	8
Being a role model	7	7
The ability to motivate others	7	7
The ability to work within a team	7	7
Creativity	6	6
Justice	5	5
Strategic planning	4	4
Innovation	3	3
Transparency	2	2
Acceptance by others	1	1
Courageous	1	1

Honesty	1	1
Humility/Modesty	1	1
Patience	1	1
Consulting with others	1	1
Fair competition	1	1
Perseverance and determination	1	1
TOTAL	91	91

Table 4.10 shows that the leadership characteristic considered most important for the future will be a clear vision and outlook (n=10), followed by credibility (n=8), the ability to influence others (n=8), the ability/courage to take the right decisions (n=8), and the ability to communicate well with others (n=7). Next in ranked importance are being a role model (n=7), the ability to motivate others (n=7), and the ability to work within a team (n=7). These are followed by creativity (n=6) and justice (n=5), strategic planning (n=4), innovation (n=3), and transparency (n=2). The least important LC for the future, as only mentioned by one interview participant are acceptance by others, courage, honesty, humility/modesty, patience, consulting with others, fair competition, perseverance and determination.

4.4.2 The key senior leadership characteristics that operational leaders in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future - Survey Questionnaire Findings

To address objective 3 among the survey respondents, the researcher posed the following question: "Please indicate the most important leadership characteristics for commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general in the UAE police to improve their effectiveness in the future, by ticking (√) (1= Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree) in the box that represents your opinion".

Table 4.11 (below) shows that the characteristics that reflect vision in police leadership are key characteristics and that they should be available in leadership, for department managers, and heads of division.

Table 4.11 The most important leadership characteristics for the commander-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general to improve their effectiveness in the future, according to the perspectives of department managers and heads of division, based on survey

Future leadership characteristics	Statistical indicator			
	Mean	Standard deviation	Significance level	Rank
Justice	4.88	0.366	High	1
Being a role model	4.85	0.382	High	2
Creativity	4.83	0.431	High	3
Having impact (influence)	4.83	0.438	High	4
Humility/Modesty	4.78	0.454	High	5
Integrity	4.76	0.441	High	6
Sincerity	4.75	0.441	High	7
Having a forward-looking vision	4.75	0.468	High	8
Taking risks	4.65	0.502	High	9
Being a good communicator	4.65	0.499	High	10
Ability to delegate power	4.48	0.508	High	11
Commitment	4.40	0.521	High	12
Ability to inspire others	4.39	0.545	High	13
Credibility	4.37	0.526	High	14
Transparency	4.33	0.506	High	15
Trustworthiness	4.32	0.484	High	16
Self-confidence	4.31	0.492	High	17
Efficiency	4.30	0.465	High	18
Wisdom	4.26	0.458	High	19
Hard working	4.25	0.448	High	20
Taking initiative	4.25	0.460	High	21
Ability to clarify tasks	4.25	0.450	High	22
Ability to make the right decision	4.12	0.645	Above average	23
Taking care of subordinates	3.89	0.717	Above average	24
Being a good listener	3.78	0.785	Above average	25
Having political skills	3.63	0.786	Above average	26

Table 4.11 shows that the most important characteristic needed for effective senior leaders in the future, according to operational leaders, is justice (4.88). This is followed by being a role model (4.85), having impact/influence (4.83), creativity (4.83), humility/modesty (4.78), integrity (4.76), having a forward-looking vision (4.75), sincerity (4.75), being a good communicator (4.64), taking risks (4.64), ability to delegate power (4.48), commitment (4.39), ability to inspire others (4.38), credibility (4.37), transparency (4.32), trustworthiness

(4.32), self-confidence (4.30), efficiency (4.30), wisdom (4.26), hard working(4.25), taking initiative (4.25), ability to clarify tasks (4.24), ability to make the right decision (4.11), taking care of subordinates (3.89), and being a good listener (3.77). The least important leadership characteristic for future effectiveness is having political skills (3.62). The degrees of importance for these characteristics ranged between above average to high. Figure 4.3 further describes the highest and lowest rated LC needed for effective senior leadership in the future.

Figure 4.3 The most important leadership characteristics for the commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general in order to improve their effectiveness in the future, according to the perspectives of department managers and heads of division

Mean rank of most important leadership characteristics to improve effectiveness of senior leaders in the future by department managers and heads of division in the UAE police

Leadership characteristics	Mean value
Justice	4.88
Being a role model	4.85
Having impact	4.83
Creativity	4.83
Modesty	4.78
Integrity	4.76
Having a forward-looking vision	4.75
Sincerity	4.75
Being a good communicator	4.65
Taking risks	4.65
Ability to delegate power	4.48
Commitment	4.4
Ability to inspire others	4.39
Credibility	4.37
Transparency	4.33
Trustworthiness	4.32
Self-confidence	4.31
Efficiency	4.3
Wisdom	4.26
Ability to clarify tasks	4.25
Taking initiative	4.25
Hard working	4.25
Ability to make the right decision	4.12
Taking care of subordinates	3.89
Being a good listener	3.78
Having political skills	3.63

4.4.3 Comparison of senior and operational perspectives on the characteristics needed by senior leaders for future effectiveness in the UAE police organisations:

This section compares the senior leader interview findings (Table 4.10) with the operational leader survey findings (Table 4.11) to ascertain what similarities and differences exist in both groups' views on the most important characteristics needed for senior LE in the future. To facilitate this comparison, both tables were copy/pasted side-by-side in Microsoft Excel (see Table 4.12 below). The analysis revealed that both groups highly value two characteristics of **being a role model** and **having impact/the ability to influence others**, which were listed in their top five most important LC for future effectiveness. Key differences between groups were that senior leaders ranked **having a clear vision and outlook** first, whereas operational leaders ranked it 8th (much lower). Additionally, **credibility** was ranked 2nd (n=8) by senior leaders, but only ranked 14th (much lower) by operational leaders. The **ability to motivate/inspire others** was also ranked higher (as more important) by senior leaders (n=7, ranked third), than operational leaders (ranked 13th). The **ability to influence others** was ranked 2nd (n=8) by senior leaders, and ranked 4th by operational leaders; indicating reasonable agreement on its importance. **Creativity** was also ranked 3rd by operational leaders, and ranked 4th by senior leaders (n=6); indicating relative agreement on its importance. In contrast, **the ability/courage to take the right decisions** was ranked 2nd (n=8) by senior leaders, but only ranked 23rd by operational leaders. This indicates a major difference in their views on the importance of decision-making; in which case, we should perhaps consider the senior leaders' perspective more accurate, as they have experience of senior leadership responsibilities and challenges. Another big difference is that operational leaders ranked **Justice** first, whereas senior leaders ranked it 5th (n=5, much lower). Also, **being a good communicator** was mentioned by eight senior leaders (ranked 2nd), but was only ranked 10th (much lower) by operational leaders. **Humility/Modesty** was much more important to operational leaders (ranked 5th), but only mentioned by one senior leader (n=1). Of lower importance in both groups were characteristics such as **honesty/trustworthiness, self-confidence/courageousness** and **transparency.** In addition, the senior leaders mentioned eight characteristics that were not considered in the survey of operational leaders. These include the ability to work within a team (n=7), strategic planning (n=4), innovation (n=3), acceptance by others (n=1), patience (n=1), consulting with others (n=1), fair competition (n=1), and perseverance and determination (n=1). In addition, 13 characteristics listed in the survey of operational leaders were not mentioned at all by the senior leaders during interviews as being important for future senior LE. These were integrity, sincerity,

taking risks, ability to delegate power, commitment, efficiency, wisdom, being hard working, taking initiative, able to clarify tasks, taking care of sub-ordinates, being a good listener, and having political skills. One possible reason for this is that these 13 characteristics may be important for future 'operational' leaders' effectiveness, and suggests operational leaders are not fully aware of some different characteristics required at senior leadership level for effectiveness in the future, such as the ability to work within a team, strategic planning, innovation and acceptance by others, which were mentioned by the senior leaders, as well as patience, consulting, fair competition, perseverance and determination. These results suggest that operational leaders are aware and in general agreement with but with some differences from senior leaders, regarding the most important characteristics for future senior leaders' effectiveness. They are far less aware of the importance of credibility, and ability to make the right decisions, and ranked highly characteristics such as sincerity, integrity and taking risks, which were not even mentioned by the senior leaders.

These same characteristics were identified as key LC in the following studies: Dantzker (1996) Kanungo and Mendonca (2001); Sarros and Santora (2001); Russell and Stone (2002); Dobby et al. (2004); Silva (2004); Weiss (2004); Adebayo (2005); Brown et al. (2005); Johnson (2006); Kouzes and Posner (2007); Jansen et al. (2008); Knippenberg and Cremer (2008); Schafer (2008); Yukl (2008); Karianne and Hartog (2009); Kose and Shields (2009); Birasnav et al. (2011); Dick (2011); Lindebaum and Cartwright (2011); Michael et al. (2011); Polasky et al. (2011); Ayoko and Konrad (2012); Barner (2012); Manzoor (2012); Mark et al. (2012); Senior et al. (2012) and Paulsen et al. (2013).

The findings in the current research are consistent with the literature that identified the important LC for effective leadership. The findings reported by Kouzes and Posner (2007) are in line with four of these characteristics, which received more than 60% of the votes of respondents across the world. These were: Honest, forward-looking, inspirational and competent. Although competence was not mentioned by the senior leader interviewees or listed in the survey question, it may be taken for granted by UAE police leaders that senior leaders would need to be competent. Also Russell and Gregory Stone (2002) asserted that without the forward-looking quality of a leader, they cannot influence their people, as they could not envision goals or strategies.

The data were also supported by Birasnav et al. (2011) and Paulsen et al. (2013), who asserted that the studies conducted on effective leadership have highlighted various characteristics including strategic planning (mentioned by four senior leaders), effective communication, and effective decision making (both considered more important by senior than by operational leaders in the present study). Constant communication is an important element of LE (Lindebaum and Cartwright, 2011); and great leaders can be characterised by the ability to make good decisions (Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001). However, it takes their ability and courage to do so with the support of their team in the decision-making process (Polasky et al., 2011). This was reflected by the senior leaders in the present study, who highly valued the importance of being able to work within a team (n=7), and make courageous decisions (n=8). In addition, Dantzker (1996) requested police managers to rate the characteristics that they felt all of their police chiefs were supposed to have, and found that leadership was the most essential skill followed by communication and making decisions, which the senior leaders endorsed more strongly than operational leaders, in the present study. Furthermore, as reported by Dick (2011), involving other police officers in decision making resulted in effective leadership. This finding illustrates a key difference in the senior/operational leaders' views in the present study, as the senior leaders interviewed appear to highly value an 'inclusive' approach. For example, they mentioned 'the ability to work within a team,' 'acceptance by others,' and 'consulting with others;' and did not mention 'delegating power' at all, which was listed and ranked 11th in importance by operational leaders in the survey. This suggests that operational leaders take a more 'hierarchical' approach, whereas senior leaders take a more lateral organisation-wide approach for future effectiveness. In other words, for senior leaders, future effectiveness is not about telling subordinates what to do, but is about getting everyone aligned with the same organisational goals (i.e., engagement).

The data also support Schafer's (2008) study, which examined samples of senior leaders from various police departments in the USA. Schafer concluded that efficient police leaders recognise the essence of excellent communication skills and the essence of being able to explain decisions or actions in a manner which gains support from their subordinates.

Two PhD studies (from America) tested the authenticity and generality of the competency models for executive police management (Silva, 2004; Weiss, 2004). The two surveys drew on the initial stage of the survey – which had interviews with eight 'star-performing' top-

level leaders in a particular American police department concerning the important characteristics of the police leaders. This produced a list of 24 fundamental skills; four of which were considered most essential. These included credibility and communication (both also rated highly by eight senior leaders in the present study, but rated lower by operational leaders), leading employees, and courage (courage was not rated highly by senior or operational leaders in the present study). Silva's (2004) PhD research tested credibility, leading employees, communication and courage by sampling 687 police officers and citizen staff from 13 police departments; he found that interpersonal skills were highly rated.

The findings from the current research are also consistent with Dobby et al. (2004) which showed that police leaders who scored highest for role-modelling behaviours were likely to have a positive psychological influence on their subordinates. In the present study, being a role model was considered more important by operational leaders (ranked 2nd) and, although ranked lower, was also mentioned by seven senior leaders. Conversely, the research found that those leaders who scored low on the role-modelling calibrations had a high chance of having a negative psychological influence on those who followed them. Karianne and Hartog (2009) asserted that it is very clear that those senior leaders who are role models to their subordinates (like those in the UAE police) are normally perceived by their subordinates to be effective. Brown et al. (2005) also found that role modelling and trust were vital mediators in such a working environment. More explicitly, the findings suggested that a leadership style whereby leaders are perceived to be good role models by their subordinates is considered an idealised workforce prototype. Indeed, Johnson (2006) acknowledged role modelling by senior police supervisors to be one of the major components facilitating behavioural change in subordinate police officers. According to Sarros and Santora (2001), role modelling is an effective way to encourage people to learn new skills. Jansen et al. (2008) stated that a role-modelling leader provides a platform for other people to learn the behaviours, attributes and qualities of how to be a successful leader. Hence, the finding that UAE police highly value role modelling among both senior and operational police leaders is a very positive finding for future effectiveness of its leaders.

The current research findings are also in line with those of several studies which found the effectiveness of a leader is measured in terms of building a team (which seven of the senior leaders mentioned in the interviews, but team-building was not posed to operational leaders in the survey). Barner (2012) asserted that team building develops personal and group

responsibility through focusing on personal and team achievements According to other studies, the ability of leaders to motivate their followers reflects their effectiveness (Paulsen et al., 2013; Ayoko and Konrad, 2012). Ability to motivate others was mentioned highly by seven of the senior leaders in this study, but was not posed to operational leaders in the survey. Thus ability to motivate others and LE are inter-linked. According to Manzoor (2012), the employee is to be motivated through effective leadership to create impact of recognition (the acknowledgment of achievement) and empowerment to achieve organisational effectiveness in terms of goals and objectives.

The current research findings also agree with several studies (e.g., Adebayo, 2005; Kose and Shields; Michael et al., 2011) which found that justice is one of the important characteristics of leadership. However, justice was much considered most important by operational leaders, who ranked it first out of 26 characteristics, whereas only five of the senior leaders mentioned justice during the interviews. In 2004, a Nigerian study by Adebayo (2005) found that perceptions of fairness in workplaces and transformational leadership behaviours related positively to participants' work motivation. According to the findings of Michael et al.'s (2011) study, management employees believe that fairness and equality are traits of LE. As stated by Kose and Shields (2009), justice is one of the important aspects of leadership. According to Knippenberg and Cremer (2008), fairness, truthfulness and honesty play a major role in leadership. However, in the present study, honesty and fair competition were each only mentioned by one senior leader, and the related construct, of transparency was only mentioned by two senior leaders. Among the operational leaders, while integrity and sincerity were ranked highly (6th and 7th in importance, respectively), transparency and trustworthiness were ranked lower in importance (15th and 16th in importance). The data are also supported by the study of Senior et al. (2012) which argued that in contemporary organisations, effectiveness of leadership depends on values of leaders including trust, integrity, and competence. Mark et al. (2012) argued in their study that the concept LE involves the consideration for integrity, leadership, and effective judgment.

This is interesting as the interview findings and survey results appear to lend support to the literature findings in terms of what senior and operational leaders in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future. The following table (4.12) shows the important characteristics to improve the LE from the perspectives of the participants, through the results of the interviews with the senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-

general) and also questionnaires that were distributed to the operational leaders (department managers and heads of division).

Table 4.12 The key leadership characteristics to improve the leadership effectiveness from the perspectives of the senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors general) and operational leaders (department managers and heads of division)

	Key leadership characteristics	
	From the perspectives of commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general	**From the perspectives of departmental managers and heads of division**
1	Having a forward-looking vision	Justice
2	Credibility	Being a role model
3	The ability to influence others	Creativity
4	The ability/courage to take the right decisions	Having influence
5	The ability to communicate well with others	Humility/Modesty
6	Being a role model	Integrity
7	The ability to motivate others	Sincerity
8	The ability to work within a team	Having a forward-looking vision
9	Creativity	Taking risks
10	Justice	Being a good communicator
11	Strategic planning	Ability to delegate power
12	Innovation	Commitment
13	Transparency	Ability to inspire others
14		Credibility
15		Transparency
16		Trustworthiness
17		Self-confidence
18		Efficiency
19		Wisdom
20		Hard working
21		Taking initiative
22		Ability to clarify tasks

The above table (4.12) shows that both groups of participants endorsed many of the same characteristics which they believe are key to improving LE in the future. However, the emphasis they placed on the importance of particular characteristics varied, in some cases largely, in others to a small degree, as mentioned/compared above previously.

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4.5 Research Objective 4

Objective 4 of this study was to **investigate the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.** This objective was addressed through an integrated analysis of the literature, the participants' responses to interview question four and survey questions 12.

4.5.1 The impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police - The Interview Findings

To address objective four, the researcher posed the following questions to senior police leaders: "Do you think leadership characteristics have an impact on effective leadership in the police organisations? From your point of view, what are impacts of the leadership characteristics on their effectiveness?"

An examination of the participants' responses show that 14 of the sample strongly agreed and stated explicitly that LC have an effective and strong impact on improving LE, as expressed by participants 1, 3, 5, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 21, 23 and 25 below:

> "In my view, undoubtedly, leadership characteristics **have a strong impact** on the effectiveness of leaders. These characteristics could display the road map on how to treat others. A successful leader tries to find these qualities and put them in a certain framework and tries to convey them to his/her staff in an attractive manner". Participant (1)

This statement above reflects the previous comment quoted that a leader must have 'acceptance by others', in order to have a strong [positive] impact. This challenges the traditional idea that leadership authority is sufficient to have a strong impact on others; as today, effective leaders also need to be admired, to present an ideal role model, that others want to aspire to be like, so they present well, and encourage others to become like them.

> "I do believe that leadership characteristics **play a key role** in several ways: the first one relates to improving the effectiveness of a leader, improving subordinates and work team, improving the environment where a leader works, which leads to

increasing productivity at work, and developing all services to reach targets".
Participant (3)

This statement above also reflects a change from traditional 'authority' to a leader being someone who can develop others and improve others/settings, thereby increasing productivity and achievement of desired goals. Modern UAE police leaders appear to be taking a much more 'coaching'-based orientation, than traditional 'parental' orientation; which also reflects changes in the leadership remit in the West. These modern UAE leaders are 'change agents'.

> *"In my experience, leadership characteristics **have a significant impact** on the effectiveness of leaders in terms of **achieving targets".** Participant (5)*

> *"In my view, undoubtedly, leadership qualities **have a direct impact** on the effectiveness of leaders to **achieve targets".** Participant (9)*

> *"I agree with those who say that leadership characteristics **have an effective role** in improving leadership effectiveness".* Participant (11)

> *"The leadership characteristics constitute a coherent and integrated series that **affect and are affected** by a leader's charisma when dealing with his/her subordinates or different situations".* Participant (12)

This statement by participant 12, and others above, suggests it is possible to profile an effective leader, based on a cluster of characteristics; and suggests that it is not one specific characteristic, but the interaction/combined effect of multiple important characteristics, that produce the essence of an effective leader in the UAE police.

> *"In my experience, undoubtedly, leadership characteristics **play a pivotal role** in improving the effectiveness of leaders or subordinates".* Participant (14)

> *"I hold firmly that leadership characteristics **have a significant impact** on leadership effectiveness. Leadership is not practicing power or giving commands. Leadership is to be an effective member of a team, to be able to help it, and to always be positive".*
> Participant (15)

Participant 15's statement above is again reaffirming the idea that UAE police leadership endorses a coaching/mentoring model of leadership, as opposed to having power distance and using their authority/hierarchy and power position to make an impact. These findings suggest that UAE police leadership ideology is more closely aligned with current Western values of leadership and lower power distance than that of its neighbouring Saudi Arabia, which still endorses a high power distance, with a command and control style of governance. This suggests that the present study findings may not be generalisable to all Gulf countries. Therefore, we cannot assume that the perceived important police leader characteristics for effectiveness will be similar across the Middle East, which is often treated as one homogenous region by the West.

> *"Leadership characteristics **play a pivotal role** in improving leader effectiveness, but a leader must always seek to promote and develop his/her personal characteristics and abilities".* Participant (16)

Again, participant 16 endorses the coaching role of effective leaders, but this time for their own professional development. The idea that a leader must constantly seek to promote and develop himself is related to maintaining his/her position as a role model; which reflects to a great extent the modern 'celebrity culture' that those we look up to must be 'ideal'. But with increasing transparency via media, we now acknowledge that being ideal takes hard work.

> *"Leadership characteristics could have **a pivotal role** in achieving the objectives of police organisations effectively through those qualities possessed by a leader which affect his/her subordinates".* Participant (17)

Although not being mentioned directly by these participants, there is a sense that they are talking about 'emotional intelligence'; the ability to recognise and know how to use your emotions positively, including understanding how they affect others, and how to do this well. These participants may not be so familiar with the concept of emotional intelligence, as individual differences have been more widely focused on and researched in the West.

*"I am convinced that the more a leader practices his/her personal qualities positively toward others, the more this leads to **strengthening and improving** his/her effectiveness".* Participant (21)

This statement above again suggests an awareness of high emotional intelligence among effective leaders in the UAE police, and the perception of a leader as a positive 'resource'.

*"I would say that if a leader has distinctive qualities that **could affect** his/her subordinates and achieve the objectives of the police organisation, then he/she will achieve his/her effectiveness".* Participant (23)

"Strong leadership has characteristics and skills that require any person who aspires to obtain them to exert greater efforts and sustained hard work to reach the highest level of personal effectiveness". Participant (25)

There is great focus in these statements on a leader focusing on him/herself, on really developing and perfecting the self, as a role model, thereby positively 'affecting' others. In the past, a leader would have been expected to focus on subordinates/the organisation, so this focus on the self, to be developed, admired and role-modelled, shows a distinct shift towards the more Western individualist values, as compared with the collectivist approach of valuing the 'group'. The leader is no longer the shepherd herding his sheep, but conceptualised somewhat like the ancient mythological heroes, an ideal role model, or an idealised affirming father-figure.

While the sample gave a positive response to the question of whether LC can affect LE, four of the respondents did not explicitly declare that LC have a direct impact on their effectiveness.

4.5.2 Q1: Do you think leadership characteristics have an impact on effective leadership in the police organisations? Survey Questionnaire Findings.

Figure 4.4 below shows that the majority of the survey sample of operational leaders (88.1%) strongly agreed that LC have an impact on LE; and a further 10.9% of this sample 'agreed'.

Hence, almost 99% of the operational leaders sample agreed on the importance of LC significantly influencing LE.

Figure 4.4 Extent of agreement on the impact of leadership characteristics on leadership effectiveness by department managers and heads of division
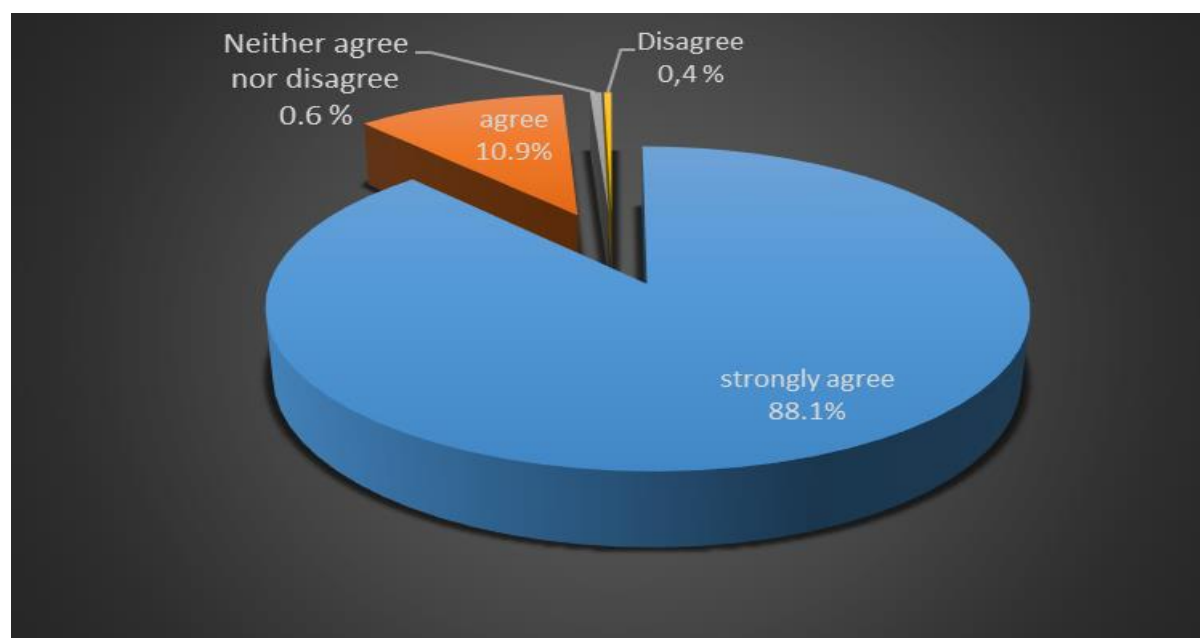
4.5.3 Q2: From your point of view, what are impacts of the leadership characteristics on their effectiveness? The Interview Findings

With respect to the impacts of the LC on their effectiveness, Table 4.13 (below) shows the different codes created from the relevant primary data. A key finding here is that the results indicate that key SLC among the police in the UAE are associated more with achieving organisational goals.

Table 4.13 Impacts of leadership characteristics on their effectiveness from the perspectives of the senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and the directors-general)

The impacts of leadership characteristics on their effectiveness	P 1: Transcripts.doc	TOTALS
Helps in achieving organisation goals.	21	21
Motivate others.	15	15
Increase the performance and productivity among employees.	15	15
Increase confidence between the leaders and their	12	12

subordinates.		
Having a positive impact on others.	11	11
Provoking enthusiasm among employees.	8	8
Creation of good working atmosphere.	8	8
Increases appreciation, respect and loyalty.	8	8
Obey the leaders voluntarily/willingly.	7	7
Continuous improvement and development.	7	7
Helps in building successful teamwork.	6	6
Increase morale.	3	3
Helps in achieving leadership successes.	3	3
Helps the subordinate to practice.	3	3
Increases cohesion between leaders and subordinates.	3	3
Taking responsibility.	2	2
Ability to work with limited resources.	2	2
Helps subordinate to recognise their abilities.	2	2
TOTAL	136	136

Table 4.13 (above) shows that the most important impact of LC is in helping to achieve organisational goals (n=21). This is followed by motivating others (n=15), increasing performance and productivity among subordinates (n=15), increasing confidence between the leaders and their subordinates (n=12), having a positive impact on others (n=11), provoking enthusiasm among employees (n=8), creating of good working atmosphere (n=8), increasing appreciation, respect and loyalty (n=8); obeying the leaders voluntarily/willingly (n=7), continuing improvement and development (n=7), helping in building successful teamwork (n=6), increasing morale (n=3), helping in achieving leadership successes (n=3), helping the subordinate to practice (n=3), increasing cohesion between leaders and subordinates (n=3), taking responsibility (n=2), ability to work with limited resources (n=2), and helping subordinates to recognise their abilities (n=2).

Analysis of the interviews shows that the LC have a significant impact on their effectiveness in achieving the police organisational goals, and by improving workers' motivation, enthusiasm, the working environment, morale and building successful teams. This further supports the notion that effective UAE police leaders now act as change agents, catalysts and coaches, all in the service of achieving the organisations goals. They act as mediators by engaging their employees to go the extra mile, and increase employees' commitment to achieving the organisation's goals 'voluntarily/willingly', rather than through commands and practicing power. The following section illustrates the impacts of LC on LE from the points

of view of the participants, noting that the researcher listed the characteristics below randomly as follows:

- **Having a forward-looking vision:**

An examination of the participants' responses shows the importance of having a forward-looking vision, and its impact on improving LE, as expressed by participants 7, 8, 10, 17 and 21:

> *"Effective leaders should build their behaviour and expectations for their organisations and their world according to their positive outlook of the future within a knowledge-based and logical frame rather than being random, selective and emotional. Similarly, leaders have to begin to conceive an image of their organisations and then try to design it on the ground as much as possible. As such, these things save time by anticipating possible challenges that can occur in future and make a leader ready for them. Consequently, a leader has selected his/her route from now into the future".* (Participant 7)

In other words, this participant is saying that an effective leader should be 'strategic'.

> *"A vision can be everything for a leader since it is indispensable, because a vision leads a leader, sets his/her goal, incites enthusiasm in him/her, and pushes him/her and his/her subordinates forward. It also affects his/her subordinates through enthusiasm and motivates them to achieve goals".* (Participant 8)

These statements about a future orientation suggests that UAE police value a long-term orientation over a short-term orientation, which is one of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions, in how he classified national cultures at work. Thus, their effective UAE police leaders are not individuals who simply react to crisis, problems or issues in the short-term, but actively create, innovate, analyse trends in society, and predict and plan for future policing needs. They therefore also perform a monitoring and evaluating function, rather than merely a management function, and seek to find and implement ways to constantly improve the police.

"Effective leaders should concentrate on the development of their organisation vision so that this vision would be a realistic image that describes the desired future, and takes subordinates to a new place. This vision and personal ambition of a leader will work as an incentive and a driving force for the leader and subordinate's actions to achieve the vision of the future police organisation". (Participant 10)

Participant 10 makes an important point, not mentioned before, that a leader must be 'realistic'. A vision is of no use unless it is feasible and can be implemented. This comment also relates to the finding that an effective leader needs to be 'credible'. He needs to be grounded and realistic enough for his vision of police organisation to be taken seriously.

"As a successful and great leader, you need to have a clear vision to know what you want to achieve, to imagine its results, and to devote all your energy and your feelings to implement this vision. Most importantly, you have to believe in your ability to do so because having faith in your abilities gives you strength to achieve your goals. Furthermore, subordinates admire such leaders who are full of energy and faith to achieve their goals, and they follow their leaders voluntarily because they are trying to achieve a noble goal for all stakeholders and their organisation". (Participant 17)

This statement above reflects the idea that a leader's vision needs to be clear enough for others to be able to understand and support it. The leader must also have self-efficacy (confident belief that he can actually implement his/her vision in practice). The leader himself must be highly engaged at work (the participant's reference to high energy and faith), in order to engage his subordinates in his vision, to achieve these goals. Again, we are getting the mythology of the 'hero' here, as the effective leader is someone who inspires faith in others, and can carry the organisation forward through his/her vigorous energy.

"I think that the destination determines the direction so that a leader without a destination supervises others but does not lead them. Therefore, having a vision is the ability to speculate through ambition, open mindedness and accepting other ideas, in addition to identifying long-term targets accurately, which must be flexible. One of the reasons that convince subordinates of their leaders occurs when leaders have a clear vision of the future which will help in determining appropriate means and

strategies to stimulate subordinates. Moreover, this vision must have an integrated plan with its stages and means to be able to achieve desired goals and to turn the vision into reality". (Participant 21)

These views are consistent with research literature that supports the characteristic of forward-looking vision in order to improve LE; as mentioned by Posner and Kouzes (2009), the ability of any leader to look forward is ranked highest. On average, almost 70% of workers worldwide consider 'forward-looking' as the key leadership skill. They also postulated that a forward-looking leader takes out the positive aspects of the future, develops opportunities, and preaches them to his people. This way, the leader can successfully influence his people and create a sense of belonging amongst them to stay loyal and attached to goals and objectives. By looking forward with positivity, he/she inspires confidence, which increases feelings of security and being supported. The confidence he/she instils in subordinates in turn inspires them to model the leader to achieve organisation goals. It is again the idea of the leader as a hero, inspiring faith in his followers. While subordinates may have a more short-term orientation, the leader presents them with positive possibilities for the future, which creates engagement. This all suggests high combinations of strategic thinking and emotional intelligence among effective UAE police leaders.

These views are also supported by Russell and Stone (2002) whose study showed that, without the forward-looking quality, a leader, cannot influence his or her followers.

- **Integrity:**

Senior et al. (2012) found that, in contemporary organisations, effectiveness of leadership depends on values of leaders including trust, integrity, and competence. Furthermore, their study mentioned that trust is an important value trait of effective leadership, because it increases the commitment of followers. Mutually rewarding relationships cannot be established without trust, as without trust, people do not feel safe; and an absence of trust, creates a climate of uncertainty and fear. Moreover, trust contributes towards enhancing the performance of employees. Mark et al. (2012) indicated that LE involves integrity, effective judgment, and an ability to be flexible when making decisions; they also highlighted the importance of the fairness of leaders such that followers are treated equally regardless of their gender, age, and other characteristics. Guay (2013) mentioned that such an approach helps

build relationships between leaders and subordinates and plays an important role in ensuring LE as these can help minimise conflicts, improve performance, and increase morale. This view supports some interviewees' responses in terms of integrity and its impact on the subordinates, as expressed by participants 6 and 8 below:

> *"An effective leader must have a real sense of justice, because without a real sense of justice and integrity, a leader can never gain respect of others"*. (Participant 6)

> *"A leader must show sincerity, integrity and transparency in all his/her works in order to gain his/her subordinates' confidence. In contrast, any deceptive behaviour will subject a leader to non-confidence on the part of all stakeholders"*. (Participant 8)

- **Being a role model:**

An examination of the participants' responses show that the role model has a positive influence on the subordinates, as expressed by participants 1, 8, 15 and 25 below:

> *"A leader must be a role model in everything - appearance is one example. Although a leader's appearance does not have a major effect, it has a positive impact on motivating subordinates to dress in the same style as their leader, and vice versa"*. (Participant 1)

> *"A leader should be a role model in everything inside and outside the organisation. He/she should be committed to his/her job and possess good manners towards his/her subordinates and so on because these traits have a deep impact on them, which leads them to work faithfully, to obey their leader and to increase their productivity, thus achieving the organisation's goals"*. (Participant 8)

> *"A leader must be a role model and his/her actions should speak louder than his/her words where his/her subordinates tend to imitate and follow him/her"*. (Participant 15)

> *"A role-model leader is the one whose words match his/her deeds because people are not able to understand theories if they do not see the application of these theories. Therefore, to follow a role model, you should choose the best known role model and*

have contact with him/her through communication and interaction, besides developing relations with him/her to make use of their attributes". (Participant 25)

These views are in line with research literature that supports the role of modelling and its impact on others. Karianne and Hartog (2009) asserted that it is very clear that those senior leaders who are role models to their subordinates (like those in the UAE police) are normally perceived as effective by their subordinates. From the viewpoint of Jansen et al. (2008), a role-modelling leader offers a platform for other people to learn the behaviours, attributes and qualities of how to be a successful leader.

The data are also supported by Dobby et al. (2004) who used responses from 1066 police officers (from various rankings) in 36 police organisations from England and Wales. In one of the questions, the participants were requested to rate their immediate senior leaders against 14 aspects of role-modelling leaders. They also answered questions about how the behaviours of their immediate senior leaders could alter the character and psychology of their workplaces. The study results showed that police leaders who scored highest for role-modelling behaviours were likely to have a positive psychological influence on their subordinates.

The present study supports these claims; participants (1) and (8) felt that role models could motivate and influence others. The study of Jansen et al. (2008) supports what participant (25) has stated. All of these have the positive impact of motivating subordinates to follow the same style as their leader. Thus they become good role models for their subordinates.

- **Credibility:**

According to Kouzes and Posner (2003, 2007), credibility is essential since it backs up the value of a leader and keeps subordinates from doubting one's ethics and qualities, and it can also prevent individuals from trusting falsified information. Credibility enhances the belief that other individuals have in a leader and keeps them from believing any information that might be contradictory. This view supports several interviewees' responses in terms of credibility and its impact on the subordinates, as expressed by participants 10, 13 and 14 below:

"A leader must be committed to his/her words before his/her subordinates, which reflects subordinates' confidence and respect for the leader, since this confidence leads to creating a good atmosphere and tranquillity in the organisation, friendliness and high performance and productivity of subordinates and thus achieving the required tasks and goals". (Participant 10)

"Credibility is matching words with actions, which generates confidence among subordinates in their leader". (Participant 13)

"A leader must be highly credible so that his/her staff makes sure that he/she practices what he/she says, which increases their confidence in their leader". (Participant 14)

As a result of the credibility of the leader, subordinates will feel that their leader is worth listening to, which leads people to respect and trust their leaders. This result is confirmed by previous study by Kouzes and Posner (2003, 2007), which indicated that leaders with established credibility are respected and trusted.

- **Being a good communicator:**

According to Herzberg (1959), good communication with others can affect the subordinates and support them to achieve organisational goals from several aspects including employee morale. Organisational subordinates will appreciate the good communication skills displayed by their senior leaders. This will result in a healthy working environment. Since subordinates will be content with their roles, they will be able to effectively perform their responsibilities with a positive attitude. This view also coincides with several previous interviewees' responses in terms of credibility and its impact on the subordinates, as expressed by participants 5, 13 and 20 below:

"We can realise that when a subordinate feels that his/her leader has continuous communication with him/her on most occasions and in different circumstances, then a strong tie would result. Consequently, we find that the subordinate determination towards work would become stronger than ever before, leading to higher morale and increasing productivity, thus completing tasks and achieving goals". (Participant 5)

"I consider that good communication with others is an incentive that encourages them to work hard, as it helps in reducing and breaking down barriers between a leader and his/her subordinates, leading to a convergence of views and avoiding mistakes as much as possible, and to increasing appreciation, respect, and loyalty for the leader, thus achieving the organisation's goals". (Participant 13)

"A successful leader does not work in isolation, but he/she should try to capture the hearts of his/her subordinates to achieve goals by listening to them, respecting their feelings, stimulating their desires, valuing their efforts, training them, guiding them, honouring them, contacting them and participating in their ceremonies, etc.". (Participant 20 – describing a good example of leadership emotional intelligence)

These views are also consistent with research literature that supports the good communication and its impact on others. According to Larson (2001) effective communication in the leadership of an organisation can help reduce barriers erected as a result of cultural and language differences. Organisational leadership can act to ensure that cultural misunderstandings are avoided, which can lead to increased performance, decreased errors and operations running more smoothly. Also the study of Kanungo and Mendonca (2001) indicated that since subordinates will know their roles in their respective teams, they will feel valued by their senior leaders and thus increase their levels of productivity, responsibility and integrity.

In contrast, participant (24) made a strong statement that, without good communication, even the most 'competent' leader is useless:

"Sometimes a leader has many skills except the ability to communicate well with others which makes him/her useless".

This view is supported by Hackman (2009) who confirmed that where poor communication skills are exhibited in the workplace, there will be increased levels of frustration and confusion amongst police officers. Accordingly, continuous communication with others leads to strengthening ties with them. These results are confirmed by previous studies (e.g., Herzberg, 1959; Kanungo and Mendonca, 2001; Larson, 2001; Hackman, 2009), which

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indicate that good communication with others is instrumental in influencing others and achieving organisational goals.

- **Ability/courage to make the right decisions:**

An examination of the participants' responses regarding the ability/courage to make the right decisions shows the positive impacts on others, as expressed by participants 3, 9 and 17 below:

> *"Making the right decision after deep and thorough consideration would support subordinates and strengthen their courage, because they trust their leaders' decisions and support when something goes wrong as a leader bears the consequences of his/her decision. Thus subordinates feel that their leader supports them which increases trust among them and gives a sense of organisational stability and thus they are better able to perform their jobs and reach their goals".* (Participant 3)

> *"Another important trait is the ability to make the right decisions at the right time, which a leader should never neglect, since the rightness of those decisions enables the leader to face various security challenges. It should be noted here that prominent qualities in the success or failure of making decisions relate to the timing of making a decision. Thus a decision can be effective because it is made at the right time which fits the event".* (Participant 9)

> *"...having courage to make right decisions - This is considered a very important and sensitive personal characteristic of a leader who has to make the right decision in critical situations which cause high tension for police organisations in general and for the leader in particular. In addition, decision making should be selecting the most appropriate alternative in proper time because this can lead to decision success or failure, which leads to increasing or losing confidence in the leader and this directly affects the success or failure of achieving goals".* (Participant (17)

The data are also supported by Cooper et al. (2005), whose study indicated that when a leader is faced with challenges, he looks for facts and figures that are directly linked with that challenge. It is also in line with Mumford et al.'s (2000) study which indicated that strong

decision making needs practice; thus the leader considers each decision as a practice and keeps on believing in his potential to make better decisions over time.

Thus, the interviews showed similar outcomes to those found in the results of other research , as the subordinates feel that their leaders support them and that they are working with leaders without fear or hesitation, which increases trust among them, gives a sense of organisational stability, and helps with job performance and achieving goals. Accordingly, all these results support the objectives of the current research.

- **Innovation and creativity:**

According to Gumusluoglu and llsev (2009a), an innovative leader is the one who can create an organisational environment where its employees can apply innovative thinking for the purpose of problem solving. Moreover, they design their thinking in such a way to develop new products or services. It is not just about hiring innovative people in the organisation but creating a culture that encourages imagination and innovation at work. This view coincides with several of the interviewees' responses in terms of innovation and creativity and its impact on others, as expressed by participants 2, 3, 4, 5 and 18 below:

> *"I learned innovation from Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid. After 20 days of my appointment, I felt the need for change and that leadership supports change for the better. In addition, "Dahhi Khalfan" is the first leader who introduced computers at the Dubai Police to improve the police system. As a result, innovation is developing new values or work styles through solutions that are compatible with the requirements of the new era as innovation would drive changes to improve organisation performance leading to achieving goals".* (Participant 2)

> *"Creativity is the discovery of something new. I personally believe that creativity results from a sense of the problem and finding a solution to an error. As a result, when a leader realises the importance of creativity in police organisations and how to deal with problems in a creative way, this produces confidence and trust among subordinates towards their leader, as well as security and environmental stability of the organisation".* (Participant 3)

> *"An effective leader cares about the development of his organisation by creating new goals and developing new methods. Similarly, an effective leader's thinking style must*

be fluent, original and flexible so he does not depend on traditional methods, but creates innovative ways. Thus, we find that workers' confidence has increased in this leader's abilities for having developed the means and methods of work to achieve the objectives of the police organisation". (Participant 4)

"A creative leader perceives what others cannot see from a different perspective. A leader is a curious person who asks many questions (such as Why? How? Who? When? Where? Why?). And he is a person who talks with people on different topics. A creative leader has thorough information, constant enthusiasm, and is eager to take risks. He/she is someone who does not like to stand still but he/she tries out different things, always thinking with others, thus creating a positive environment in his/her organisation that is full of enthusiasm and cooperation among the work team". (Participant 5)

"The need and importance of creativity in police organisations appears when decision-maker leaders realise that there is a discrepancy between actual performance and the desired performance, and this disparity urges a leader to adopt a new method and to search to improve performance, and all of this can be done through creativity. In addition, creativity could affect a leader, subordinates or organisation directly to achieve its goals, such as 1) developing leaders' and subordinate's' abilities in creating new ideas, and 2) finding successful problem solutions in an original way, which leads to developing talents and discovering new things, leading to openness to new ideas and responding effectively to opportunities, challenges and responsibilities to manage risks and adapt to changes. To sum up, I advise leaders to practice creativity every day through learning and training processes because creativity gives a new horizon to satisfy human needs in a better-than-before way and helps to achieve the goals in a better and easier way". (Participant 18)

These views are also in line with Rosing et al. (2011) who pointed out that innovative thinking is a vital expansion to conventional business thinking. The data are also supported by Vaccaro et al. (2012) whose study indicated that the inventive leader needs a capable creative energy and strong interchangeable aptitudes. He likewise needs to have trust in his group and their capacity to cooperate to accomplish goals.

- **Ability to work within a team:**

According to Barner (2012) team building develops personal and group responsibility through focusing on personal and team achievements. Team-building managers, who will be perceived to be successful, are required to overcome the temptations of "vague" commitments within their teams. Vigilant project management in these teams will allow participants to be committed to the performance of particular responsibilities. Meetings will allow senior leaders in the organisation to check off the performed duties and achieved goals (Platow and Knippenberg, 2001). These views coincide with several interviewees' responses in terms of ability to work with a team and its impact on others, as expressed by participants 1, 19 and 24 below:

"In my view, a leader must have the ability to work within a team, and the team should feel the inspiration of their leader who gives each person his/her role. However, taking final decisions after consulting his/her team is a leader's job". (Participant 1)

"Police work is an outcome of collective efforts and not only the efforts of a leader himself/herself. In addition, this can be achieved only through developing the spirit of teamwork and cooperation between working groups as a whole, to make each member feel that he/she is an important part of the work team. As a result, when subordinates feel that they and their work are important, then they will do their best to accomplish the organisation's objectives". (Participant 19)

"A good team leader takes responsibility of his/her team, where he/she considers himself a partner in responsibility and duties, and does not feel afraid of doing his/her duties. This means that he/she does not abandon his/her responsibility or blame others when things go wrong, but he/she takes responsibility for any trouble, while encouraging other team members to recognise their contributions". (Participant 24)

Also, participant 24 added that

"Individuals are more susceptible to work effectively and be a role model for effective contribution when they feel valuable as team members since most individuals have interests in their personal feelings, and their relationships with others in a team more than their interest in their tasks within a team. Therefore, it is important for a team

leader to create a positive environment and to develop relationships among his/her team members, and this is important not only when creating the team but also when a new member joins this team". (Participant 24)

These views are also consistent with a previous study. For example, according to Platow and Knippenberg (2001) team building in an organisation can be advantageous since subordinates desire positive reinforcement from their senior leaders. If an organisation has satisfied team members, then the leaders will be happy and make long-term contributions to the organisation.

- **Ability to inspire others (motivate others):**

A number of studies have shown that the motivation, effectiveness and leadership are all interlinked (Maak and Pless, 2009; Manzoor, 2012; Zhu et al., 2012). An examination of the participants' responses regarding the motivation and its impacts on others, as expressed by participants 7, 21, 24 and 25, is presented below:

"In my view, motivation is the basis for achieving leadership and organisation goals and raising workers' productivity. In principle, the motivation process could be moral or in-token, and I think that moral motivation is more influential than the physical one, because moral motivation has psychological and human aspects. Examples include valuing subordinates' work and praising them to motivate them and push them to their limits, because they work hard because they feel that their leader values their work and motivates them to accomplish it, not out of fear of their leader". (Participant 7)

"Motivation is sending out positive energy by a leader in moments of subordinates' weakness when a leader pushes people toward hope and optimism in difficult moments such as defeat, distress or pain. Similarly, making subordinates feel secure is very crucial as, when people are with a leader who teaches and guides them, they would feel secure. Furthermore, delegating and empowering authority would enhance performance and people would offer new ideas and work harder as well as taking initiatives. In addition, morale or in-token rewards would help a lot". (Participant 21)

"A good leader makes people follow him because they opt for that voluntarily, which is called intrinsic motivation. One way a leader can motivate team members is by inspiring them through his/her enthusiasm and activity – i.e., to push them to their limits". (Participant 24)

"An effective leader is keen to motivate and encourage his/her subordinates to work and to be creative since this incites positive energies and raises the police performance level through praising successful jobs, encouraging achievements, permanent encouragement to subordinates, and accepting their innovative ideas. Moreover, leaders should realise that many great geniuses have been neglected because they did not find a leader who motivates and encourages fairly, wisely and shows a lot of concern, which results in a great deal of motivation at the appropriate moment". (Participant 25)

The findings in the current research are supported by the literature that indicates the importance of motivation in order to influence others. According to Manzoor (2012) the employee is to be motivated through effective leadership to create an impact of recognition and empowerment to achieve organisational effectiveness in terms of goals and objectives. This result was confirmed by Zhu et al. (2012) who indicated that empowering makes people feel that they are valued and appreciated in the organisation. In short, employee empowerment is related with the standards and principles entertained by the organisation for their motivation.

The findings also reflect those of Kanungo and Mendonca's (2001) study, which indicated that engagement of the subordinates occurs because members of the leader's team are always motivated to go to work. Subordinates will be usually motivated by their leaders' abilities to decipher organisational trends. Subordinates' satisfaction is likely to be evident.

The data are also supported by Maak and Pless (2009), whose findings indicated that when the organisation pays attention and affords status to the employee, the productivity increases. Leaders use these tactics as fundamental to making their leadership effective.

- **Having impact (influence) on others:**

The interviews showed similar outcomes to the results from other research in terms of influencing others, as expressed by participants 4, 5, 8, 11, 19 and 20 below:

"The effect on others can be emotional since emotions are a key to your relationships with others, and a leader needs to acquire knowledge and understanding of human nature to be effective and to have an impact on others. In addition, the effect can be through caring about human beings where we need a society that respects human lives and values their humanity, which can be achieved by persuasion - urging others to understand your view and support you and at the same time gain their trust while conveying facts. This can also be achieved by conveying facts or events. You might also show them solid facts and results by giving them tangible evidence and justifications without making them have a sense of inferiority or pride on your part. Another effect is being loyal which is the value that has been forgotten by a lot of organisations; that is to say, to make me know that I am important to you". (Participant 4)

"Communicating well with others leads to the essence of leadership which is having an effect on others as I said earlier, which can be attained through the role of a leader in guiding others on the right course. This can be achieved through the good role model that is observed by subordinates, besides good communication, and other effective leadership practices in order to accomplish tasks and achieve goals". (Participant 5)

"A leader should be effective to accomplish target goals and this represents the essence of leadership since having a positive impact is the fruit that an effective leader gets from working with others., Here a leader conveys his/her mission through his/her behaviour towards others rather than through power, which ultimately leads to obeying this leader voluntarily to achieve goals. Through this impact, a leader can create a harmonious atmosphere and appropriate climate for work, which raises employees' performance, productivity and cooperation to achieve organisational goals". (Participant 8)

"For a leader to have an effect on a group of people, subordinates should have self-confidence and confidence in their leader. Self-confidence is necessary for high

morale that makes subordinates perform quickly and happily, and makes them master their work. In general, a leader must have a strong personality that inspires confidence in his/her ability, and makes his/her subordinates recognise his/her abilities and follow him completely". (Participant 11)

"When a successful leader expects his/her subordinates to obey him/her and wants to have influence on them, he/she should in turn serve them. Obviously, actual leadership is based on serving others, sacrifice and the pursuit of doing what is good for them. This effect cannot be attained by titles or prestigious positions or something like that, but by having an influence over others - as the proverb says, "As you sow, so will you reap". So when a leader serves others, sacrifices for their sake and seeks to do his/her best for the interest and well-being of others, he/she will have a great influence on them. Some leaders cannot grasp the simple fact that says that if a leader met the needs of his/her subordinates they, in turn, would give him everything he/she needs, too. Finally, our leadership will not be measured by what we achieve ourselves, but by what we can accomplish through others". (Participant 19)

"Having influence on others: In my view, the strong impact of a leader which is derived from his/her personality and characteristics is greater than the impact derived from his/her legal authority in the police organisation. The former is derived from the leader's skills and experiences in his/her field, as well as from his/her subordinates' admiration of his/her charisma, feeling honoured to work with him/her and being draw to him/her because of his/her charming, attractive and strong personality. Therefore, a leader could influence his/her subordinates through his/her strong character and distinctive qualities to work to achieve organisational goals. This force is one of the most important traits that must be owned by a leader and then a leader should seek to develop it because of its positive impact on subordinates who will follow this leader voluntarily". (Participant 20)

This is interesting as these views are supported by several research studies. According to Zhang and Chua (2009) the leader takes control of everyone's ideas and comes up with a plan that satisfies everyone in a room. They are good at communicating with people around them, and developing a connection with them. They do not hide and move confidently around the space, personally coordinating with their team when necessary. In short, they are noticeable

to everyone present in the room. Moreover, Clark (2010) indicated that an efficient leader should be a teacher, mentor and role model - and should accomplish the vast majority of the work through positive influence, not authority. Leaders influence their subordinates to perform their duties so as to achieve set organisational targets. When subordinates are influenced by their leaders positively they will definitely do their best in their organisations. When leaders use appropriate communication approaches they have a positive influence on other individuals. Leaders can influence their subordinates positively by being practical in their instructions, and this can encourage workers' willingness to work even longer hours without any supervision - influencing workers enables them to be conversant with and feel confident in the responsibilities delegated to them.

These views are also consistent with those of Hoffman et al. (2011), which indicate that the personal attributes of a leader include his body language, voice and touch. For example, a leader with an inspiring loud voice can capture attention more easily. Similarly, as noted above, the way the leader communicates verbally and nonverbally also matters.

4.6 Research Objective 5

Objective 5 of this study was to **identify the key leadership characteristics of effective leaders in the UAE police** in order to **develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations** and for use in future research, based on their key LC identified in the present study. This objective was addressed through an integrated analysis of the ranking of LC by senior leaders (including commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (including departmental managers and heads of division). Table 4.14 below summarises the ranking results.

Table 4.14 Ranking of the leadership characteristics from the perspectives of senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (department managers and heads of division)

Leadership characteristics from the literature	Ranking of the Leadership Characteristics	
	From the perspectives of commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general	From the perspectives of department managers and heads of division
Having a forward-looking vision	1	8
Credibility	2	14
Integrity		6
Sincerity		7
Having impact (influence)	3	4
Ability / courage to make the right decision	4	23
Taking risks		9
Being a good communicator	5	10
Being a role model	6	2
Humility/Modesty		5
Ability to inspire others (motivate others)	7	13
The ability to work within a team	8	-
Creativity	9	3
Fairness / Justice	10	1
Strategic planning	11	-
Innovation	12	-

Transparency	13	15
Ability to delegate power		11
Commitment		12
Trustworthiness		16
Self-confidence		17
Efficiency		18
Wisdom		19
Hard working		20
Taking initiative		21
Ability to clarify tasks		22

Thirteen of the 26 LC that appear in the above table (i.e., 50%) identified in the literature were ranked by the senior leadership as being key LC.

Ten of these 13 characteristics were also ranked as LC by the operational leadership. This indicates that operational leaders had 76.9% consistency with senior UAE police leaders in terms of important LC, but had only 38.4% consistency with the literature. The author recognised the similarity of some of the LC that were ranked by the operational leadership but not mentioned by the senior leadership as key characteristics, and these have therefore been included alongside these characteristics, as follows: Integrity and Sincerity were included with Credibility, as they are aspects of/related to credibility; Humility/Modesty was included with being a Role Model; and Taking risks was included with Ability/Courage to make the right decisions. Three of the characteristics were ranked by the senior leadership as key characteristics but not by the operational leadership: The Ability to Work within a Team; Strategic Planning; and Innovation. Nine of the characteristics were ranked by the operational leaders as key characteristics but were not ranked by the senior leadership: Ability to delegate power; Commitment; Trustworthiness; Self-confidence; Efficiency; Wisdom; Hard working; Taking initiative; and Ability to clarify tasks.

Based on these comparisons, to identify the LC of effective leaders in the UAE police in order to develop a model of SLC for the UAE police organisations, the key characteristics that were ranked by both senior leaders and operational leaders were included. In addition, the characteristics that were related to one another, and ranked as key characteristics by either senior or operational leaders were also included in the model. Finally, the key characteristics

that were ranked by the senior leadership which were highlighted by more than one individual and most related to the impact of LE were included in the model. Evidence from the present study suggests that all of those characteristics can have an effective and strong impact on improving LE in terms of having a positive impact on others, and achieving the goals of police organisations. The impacts of the LC on LE were reported. These are: (1) *Having a positive impact on others* (motivating others, increasing performance and productivity among subordinates, increasing confidence between the leaders and their subordinates, promoting enthusiasm among employees, increasing appreciation, respect and loyalty, obeying the leaders voluntarily/willingly, continuing improvement and development, increasing morale, helping in achieving leadership successes, helping the subordinate to practice, increasing cohesion between leaders and subordinates, taking responsibility, ability to work with limited resources, and helping subordinates to recognise their abilities). (2) *Achieving the goals of police organisations* (creating of good working atmosphere, continuing improvement and development and helping in building successful teamwork).

Based on an integration of the desk research, documentary, qualitative and quantitative findings, this triangulation of data has enabled the researcher to develop a conceptual model of characteristics of effective leaders for the UAE police organisations, as described in Figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.5 Characteristics of Effective Leaders for the UAE Police Organisations

Effectiveness Outcomes		Key Characteristics

Strategic purpose
- Having a forward-looking vision
- Ability/courage to make the right decisions
- Ability/courage to take risks
- Creativity
- Strategic planning
- Innovation

people
- Motivate others
- Increase the performance and productivity
- Increase confidence
- Provoking enthusiasm
- Increases appreciation, respect and loyalty
- Obey the leaders willingly
- Continuous improvement and development
- Increase morale
- Achieving leadership successes
- Helps the subordinate to practice
- Increases cohesion
- Taking responsibility
- Ability to work with limited resources
- Helps subordinate to recognise their abilities

Leadership Characteristics

Personal (Interpersonal)
- Having impact (influence) on others
- Being a good communicator
- Being a role model
- Ability to inspire others (motivate others)
- Ability to work within a team

Impact

Qualities
- Credibility
- Integrity
- Sincerity
- Humility/Modesty
- Fairness/Justice
- Transparency

Police Organisations
- Achieving goals
- Creation of good working atmosphere
- Continuous improvement and development
- Building successful teamwork

Leadership Effectiveness
- Having a positive impact (influencing) on others
- Achieving the goals of police organisations

4.6.1 Discussion of the effective leadership model

The model presented in figure 4.5 above is an explanatory model as it suggests that specific LC are needed for effective leadership in the UAE's police organisations. Having conceptualised the model for effective senior-level police leadership, the discussion next evaluates the different aspects of the model against the literature, specifically regarding the LC at strategic, personal (interpersonal) and professional qualities levels. To test the reliability and validity of the model, characteristics identified within it are tested against characteristics or models of effective police leadership identified by the past researchers. Moreover, the discussion further moves towards linking the model with the particular style and theory of leadership such as which style of leadership and theory best fits into the characteristics for effective leadership identified in the model. This leads the discussion to identify the obstacles that could lie in the way forward for the implementation of the model in the context of the UAE's police organisations. Finally, the discussion highlights various limitations of the model in relation to generalisability and applicability both within and outside of the UAE.

4.6.1.1 Leadership effectiveness model

While investigating the effective LC, traits and assessment in the police, Schafer (2010) suggested that effective leadership has been a problem across the globe since, in the aftermath of any major criminal event, the head of the police organisation involved usually had to step down. In recognition of the Schafer's (2010) proposition, More and Miller (2014) asserted that, due to the continuous changes in the heads of police leadership, identification of the clear-cut LC has been a problem. On the other hand, More and Miller (2014) also recognise the fact that there tends to be a relationship between attributes of leadership with the style of leadership; therefore, exploratory or combined research endeavours are not appropriate. Thus, the Model of the Characteristics of Effective Leadership in the UAE Police presented in Figure 4.5 above is an explanatory one as it is based on the opinion of the senior and operational leaders at the UAE's police department. Another justification for the explanatory nature of the model is that it studies the problem of effective leadership and constructs the relationship between different characteristics of leaders and their impact on the LE (Saunders et al., 2014). The discussion below interprets all three such as strategic, personal (interpersonal) and professional qualities required to become an effective leader in the context of the UAE police leadership.

4.6.1.1.1 Strategic approach

While investigating the leadership skills required to be an effective leader, Yukl (2012) identified three types of skills required for effective leadership; these are *technical skills* in which the leader does not have to be an expert but should possess some know-how, *conceptual skills* that are primarily concerned with strategic orientation and, finally, *personal skills* required to deal with the people hence directly linking with the LC identified in the effective leadership model for the UAE police in figure 4.5 above. Furthermore, characteristics identified in the above model also match with the leadership competency model articulated by Dulewicz (1989) in which he identified four types of skills needed for effective leadership - intellectual, interpersonal, adaptability and result-orientation. Characteristics for effective leadership in figure 4.5 above such as having a forward-looking vision, ability to make the right decision, taking risk, creativity, strategic planning and innovation all require intellectual ability as, for Dulewicz (1989), intellectual competency includes strategic perspective, analysing and judgement, and planning and organisation. However, Yukl (2012) criticised Dulewicz's (1989) leadership competency model through arguing that while this model is useful for recruiting leaders such as placing the right people in the right job and developing people in the right way, it does not support TT that asserts that leaders are *born* with leadership qualities – they are not *taught* them. However, it does place emphasis on situational leadership theory (Tyssen et al., 2013). Yet, despite criticism of Dulewicz's (1989) model, Wigfield (1996) formed his own model in which the four factors - intellectual, interpersonal, adaptability and results-orientation - were added with more focus being given to strategic orientation of the leaders such as defining the organisational mission, strategy and vision. Wigfield (1996) defended their emphasis on putting strategic thinking capability as the most important factor for the effectiveness of senior police leaders through arguing that seniority involves increasing responsibility for steering the ship in the right direction, something that could not be possible without having a clear vision of the future.

While articulating the impact of strategic leadership on employees, Davies and Davies (2004) suggested that strategic leaders tend to possess various attributes that positively impact on subordinates. Such leaders possess charisma and vision through which they continue to inspire people. It is the strategic leadership that subordinates start to consider as a reflection of a leader's knowledge, experience and values that secures the subordinate's unquestionable loyalty to the leader.

4.6.1.1.2 Interpersonal approach

The second set of characteristics identified in the model of effective leadership in this research (figure 4.5) is personal (interpersonal) characteristics. Under personal (interpersonal) characteristics, factors such as having an impact (influence) on others, being a good communicator, being a role model, ability to inspire and motivate others and finally team workers have been considered as core personal characteristics required of an effective leader. The interpersonal related characteristics of leadership identified in the framework further challenge the bureaucratic perception of the leadership in the law enforcement agencies as Pearson and Herrington (2013) also signalled a negative relationship between autocratic leadership style and LE. In a nutshell, competencies at the interpersonal level such as communication and ability to inspire and motivate others directly linked themselves with the definition of the transactional style of leadership (Alvarez et al., 2014). While the above-mentioned proposition of Pearson and Herrington (2013) makes a direct link with the transformational style of leadership, however this style of leadership is in direct conflict with the organisational culture characteristics in the UAE. For instance, while investigating the effective leadership in implementing change in the case of Abu Dhabi Police (ADP), Alnuaimi (2013) found that due to cultural values of collectivism, tribalism and kinship, nepotism has been maintained in the ADP and that these cultural characteristics promote adoption of the transactional style of leadership. However, while the transactional style of leadership has been recognised for bringing radical change, it has, however been found negatively correlated with the effective communication, empowerment and psychological and cognitive motivation of employees (Cameron and Green, 2012).

These identified characteristics for effective leadership in the UAE go against the bureaucratic perception of leadership in law enforcement agencies that is also considered as negative behavioural factors impacting police leadership (Pearson-Goff and Herrington, 2013). While identifying the minimum requirements for police chiefs in the USA, Johnson (2005) found that despite the democratic cultural values of the society, when it comes to choosing senior-level police leadership, individuals from white communities are usually selected or improvised communities.

In a nutshell, the transformational style of leadership consists of characteristics of raising followers' consciousness through influencing their values and behaviour so that they move away from their personal interest in the favour of the interest of the organisation (Cameron

and Green, 2012) hence matches with the requirement of interpersonal characteristics to be an effective leader in the UAE's police as mentioned in figure 4.5 above. Therefore, it would not be wrong to suggest that the model for effective senior-level police leadership in this study shows that transformational leadership style is needed for effective leadership in the UAE's police organisations which goes against the cultural perspective of police leadership specifically and overall organisational perspective generally that used to cast leaders as adopting a narrow approach of controlling perspective, and having a tense relationship with subordinates (Flynn and Herrington, 2015). However, a recent study on effective police leadership by Schafer (2013) suggests preference for supportive and participatory styles of leadership in police organisations is rising as he found that, to be an effective leader in the police organisation, police leaders need to possess strong character, care for their subordinates, pay attention to the subordinates' needs, trust in them through empowerment and, finally, to do all that a leader needs to be an effective communicator. In the light of the findings of past researchers (Densten, 1999; Johnson, 2005; Alnuaimi, 2013; Schafer, 2013; Flynn and Herrington, 2015;) it would be appropriate to argue that interpersonal LC identified in the effective leadership model for the UAE's police organisations in figure 4.5 above are both theoretically and practically correct.

When it comes to the impact of personal characteristics of leaders on the organisational performance, Schaubroeck et al. (2013) argued that relational characteristics of leaders positively impacts employee's sentiments about role-related interpersonal relationships that due to leader's positive behaviour tend to transfer psychologically to the broader referent of their organisation. By 'referent', Schaubroeck et al. (2013) meant that subordinates feel proud to be associated with the organisation or the leader and hence become a referent group. Similarly, the study by Roberts et al. (2005) indicated that establishment of the positive relationship between leaders and subordinates creates a positive working environment, trust and mutual respect that results in improving organisational performance.

4.6.1.1.3 Professional qualities
The third characteristics that have been recognised to be impacting the effective leadership is called as professional qualities that include credibility, integrity, sincerity, humility, fairness and transparency as shown in figure 4.5 above. Batts et al. (2012) substantiated the above mentioned professional characteristics required for effective leadership through linking integrity, credibility, sincerity and other characteristics to the phenomenon of ethical

leadership. Similarly, according to Bryman (2013), while effective leader tends to lead ethically, ineffective leaders tend to possess questionable character, neglect the needs of subordinates, fails to communicate and finally neglect the need to lead ethically. The question that can be raised here is about which style of leadership would fit into the professional skills described in the figure 4.5 above, to this end both transactional and transformational style of leadership has been considered to be ethical. Despite the criticism of the transactional style of leadership it has been tagged as more successful in motivating and satisfying subordinates and getting things done radically quickly (Cordner, 2016). However, Adebayo (2005) discounted transactional style of leadership in favour of the transformational style of leadership through suggesting that it was more ethical and that leaders adopting the transactional style of leadership tend to attract more complaints as compared to their counterparts.

Considering the impact of the professional LC on the employees Zhu et al. (2004) suggested that, by being fair, honest and sincere, leaders improve morale of their subordinates. Moreover, transparency results in creating trust among leaders and subordinates and assists in elevating the subordinates' self-awareness and self-actualisation (Aronson, 2001). On the other hand, Mayer et al. (2012) emphasised the importance of professional characteristics of leadership for their role in gaining intrinsic employee commitment within the organisation. To this end, Mayer et al. (2012) suggested that since ethical LC results in establishing self-actualisation among subordinates, employees subsequently feel empowered and trusted. These feelings in turn establish a psychological state of intrinsic commitment to the organisation.

Overall, the discussion on the strategic, personal (interpersonal) and professional qualities of leaders above shows that these three qualities impact the people and organisational practices in an organisation, thereby substantiating the creditability of the effective leadership model presented in figure 4.5 above.

4.6.1.2 Application of the effective leadership model in the UAE's police organisations

One of the most interesting findings of this study is that it defied the odds and resulted in constructing a model that is compatible with the credentials of the *transformational* style of leadership, challenging the conviction of past studies that identified a predominant use of the *transactional* style of leadership in the police organisations (Densten, 1999; Seba, 2012;

Alnuaimi, 2013; Al-Qahtani et al., 2015). Messe and Ortmeier (2004) articulated the reason behind the prevalence of the transactional style of leadership in police organisations by arguing that police need to respond reactively and bureaucratically to an emergency situation, hence leaving little room for strategic or creative thinking. However, it is often not only cited but also practically approved that transformational leadership style is more effective since it inspires and motivates subordinates (Myhill and Bradford, 2013). Considering that organisational structure in the UAE's public sector organisation is usually based on power culture, in principle police organisations in the UAE are governed through religious ideologies.   Hence it would be wrong to suggest that - over time – the cultural values of the UAE's police organisations have changed since religious values tend to be static in nature and time (Alnuaimi, 2013). Similarly, Kalantri (2005) also suggested that the most important issues in an Islamic public management organisation in the Middle East are the leader's orientation towards self-control and lack of patience resulting in centralisation of the decision-making process hence giving rise to the power culture. It is the power culture of the UAE's police organisation that could create obstacles in the implementation of the effective leadership model presented in the UAE since leadership is culturally determined and power culture promotes a transactional style of leadership, whereas characteristics identified in the effective leadership model in figure 4.5 promote the transformational style of leadership (Alvesson, 2012; Thompson, 2013). Moreover, it is the rigid procedures, centralised authority and social values that have weakened the effectiveness of the leadership in the Middle Eastern organisations (Qubaisi et al., 2015).

Moreover, in line with Hofstede's (2001) theory of cultural dimension, culture in the UAE promotes high collectivism, high power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hammoud, 2011). High power distance means that there is unequal distribution of power within the organisation and that leaders do not like to delegate power or to be questioned by subordinates, whereas communication and ability to work in a team have been recognised as two of the core personal/interpersonal characteristics in the effective leadership model in figure 4.5. According to Hammoud (2011) it is due to the identification of the high collectivism, high power distance and uncertainty avoidance that culture in the Middle Eastern region tends to be deeply rooted in the autocratic style of management and promotes nepotism that results in promotion of corruption, dishonesty, favouritism and disintegration of the organisation. In contrast, literature on effective leadership requires a leader to possess credibility, integrity, sincerity, humility, fairness and transparency credentials (Tyseen et al.,

2014) and these characteristics have also been recognised as the core professional characteristics for the leader in the effective leadership in the framework for effective leadership in the UAE police (see figure 4.5 above). Unlike the case in the past when cultural values did impact the ethical characteristics of the police leaders in the UAE, the new Western-educated personnel in the UAE's police appeared to be more open to the ideas of integrity, sincerity, humility, fairness and transparency (Alnuaimi, 2013). However, while studying the effective leadership of change in the context of the Abu Dhabi Police organisations, Alnuaimi (2013) concluded that while leadership in the police organisation was effective in terms of style, having clear vision, values and mission, due to cultural values and tradition, however, it lacked in communicating, delegating power, being accountable and often appeared out of touch with the core problems facing not only the patrolling troops but also society as a whole. Similarly, in his study on the influence of Islamic values on organisational commitment and job satisfaction, Darwish (2001) concluded that change in the UAE's organisation suffers due to the lack of strategic leadership.

Findings from the analysis above suggest that to implement the effective leadership model proposed in this study, police organisations in the UAE will need to change their culture from a bureaucratic to a participative one since this will promote the transformational style of leadership with which effective leadership model is in direct compact (Alvesson, 2012). Moreover, to ensure that leaders influence the subordinates' values and rally them round to achieve the organisational purpose it is important for the management at the UAE's police organisations to sufficiently involve employees in the decision-making process and adopt an open-door policy (Alnuaimi, 2013).

With cultural change comes resistance to change that needs to be addressed decisively to ensure that senior management stays committed to the organisation and that they do not consider change in the culture a threat to their job (Hon and Crant, 2014). Murtagh et al. (2012) suggested that propensity of resistance to change differs from individual to individual; as while some will have higher levels of resistance to change, others will have lower levels. Oreg (2003) identified six reasons for resistance to change:

a) Threat to locus of control such as one fearing that change may result in them losing control over their work or surroundings.

b) Cognitive rigidity such as reluctance to act and think differently due to closed-mindedness.

c) Lack of psychological resilience that results in lowering the ability to adapt to the change.

d) Difficulty in adjusting to the new reality such as lack of acceptance of change.

e) Preference for the available framework and tend to perform poorly when faced with the new situation.

f) Unwillingness to relinquish old habits.

Source: Oreg (2003).

Although it is beyond of the scope of this research to suggest a complete change implementation programme for the UAE's police, changes needed to implement change are briefly touched upon here. Analysis above shows that implementation of the effective leadership model (presented in figure 4.5) will trigger change in the style of leadership of the senior-level management at the UAE's police organisations. Todnem (2005, p. 369) defined change as the *"Process of continually renewing an organisation's direction, structure and capabilities to serve the ever-changing needs of external and internal customers"*. The implementation of change requires the organisation to identify the driver of change; in the case of the UAE's police organisations, this would be internal drivers such as improvements in the LE that will lead to improvement in the overall organisational performance (Todnem, 2005). Change at senior-level LC at the UAE's police organisations can be brought about by two major approaches such as planned and unplanned. Under planned approach to change Lewin's (1946) three-stage model, despite of its age, has been considered as an effective tool for bringing cultural change (Burnes, 2004; Burnes and Cooke, 2013; Cummings et al., 2016). Lewin (1946, p. 55) was very specific about the close relationship between culture and leadership as he asserted that "Change in culture requires the change of leadership". Hence, to change the behaviour of leaders at the UAE's police organisations, there will be a need for leadership from the very top hierarchy that could perhaps come from the MOI. Requirement of effective leadership for change has also been supported from the cultural-excellence approach (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Kanter, 1989) through arguing that strong appropriate organisational culture such as the one that promotes flexibility, empowerment and motivation should prevail within the organisation.

Lewin's (1946) model is based on three-stages such as unfreeze, move and refreeze. The core assumption of Lewin's model is that before adopting new behaviour, old behaviour needs to be discarded (Bamford and Forrester, 2003). The discussion below describes the way an effective leadership model can be implemented within the UAE's police organisations through using Lewin's (1946) three-step model:

Unfreeze

Consider that current organisational culture and leadership practices within the UAE's police are based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium that is supported by the religious and tribal values, both of which act as restraining forces while implementing the proposed effective leadership model. To break the equilibrium, the hierarchy from within the MOI will need to take charge and present senior management of the UAE's police with the facts about the benefits of implementing the new leadership model. In a nutshell, this 'unfreezing' stage can be implemented via three processes; these are 1) creating disconfirmation among senior leaders with the validity of the status-quo; 2) establishing a sense of urgency through providing vision for change such as improvement in the LE, and finally 3) creating a psychological safety net that can be done through assuring management that implementation of the effective leadership model is not a risk to their jobs (Cummings et al., 2016).

Moving

Burnes and Cooke (2013) asserted that at this stage of the model leadership needs to create motivation among people to learn about change. For the UAE's police, this means that hierarchy should motivate senior management to learn about the different characteristics of leadership identified in the model. This can be done through sending management on leadership training courses to not only learn about the transformational leadership style but also to experience the effectiveness of leadership when the transformational style is practiced.

Refreezing

In the last step of Lewin's (1946) model, management should seek stability in the leadership style and effectiveness in the UAE's police organisations. However, at this stage, the force that creates quasi-equilibrium will not be the tribal or religious values; instead it will be the requirement for improving the performance of the police organisations. According to Cummings et al. (2016), given the fact that culture of an organisation does not form overnight but takes shape over a period of years, the danger of people regressing back to the old

behaviours tends to be high. This could be more challenging for the UAE's police organisations because, at one end, it will need to ensure that its current leaders do not regress back to the old behaviour and at the other, it will need to ensure that new leaders understand the effective leadership model from the spirit of the letter.

4.6.1.3 Limitations of the model

Yin (2008) asserted that internal and external validity and reliability of the data are the three core factors that can be used to ascertain the standard of a particular research. One of the limitations of this research is the lack of mechanisms for leaders to monitor the extent of the effectiveness of the leadership. For instance, while targeted respondents in this study were the police leaders at senior level that included commanders-in-chief, their deputies and the directors general, according to Alnuaimi (2013), people in these positions are usually selected by the Supreme Security Council of the UAE whose members usually come from the royal family and tend to be held responsible for setting the strategic direction of the company. However, these people rarely get involved in the daily running of the organisation so it may not be possible for them to identify the level of effectiveness that exists. This is the real solution that the effective leadership model proposed in this research seeks to achieve: for instance, LC identified in the model (figure 4.5) reflect the characteristics of the transformational leader which means the leaders are required to directly interact with the employees. In this case, they would be able to see the extent to which adoption of the new model has impacted their LE.

Transparency and imitation are other types of limitation upon which modern research tend to suffer (Creswell, 2013). To overcome the threat of this limitation present research has adopted modern research protocols such as passing academic ethical assessment, pre-informing all the respondents about the cause and benefit of the research to the whole of the UAE and finally providing complete freedom to respondents while answering the question. Moreover, transparency of the research has been kept through ensuring that all the data is saved securely and every argument raised has been backed up either theoretically and practically.

One of the most important limitations of the modern research is their generalizability that has been described as whether the derived conclusion will be applicable to other regions or countries or organisations (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The uniqueness of the effective

leadership model presented in the figure 4.5 above is that it can be implemented in every region regardless of culture. For instance, considering that countries in the Middle Eastern region shares the similar culture, values and beliefs hence application of the proposed effective leadership model in the countries in the Middle East can be implemented through using Lewin's (1946) three-stage model for its compatibility for bringing cultural change (Cummings and Worley, 2014). On the other hand, when it comes to the Western societies, it can be suggested that the proposed effective leadership model will be welcomed wholeheartedly since it promotes the transformational leadership style and voices have already been raised in these societies for converting the existing bureaucratic style of police leadership and organisational structure to one that promotes harmony, empowerment, involvement and innovation (Densten, 1999; More and Miller, 2014; Sarver and Miller, 2014). On the other hand, the assessment of the applicability and compatibility of the effective leadership model presented in figure 4.5 in other regions requires further research.

4.7 Chapter summary

In summary, this chapter has reported the findings of this study based upon the mixed methodologies that the researcher applied to collect qualitative data from semi-structured interviews (open-ended questions) and documentation (which are annual assessments of some individual leaders and general reports on the assessment of the leadership, 2013 and 2015), and quantitative data from structured questionnaires (closed-ended questions). This research focused on the key LC of the senior leadership and its impact on the LE, in order to achieve the main aim of this research which is to "develop a model of leadership characteristics of the senior leadership for the UAE police organisations".

In this chapter, the researcher integrated the findings of the research arranged in a logical sequence to address each of the five research objectives without bias. Also, the findings and insights through this research project have been summarised and discussed. It reflected on the results according to the five objectives stipulated in Chapter 1 and what has been achieved by addressing these aims. The researcher explained possible reasons for these findings, and tried to reach a new understanding and provide fresh insights about the problem after critically analysing the findings. The discussion part of this chapter also linked to the introduction in Chapter 1, by addressing the research objectives that the researcher formulated, and to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

The next chapter summarises the major findings of the study, presents the contributions of the study, states research limitations, and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter integrates the study findings from secondary and primary research on the key LC perceived to predict effective leadership, in the context of the UAE police organisation. It reiterates the specific research objectives, and summarises the key findings in relation to what is already known about this topic. This chapter also discusses the major contributions to literature and practice, the methodological limitations and implications for leadership theory and practice, and makes suggestions and recommendations for future research and practice. The ultimate aim of this study was to develop a model of SLC for the UAE police organisations that are associated with LE among UAE police leaders. To accomplish this aim, it was necessary to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the literature to determine what LC mean and how those concepts are relevant to the field of police leadership, before conducting mixed-methods research. It complements the existing research by broadening it to include the Arab perspective and experience on what are the most important LC to enhance LE; and to help UAE police leaders to make more evidence-based decisions in their assessment of what LC to screen for and/or develop in their potential leaders. This chapter reports the conclusions and recommendations arising from this mixed-methods exploratory study.

5.2 Summary of major findings:

The main findings of this research are addressed in Chapter 4 dealing with data presentation, analysis and discussion. The following section summarises what this thesis achieved to further our understanding of the SLC and their impact on LE along the five objectives that were stipulated in Chapter 1 (see Table 1.1). As the researcher mentioned above, this study has set out to investigate the key LC and their impact on LE, in order to achieve the main aim of the research as specified in the Chapter One.

Consequently, the significant findings of all the research objectives are listed as follows:

Objective 1

Investigate the concept of leadership characteristics and the leadership effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

To achieve above objective, review of the literature started through identifying the difference between leadership and management characteristics which set the basis for investigating the concept and characteristics of leadership. The analysis revealed that the survey results were consistent with the interview findings of the senior police leaders, as Personality in the survey question refers to both personal qualities and traits, which were mentioned by the senior leaders, and selected as the dominant response by operational leaders in the survey. Similarly, one-fifth of the survey respondents characterised leadership as involving All of the Above (i.e., personality, behaviour, skills), which was also reflected in many participants' interview responses, as they also described how personal qualities influence the leader's behaviour, and are also affected by their skills.

This research has also discussed the concept of LE from different perspectives. The results of this study are consistent with other research in that LE focuses on influencing followers and achieving the goals of policing institutions in the UAE; where leadership can be a process or practice of being able to influence others for the accomplishment of the goals.

Objective 2

Investigate the current predominant leadership characteristics of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

With regard to the CPSLC in the UAE police, the results show that the highest rank is given to integrity (mean of 4.85). This ranking is followed by sincerity (mean of 4.84); indicating a strong consensus among participants' views on the importance of these two characteristics. These rankings are followed by credibility (4.19), commitment (4.18), being a role model (4.14), justice (4.10), ability to make the right decision (4.10), hard working (4.08), being a good communicator (4.07), having a forward-looking vision (4.02), self-confidence (3.99), trustworthiness (3.98), efficiency (3.94), taking care of subordinates (3.87), ability to clarify tasks (3.81), ability to delegate power (3.79), humility/modesty (3.77), being a good listener (3.76), having impact/influence (3.73), wisdom (3.66), taking risks (3.65), transparency (3.63), having political skills (3.61), creativity (3.61), and ability to inspire others (3.59).

Note that all the characteristics included in this study are present to an above-average to a high degree among police leaders in the UAE, according to the participants. These characteristics are supported by a number of studies in the literature.

Objective 3

Investigate the key leadership characteristics that senior leaders (Commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (Departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the future.

In terms of the key SLC that senior leaders (commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general) and operational leaders (departmental managers and heads of division) in the UAE police believe are key to improving LE in the future, the survey results appear consistent with the interview findings. These characteristics include having a forward-looking vision, credibility, the ability to influence others, the ability/courage to take the right decisions, the ability to communicate well with others, being a role model, the ability to motivate others, the ability to work within a team, creativity, justice, strategic planning, innovation, transparency, integrity, humility/modesty, sincerity, taking risks, ability to delegate power, commitment, ability to inspire others, trustworthiness, self-confidence, efficiency, wisdom, hard working, taking initiative, and ability to clarify tasks. A number of studies identified in the literature have supported the results of this research.

Objective 4

Investigate the impact of leadership characteristics identified in objective 3 on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police.

With regard to the impact of LC on the effectiveness of the senior leadership in the UAE police, there is almost complete consensus among the participants that LC have a great impact on LE. The interview responses were in line with the reviewed literature, such that LE refers to making a positive impact on others and achieving the desired results. Moreover, leadership qualities are reflected in a leader's effectiveness. These qualities include developing respect for leaders, trusting subordinates and what they say, motivating others, taking responsibility, developing and promoting teamwork, building good relations with

others in the work environment, completing required tasks with high precision, and continuous development.

Equally, LC have a significant impact on permanent development and promoting confidence and trust between a leader and his/her subordinates, and they give subordinates a sense that meeting their needs is important to the leader. This leads to a stable environment and cohesion, thus helping to achieve the desired objectives. The researcher realises that LC have a positive impact on a leader's effectiveness in terms of having an impact on others. This impact leads to greater cohesion between a leader and his/her subordinates, to high morale, to creating a positive environment in the organisation that is full of enthusiasm and cooperation, and to increasing the determination and will to perform at work, thus completing tasks and achieving goals. In addition, the impact can be on ideas, values, perceptions, trends, concepts or behaviours, as well as on physical aspects of the organisation.

Furthermore, when subordinates feel that they are important in the organisation and that they are part of achieved successes, they will obey a leader willingly and peacefully as a result of his/her credibility. In addition, motivating subordinates as a result of valuing their work makes everyone perform his/her best for their leader and to achieve goals.

Also, when a subordinate feels that the leader has continuous communication with them on most occasions and in different circumstances, strong ties will result which lead to higher morale, increased productivity, and increased task completion and goal achievement. Beside, effective communication and listening by a leader to subordinates, as well as the leader's eagerness to understand their feelings and emotions, recognise their demands and solve their problems, strengthens and enhances the positive impact of leadership. This leads to developing talents and discovering new things, encouraging openness to new ideas and responding effectively to opportunities, challenges and responsibilities to manage risks and adapt to changes. This will stimulate a tendency to collaborate with others to discover their ideas and to contribute to making organisations a favourable environment for discovering and developing talent. As a result, this produces confidence and trust among subordinates towards their leader, and creates a positive environment in the organisation that is full of enthusiasm and cooperation among the work team as well as the security and environmental stability of the organisation, which means that the desired objectives can be achieved.

Finally, having these qualities can lead to increasing productivity of followers in the police organisations which makes the work environment easier and seamless. In addition, these leader characteristics help to keep competent people in the police organisations, and so these leadership qualities are very important for retaining highly skilled police personnel. After all, we can see the importance of working within a team in the police organisations and its results for leaders and their subordinates, and this will be felt positively through teamwork cohesion and harmony, less tension in the work environment, and high performance levels. These all lead to achieving goals more effectively through the effect of a leader's personal characteristics on the subordinates. A number of studies have supported the research results in terms of the impact of LC on their effectiveness.

Objective 5

Identify the key leadership characteristics of effective leaders in the UAE police in order to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations.

Figure 4.5 (as shown in Chapter Four) presents the new conceptual model of characteristics of effective leaders for the UAE police organisation, which was developed by the researcher, based on a comprehensive review of LC literature and findings from in-depth interviews with senior UAE police leaders and a survey of mid-level operational leaders in the UAE police.

The model identified three essential constructs which senior police leaders would require to be perceived as effective leaders in the UAE police: (1) Having a strategic approach (having a forward-looking vision, having the ability/courage to make the right decisions; ability/courage to take risks, creativity, strategic planning, and innovation). (2) The key interpersonal characteristics needed include an ability to have an impact (influence) on others; be a good communicator, be a role model, be able to inspire/motivate others, and be able to work within a team). (3) The six professional qualities required for effective senior leadership are credibility, integrity, sincerity, humility/modesty, fairness/justice, and transparency.

Conceptually, this model hypothesises that these key LC would be related to specific, measurable leadership outcomes, including (1) having a positive impact on people, motivating others; increasing performance and productivity; increasing confidence; provoking enthusiasm; increasing appreciation, respect and loyalty; obeying this leader

willingly; continuous improvement and development; increasing morale; achieving leadership successes; helping the subordinate to practice; increasing cohesion; taking responsibility; able to work with limited resources; and able to help subordinates to recognise their abilities. (2) Achieving the goals of the police organisation; creating a good working atmosphere; continuous improvement and development; and building successful teamwork. It is important to mention that key characteristics of leadership identified in the proposed model are based on explanatory since they are based on the opinion of others hence they are not based on any hard measures.

5.3 Contributions to knowledge

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (1991, p. 141), doctoral research can make a contribution to knowledge in three principal ways: "as new knowledge about the world of management, as new theories and ideas, or as new methods of investigation", and this thesis incorporates some elements of each. This research makes a significant contribution to knowledge in a number of ways. It is among the first to directly investigate the key SLC and their impact on LE in order to develop a model of SLC that is commensurate with police institutions in the UAE. The study has addressed several gaps in the literature, including:

1) There is no previous published research on SLC in the UAE police, which forms the central problem that this current study addresses;

2) There has been a lack of sufficient investigation of LC to improve the LE of police leaders in Arab nations, particularly in the UAE police.

According to Ali (1989b), a significant gap exists in the literature on police differences in terms of LC between Western countries and Arab countries. These differences are due to several reasons, including culture, norms, customs, traditions, beliefs and religion. This is specifically the case in the UAE and can affect LE. Accordingly, the UAE is inherently different from Western society. So, it is unlikely that findings learned from research into LC in the police organisations, which is based on the experiences of Western societies, are directly transferable to the situation in the UAE police. It is anticipated that the culture, norms, beliefs and religion in the UAE might affect the police organisations need to adopt different characteristics to develop leaders.

3) Lack of sufficient investigation of the effect of LC on LE.

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The aim of this research is particularly to fill the gap in the existing research through the use of a mixed-method approach. This was achieved through the following phases:

4) Acknowledgement of the differences in the opinions of different-level leaders about the LC that leads to their effectiveness.

5.3.1 Contextual Contributions

As mentioned at the outset of this thesis, the researcher set out to investigate the key LC and their impact on LE. The results of this study support the perceptions among UAE police leaders of such relationships. Findings were unprecedented in their provision of a better understanding of the contextual reality of LC in the police organisations in the UAE. Based on the analysis of extensive literature in this study, only a limited amount has been done in the field of LC in Arab countries, and particularly within the UAE. The study also investigated the concept of LE and the impact of LC on LE, and their positive implications for others and for achieving the police organisational goals. This approach has special value, as no previous literature exists so the researcher had no pre-conceptions about the subject of LE for UAE police leaders.

Recent evidence indicates that very few studies have been undertaken to conceptualise a framework for LC in Arab countries, and particularly within the UAE. According to Kasim and Abdul Ghaffar (2012), some research has been conducted in Arab countries, which suggests that leadership in the Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative trends (e.g., Ali et al., 1997); but these studies were published more than a decade ago. Dahhan (1988) studied the leadership styles of Jordanian managers and concluded that they were following an authoritative type of leadership, a result that had also been established by Badaway (1980) for Middle East leaders. This inclination demonstrates the impact of Islamic and ethnic values and beliefs (Ali, 1989a; Randeree and Faramawy, 2011). This shows that SLC among police leaders has only received limited attention, particularly in Arab countries. The present study has investigated the key LC and their impact on the LE through a comprehensive literature review and mixed-method research in a particular setting (MOI in the UAE). In this sense, the present study's findings represent a significant contribution to the extant empirical literature on LC and their impact on LE in the police organisations.

5.3.2 Theoretical Contributions

The findings of this thesis support the traits leadership theory, which focuses primarily on defining the characteristics/traits required by police leaders to predict LE (Bass, 1991). TT is used in this study; it is not being tested to support or refute hypotheses but is employed as additional data, to build a model from the ground up. The development of a model of senior leadership characteristics for the UAE police organisations is a major achievement for the existing literature as no one has taken on the task of developing such a model for the leadership for the senior level police officers in the UAE. The proposed model has contributed towards identifying relationships between the LC and LE in the UAE police. The model demonstrated that LC are an important variable for improving LE in terms of having a positive impact on others and achieving the police organisational goals. The potential use of the model in the UAE police organisations could have positive impacts on the social fabric of the Emirates. The researcher believes/is confident that this model will prove valuable in other country contexts, and inform future research directions in LC. As a result, this study expands the conceptual underpinning of the TT of leadership. Therefore, this is also a strong contribution to the literature on leadership theories.

5.3.3 Methodological Contributions

The use of a mixed-method methodology to investigate the LC and their impact on LE in emerging nations such as the UAE has opened new doors for the applicability of such methodology in nations where it has proved difficult to identify the relevant data. Traditionally, research in emerging nations has adopted a single approach to data collection; either qualitative or quantitative methodology, or a systematic literature review (Silva and Weiss, 2004; Kouzes and Posner, 2007; Pearson-Goff and Herrington, 2013). Identification of the conceptual model through employing a mixed-method approach in this research means that it has substantiated the claim that qualitative findings of the LE and LC can be tested against quantitative data to create a much deeper understanding of a scenario. Another methodological contribution of this study lies in the targeted population; it involved a specifically targeted population in one country, the UAE, whereas previous LC researchers generally collected data from a range of countries (for instance, the study of Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Furthermore, descriptive data such as interviews have been backed up through using documentary evidence yet due to the confidentiality matter it has not been possible to provide the identity of the documentary evidence yet explanation has been provided as to

what documentary evidences aimed to achieve about the effective leadership characteristics in the UAE police.

5.3.4 Practical Contribution

One of the underlying drivers behind this thesis was a desire to make it as practically relevant as possible. The present study contributes to a better understanding of the LC and their impact on LE in the UAE police organisations and provides empirical evidence of the perceptions of participants (mid-level operational and senior UAE police leaders) on this matter. This study yields the following practical implications:

5.3.4.1 Awareness-raising

The work presented in this thesis can be applied to raise senior leaders' awareness of the importance of LC and their impact on LE. Information can be made available to senior leaders based on the literature review in Chapter 2, as well the findings of the study presented in Chapter 4. The findings of the present study suggest that specific LC (i.e., having a forward-looking vision, credibility, integrity, sincerity, having impact (influence), ability to make the right decision, taking risks, being a good communicator, being a role model, humility/modesty, ability to inspire others (motivate others), the ability to work within a team, creativity, fairness/justice, strategic planning, innovation and transparency) are the key characteristics in improving LE in terms of making a positive impact on others and achieving the police organisational goals. The impacts of the LC on LE were reported. These are: (1) *Having a positive impact on others* (motivating others, increasing performance and productivity among subordinates, increasing confidence between the leaders and their subordinates, promoting enthusiasm among employees, increasing appreciation, respect and loyalty, obeying the leaders voluntarily/willingly, continuing improvement and development, increasing morale, helping in achieving leadership successes, helping the subordinate to practice, increasing cohesion between leaders and subordinates, taking responsibility, ability to work with limited resources, and helping subordinates to recognise their abilities). (2) *Achieving the goals of police organisations* (creating of good working atmosphere, continuing improvement and development and helping in building successful teamwork).

Thus, great interest should be paid to these characteristics on a personal level by the leader in order to improve his/her effectiveness. Burgoyne et al. (2004) confirmed that an assessment conducted on an individual level is still the most developed. Eventually, if there is an

inclination or disposition in people towards practicing LC more effectively, then assessment of these characteristics can become the basis for selection in succession planning and in development decisions.

5.3.4.2 Processes of Selection, Promotion, Assessment and Developmental Decisions, among others.

This study has implications that directly concern police organisations and decision makers. This is relevant to selection, promotion, assessment, and developmental decisions, among others. The results of this study emphasised that there was a strong association between LC and LE. Therefore, the police organisations and decision makers in the UAE should seek to establish a regulatory environment that promotes optimum efficiency through LC. Thus strategies to discover and select leaders in the police organisations based on their personal LC can be developed.

5.3.4.3 Training of senior leaders

Insights gained from this study might also be suitable to generate training and educational programmes for senior leaders, to improve their knowledge and personal development as crucial and necessary (Cadbury, 1999). However, it may take some time for the positive outcomes to be realised and converted into measurable behavioural and attitudinal change; thus development is not always perceived to achieve the maximum effect (Burgoyne et al., 2004). Generally, it can be proposed that LC will be the most effective area to target for such interventions.

5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

5.4.1 Limitations:

Arguably, all research comes with some limitations. Similarly, this current study contains some methodological limitations that must be.

First, at the most basic level, the thesis is limited by development of a theoretical model of LC predicting LE, which has not been tested or validated in the present study in the UAE police leadership sample. The research findings are thus exploratory, and would need to be tested and validated in future research. For example, validation of the LC questionnaire could be achieved by first performing exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on the key characteristics reported by mid-level police leaders. This would help to (a) identify the

dominant/most important LC for enhancing LE; and (b) would help to organise the characteristics identified into distinct conceptual clusters (i.e., item-factor loadings, in order to determine if there is any latent structure to the LC that have been identified in this study). This analysis would assess the construct validity of the LC questionnaire. Predictive validity of the questionnaire on LC could then be investigated using regression analysis, to determine the impact of each LC (as the independent variables) on LE (as the dependent variable), while controlling for socio-demographic factors of police leader participants, that are known to be associated with LE (if not known, these could be tested using correlation/regression analysis). To facilitate this analysis, LE would need to be measured objectively, based on what the leaders actually do, and measurable outcomes would need to be assessed.

A second limitation of this study is that, while the researcher has identified key characteristics of effective police leaders, he has not gone further to classify these LC into any type of leadership style (e.g., charismatic leadership, prevention-oriented leadership, authentic leadership, transformational leadership, participative leadership, democratic leadership, servant leadership, etc.). Reducing the list of LC identified would help to provide a 'snapshot' big-picture understanding of the overall leadership style that the characteristics identified in the present study represent. They would also facilitate easier comparison with known police/public service leadership styles found in other countries and cultures.

Third, the generalisability of the empirical findings may be limited, as the study is based on a single-country/culture (single-setting). However, the broader size of the sample, complemented using random sampling of participants, has contributed towards mitigating the impact of this limitation, which increases its external validity (i.e. the ability to generalise the study findings to the target population of UAE police leaders). The sample, however, reflected the specific situation in the UAE police. However, data on the LC was gathered from a limited number of senior-level leaders in the UAE police. Hence transferability of the findings is limited as, due to confidentiality issues, only limited socio-demographic information about these participants was collected. This limitation is common to most qualitative research, which advocates small samples ($\leq$ 30 participants) and protection of participants' anonymity and confidentiality of their individual responses. Nonetheless, the qualitative findings were largely consistent with the quantitative survey findings of the mid-level operational leaders, which increases the dependability and credibility of the interview findings, suggesting they are representative of other senior leaders within the UAE police.

The question of whether findings of this study is generalizable to police organisations in other Arab countries remains to be investigated in future research. It is hoped that senior police leaders/researchers in other Arab countries would be interested enough in the present research findings to conduct research on their own police organisations to compare findings with the UAE police organisations. This is particularly likely as the UAE police organisation is highly respected in the Arab world and perceived as operating a best practice model that other Arab countries might learn from. It is also hoped that the present research will inspire police leaders and researchers in other non-Western/transition countries to conduct similar research, to build a global body of knowledge on key police LC and their relationship with police effectiveness, and also help to identify any cultural/contextual effects/constraints on what characteristics are considered to be effective, and why. In the twenty-first century, police organisations frequently collaborate internationally to combat crime and terrorism across countries; therefore, it is essential that developing and developed countries can implement a best practice model at senior leadership level, for assessment, selection and development of their key leaders.

One of the key problems of generalisability in this thesis comes from its approach. For instance, the present thesis adopted the case-study strategy under which it used the police organisation in the UAE; however, the case-study research strategy has been criticised for lacking scientific rigour, which results in the research failing to address the issue of generalisability (Noor, 2008). To overcome this problem of generalisability, components required for effective police leadership were extracted holistically; these included using multiple sources of evidence that ranged from interview, documentary evidence and survey questionnaire (Stenbacka, 2001). Nasif et al. (1991) also authenticated usage of multiple sources of research for overcoming the limitations of generalisability and strengthening the conclusion of the research. Furthermore, since the present study used findings of other relevant research for interpretation of the results, this supported generalisation of the findings (Noor, 2008).

Fourth, as data were only collected from the police organisations in UAE, which comprised the focus of this study, the findings may have limited significance within the larger Emirati context, and beyond. There is certainly a need to investigate LC and their impact on LE in other organisations in the Arab world, both public and private. The present findings might be

relevant for other Arab countries because of the existence of common ground between them, including religion, culture, customs, and traditions and so on. According to Rees and Althakhri (2008), cultural values vary from one country to another and perhaps evolve over time. Therefore, future studies could be expanded to include different regions at both local and international levels in order to develop wider understanding of the factors involved in effective senior police leadership, and the degree to which this is culturally specific (Hetland and Sandal, 2003).

In view of these limitations, the following suggestions for future research are discussed next.

5.4.2 Recommendations for future research:

A logical development arising from the present study would be to test the new conceptual model of effective UAE police LC in a cross-sectional questionnaire survey design, using a large random sample of UAE police leaders, to determine the validity and reliability of the model as an effective measurement tool for the assessment, selection, and development of UAE police leaders, as an empirical contribution to police leadership theory. This would constitute formative research. The model would also need to be tested using an experimental intervention approach, whereby early-career UAE police leaders are assessed on all of the key characteristics identified in this study, as baseline measures. Participants would then be randomly assigned to either intervention group (to receive training/mentoring in the development of these key LC), while the second group would act as the control (i.e., receive no training). Both groups could then be assessed one to two years later, to determine if the LC training has a significant effect on enhancing objective LE outcomes, as compared with controls. A duplicate study could be also conducted in the other Arab countries within the Middle East in order to build a more generalisable model of SLC and its impact on LE.

This study could be extended to include other elements (such as cultures, traditions, customs and believes) and their effects on LC and LE. An interesting question to ask is whether these elements (such as cultures, traditions, customs and believes) may make certain LC more or less effective, or whether they would in fact enhance or inhibit the LE. Addition of cultural factors is significant since culture is an organisational element that tends to impact all other organisational elements including leadership style (House et al., 2013). Similarly, in their investigation of the influence of gender and culture on leadership effectiveness, Ayman and Korabik (2010) concluded that cultural and gender characteristics can significantly change

the perception of people about what constitutes an effective leadership. On the other hand, Schyns and Schilling (2011) went as far as to challenge the applicability of leadership theories in different cultures – hence it becomes imperative in future studies to investigate the components required for effective leadership in the Arab culture and other cultures.

Furthermore, the approach to the present research study itself could be enhanced in several ways. More in-depth interviews are recommended so as to further develop the research findings. It is also proposed that a more detailed questionnaire is developed, based on the present findings.

This study focused on the key LC and their impact on LE in order to have a positive impact on others and achieve institutional goals. However, the research findings are not the sum total of what constitutes LE; this still leaves room to expand the scope of the research to account for other potential variables which may be linked to LC and LE. For instance, future research could examine the LE from the perspective of performing duties, or according to specific context, challenges and time (or specific situation). LE can also be examined on the basis of the values of leaders as stated, and last but not least, LE can be examined based on the ability of leader to bring about changes in the organisation (see, for example, Mark et al., 2012; Senior et al., 2012; Willocks, 2012; Net et al., 2015).

Furthermore, this study has also shown that perceptions of people about what constitutes effective leadership within the police organisation may change from post to post. For instance, the opinions of operational and senior leaders about what constitutes components of effective leader varied. The discussion in section 4.4.3 above shows that while characteristics such as being a role model and having an impact on – and the ability to influence – others have been identified to be the most important LC by both groups. However the groups differ in their evaluation or perception of effective leadership components when it comes to other factors. This conflict clearly shows that different groups of people may have different views of effective leadership since operational leaders' scope of responsibilities tends to be narrow compared to that of senior leaders; hence their view of leadership is going to be different. However, due to its limited scope, the present research has not been able to address this limitation, which then opens up the opportunity for further research to explore the reasons for perceived differences in the opinions of participants from different organisational levels about the key LC required to be an effective leader.

5.5 Chapter summary

This study investigated the key LC and their impact on LE. From the findings, the researcher subsequently developed a model of SLC for the UAE police.

The current study used a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to support its mixed-method approach. The results indicated that there was almost complete consensus among the participants that LC had a great impact on LE, where the LE refers to having a positive impact on others and achieving the desired results. This research has thus emphasised that there was a strong association between LC and LE.

While it is acknowledged that the present research contains some limitations, however, the development of the model of LC for the effective senior leadership in the UAE police is a milestone in the history of the field.

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Appendix A: Ethics approval

22nd December 2014

Dear Saifan Ali Khalifa Ali Saifan Alabdouli

Project Title: **Senior Leadership Characteristics in the UEA Police.**

Principal Investigator: **Saifan Ali Khalifa Ali Saifan Alabdouli.**

I am pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved by the Faculty Research Ethics Panel (FREP) under the terms of Anglia Ruskin University's Research Ethics Policy (Dated 23/6/14, Version 1).

Ethical approval is given for a period of three years from the date above.

It is your responsibility to ensure that you comply with Anglia Ruskin University's Research Ethics Policy and the Code of Practice for Applying for Ethical Approval at Anglia Ruskin University, including the following.

- The procedure for submitting substantial amendments to the committee, should there be any changes to your research. You cannot implement these amendments until you have received approval from FREP for them.
- The procedure for reporting adverse events and incidents.
- The Data Protection Act (1998) and any other legislation relevant to your research. You must also ensure that you are aware of any emerging legislation relating to your research and make any changes to your study (which you will need to obtain ethical approval for) to comply with this.
- Obtaining any further ethical approval required from the organisation or country (if not carrying out research in the UK) where you will be carrying the research out.

Please ensure that you send the FREP copies of this documentation if required, prior to starting your research.

- Any laws of the country where you are carrying the research and obtaining any other approvals or permissions that are required.
- Any professional codes of conduct relating to research or requirements from your funding body (please note that for externally funded research, a Project Risk Assessment must have been carried out prior to starting the research).
- Completing a Risk Assessment (Health and Safety) if required and updating this annually or if any aspects of your study change which affect this.
- Notifying the FREP Secretary when your study has ended.

Please also note that your research may be subject to random monitoring.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me. May I wish you the best of luck with your research.

Yours sincerely,

Dr Jonathan Wilson

Chair of the Faculty Research Ethics Panel (FREP)

Lord Ashcroft Building 322 - Cambridge Campus

T: + 44 - 0845 196 2249 / Ext. 2249

E: jonathan.wilson@anglia.ac.uk

Appendix B: Participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Section A: The Research Project

Title of project: Senior Leadership Characteristics in the UAE Police.

Purpose and value of study:

The main objective of this study is to develop a model of senior leadership characteristics which are significant for improving LE in the UAE police.

The study will contribute contextually, theoretically and practically to the existing literature by investigating the key SLC and their impact on LE in the UAE police.

The research is one of the first to directly investigate senior leaders' characteristics in relation to understanding and exploring the key characteristics of leadership in a way that is focused on improving leaders' effectiveness by developing a model of SLC that is commensurate with police institutions.

One of the gaps found in the literature is a lack of sufficient investigation of LC in order to improve the effectiveness of leadership. An analysis of literature shows that very few studies have been undertaken to conceptualise a framework for LC in Arab countries, and particularly within the UAE. According to Kasim (2012), some research that has been conducted in Arab countries suggests that leadership in Arab culture nurtures consultative and participative trends (e.g., Ali et al., 1997). These pieces of research are all out of date by more than a decade. Thus, this study could expand the current knowledge of SLC in the UAE and the Arab nations as a whole.

Another gap found in the literature is that there is insufficient investigation of the effect of LC on LE. One of the objectives of this study was to address this gap in the literature with both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the research. This pioneering research has the potential to contribute understanding of the potential impact of LC on LE. In their article *Police Leaders and Leadership Development: A Systematic Literature Review*, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) concluded that the characteristics that they refer to in their literature review are those that have emerged from the literature. This literature relies heavily on self-reported perceptions of what amounts to good leadership, and as such does not allow them to establish clear and objective measures of what good police leadership is. This indicates that the link between LC and good organisational leadership has not been established, and perhaps this research will help establish (or disprove) that link. It can be argued that a model of LC could be extremely useful in understanding the relationship between LC and LE. Therefore, this research makes a strong contribution to the literature on leadership and specifically senior leadership within UAE police institutions.

This study is expected to make a significant contribution to both theory and practice at a time when researchers are being urged to highlight the relevance of academic theory to practice and move towards making research relevant and useful to practitioners. Landy and Vasey (1991) confirm that analysing what skills and traits are required for some positions is a prerequisite for the development of selection schemes, training, evaluation systems and reward systems. Consequently, the implications of this research for practitioners include increasing the ability of organisations operating in the UAE police and decision makers to identify/develop leaders based on their characteristics, as well as the potential for identifying and fostering competencies required of leaders at higher levels within police institutions (such as promotion and the assumption of higher leadership positions).

Invitation to participate

The researcher invites the individual to take part in the research by becoming a member of the sample population from which interviews will be recorded/survey questionnaires will be completed. The selection of participants is in compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998). All participants will be informed at the outset what personal data will be required from them and what the data will be used for. The participation of the individual will allow the researcher to address the research question and complete the study.

Who is organising the research?

The research is being organised by the researcher, Saifan Ali Khalifa Ali Saifan, under the supervision of his doctoral supervisor. He is currently a PhD student at Anglia Ruskin University, UK.

What will happen to the results of the study?

The findings of the study will be published in the researcher's PhD thesis and academic articles in national/international research journals, and will be presented at national/international conferences.

Source of funding for the research

The research is entirely sponsored by Sharjah government, United Arab Emirates.

Contact for further information

For further information, please feel free to contact the researcher or the researcher's supervisors at:

Researcher: Saifan Ali Khalifa Ali Saifan

<div align="center">saifan.alabdouli@student.anglia.ac.uk</div>

Researcher's supervisors:

<div align="center">Dr Bronwyn Betts: Bronwyn.Betts@anglia.ac.uk</div>

<div align="center">Dr Tim Meaklim: tim.meaklim@yahoo.co.uk</div>

Section B: Your Participation in the Research Project

Why you have been invited to take part

The participant has been invited to take part in the research and become part of the research population to be interviewed/to complete the questionnaire. It is hoped that the information provided by the research participants will help the researcher to address the research questions. The participants will be provided with the participant information sheet that includes information about the nature of the study for the individual to read.

Whether you can refuse to take part and withdraw at anytime

However, the researcher would like to clarify that the research participant has the right to refuse to take part in the research before or during the study without giving a reason. If the participant withdraws, he/she will be asked if the researcher can still continue using the data in the study if it is not part of participation, as in the case of this study. Also, the participant will be reassured that disclosing any information to the researcher will not affect his/her professional/personal relationship with other organisational members, even if they refuse to participate or withdraw from the study.

What will happen if you agree to take part?

The researcher will assure the participants that the participation is voluntary. If the participant agrees to take part, he/she will be informed that the research has received ethical approval from Anglia Ruskin University, UK.

For semi-structured interviews, participants will be contacted to know their willingness and availability for interview to be held on/at a mutually agreed date, time and place. Before commencing the interview, participants will be provided with the PIS and their written consent will be obtained on the PCF. The participant will be informed that the interview will be audio-recorded and the recorded interviews will be transcribed. The transcribed document will be provided to the interview participants for their review. The participants will be interviewed according to an interview schedule.

Conversely, for quantitative data collection, the researcher will personally visit the research participant and will provide PIS. After being assured of their willingness to participate, the survey questionnaire will be handed over; on completion, this needs to be filed anonymously and will be collected on a mutually agreed date (receipt of completed questionnaires will be taken as consent to participate).

Further, agreement to participate in the research should not compromise the participant's legal rights should something go wrong.

Whether there are any risks involved (e.g., side effects from taking part) and if so what will be done to ensure your wellbeing/safety

Some potential concerns may arise from the fact that the researcher's position as an officer in the MOI in the UAE, that may restrict the research participants to disclose any information that they perceive could place them at unease. However, the researcher will assure them that their participation is voluntary and they could refuse to give answer to any question and/ or not compelled to provide any information that will make them uncomfortable or fear losing the personal/professional relationship.

As the interview participants will be interviewed as per their own convenience with complete anonymity and confidentiality, it is only a rare possibility that the participants would suffer from any form of several physical or emotional distress during the data collection process. In addition, the questionnaire will be completed anonymously and participants will have adequate time for questionnaire completion in their own chosen surroundings.

The researcher will comply with the ethical code of conduct that is mandatory according to UK legislation. Also, the researcher will ensure that the research is complying with any local laws in the UAE, concerning the local culture, customs and traditional beliefs in order to safeguard the integrity and well-being of all participants.

Whether there are any special precautions you must take before, during or after taking part in the study

There are no precautions that the participant has to undertake before, during or after the study.

What will happen to any information/data/samples that are collected from the participant?

The audio-recorded interviews will be transcribed whereas questionnaires data will be coded, entered into a statistical database, and then will be analysed to report findings. Data stored on the computers/laptops will be password protected. Paper documents including interview transcripts and completed questionnaires will be stored securely in a lockable drawer.

The data will be translated from Arabic to English by the researcher, and then sent back to the participants after the translation is completed in order to obtain their agreements and

permissions to use the translation of their answers in this study. However, only the researcher will have access to the data and it will be in an anonymised format, so as not to reveal the identity of the participant. Moreover, the researcher will only possess ownership of the data and the right to publish the findings under copyright laws.

Whether there are any benefits from taking part

Findings from my study will directly and indirectly benefit the research participants in that it will provide valuable input to the leaders concerning how "to develop a model of senior LC for the UAE police" and then investigate the impact of LC on LE. Consequently, the implications of this research for practitioners include increasing the ability of organisations operating in the UAE police and decision makers to identify/develop leaders based on their characteristics, as well as offering the potential for identifying and fostering competencies required of leaders at higher levels within police institutions (such as promotion and the assumption of higher leadership positions).

How your participation in the project will be kept confidential?

Every attempt will be made to keep the identities of all participants anonymous in compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998). Interview participants will be referred to by pseudonyms and survey questionnaires will be completed anonymously. However, research participants will be informed that there is some possibility that some direct quotes could be included in the thesis by using pseudonyms like "Participant 1". The researcher will explicitly mention that the data/information will only be used for the purpose of research, for academic publications, or presented at research conferences.

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS TO KEEP,

TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF YOUR CONSENT FORM

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

Title of the project: Senior Leadership Characteristics in the UAE Police.

Main investigator and contact details: Saifan Ali Khalifa Ali Saifan Alabdouli

saifan.alabdouli@student.anglia.ac.uk

Members of the research team: Dr Bronwyn Betts: bronwyn.betts@anglia.ac.uk

Dr Tim Meaklim: tim.meaklim@yahoo.co.uk

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet for the study. I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, for any reason and without prejudice.

3. I have been informed that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded.

4. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.

5. I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.

Data Protection: I agree to the University[1] processing personal data which I have supplied.

I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the Research Project

as outlined to me*

Name of participant (print) …………….…..………. Signed…………..…..….. Date ………..………

Researcher   (print) …………………..……. Signed…………..…..….. Date ……..…………

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS FORM TO KEEP

If you wish to withdraw from the research, please complete the form below and return to the main investigator named above.

Title of Project: **Senior Leadership Characteristics in the UAE Police.**

I WISH TO WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY

Signed: _____   Date:
_____

Appendix D: Interview Questions

<u>Core Interview Questions:</u>

The next series of questions will address the specific subject of senior leadership characteristics.

Q1: How would you define leadership characteristics in the UAE police organisations?

Q2: How would you define leadership effectiveness in the UAE police organisations?

Q3: What are the leadership characteristics that you believe are key to improving leadership effectiveness in the UAE police in the future?

Q4: Do you think leadership characteristics have an impact on effective leadership in the police organisations?

Q5: From your point of view, what are impacts of the leadership characteristics on their effectiveness?

Appendix E: Survey Questionnaires

Participation in this survey is voluntary and without risk, and is offered by the subject to further knowledge in the field of leadership characteristics and leadership effectiveness. Although participants are given the opportunity to voluntarily attach their names to the survey, all results will be reported anonymously.

Section A: Background of the participant. Please choose the appropriate answer from the following questions:

1. What is your gender?
☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. What is your age?
☐ 30-39   ☐ 40-49   ☐ 50-59   ☐ 60+

3. What is your position in the organisation?
☐ Department manager   ☐ Head division

4. Rank:
☐ Second Lieutenant   ☐ First Lieutenant   ☐ Captain
☐ Major   ☐ Lieutenant Colonel   ☐ Colonel

5. What is your education level?
☐ Intermediate diploma   ☐ Bachelor   ☐ Higher Diploma   ☐ Master
☐ Doctorate   ☐ Other

6. How long have you been working in the police sector?
☐ 5-10 years   ☐ 11-20 years   ☐ More than 20 years

7. From your perspective, leadership characteristics can be linked to:

☐ Personality.

☐ Behaviour.

☐ Skills.

☐ All of the above.

☐ Any other ……………………………….…………………………………………

8. From your perspective, leadership effectiveness can mean:

☐ Performing duties in the right way.

☐ Doing the right tasks, completing the activities and achieving goals.

☐ Increasing productivity with minimal time and available resources.

☐ All of the above.

☐ Any other ……………………………….…………………………………………

9. Here are a number of current leadership characteristics that may or may not apply to your leadership represented by the commander-in-chief, their deputies and directors-general in the police organisations. Please tick (√) (1= Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree) next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

	Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5
1	Integrity					
2	Sincerity					
3	Credibility					
4	Commitment					
5	Being a role model					
6	Fairness/Justice.					
7	Ability to make the right decision					
8	Hard working					
9	Being a good communicator					

	Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5
10	Having a forward-looking vision					
11	Self-confidence					
12	Trustworthiness					
13	Efficiency					
14	Taking care of subordinates					
15	Ability to clarify tasks					
16	Ability to delegate power					
17	Humility/Modesty					
18	Being a good listener					
19	Having impact (influence)					
20	Wisdom					
21	Taking risks					
22	Transparency					
23	Having political skills					
24	Creativity					
25	Ability to inspire others					
26	Taking initiative					

10. Please indicate the most important leadership characteristics for commanders-in-chief, their deputies and directors general in the UAE police to improve their effectiveness in the future, by ticking (√) (1= Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree) in the box that represents your opinion in each of the following:

	Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5
1	Integrity					
2	Sincerity					
3	Credibility					
4	Commitment					
5	Being a role model					
6	Fairness/Justice.					
7	Ability to make the right decision					
8	Hard working					
9	Being a good communicator					

10	Having a forward-looking vision					
11	Self-confidence					
12	Trustworthiness					
13	Efficiency					
14	Taking care of subordinates					
15	Ability to clarify tasks					
16	Ability to delegate power					
17	Humility / Modesty					
18	Being a good listener					
19	Having impact (influence)					
20	Wisdom					
21	Taking risks					
22	Transparency					
23	Having political skills					
24	Creativity					
25	Ability to inspire others					
26	Taking initiative					

11. <u>Do you think that leadership characteristics have an impact on the leader to be effective,</u> please tick (√) in the box that represents your opinion.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

Thank you for your participation and input.