

**Effective Leadership in Implementing Change in Arab Culture:**

**The Case of the Abu Dhabi Police**

By

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A thesis

submitted to the

Manchester Metropolitan University

in partial fulfilment

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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May 2013

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	ii
LIST OF TABLES .....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES .....	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .....	xii
DECLARATION .....	xiii
COPYRIGHT STATEMENT .....	xiv
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS .....	xv
ABSTRACT .....	xvi
CHAPTERS	
I Introduction.....	1
1.1 Overview of the study .....	2
1.2 Purpose of the study .....	2
1.3 Research questions .....	3
1.4 Study design .....	5
1.5 Significance.....	5
II Background: The United Arab Emirates .....	7
2.1 Location.....	7
2.2 Population .....	7
2.3 UAE Economy .....	7
2.4 Social Structure .....	9
2.4.1 Religion.....	9
2.4.2 Tribal influences .....	9
2.4.3 Traditional culture .....	10

2.4.4 Education.....	10
2.4.5 UAE Women’s Federation.....	11
2.5 Legal system.....	12
2.5.1 Court structure .....	12
2.5.2 Sharia courts.....	13
2.6 The political system .....	14
2.7 Middle East Culture: A Historical Perspective .....	16
2.8 Summary .....	18
 III Leadership - A Literature Review .....	 20
3.1 Introduction .....	20
3.2 Defining Leadership.....	21
3.3 Theoretical Foundation of Leadership Styles .....	22
3.3.1 Trait theory .....	25
3.3.2 Behavioral approach: The Ohio and Michigan studies .....	26
3.3.3 Contingency approach .....	27
3.3.3.1 LPC contingency model.....	29
3.3.3.2 Situational leadership theory.....	29
3.3.3.3 Path-Goal theory .....	32
3.4 New leadership: Transactional and transformational.....	34
3.4.1 Transactional leadership.....	34
3.4.2 Transformational leadership.....	36
3.5 Chapter summary .....	38
 IV Leadership forChange Management .....	 40
4.1 Introduction .....	40

4.2 Change .....	41
4.3 Leadership styles for planned change .....	41
4.4 Leadership styles for emergent change .....	43
4.5 Effective leadership for the successful implementation of change .....	44
4.6 Effective police leadership .....	57
4.7 Chapter summary .....	59
 V Culture and Leadership Style .....	 63
5.1 Introduction .....	63
5.1.1 Methods of researching organizational culture .....	63
5.1.2 Defining organizational culture.....	67
5.1.3 Applications of organizational culture research.....	70
5.1.4 Types of culture and appropriate leadership styles .....	73
5.2 Researching national culture .....	74
5.3 Social culture and its impact on leadership.....	76
5.3.1 Leadership in Arab culture.....	78
5.3.2 Islamic leadership.....	81
5.4 Leadership style and change management in the Middle East .....	82
5.5 Leadership research addressing culture .....	85
5.6 Factors influencing leadership and change management.....	88
5.7 Chapter summary .....	89
5.8 Conceptual framework.....	90
 VI Research Methodology .....	 97
6.1 Introduction .....	97

6.2 Philosophical assumptions .....	97
6.3 Research strategy: Case study .....	100
6.4. The case study organization .....	107
6.4.1 Historical background to policing in the UAE and Abu Dhabi .....	107
6.4.2 Four stages of development in the ADP .....	108
6.4.3 Creating a vision for change within the ADP .....	109
6.5 Triangulation of data within the study .....	111
6.6 Data collection methods .....	114
6.6.1 Sampling strategy .....	115
6.6.2 The questionnaire .....	115
6.6.2.1 Questionnaire construction and design .....	117
6.6.2.2 Questionnaire content.....	118
6.6.2.3 Language and wording .....	119
6.6.2.4 Question types .....	120
6.6.2.5 Rating scales.....	121
6.6.2.6 Piloting the questionnaire.....	122
6.6.2.7 Testing for reliability.....	123
6.6.2.8 Questionnaire sample .....	124
6.6.2.9 Gaining access.....	125
6.6.2.10 Administration of the questionnaire and response rate .....	125
6.6.2.11 Questionnaire analysis .....	126
6.6.3 Interviews .....	130
6.6.3.1 Interview design .....	132
6.6.3.2 Interview sample .....	134
6.6.3.3 Interview process .....	137

6.6.3.4 Ethical issues .....	140
6.5.2.5 Interview analysis.....	141
6.6.4 Document analysis .....	143
6.7 Confidentiality .....	146
6.8 Research questions .....	147
6.9 Chapter summary .....	148
 VII Quantitative Results .....	 150
7.1 Introduction .....	150
7.2 Demographic characteristics .....	151
7.3 Perceptions of strategic plan, vision and mission .....	152
7.4 Perceptions regarding leadership and change .....	156
7.4.1 Leadership style .....	159
7.4.2 Clear vision for change .....	162
7.4.3 Motivating employees to change .....	164
7.4.4 Communicating change.....	166
7.4.5 Involving employees in change.....	169
7.4.6 Delegation and empowerment.....	171
7.4.7 Overall evaluation .....	173
7.5 Correlation analysis of the six factors .....	174
7.6 Comparison of employees' perception among groups.....	178
7.6.1 Education .....	178
7.6.2 Experience.....	182
7.6.3 Position.....	185

VIII Qualitative Results .....	190
8.1 Introduction .....	190
8.2 Results of interview data analysis .....	190
8.2.1 Leadership style .....	190
8.2.2 Vision, mission and values .....	192
8.2.3 Motivation .....	192
8.2.4 Communication .....	193
8.2.5 Delegation and empowerment .....	194
8.2.6 Organizational culture .....	196
8.3 Document analysis .....	198
IX Discussion .....	203
9.1 Introduction .....	203
9.2 Leadership .....	203
9.2.1 Vision and change plan .....	204
9.2.2 Leadership style .....	206
9.2.3 Delegation and Empowerment .....	209
9.2.4 Communicating change .....	210
9.2.5 Motivating & Involving Employees .....	213
9.2.5.1 Involving employees in change .....	217
9.2.6 Correlation among the six leadership characteristics .....	218
9.3 Organizational culture .....	218
9.3.1 Organizational culture and implementing change .....	219
9.3.2 Organizational culture and leadership .....	220

X Conclusion.....	226
10.1 Introduction .....	226
10.2 Summary of literature review.....	228
10.3 Summary of methodology .....	229
10.4 Summary of key findings .....	231
10.5 Implications for practice .....	232
10.6 Contribution to knowledge.....	234
10.7 Limitations of the study .....	235
10.8 Future study.....	237
REFERENCES.....	239
APPENDIX 1 Interview questions .....	261
APPENDIX 2 Survey questionnaires .....	262
APPENDIX 3 Interviewees' responses.....	267



**LIST OF TABLES**

	Page
Table 1 Research questions .....	3
Table 2 Categorizing leadership styles .....	27
Table 3 Summary of leadership theories.....	60
Table 4 Leadership styles.....	84
Table 5 Strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods research .....	114
Table 6 Interview sample .....	136
Table 7 Research question and methods .....	147
Table 8 Demographic characteristics of the study sample.....	152
Table 9 Frequency table for second section of the questionnaire .....	153
Table 10 Descriptive statistics for questions related to leadership style.....	160
Table 11 Frequency table for questions related to leadership style .....	161
Table 12 Descriptive statistics for questions related to clear vision .....	163
Table 13 Frequency table for questions related to clear vision.....	163
Table 14 Descriptive statistics for questions related to motivation .....	165
Table 15 Frequency table for questions related to motivation.....	165
Table 16 Descriptive statistics for questions related to communication.....	167
Table 17 Frequency table for questions related to communication .....	168
Table 18 Descriptive statistics for questions related to involvement.....	170
Table 19 Frequency table for questions related to involvement .....	170
Table 20 Descriptive statistics for questions related to empowerment and delegation .....	172
Table 21 Frequency table for questions related to empowerment and delegation.....	172
Table 22 Descriptive statistics for overall leadership characteristics .....	174
Table 23 Estimated correlation matrix for the six leadership characteristics .....	176

Table 24 Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by educational qualification .....	180
Table 25 Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among groups with different educational qualifications.....	181
Table 26 Tukey comparison of leadership characteristics among groups with different educational qualifications.....	181
Table 27 Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by working experience .....	183
Table 28 Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among groups with different working experience .....	184
Table 29 Tukey HSD comparison of leadership characteristics among groups by working experience .....	185
Table 30 Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by position .....	187
Table 31 Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among groups by job position.....	188
Table 32 Tukey comparison of leadership among groups by position .....	189

## LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1 Approaches to understanding leadership theories .....	22
Figure 2 The Path-Goal model of leadership .....	33
Figure 3 The planned model of change.....	50
Figure 4 Conceptual framework of the study.....	91
Figure 5 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to leadership style .....	162
Figure 6 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to clear vision.....	164
Figure 7 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to motivation.....	166
Figure 8 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to communication .....	169
Figure 9 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to involvement .....	171
Figure 10 Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to empowerment and delegation .....	173
Figure 11 Bar chart of overall means for the six leadership characteristics .....	174

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

ADP: Abu Dhabi Police

ANOVA: Analysis of variance

FNC: Federal National Council

GCC: Gulf Cooperation Council

IPIC: International Petroleum Investment Co.

LPC: Least preferred co-worker

SD: Standard deviation

SLT: Situational leadership theory

UAE: United Arab Emirates

## **DECLARATION**

I state that no portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date:

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Many people deserve thanks and appreciation for this thesis. First, I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to my supervisors: Dr. John Pratten for his valuable time and guidance; also Dr. Kevin Gallimore for his support and guidance all the way to the end. My supervisors were always eager to help me through the toughest challenges during my studies at Manchester Metropolitan University. I give special thanks to the Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior His Highness Sheikh\ Saif Bin Zayed Al Nahyan for offering me a scholarship to for this degree. I also thank Major General Nasser for his support, encouragement and invaluable time. He has always been there to answer my questions and to ask good questions to help me think through my problems. Without his encouragement and constant guidance, I could not have finished this dissertation. I also thank Dr Rashid Althekeeri and Dr Ali AlGhufli for their thoughtful comments and valuable advice about how to organize my time and structure my thesis.

Special thanks are owed to my dissertation committee, for their insights and guidance offered throughout the programme. I am very thankful for the opportunity the ADP in the UAE offered me to conduct this research. I am grateful to all those who assisted me in the gathering of data and their willingness to participate in the research. I offer my sincere thanks to the director of the graduate programme for his encouragement and support throughout my five years at MMU.

I would like to thank my father and mother for their support during my study here; in particular, I thank my wife Aisha for her encouragement and thoughts of me being away in the UK, and my children Shamma, Salma and Mayed For being patient while am away from home.

### **ABSTRACT**

Leadership has a direct influence on actions in the work environment that enable changes. The present study examines the views of employees on effective leadership in implementing change in the context of the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). Employing a mixed-methods approach comprising the use of survey instruments, interviews and documents, the study identifies strengths and weaknesses in the ADP's leadership. Using a random sample of 288 ADP employees, the results of the survey, interviews and document analysis consistently show that the ADP leadership was dominated by a top-down approach and a directive and commanding leadership style which was effective in terms of having a clear vision for change, motivating employees to change and using empowerment and delegation, but rather weak in communicating change to employees and involving them in change, due to the culture and traditions. The findings also suggest that the employees' perceptions of leadership varied according to education, working experience and job position. Therefore, the ADP leadership should pay attention to the demands and expectations of employees at all levels in order to implement change more efficiently. The study further demonstrates that the six characteristics of leadership were intertwined. The organizational culture, which is rooted in Arab culture and police culture, has shaped the leadership styles in the ADP. The study contributes to a better understanding of the ADP's leadership characteristics and highlights future directions for improvement: the ADP leadership should focus on developing a better communication strategy and making employees more involved in the implementation of change. This study can be used as a model for future studies in other similar police leadership settings.



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

Leadership has a significant impact on the performance of organizations, as well as on how they implement change. Research shows that the success rate for implementing major organizational change is rather low, for several reasons (Higgs and Rowland, 2005). First, it requires the leadership and employees of the organization to have strong determination, commitment and a clear plan for implementing the change. Second, resistance to change is natural. Third, change creates uncertainty. Leaders need to communicate effectively and develop a shared understanding of the change events in order to ease the feeling of anxiety and ambiguity employees may have (Kanter, 1983; Covin & Kilmann, 1990). Therefore, the degree to which change is accomplished is largely based on the leaders' credibility and their communication about the change. In the public sector, leaders play a vital role in bringing about organizational change, although change is less frequent than in private business organizations (Abramson and Lawrence, 2001; Bingham and Wise, 1996; Borins, 2000). In addition, organizational culture has emerged as an important variable in determining the success of efforts to implement organizational change (Bate et al., 2000; Curry, 1992; Hercleuous, 2001). According to Cameron and Quinn's Competing Values Framework (1999), there are four dominant culture types: hierarchy, market, clan and adhocracy. These different organizational cultures influence leadership behaviour (Lok and Crawford, 1999). For example, clan culture is described as warm and friendly and is compatible with transformational leadership, while hierarchy culture is based on internal control and is associated with transactional leaders (Cameron and Quinn, 1999).

A variety of theories and models have been established in the literature, providing insights into the nature of organizational change and in particular, the role of leadership in

the process. However, different theoretical perspectives offer conflicting views and are not always applicable to a particular setting. For example, some of the theories attach little importance to human agency as a source of change (e.g. Hannan and Freeman, 1984; Scott, 2003), while others view leaders as the key drivers of change (e.g. Bass, 1985; Pfeffer and Salancik 1978).

Above all, there is a lack of empirical research to address this fundamental question in the context of Arab culture, which is viewed as hierarchical, emphasizing centralized management control, such as following the existing policies and procedures of the organization. Leadership under such a cultural influence can effectively respond to routine issues, but is sometimes incapable of dealing with unique situations. Therefore, this study aims to explore the leadership characteristics and influence of organizational culture on leadership in a public sector body, the Abu Dhabi Police, using a case study design.

### **1.1 Overview of the study**

The Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) is used as a case study in this research. Established in 1957, it is the primary law enforcement agency in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the capital of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Its mission is to work in a cooperative environment to provide a safe and secure society, free of crime or other types of law breaking. Its vision is to set up a professional and effective police staff whose main goal is to keep the community safe and free of crime and to spread confidence among the people (Abu Dhabi Police, n.d.). Recently, the ADP has applied new techniques and advanced management practices as part of its five-year strategic plan (2008-2012). In implementing this plan, the ADP has realized the need to implement change. As a public sector organization under the influence of Arab culture, the ADP is a unique case for the present study, which uses in-depth interviews, survey and document analysis to provide valuable empirical findings

which will be of interest when exploring the leadership and organizational culture of other Arab organizations.

## 1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this mixed-methodology study is to examine the leadership characteristics and organizational culture of the ADP of the Middle East in general and of the UAE in particular and thus to develop a better understanding of the role of such leadership characteristics in implementing change. Leadership in the law enforcement culture has changed over the decades and will continue to evolve in today's ever-changing environment. The present study examines police leadership, discusses its possible impact on the process of implementing change and considers how organizational culture affects leadership in this context.

## 1.3 Research questions

This research focuses on leadership characteristics and how culture affects leadership in the context of the ADP. More specifically, three questions are addressed (Table 1):

**Table 1: Research questions**

	<b>Questions</b>	<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Data sources</b>
1)	What are employees' perceptions regarding their managers' leadership styles?	To explore the leadership style in the ADP	Questionnaires, interviews and document analysis
2)	What are the characteristics of leadership deployed in implementing change in the ADP?	To examine the characteristics of leadership in implementing change in the ADP.	Questionnaires, interviews and document analysis
3)	How does national culture affect leadership styles in the ADP?	To identify the cultural variables that affect leadership in the ADP	Document analysis and questionnaire

**RQ1: What are employees' perceptions regarding their managers' leadership styles in Implementing change in the ADP?** Organizational leadership behaviours have a direct influence on actions in the work environment that enable change (Drucker, 1999). Previous studies have provided multiple theories and models explaining the effects of leadership in implementing change. However, few studies such have been set in a police force under the influence of Arab culture. Therefore, this study aims to investigate how the ADP leadership implements change, based on the perceptions of employees at all levels, via questionnaires, interviews and document analysis. In particular, it aims to explore the leadership style along with five skill sets: clear vision for change, motivating employees to change, communicating change to employees, involving employees in change, and empowerment and delegation by the leadership. By addressing this question, the present study provides useful information for the future development of more effective leaders.

**RQ2: What are the characteristics of leadership deployed in implementing change in the ADP?** An examination of the literature in the field of leadership reveals the fundamental traits linked to the success of implementing change in an organization, which have been incorporated into numerous change models (Gilley, 2005; Kotter, 1996; Ulrich, 1998). Successful organizations rely on a comprehensive understanding of their leaders' abilities and leadership styles (Chung-Herrera et al, 2003) Thus, this question address the characteristics of leadership deployed while implementing change.

**RQ3: How does national culture affect leadership styles in the ADP?** Leadership exists in all societies. However, the attributes that are seen as characteristic of leaders may vary across cultures (Den Hartog et al, 1999). According to House (1995), the prevailing leadership theories are primarily based on North American culture. Therefore, this study aims to address the question and provide empirical evidence in a different cultural context.

There is clearly a knowledge gap in the literature in terms of the extent to which leadership styles vary in accordance with culturally specific values and expectations. In particular, there is a lack of research on how Arab culture shapes leadership styles. The present study explores this important question by analyzing the relationship between culture and leadership in the ADP under the influence of Arab culture. This question is addressed by means of a questionnaire, interviews and document analysis.

#### **1.4 Study design**

This study adopts a mixed-methods case study design, using interviews, survey instruments and documents. Quantitative data were collected in a survey and were analyzed statistically; in-depth interviews provided a better picture of employees' perspectives on a few important issues; and document analysis facilitated the researcher's development of an extensive image of the research phenomenon that would not have been possible through the use of the survey and interviews alone.

#### **1.5 Significance**

It is anticipated that the study findings are significant in one or more of three ways. First, derived from a unique setting, the Abu Dhabi Police, the primary law enforcement agency in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, the study's findings represent a significant contribution to the extant empirical literature on the police leadership in the context of the Middle East in general and the UAE in particular. The importance of this contribution is amplified by the paucity of research on the topic of leadership in Arab culture. Second, by examining both general and culture-specific leadership characteristics, this study provides a basis for the construction of practice and/or policy recommendations aimed at implementing changes and improving organizational leadership in the ADP, which can be extended to other public sector bodies in the UAE and the Middle East in general. Third, the current findings

add to a growing body of literature on effective change leadership by identifying the most important elements of leadership in the implementation of change in a particular setting.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **BACKGROUND: THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES**

This chapter sets the geographical and cultural background to the study by outlining the history and current situation of the UAE.

#### **2.1 Location**

The United Arab Emirates is an oil-rich country, located on the Arabian Gulf. To the south-west lies the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, to the south the Sultanate of Oman and to the east the Gulf of Oman (UAE Interact, 2007).

#### **2.2 Population**

According to the Ministry of Information & Culture (2011), “The seven federation emirates have a total area of approximately 83,000 sq. km. The population is an estimated 8.9 million [including] only 890,00 UAE citizens, most of the population being from South Asia and some percentage from Europe and Africa and from various other countries.”

#### **2.3 UAE economy**

A number of natural resources, such as pearling, fishing and agriculture, including date cultivation, provided the main economic activity until the 1970s. Today, the UAE economy is dominated by with huge oil revenues, which provide great prosperity. According to the US Department of State, “The proven oil reserves in UAE are estimated at 98.10 billion barrels (bbl) and gas reserves were estimated 214.2 trillion cubic feet at the end of 2011”. Trading Economics (2010) states that “the UAE per capita income is \$47,215 purchasing power parity (PPP) in 2010 and it is comparable to other industrialized nations which have reached ideal income levels” (Shihab, 1999).

The GDP contribution is impacted by the shared distribution of the Emirates' petroleum sources (UAE Interact, 2007). Moreover, the outward investment for the UAE has become an important contributor to global capital markets, not only with oil and gas exportation, but also with many investment institutions such as Dubai Ports, Dubai Holdings, the Abu Dhabi Investment Council and the Abu Dhabi International Petroleum Investment Co.

The UAE is aiming to develop a modern port with the largest concentration of high technology in the world, as well as business and economic zones that offer services and technology for international businesses and trading. Because of the advantages for companies in Dubai's Jebel Ali Free Zone, many industries have been established there. It is now the most successful of its kind in the Middle East, with billions invested there by local and international firms. "Most recently, the government of Dubai has cleared a one million square meter area around the Dubai International Airport to create the Dubai Airport Free Zone"(UAE Trade, 2006, p1).

Although the GDP is mainly dependent on oil resources, the emirates are becoming more diverse. High-class tourism and international finance are the new sectors that are being developed most rapidly. The country has also invested in the latest technology and infrastructure. According to the CIA Factbook (2007), the property market has been liberalized "so that non-citizens can buy some of the assigned land, and this has caused a major increase in construction. Several new projects have been completed including the two palm islands, the World, Dubai Marina, Jumeirah Lake Towers, and a number of other developments."



## **2.4 Social structure**

### **2.4.1 Religion**

UAE citizens are mostly Arab Muslims, although there are also many non-Muslim Arabs including Christians, Jews and other religious groups (Abbas, 1990). The Arab relationship to Islam is very special, because the holy Quran was revealed in the Arabic language. Thus, Arabs are God's chosen elite in the Islamic world, summed up in the phrase, "*Islam was founded by Arabs...Arab Islam is the purest form of Islam*" (Abbas, 1990). The Quran is the holy book for Muslims, who base their daily lives on it. Indeed, it contains a comprehensive set of laws that guide Muslims' lives. Every Muslim is obligated to do a pilgrimage once in his or her life. The Moslem holy day is Friday. Abbas (1990) argues that Arabic and Islam remain the strongest elements inspiring the Arab nations and ensuring their stability and renewal (Abbas, 1990).

### **2.4.2 Tribal influences**

"Most citizens in UAE are tribal in origin, thus they have tribal last names which form a part of their own name" (Heard-Bey, 2003). This may also be the grandfather's or paternal name, which could lead many generations back. Recently, tribalism (sheikdom) was integrated into the political and economic system (Abbas, 1993) and some researchers use the term "bedoucracy" to denote the solving of contemporary problems by using a traditional system (Abd-al-Khaliq, 1984). The term also implies that in spite of modern technology and equipment, the Arabian administrator is still predominantly a traditional nomad in his way of thinking and patterns of behaviour (Al-Rumaihi, 1977). Another term being used is "sheikocracy", which according to Al-Kubaisy (1985) is a product of bureaucratic tendencies and the orientation and behaviour of sheiks. Thus, a major characteristic of sheikocracy is the exercise of hierarchical power. Al-Kubaisy (1985) points out that the hierarchal authority has its own set of laws, such as regulations reliant

on the personality and power of individuals. However, sheikocracy is not consistent with Islam; for example, favouring relatives or friends for appointment to senior positions in government organizations is against the teachings of Islam.

Today, while the UAE is moving from a tribal system to a modern governmental system, traditional tribal values are still practiced to some extent (Simadi, 2006).

#### **2.4.3 Traditional culture**

Traditional culture was very important to the founder of the UAE, Sheikh Zayed, who stated, “He who does not know his past cannot make the best of his present and future, for it is from the past that we learn. We gain experience and we take care advantage of the lessons and results” (UAE interact, 2007:20). While the Emirati people have undergone changes, they have always made sure that they do not forget the past and have maintained their cultural heritage through the generations. Thus, “the architects of the space-age have undoubtedly changed the face of their homeland; however, their designs reflect the restraining hand of tradition” (Casey, 1989:139). In other words, one of the best qualities of the modern UAE is that although it has gone through extensive modernization, its people have not abandoned their traditional Arab values. “In a world where the influences of urbanization are eroding family-life, spiritual and social traditions, it is extremely heartening to discover these aspects are held in high esteem in the Emirates” (Casey, 1989:140). It is this combination of traditional and modern that makes the organizational culture of the United Arab Emirates (and other countries of Arabian Gulf) unique.

#### **2.4.4 Education**

Education is a fundamental tool to develop skills for expansion in the Emirates. Thus, the UAE provides free education at all levels from kindergarten to postgraduate studies, which is beneficial for UAE citizens and the Arabic-speaking children of expatriates employed in the public sector (Shihab, 1999). The UAE’s educational institutions consist of public and

private sector schools, military schools, higher education and vocational training establishments (Shihab, 1999). The education system was established during the early 1970s and is a four-stage process covering 14 years of education, as follows: kindergarten (4-5 years old); primary (6-11 years); intermediate (12-14 years) and secondary (15-17 years) (Ministry of Education, 2010). UAE citizens are entitled to choose between studying at Emirati universities or abroad through the government scholarship system, and eighty percent of males and 95 percent of females apply during their final year of secondary school to enrol for higher education at home or abroad (Shihab, 1999).

A federal law on private education was passed in 2001, giving higher priority to the appointment of UAE nationals as well as to Arabs and expatriates living in the country (UAE Interact, 2007). Schools are required to segregate boys from girls from class five onwards, with exemption for foreign schools where the majority of students are non-Muslims, dependent on permission from the Cabinet (UAE Interact, 2007). Thus it can be said that there was a fundamental change towards a better educational system and a more educated population from 1975 to 2005.

#### **2.4.5 UAE Women's Federation**

Men and women have equal rights under the UAE constitution, which ensures that women benefit from the same legal status as men and can practice the same professions. In 1975, the UAE Women's Federation was established and headed by HH Sheikha Fatima Bent Mubarek. "The Federation's role is to support women in UAE who will play a vital role in the society. The Women's Federation has its own budget, which can run a variety of activities, such as mother and childcare, social affairs, religious affairs, cultural and heritage" (UAE Interact, 2007). Women now participate in the development of Emirati society, working as administrators, lawyers, teachers, and engineers and as members of the Federal National Council.

Sheikha Fatima is quoted as asserting, “UAE women enjoyed all their legal rights and freedom and have occupied some of the highest posts in the country thanks to the support of Sheikh Zayed. Despite this progress, UAE women maintain their traditional role as mothers, adhere to the teachings of Islam and are determined to reflect the true picture of their country” (UAE Government, 2008b).

## **2.5 Legal system**

Most countries in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) have the same sets of laws. For example, Sharia (Islamic law) constitutes the prime law. On the other hand, most of the laws applicable to foreign investment are contained in legislation enacted by the legislative authority and mainly based on European models, often French, patterned after Egyptian legislation (Mellahi, 2003).

### **2.5.1 Court structure**

The UAE operates a federal court structure with a final court of appeal in the capital city, the Abu Dhabi Supreme Court. However, other emirates such as Dubai and Ras Al-Khimah have their own court systems, which are not subordinate to the Federal Supreme Court (Abou Sakr, 2005).

The Federal Supreme Court is comprised of the three main branches: civil, criminal and Sharia or Islamic law. Again, the Dubai court structure comprises the Court of First Instance, the Court of Appeal and the Court of Cassation. The Court of First instance combines a Civil Court, Criminal Court and Sharia Court.

The Civil Court or the court of First Instance deals with issues such as commercial enterprise, including debt recovery cases. After the judgment, the parties may appeal on points of law alone to the Court of Cassation and the appeal should to be filed within 30 days. As for criminal actions, if an offence was committed, a statement of complaint should be filed with the local police station; the investigating officer has 42 hours to send it to the prosecutor’s office, in order to advise or make

recommendations to press charges. If the evidence is unclear, the prosecutor's office will then investigate the matter (Abou Sakr, 2005).

### 2.5.2 Sharia courts

Sharia or Islamic law courts work alongside the civil and criminal courts in the UAE, dealing mainly with civil matters between Muslims, such as family disputes, divorce, inheritance, child custody and the guardianship of minors. On the other hand, Sharia law does not apply to non-Muslims (Abou Sakr, 2005). For instance, if an offence such as murder is committed and the judge sentences the defendant to death, the case may be appealed to the ruler of the emirate or to the President of the Federation to make the final decision. Sharia has also been influenced by modern criminal law, so that Islamic nations no longer apply some punishments specified in the holy Quran, such as amputation, stoning and flogging. Such punishments are usually not applied if there is any small doubt as to the verdict.

The principal sources of Sharia are the Holy Quran, which Moslems accept as the word of God (Allah), and the Sunnah, which consists of the statements and deeds of the Prophet Mohammed, accepted by all Moslems (Abou Sakr, 2005). *Ijma* covers matters not specifically explained either in the Quran or in the Sunnah, which have been agreed among religious scholars (the Ulema). *Qiyas* (reasoning) is usually applied in complex cases in conjunction with the three other sources of law, where there is no source to provide the basis of a clear decision (Abou Sakr, 2005).

In Sharia law, like other legal systems, a person is presumed innocent until proven guilty. In order to prove either guilt or innocence, there must be a minimum of two eyewitnesses, depending on the seriousness of the case. If the persons cannot produce eyewitnesses, they should swear an oath that they believe themselves to be innocent. If

they refuse they will be judged as guilty, as Muslim belief states that perjurers will suffer hellfire and eternal damnation (Abou Sakr, 2005).

## **2.6 The political system**

The political system in the UAE is a unique combination of the traditional and modern, where political power is based on the dynastic position of the rulers and a tribal system of consensus (Mellahi 2003), but where “the country has progressed significantly towards a modern administrative structure whilst maintaining the best of traditions (Ministry of Information & Culture, 1993). Accordingly, “The election process is new to our people, so we need to educate the public about the objectives and mechanics of this national political programme. We are on the threshold of making history in grassroots political participation” (UAE Interact, 2007).

The federal system of government is composed of a Supreme Council, a Cabinet or Council of Ministers, a parliamentary body, the Federal National Council, and an independent judiciary, at the head of which is the Federal Supreme. Each member of the supreme council has agreed to be a member and has the right to elect a president and vice-president amongst their number, to serve a renewable five-year term of office (UAE Interact, 2007).

The first President elected was Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahayn, who was re-elected at five-yearly intervals until his death in November 2004, while the ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Rashid Al Maktoum, was elected the first Vice-President until his death in 1990. They were succeeded by their respective crown princes, who became the rulers of Abu Dhabi and Dubai and were then both elected by the Federal Supreme Council to become President. The current ruler of Abu Dhabi is HH Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahayn and the Vice-President is Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, who succeeded his elder brother, Sheikh Maktoum, on his death in early 2006 (UAE Interact, 2007).

The federal Supreme Council has both legislative and executive powers. It ratifies federal laws and decrees, and plans general policy (UAE Interact, 2007). The Council of Ministers, described in the constitution as the executive authority for the Federation, includes the usual complement of ministerial portfolios and is headed by the Prime Minister, chosen by the President in consultation with his colleagues on the Supreme Council. The current Prime Minister is the Vice-President. The Council of Ministers currently has 24 members, who were appointed on 11 February 2006 to form a new government (UAE Interact, 2007).

The Federal National Council (FNC), composed of 40 members drawn from the seven emirates, is currently in process of reforming to initiate better public participation in choosing its membership. The FNC's role is to consolidate the principles of Shura (consultation) in the country. However, under the constitution, the FNC has both a legislative and supervisory role, as well as the authority to summon and question any federal minister regarding his ministry's performance (UAE Interact, 2007).

The Federal Judiciary has total independence under the Constitution and includes the Federal Supreme Court and Courts of First instance. The Federal Supreme Court consists of five judges who are appointed by the Supreme Council of Rulers. These five judges decide on the constitutionality of federal laws and arbitrate on inter-emirate disagreements and disputes between the Federal Government and the emirates (UAE Interact, 2007).

Each of the emirates has its own local government, similar to the federal institutions, which carry out various administrative functions. They differ slightly in complexity, depending on factors such as area, population and level of development. Abu Dhabi has its own central body, the Executive Council, headed by the Crown Prince (UAE Interact, 2007).

Relations between federal institutions and local systems have changed and developed since they were founded in the early 1970s. Rulers may relinquish certain areas of authority to the federal government; one of the most important decisions was to unify the army in the mid-1970s (UAE Interact, 2007). They have also developed almost all aspects of life, for either UAE locals or expatriates.

## **2.7 Middle East culture: a historical perspective**

Traditionally, the Middle East region has been influenced by several different civilizations, including those of Persia, Babylonia and Egypt (Kalantari, 2005). All of these historical eras have massively affected the culture of public administration. From the early days of the Islamic government system to later ones, there have been different cultures, which have affected the way that things are done. Studies reveal that the cultural variables reflect the dominant values of a society, which in turn determine the functions, objectives and orientations of an organization (Clark, 1970; Crozier, 1964; Kalantari, 2005). Although Arabs are the dominant group in the Middle East, there are distinct ethnic affiliations (Caravan, 1964). This is evidenced by the fact that they have different leadership and organizational cultures across the region. Even in terms of political institutions, governance and power distribution, there is a huge amount of diversity (Shahin, 2004). This kind of cultural and leadership diversity transcends the main political domain to corporate organizations (House et al, 2004). However, as noted by Kalantari (2005), Islamic values are the most important common denominator that culturally connects the countries of the Middle East region. The result of effective institutional developments grounded in the core Islamic values that can determine the success and acceptability of public sector organizations in the region (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005; Kalantari, 2005).

Public administration in the Middle East rests on the belief that Allah is in charge and managers are mere servants of Allah and the people. The outcome is that there is a fine



line between religion, politics and economics in this region. Politics and religion are merged together and sometimes difficult to separate. The way people are governed is enshrined in the fundamental beliefs of the religious ideologies. This type of culture makes it difficult to bring about any meaningful change, even if the current socio-economic dynamic warrants new ways of doing things. The reason for this is that the core beliefs and values of Islam do not change with the dynamics of time and space, even if modern political, social and economic environments demand change. This inertia is inherent in most organizations in the Middle East (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005; Kalantari, 2005).

Kalantari (2005) expressively argues that among the most important issues in Islamic public management in the Middle East are self-control and patience, in Islamic administrative systems which are hierarchical and centralized. Relating this view to organizational culture, this highly centralised system may be regarded as a power culture (Handy, 1993) or a lion, as depicted by Line (1999). It is a management type that focuses on technical competency and high moral standards (Kalantari, 2005). The effect may be that managers are sometimes constrained in terms of what they may wish to implement, which may be in conflict with the deep-seated values of Islam. The general culture in the Middle East is seen to be relatively high in collectivism, power distance and responsibility avoidance (Hammoud, 2011), while its organizational culture is deeply rooted in consultation rather than more direct forms of participation or the delegation of authority (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005). As explained by Abdalati (1975), the principles of mutual consultation are fundamental to Islam, so that Moslems are expected to speak out in the sincerest and most effective manner in the best interests of society. Given this fundamental principle of mutual consultation, it is reasonable to conclude that managers or leaders are accountable to the whole community of stakeholders, their behaviour being benchmarked against the rules of Islam. According to Al-Yahya & Vengroff (2005), there seems to be a

consensus in the literature that decision-making behaviour in Arab work organizations tends to be “semi authoritarian”, with authority focused at the top and frequent use of informal consultative schemes. Al-Yahya & Vengroff (2005) cite previous studies (e.g. Huyette, 1985; Muna, 1980; Alshalan, 1991) as having revealed that Islam promotes the relationship between Islamic governance and Arab consultation culture as a practice throughout the Holy Book and the sayings and actions of the Prophet and his disciples. As a consequence, the belief in mutual consultation is fundamental to Islamic culture.

Al-Yahya & Vengroff (2005) also found in a study set in Saudi Arabia that the bureaucratic climate appeared less authoritarian and less constraining in certain areas than in the historically more traditional central region of Najid, where the least participative organizations were located. Thus, Arab culture should be examined precisely with regard to geography and culture.

According to Hofstede’s work on culture dimensions (Hofstede 1997, 2001), the UAE is high in power distance and low in individualism. High power distance means that there is a high degree of unequal distribution of power and wealth. Leaders have virtually unlimited power and followers are expected to obey them without question (Javidan et al, 2004). Low individualism means that the UAE is a collectivist society and that its people prefer to work in groups; loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount and overrides most other societal rules (Jones, 2007).

## **2.8 Summary**

Overall, the United Arab Emirates is undergoing rapid development across all sectors of its society. Most organizations in the UAE show high power distance, low individualism and high uncertainty avoidance, with a focus on strict rules, laws, policies and regulations. The UAE shares many aspects of its culture with other Arab countries and the Muslim faith plays a significant role in people’s lives. The national and cultural context reviewed

in this chapter provides the necessary background information for this study. Numerous studies support the contention that different national and cultural factors such as language, religion and values call for distinct leadership approaches (e.g. Hofstede, 1993; Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Triandis, 1993). Therefore, it is of great importance to understand the national and cultural background thoroughly before examining the effectiveness of leadership and change management. For example, according to Hofstede (2001), high power distance may lead to a very autocratic, controlling type of leadership. Likewise, House and Mitchell (1974) suggest that a directive leadership will be more effective in those societies with relatively high power distance, collectivism and uncertainty avoidance. The present study examines the connections between culture and leadership behaviour in the ADP and offers recommendations for effective leadership, which will serve as an important determinant of the UAE's future development.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LEADERSHIP - A LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The main purpose of this chapter is to review some of the key developments in the classification of leadership theories and to identify their advantages and disadvantages, in order to establish what might be the most effective characteristics of leadership in implementing change in organizations characterized by Arab culture.

Literature reviews are vital for demonstrating a comprehensive understanding of the subject, recognizing the value of the research and providing solid justification for the research question, study design and methodology. As explained by Tranfield et al (2003), the main aim of conducting a literature review is to aid the researcher in critically analysing the existing body of apposite academic work and deriving a precise research question from it that would further build upon existing knowledge. This is corroborated by Yin (2003:14), who argues that “a literature review must not be seen as an end in itself but as a means to an end”. Thus, the critical examination of a research topic identifies research gaps and provides comprehensive knowledge of a particular topic.

The present literature review can be seen to serve three detailed functions:

- 1) To overview leadership theories and their general advantages and disadvantages.
- 2) To identify the role of leadership in successful implementation of change.
- 3) To investigate international culture in general and Arabic culture in particular in terms of leadership and change.

Derue et al. (2011) point out that leadership is one of the most debated and researched areas of management studies. Gill (2006) suggests that since there is no

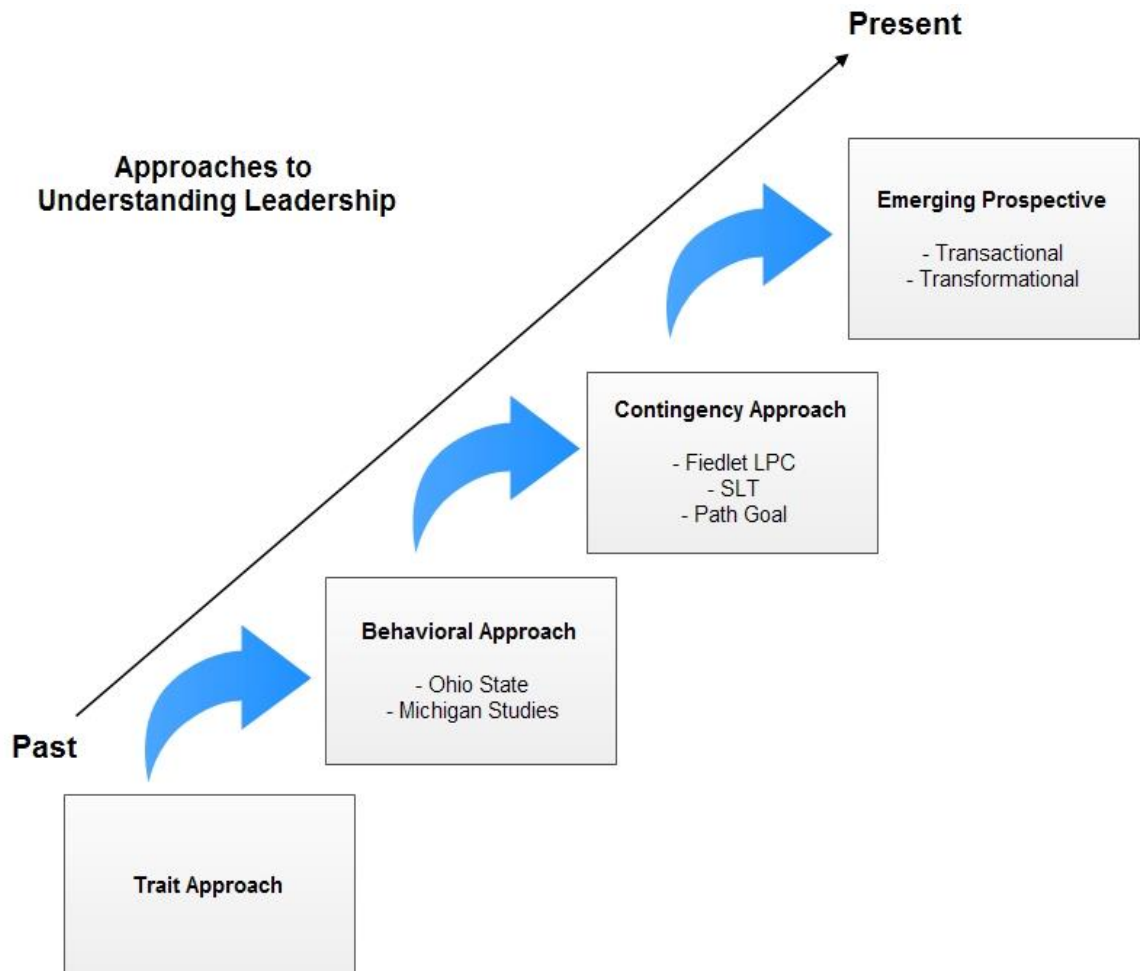
consensus on the meaning of leadership, none of the theories or models has provided a satisfactory explanation. The four main types of leadership theory are Trait Theory, Behaviour Approach Theory, Contingency Theory and Emergent Theory. While early leadership theories revolved around the traits and behaviours of leaders, situational factors were ignored. Several studies have demonstrated that situational and contingency factors are closely related to the nature of leadership and its consequences, thus paving the way for situational and contingency approaches to categorizing leadership types (Gregoire & Arendt, 2004). The following section analyses the crucial aspects of leadership theories in order to provide an overview of past analyses, which will help to contextualize this information in the current study.

### **3.2 Defining leadership**

While the concept of leadership is easily comprehensible, there is no universally agreed-upon definition of leadership due to the several reasons. Winston and Patterson (2006) have stated that their study revealed more than 90 variables affecting leadership phenomena. They have a viewpoint that it is very hard to follow a single definition of leadership. According to their definition, a leader is one who selects, equips and trains one or more followers. In accordance with the above, Goetsch and Divs (2006) view leadership as the ability to inspire people to make a total, willing and voluntary commitment to accomplish or exceed the organization goal. Stressing the impact of leadership on organizational effectiveness, Chiou & Chang (2009) suggest that leadership is a crucial element determining an organization's culture, shaping its vision and improving its profitability. Some of these definitions will enable us to analyze and discuss the alternative theories of leadership and as a result will help to develop a theoretical framework of the evolution of leadership styles.

### 3.3 Theoretical foundation of leadership styles

Figure 1 is an epigrammatic representation of the sequential emergence of leadership styles and approaches. This diagram attempts to trace the progression of leadership theories without implying that the older theories have been replaced or are no longer practised.



**Figure 1: Approaches to understanding leadership theories** (Source: researcher)

Yukl (1989) claims that the numerous studies of leadership, which have been conducted, are further extended by stories of military, political, religious and social heroes who have been accredited with important historical events. According to Yukl (1989), scientific research into leadership began in the 1920s. Several prominent researchers including Van Seters and Field (1990), Johns and Moser (2001) and Horner (1997) have since attempted to develop broad frameworks to characterize leadership theories. The early

leadership theories were primarily focusing on examining certain traits and qualities which differentiate leaders from their followers. Researchers like Bernard (1926) and Jenkins (1947) discussed this Trait Theory of leadership, which argues that specific traits and characteristics are associated with an individual's ability to lead. However, empirical studies did not support Trait Theory, as the list of traits mixes very different qualities, while different sets of traits are most effective in different situations.

This inconsistency led researchers to develop the Behavioural Approach, based on the empirical work of academics like Hunt and Larson (1974), Fleishman and Harris (1962), Yukl (1989) and Hersey and Blanchard (1979), then enhanced and documented by studies in the Michigan and Ohio State universities. This approach was mainly based on two important behavioural traits of leaders: initiating structure and consideration. The is based on the premise that effective leadership behaviours could be taught to employees.

A third development in the evolution of leadership theory is the Contingency Approach, based on the belief that effective leadership is contingent on one or more factors, including behaviour, personality, influence and situation, rather than any single one-dimensional factor. Fielder's Theory (1967) is the earliest and most extensively researched within the contingency approach. Fielder developed the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) model and found that task-oriented leaders were more effective in low and moderate control situations, whereas relationship-oriented ones were more effective in moderate control situations. Hersey and Blanchard (1970) proposed Situational Theory, which is an expansion of the notion of relationship and task dimensions to leadership. House and Mitchell (1974) then developed Path-Goal Theory, which states that leaders can increase subordinates' satisfaction and performance by clarifying and clearing their paths to goals and by increasing the number and kinds of rewards available for goal attainment. For

example, John (2011) states that the trait approach is one of the earliest theories of leadership to be developed.

The most recent major development in the evolution of leadership theory is Emergent Theory, which has dominated the study of organizational leadership for nearly 30 years. It posits that a leader must be proactive, radical, innovative, creative and open to new ideas. Such leaders must motivate their subordinates, instilling them a sense of commitment to the organization and align their objectives with the vision and objectives of the organization. In 1978, Burns introduced the theory of Transforming Leadership. Bass (1985) refined and expanded Burns's leadership theory and this has been used in organizational settings since the 1980s (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1990). Emergent Theory is the most appropriate framework for the present study, because it takes both change management and organizational culture into consideration. It states that transactional leaders influence their followers by contingent reinforcement and constructive rewards, eliminating performance problems by using corrective transactions between leader and followers, while transformational leaders influence their followers by inspiring a shared vision and encouraging them to look beyond self-interests for the good of the team and organization (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Transformational leadership is viewed as change-oriented leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 2000). Change must occur for a public sector body like the ADP to meet the ever-changing demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Transactional and transformational leadership can be viewed as the styles that a leader in the 21<sup>st</sup> century would want to use to meet the needs of employees and motivate them toward success and self-actualization. A further distinction between them is that transactional leaders work within their organizational cultures following existing rules, procedures and norms, while transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it, then realigning the organization's culture with a new vision and a



revision of its shared assumptions, values and norms (Bass, 1985). The effects of organizational culture on change will be explored in the next two chapters. Here, each of the above key leadership theories is now discussed in detail.

### **3.3.1 Trait Theory**

Trait Theory is considered one of the earliest recorded theories of leadership (Gehring, 2007) and to date, most empirical studies of leadership have focused primarily on the traits and abilities of leadership and have been based on the assumption that some people are born leaders, possessing superior qualities (Bratton et al, 2007). Gehring (2007) explains that leaders are believed to possess personal characteristics like intelligence, self-confidence and determination, which distinguish them from their followers. Jennings (1960) stressed that most contemporary theories were based on the “great man” leadership approach, which centred on the traits of great leaders like Napoleon, Churchill and Roosevelt. Stogdill (1974) examined over 100 studies based on the trait approach, which revealed that a number of traits were consistent with effective leadership, including an essential willingness to be in a position of control and dominance over others, and being familiar with the needs of others (Daft, 1999:65).

Nevertheless, Trait Theory has been criticized by several authors (Gehring, 2007; Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995) as failing to predict a consistent list of traits that differentiated a leader from a non-leader (Lewis et al, 1995). It also failed to recognize alternate factors such as varying situations or working relationships among members of a group. Stogdill (1948:64) asserts that “a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits.” In order to overcome the limitation of the trait theory, researchers in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century started working towards leadership theories based on the behaviour of the leader (Gehring, 2007). For example, recent research has tried to

overcome some of the methodological shortcomings which were due to the errors in the earliest trait theories of leadership (John, 2011).

### **3.3.2 Behavioural approach: the Ohio and Michigan studies**

Critiques of trait theories of leadership caused researchers to look beyond traits in leaders and to focus more on behaviors. This led to the behavioral approach in the late 1950s (Scott, Nahargang and Wellman, 2011). The Michigan and Ohio State studies identified two clusters of leadership styles, that is, task and relationship behaviours, from 1800 leadership behaviour items (Bratton et al, 2007). Leadership with task behaviour places importance on “getting things done”, while leadership with relationship behaviour focuses on the consideration of followers, such as supporting and respecting their views, and concentrating on achieving tasks (Bratton et al, 2007). A similar study was conducted by Lewin and his co-workers at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan in two dimensions, i.e. initiating structure and consideration (Bratton et al, 2007). Initiating structure reflects work organization, relationship interaction, defining of rules and establishing understandable communication in order to achieve organizational goals. The leader’s behaviour creates mutual trust and respect among the subordinates, as well as courage (Gill, 2006). The study revealed that these dimensions were uncorrelated; initiating structure could score higher than consideration, but in terms of employee satisfaction, consideration scores highly. The study indicated that these styles of leaders’ combinations can be effective, but they may not be effective in bringing about change, unlike instrumental leadership, which concerns organizational design, control and reward, including managing environments to create conditions that motivate desired behaviours (Nadler and Tushman, 1990:85). Certain subsequent field studies by Boyatzis (1982) and Bennis and Nanus (1985) showed that the measurement of the effectiveness of a leader’s behaviour was more complicated than a simple dichotomy of task and consideration. A

four-quadrant model of thinking was designed by the Ohio State researchers (Bratton et al, 2007) in order to characterize the leadership styles, as depicted in Table 2.

**Table 2: Categorizing leadership styles**

High consideration and high initiating structure	High consideration and low initiating structure
Low consideration and high initiating structure	Low consideration and low initiating structure

Source: adapted from Bratton et al (2007:140)

Although the statistical correlation is likely to support the contention that “high-high” is the best style (Van Fleet and Yukl, 1989), several field experiments (e.g. Fleishman and Harris, 1962; Skinner, 1969; Larson, Hunt and Osborn, 1976; Nystrom, 1978) indicate that this style is not universally optimal, since effective leadership behaviour also depends on certain situations. A study by Mullins (2007) demonstrates that the best leadership style is to maintain a balance of the two dimensions. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) investigated the consensus and assumptions of effective leaders and argue that leaders should combine both dimensions of behaviour. Gregoire & Arendt (2004) claim that although the behavioural approach explained the behaviours of effective leaders to a certain extent and did elucidate why they were effective, this theory ignored the situational factors. They explain that it is imperative for leaders to be familiar with a situation based on circumstances in order to be more effective. This view led to the emergence of the contingency approach and the situational approach as categories of leadership (Gregoire & Arendt, 2004).

### **3.3.3 Contingency approach**

Jago (1982) argues that trait theories have certain limitations, as they contradict behavioural theories of leadership. Furthermore, the study disproved the existence of a

universal set of traits that distinguish a leader from a follower, since a leader's success is contingent upon the situation. The above argument is attested by Van Seters and Field (1990) and Horner (1997), who mention that contingency theories reveal that effective leadership is an interplay of several variables, including behaviour, personality, influence and situation. As postulated by Saal and Knight (1988), contingency theories provide a more realistic view of leadership, with different styles fitting different situations. Landrum et al (2000) argue that management strategies based on contingency theories would ensure that the characteristics of the leader were in accordance with the situation prevailing in the organization. Supporting the contingency theory, Dym and Hutson (2005) state that leadership effectiveness depends on the matching of style and context. Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Theory postulates the requirement of placing a leader in situations most suited to them. According to this theory, the effectiveness of an individual's leadership style is task-oriented or people-oriented, and depends on the situation in terms of how defined and structured the work is, how much authority and power position the leader has and how strong the relationship is between the leader and followers (Fielder, 1969:230-241). While contingency theory is based on the assumption that the best-practice leadership is only "one best way" of acquiring specific characteristics of leadership, Senior (2002) asserts that there is "no one best way" of practicing leadership.

Discussing the limitations of contingency theories, Bass (1981) contends that although they have garnered support, often in the midst of critical decision-making situations, leaders would not have the time to analyse situations with this complex model. This argument is corroborated by Bryman (1992b:20), who notes their inconsistent results and confusion over measurement (as discussed in the methodology section), leading to the formulation of various models.

### **3.3.3.1 The LPC contingency model**

The least preferred co-worker model, developed by Fiedler, was the first leader-situation model to measure the rating given by the followers of whom they prefer to work with (Fiedler, 1967). Explaining the working of the model, whose intention is to measure an individual's basic leadership style, Jago (1982) states that employees are asked to identify the co-workers that they could work least well with by choosing between each of 16 bipolar adjective pairs. Participants who generously describe co-workers using positive concepts earn a high LPC score, which indicates that they are relationship-oriented and care about others' feelings. On the other hand, a leader receives a low LPC score if he or she evaluates co-workers in terms of negative traits, which suggests that the leader is rather task-oriented, caring more about activities than their co-workers' personal feelings.

Discussing the limitations of the LPC construct, McMahon (1972) states that the theory lacks explanatory power and that the validity and reliability of this model are questionable. Bratton et al (2007) also identify a controversial element in the LPC contingency theory because it is a project-based technique with associated measurement bias and low measurement reliability. Thus, not many researchers support the LPC model, especially in field studies.

### **3.3.3.2 Situational Leadership Theory**

Hershey and Blanchard (1970) first proposed the Life Cycle theory of leadership, based on the relationship between the leadership style followed by the leader and the maturity level of the leader's subordinates. In 1979, they added the dimension of effectiveness to the model and renamed it the Tri-Dimensional Model. Eventually, this theory was called the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT). Its basic premise is that as the maturity level of the group of subordinates increases for accomplishing a particular task, with the term 'maturity' denoting the ability of subordinates to take responsibility, as well as their

independence and capability, the leader should reduce his or her task behaviour and become more relationship oriented. When the maturity level of the subordinates becomes above average, the leader should reduce both the task and relationship behaviour. The SLT is primarily based on the leadership style adopted in contingency with the maturity level of the subordinates in a particular given task (Hershey et al, 1979).

Cairns et al (1998) tested SLT in an empirical study using 151 senior executives from Fortune's 100 best companies. The study focused on leadership behaviour to determine the leader's effectiveness, governed by the interaction of behaviour with their followers' readiness. The results suggest that an appropriate level of task and relationship behaviour is one that matches the level of follower's readiness. On the other hand, Chester (1989:19) notes that all existing major situational and behavioural approaches to leadership seem to have ignored the broader managerial roles which leaders must perform, treating the concept of leadership style in an unnecessarily simplified manner. Thus, empirical studies seem to contradict SLT. Indeed, Cairns et al (1998) argue that the situational leadership model suffers from fundamental flaws, since it violates the three logical principles of consistency, continuity and conformity, and they recommend further research.

The theory of Vroom and Yetton (1973) recommends participation by subordinates in the decision-making process. The extent of participation depends on leadership techniques, varying from oppressive through to consultative. This style of leadership is based on situational factors and depends on a particular combination of situation quality. The model has significant support from researchers including Schweiger and Leana (1986), Vroom and Jago (1974; 1980; 1988) and Jago and Vroom (1980). Bates (1953) argues that an autocratic approach is suitable in such cases, even though other approaches may be appropriate in ordinary circumstances. Overall, the characteristics of a participative decision are essential when subordinates wish to contribute information in

order to achieve organizational goals. Significant communication certainly plays a fundamental part in making group decisions. The Vroom-Yetton theory is, however, incomplete with respect to delegative decision styles (Chester, 1989); therefore further utilities need to be considered and the model requires expansion to clarify delegative decision-making subtypes. Chester (1989) mentions three forms of delegation and explains how they are associated with the motivation, performance, commitment and satisfaction of employees, with the middle-ground delegation strategy viewed as the best. On the other hand, delegative leaders neither abdicate nor require unnecessary approval or permission, and often find that subordinates report job satisfaction and commitment to their organization. Therefore, this delegative leadership style appears reasonable, which will be useful in current leadership developments.

There have been many views stating that leadership styles are affected by the situation at hand (Kalantari, 2005; Ke & Wei, 2007; Line, 1999). The argument is that a leader's efficiency is higher under certain conditions, such as crisis and high environmental uncertainty. These are referred to as "weak situations" of an organizational culture. According to Tsui et al (2006), the leadership style in such situations influences other members in various manifestations, including performance and culture. Another view refers to other "strong" situations of an organizational culture, whereby leadership style and influence are predicted to have less impact. Tsui et al (2006) cite the work of Mischel (1973) in which he defines a strong situation as "one in which everyone construes similar meaning or a situation which induces uniform expectancies or responses." In these situations, leadership efficiency and actions are lowered as the members share a common understanding and demonstrate appropriate behaviour to accomplish the goals, missions and visions of the organization; yet strong cultures are in essence institutions consisting of

cognitive, normative and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behaviour in the organizations (Scott, 1995).

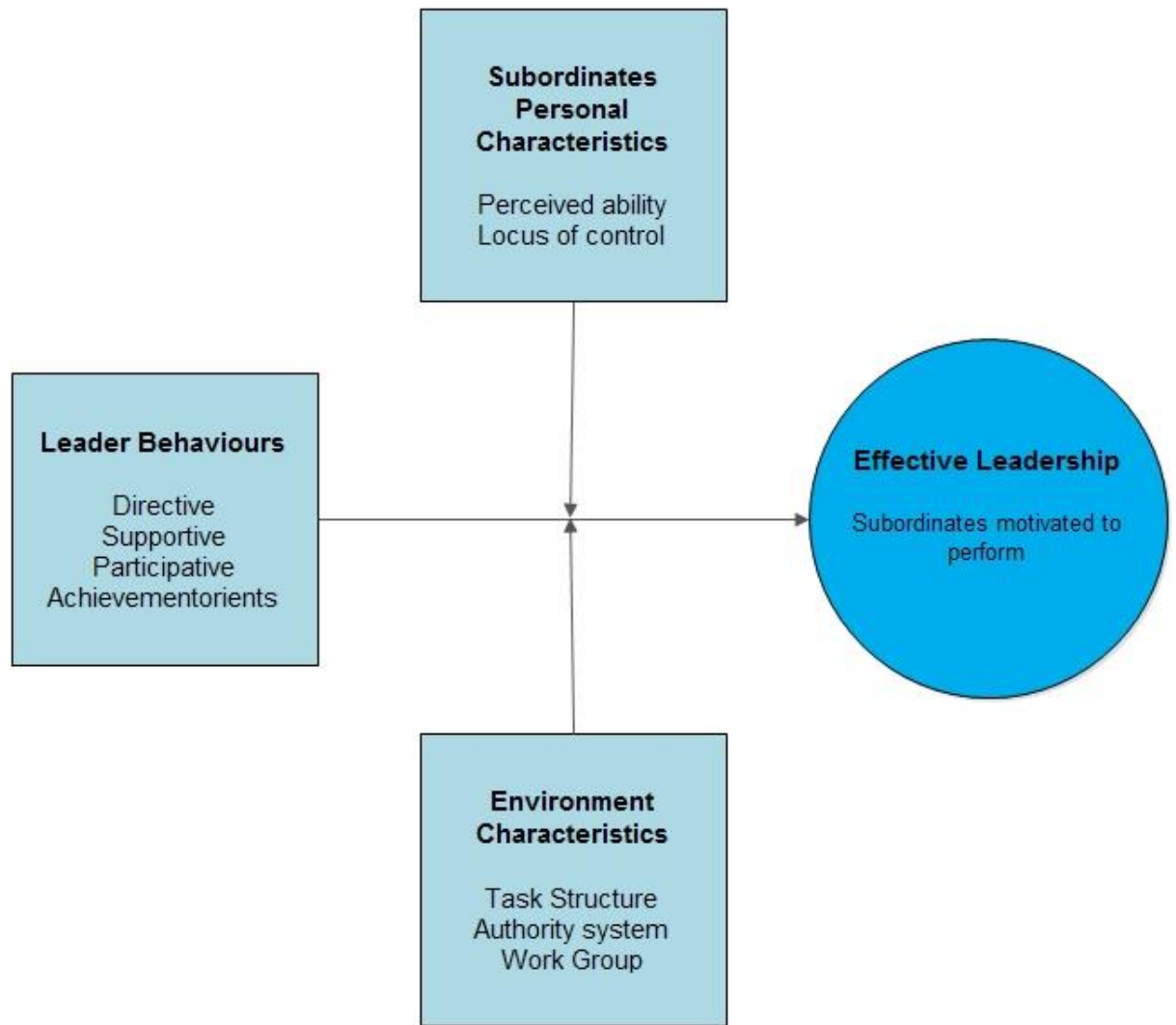
Hoy and Miskel (1978) argue that the situational approach does not provide the best explanation for leadership; because the theories are unable to predict which skills a leader would need in order to be more effective in certain situations. In response, path-goal theory examines how leaders should support their followers and how the followers should be encouraged to achieve organizational goals by having clear and straightforward paths.

### **3.3.3.3 Path-goal theory**

The path-goal theory postulated by House (1971) is derived from the expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964) and is based on two propositions: first, that followers view the leader's behaviour as acceptable and satisfactory, and secondly, that the leader's behaviour is motivational and that the leader provides coaching, guidance, support and rewards to subordinates, which are contingent on effective performance (Jago, 1982). According to House and Mitchell (1974), in path-goal theory the responsibility of leadership is to facilitate the followers to develop behaviours which would lead them to achieve the goals that they have set. Furthermore, the set of variables that have the most influence on effective leader behaviour are the nature of the task, the autonomy levels of the followers and follower motivation (House and Mitchell, 1974). Path-goal theory presents the most psychologically oriented idea of leadership style and is in accordance with the cognitive-emotional profile of a workplace (Dym & Hutson, 2005).

Figure 2 illustrates path-goal theory and shows how leaders can motivate their followers to achieve organizational and group goals, as well as to perform the types of behaviour they can use to achieve them (George & Jones, 2008).





**Figure 2: The Path-Goal Model of Leadership** (derived from Fiedler, 1967)

House and Mitchell (1974) classify four styles of leadership behaviour: directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented. In the directive style of leadership the subordinates will respond better when the task is unstructured and complex. This style involves the leader providing accurate guidance to the subordinates in order to assuage the subordinate's insecurity. Conversely, the supportive style is based on proffering support to the subordinates and creating a cordial, stress-free work environment. In terms of participative style, the leader and subordinates jointly participate in all matters of decision-making. The last style is achievement-oriented, in which the leader shows confidence in the follower's abilities and thus sets high standards of achievements and goals. This model

is a functional guideline to enhancing employee performance. Every organization requires its own characteristic style of leadership, which is contingent upon its unique situation; thus there is no such thing as a single perfect leadership style for all organizations.

Researchers Schriesheim and Von Glinow (1977) and Greene (1979) assert that path-goal theory is complex, since there are no stable means of measuring the effectiveness of the scale. Therefore, there is no 'best style practice', since each style is dependent on the situation. In fact, this idea motivated the development of alternative approaches that have been collectively called "New Leadership" (Bryman, 1992).

### **3.4 New leadership: transactional and transformational**

Vision, charisma and transformation are the keywords for the new leadership (Gill, 2006). Furthermore, Kotter (1995) argues that the significant importance of leadership in the change management process is underscored by the facts that change involves creating a new system and then institutionalizing the new approaches. Pawar and Eastman (1997) have indicated that recent theoretical research has attempted to integrate change as a contextual variable influencing transformational leadership. Three types of leaders—transformational, charismatic and visionary—are able to change the status quo in their organization successfully by displaying the appropriate behaviours at the appropriate stage of the transformation process (Eisenbach et al, 1999:80-88).

#### **3.4.1 Transactional leadership**

Transactional leadership is defined as "a mutually beneficial exchange between the leader and his employees, where both the leader and the employees benefit from the reciprocal exchange" (Burns, 1978). As observed by van Eeden et al (2008), there are three separate processes that impact upon employees in the transactional leadership style "active management by exception, passive management by exception and contingent reward". Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) note that this type of leadership is founded on the idea of

contractual commitment and that leaders who adopt this style are effective in providing a vision for their employees and actually implementing the required changes, since they regularly monitor their employees' progress. The relationship aspect is very much stressed in transactional leadership, it being highlighted that all parties gain from the idea of exchange that underpins it and that the gains can be in a number of forms, whether physical or emotional. However, such benefits are dependent upon the goals, standards to be achieved and tasks all being clear to everyone in the relationship (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). As noted earlier, transactional leaders practise *management by exception* and *contingent reward*. In the former, employees are not encouraged to achieve more than the anticipated result, but nonetheless the managers have complete confidence in them to meet the required outcome (Sarros and Santora, 2001). In the latter, employees are given direction, their performance is monitored and feedback is given. Gill (2006) observes that there is a financial incentive to complete the job properly. It can be appreciated that there is mutual benefit in contingent reward, because there is every encouragement in the relationship for trust to develop alongside knowledge and skill on the part of the employee; with this, there is more chance of attaining organizational objectives and indeed those of individual employees. That said, there are also downsides to contingent reward and as Sarros and Santora (2001) note, the organizational culture must support the idea, because if it does not, then such rewards cannot properly be implemented. Similarly, Cameron and Quinn (1999) suggest that contingent reward behaviours would not be supported in an adhocracy culture, since contingent rewards use contracts to motivate members with rewards, which reflect a hierarchical relationship between employee and employer, while adhocracy cultures apply to mission-driven organizations, which have external focus and flexibility.

### **3.4.2 Transformational leadership**

Transformational theories pay attention to the personal qualities of the leader, in particular to his or her charisma, since a charismatic manager will normally be liked by subordinates and will implicitly accumulate power. This comes about because transformational leaders motivate their followers to have faith in themselves, consequently enhancing their self-efficacy. Bass (1985) has argued that transformational leadership goes further than transactional leadership in its ability to predict organizational outcomes. Stone et al (2003) note that the concept of transformational leadership can be traced back to Burns (1978) and to later scholars who helped in its evolution (see, for example, Bass, 1985a; Bass and Avolio, 1990). The concept involves the alignment of individual objectives with the organizational goals, such that the performance of individual employees is directed specifically to achieving these, rather than to achieving any personal vision (Stone et al, 2003). Burns (1978) is keen to emphasise the role of morality in his concept of transformational leadership, arguing that such leaders expect higher ideals of their followers and indeed that the leadership style encourages employees to be more ethical in their behaviour. Furthermore, they are more motivated, as their own self-interest appears to be of importance to their managers. Bass (1985), in contrast, argues that followers of transformational leaders are motivated not by self-interest but by powerful emotional appeals made by those leaders. Nonetheless, Fitzgerald (2010) holds that employees are motivated by reference to their own needs within the framework of organizational goals and that ideas relating to personal development are valuable, since such development ultimately helps to achieve the organizational vision.

Clearly, leaders who operate in a transformational manner do so because their objective is to achieve change; Tichy and Devanna (1990) remark that transformational leadership is associated with the need to innovate and introduce entrepreneurialism into an

organization. Hautala (2006) argues that fundamental to the notion of transformational leadership is the idea that revitalisation and change are required, while Pawar (2003), concentrating particularly on the type of change, distinguishes change implemented by followers from that implemented by the organization. Evidently, without individual efforts to change, change on a wider organizational scale cannot be achieved.

Considering the characteristics of transformational leaders, Eisenbach et al. (1999) suggest that certain qualities are important for successfully implementing different types of change, and in this respect Bass (1985) argues that such leaders can be identified by the possession of four characteristics: charisma, the ability to inspire, an ability to stimulate individuals intellectually and a willingness to give individuals personal consideration. According to Banerji and Krishnan (2000), charisma is the most important of these four dimensions, since it is this quality that encourages followers' trust, respect and confidence. Gill (2006) discusses the second dimension, noting that an inspirational leader relies greatly on his/her communicative ability, making the vision clear, enhancing the confidence of followers and empowering them; additionally, a leader with this capability is able to align individual and organizational objectives. In respect of the third dimension, Bass (1990) considers the need for intellectual stimulation among followers, since this promotes innovation. Finally, Bass (1990) argues that the fourth dimension, that of individualised consideration, requires leaders to offer support to employees such that they are developed in every way possible that will contribute towards their ability to reach organizational goals.

Bass (1985) also contends that non-routine situations can be managed best with a transformational leadership style, while Pawar and Eastman (1997) note that support for this contention comes from other scholars (Pawar and Eastman, 1997; Eisenbach et al, 1999), who suggest that organizations respond better to the kind of techniques and

processes involved in transformational leadership than to calls for efficiency, when they are in adaptive phases. However, Bass's ideas about transformational leadership have been criticised by Gill (2006) on the grounds that they offer no guidance on strategy or on the aspect of the creation of any vision; and Eisenbach et al (1999:80) assert that "in order to pull or attract followers to different change possibilities the leader must craft an appealing vision that takes into consideration the underlying needs and values of the key stakeholders". Indeed, Sadler (1997) seems to agree with this notion, suggesting that transformational leadership pays insufficient attention to others in the process, apart from the leaders.

### **3.5 Chapter summary**

Consideration has been given in this chapter to the various theories of leadership and to the perceived advantages and disadvantages of those most in use. It has been shown that the market is becoming increasingly complicated and that every company requires effective leadership if it is to survive and be successful (Hult, 2000); that success can only be achieved by a positive work culture, which leaders themselves must foster (Schein, 1992); that the prevailing business climate is unlikely to respond to traditional leadership theories, since creativity and innovation are not encouraged by them (Lewin et al, 2010); and that leadership style has been studied by many researchers but that the results often contradict themselves (Gill, 2006). Meanwhile, the idea that certain situations demand new approaches has gained ground (Brozik, 1994). Furthermore, it is accepted that multiple variables come into play when attempting to analyse the concept of leadership effectiveness (Van Seters and Field, 1990) and that the ability to bring about change is one of the most important (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Likewise, several more recent studies have cited lack of understanding of change implementation techniques as a barrier to organizational success (Bossidy & Charan, 2002; Gilley, 2005).

Overall, various leadership theories seem to presume that certain leadership styles might handle change better, while change is seen as a situational contingency that moderates the effectiveness of certain leadership styles. It is argued that emergent theory is the most appropriate approach for the present study, because it considers both change management and organizational culture.

In Chapter Four, the discussion turns to the change management approach, to better understand the role played by leadership in facilitating organizational change.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **LEADERSHIP FOR CHANGE MANAGEMENT**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

If organizational excellence is to be achieved, the current business environment requires organizations to have leaders with certain qualities, three of the most important being intelligence, adaptability to change and the ability to motivate employees (Idris and Ali, 2008; Tseng et al, 2010). Notwithstanding substantial research in the field, leading to this appreciation of the qualities required of leaders who can bring about change, the actual style that such leaders should adopt is not commonly agreed, however (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Burnes, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988; Kotter, 1988; Bass, 1991; House & Podsakoff, 1995). Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) argue that leadership with a focus on change essentially demands an individual who can make an organization adapt to evolving conditions that make new demands on it. The person in this role must demonstrate an orientation which is focused on change, encouraging discussion about what may be possible in response to the changing environment in order to provoke new ideas and stimulate innovative methods of working (Skogstad and Einarsen, 1999). Studies that have concentrated on change management have produced complicated approaches, which are referred to as the planned and emergent approaches to change.

The preceding chapter reviewed various theories of leadership, while this chapter will discuss the role of leadership in change management. In particular, it first reviews the working definitions of organizational change, then reconsiders the leadership theories reviewed in Chapter Three, exploring the leadership styles preferentially adopted to implement various types of change. Finally, it offers a review of literature focusing on effective leadership in policing.



## **4.2 Change**

Organizational change can be considered either episodic or continuous (Weick and Quinn, 1999). Episodic change occurs infrequently and may be quite radical, whereas continuous change is on-going and usually gentler in its effects, occurring gradually and possibly emerging in response to some previous incremental move.

An alternative classification recognizes three types of organizational change: transitional, transformational and developmental (Ackerman, 1986). Developmental change is the simplest, focusing on the improvement of one process or a group of capacities at any given time. Transitional change is more radical than this, as it establishes a new structure, system, business process or technology, instead of just improving an existing one. Transformational change is the most radical form, requiring a new cultural mind-set and the construction of a completely different operational strategy (Anderson and Anderson, 2001). Undoubtedly, such change causes disruption, but it has nevertheless been considered to promote competitiveness (Denning, 2005). Developmental change can be understood as a natural progression of the existing pattern of growth. It is the type of change that fosters and builds competitive advantage through its ongoing presence; whilst dynamic, it is at the same time manageable, since there are no great shocks to individuals or the organization at large, such as those seen in transformational change (Anderson and Anderson, 2001). Essentially, the gradual developments are underpinned by the continual monitoring of the internal and external environments, so that areas requiring greater innovation are identified and that individuals who innovate are properly rewarded (Gilley and Maycunich, 2000).

## **4.3 Leadership styles for planned change**

Burnes (2009) notes that some researchers consider leadership styles worldwide to be heavily influenced by the planned approach, which was originally proposed by Lewin in

the 1940s, while Bamford and Forrester (2003) argue that the entire organizational development movement began with this idea and continued through to the early 1980s. Lewin's model, which incorporates the notion that change is dynamic and involves three stages, these being unfreezing, moving and refreezing, is known to help where change is to be implemented in conditions that are reasonably stable. As observed by Cummings and Worley (1997), the theory has been used as a foundation for several other models, but in all of these, leaders are treated as individuals who direct and control all the organizational resources, human and physical. Additionally, the point is emphasised by Burnes (2004) that in the planned approach, leaders are endowed with authority which comes from their position in the organizational hierarchy and that this authority legitimises their actions to initiate change. In this respect, Ryan et al (2008) note that in the top-down approach to change, senior leaders, who charge middle managers with its implementation, do all planning relating to change. Hence, it is managers who are the implementers (Cameron and Green, 2004). Furthermore, Battilana et al (2010) found that planned organizational change is a highly differentiated process and a person-oriented or task-oriented leader may emphasize the different activities involved in planned change implementation.

The planned approach is underpinned by the belief that all organizations in whatever situation can benefit from it (Coram and Burnes, 2001), but in the past 30 years, Lewin's planned approach has attracted increasing criticism as to its appropriateness and efficacy. The major ones are that his work is too simplistic, assuming organizations operate in a stable state, and that it cannot be used to explain more radical, transformational change (Dawson, 1994, Pettigrew, 1990). In addition, his work ignores organizational power and politics, and is top-down and management-driven (Dawson, 1994, Kanter et al, 1992). Overall, critics of the model (Burnes, 2004; French and Bell, 1999) argue that over time (since the late 1970s), there has been a shift away from Lewin's humanistic approach,

towards one that gives greater credence to those matters that have become more important to organizations, such as culture, power and politics, learning, socio-technical systems and the need for transformation.

#### **4.4 Leadership styles for emergent change**

Supporters of the emergent approach to change, unlike those of transformational change, favour strategies that include open systems and that involve ideas relating to contingency, process and complexity (Burnes, 2004). That said, proponents of both transformational and emergent approaches agree that change is an ongoing and adaptive process, not a series of planned actions undertaken to meet predetermined objectives in a set period (Todnem, 2005). Lewin et al (2010) acknowledge that emergent leaders acquire their status on the grounds of their expertise rather than by being appointed by the organization. Their strategy is to familiarise subordinates with factors that have a bearing on the success or failure of change attempts, rather than to present them with detailed implementation plans (e.g. Bamford and Forrester, 2003; Kotter, 1996; McKenna, 2006; Palmer et al, 2006). Because of this approach, in emergent leadership scenarios, self-motivation is common amongst employees, as also are effective teamwork and a positive work culture, with the outcome that levels of pressure and anxiety are low (Lewin et al, 2010). Nonetheless, the approach has limitations, including being overly general and not necessarily applicable to all situations (Burnes, 2004). Another, as argued by Todnem (2005), is that it does not offer particular techniques that can be guaranteed to work in all situations. Indeed, it seems that within the emergent leadership paradigm, the approach to each change situation could be completely different.

However, planned and emergent leaders both focus on the vital role of leadership in the implementation of change, the former considering leaders to be responsible for implementation and control, while the latter take leaders to be consultative individuals who

perceive themselves as facilitators of change, possibly through their political skills, which enable them to carry followers with them.

#### **4.5 Effective leadership for the successful implementation of change**

Higgs (2003) contends that whilst the leadership literature is wide-ranging, no agreement exists about what really constitutes effective change leadership. This is a reasonable contention, since even in today's globalized business environments, where effective leadership may be said to have some universal characteristics, a wide range of factors, particularly the national and organizational cultures, nonetheless influences it. Thus, effective leadership has culturally specific aspects and leaders have to adapt to the particular demands of the organization in different settings. Yeung and Ready (1995) studied 1200 managers from eight countries and conclude that the most important leadership capability is to articulate a tangible vision, values and strategy. Wallace et al (1995) found that people from different countries tend to be more inclined to follow leaders with different characteristics; for example, Japanese employees might follow a profound leader, while Indians are more likely to follow an ambitious one.

Kotter (1995) acknowledges that the process of change management requires leaders to devise new systems and ensure that they become institutionalized. However, Eisenbach et al (1999) have observed that there is little integration of the separate bodies of literature relating to change management and how leaders behave; consequently, it is believed that one cannot prescribe exactly the behaviour required of effective change managers, since the change itself will have an influence on how the response should be enacted. Indeed, the increased dynamism required of most organizations demands adaptation, however achieved. It is nonetheless true that resistance to change is widespread and few organizations look upon the need to change positively (Maurer, 1996). This means

that management must consider how best to foster necessary change, including getting all stakeholders on board (Eisenbach et al, 1999).

Change may be on many different levels and scales, but in recent decades, organizational change has generally been associated with mergers, acquisitions and internal restructuring (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006), usually with the aim of underpinning diversification and growth. Kavanagh and Ashkanasy (2006) also note that change is a continual dynamic within organizations, as the business climate presents them with a chaotic environment that must be managed, while DeVries (1998) asserts that for those organizations that seek to be competitive and survive, change has become a ‘mantra’ and that a whole range of new terms has arisen in this connection, such as ‘organizational restructuring’ and ‘redesigning’. That said, whilst recognising the forces for change, much of the literature reports widespread resistance from all organizational individuals. This is seen to be the outcome of people’s desire to retain the status quo, since this makes them feel secure on both a psychological and social level, whereas change is usually accompanied by anxiety (DeVries, 1998). Moreover, people prefer to continue with behaviour patterns with which they are familiar, despite the fact that these patterns may not produce positive results: “repeating past behaviour despite the suffering attached to it is a well-observed human tendency. We are often more comfortable with the dysfunctional devils we know than with the more optimistic spirits we don’t, and we deploy complicated patterns of resistance to avoid rocking the emotional and psychological boat” (DeVries, 1998:36).

Likewise, Pardey (2007) observes that despite the literature’s confirmation that innovation helps an organization to respond to change, most CEOs still fear innovation as a diversion from core business processes and are only interested in agitating for innovative approaches as long as they have no impact on the well understood operating models that

have historically been in place. The question remains, therefore, as to how to prepare leaders for change management – and as already mentioned, the literature is not informative in this regard (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006). Eisenbach et al (1999) make the point that dynamic changes in the business environment have brought transformational, transactional, strategic and charismatic leadership styles to the forefront, since these seem to offer ways of dealing with change. William and Clements (1999) also argue that there is no mutual exclusivity between these different leadership styles; consequently, as noted by Davies and Brent (2004), when strategic change is required, a mixture of all of these may be called for.

Tyler and De-Cremer (2005) suggest that transformational leaders are able to persuade followers to aim for the objectives of the collective rather than their own self-interest. Clearly, in marshalling people to work for the same goals, such leaders must be aware of change management processes and be skilled in bringing successful outcomes (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006). That said, research has demonstrated that it is hard to generate change within an organization and that change is often poorly implemented or not achieved, because organizations do not appreciate the need to develop coalitions and/or underestimate the degree of resistance (Kotter, 2007). Indeed, Higgs and Rowland (2005) believe that 70% of all change initiatives are unsuccessful and the consensus is that the main reason is poor leadership. In their discussion of the impetus for organizational transformation, Hersey and Blanchard (2007:3) state:

Mega waves of change are causing fundamental differences in the way managers and their organizations must function in order to grow and prosper in the twenty-first century. Like tidal waves that massively alter the landscape as they crash ashore, social, political, technological, ecological, and economic mega waves are destroying past, formerly successful ways of managing.

Belasco and Stayer (1994) refer to the Information Age as a time when classical leadership theories had little meaning, since the character of organizations had undergone a dramatic change, which in turn required more changes that executives were powerless to achieve. According to Belasco and Stayer (1994), managers in the 1990s were striving for improved teamwork, service and quality as means to remain competitive, yet these managers were unable to effect such change through the workforce. This inability, they argue, is growing, causing a lack of competitiveness in global markets, recession or zero growth, all of which are the fault of leadership theories which are no longer appropriate. The authors contrast the assumption ... that leaders are the pinnacle of power in their organizations” with the inability of many executives “to make people produce the changes they know are essential to their organization’s survival. The power vacuum in the executive office has become an epidemic, undermining the ability to compete in world markets, and it deepens recessions, and it flattens growth” (Belasco and Stayer, 1994:29). They conclude that “the ineffectiveness was due to an obsolete leadership paradigm, since under the current paradigm leaders were responsible for the performance of their people. They solved problems and made decisions and they did things to the organization and the people in it” (ibid).

It is important to ascertain the type of leadership that enables and creates the environment that leads to successful change. Landrum et al (2000) report the claim by management scholars that a particular leadership style was demanded to ensure the success of change management initiatives. Implicit in this idea of a universal manager with a particular style of leadership is the notion that leaders display different characteristics, which may be beneficial in securing goals in specified circumstances. This brings into focus the idea that leadership should be contingent upon the conditions (e.g. Hershey et al, 1979; Schweiger and Leana, 1986; Vroom and Jago, 1980), discussed in detail in the

preceding chapter. Whilst contingency theory has attracted much interest and support, it does not provide firm guidance as to whether leaders who can motivate and inspire remain a necessity in a change management scenario. Empirical work on transformational leadership reveals that “such managers are able to motivate and inspire employees to accept change, increase their commitment and loyalty, help them change their attitudes and beliefs, help them to see problems in new ways, and allow them to feel that they are of value to the organization” (Landrum et al, 2000:151). Originators of change must also be able to diagnose where problems might arise and formulate strategies that can deflect or solve them. At the same time, they themselves must be capable of responding to a variety of circumstances, so their own adaptability must be paramount (Landrum, 2000). In other words, it is essential not only to consider the role of the leader in change management, but also to identify what is changing in organizational change.

According to Poole (1998), organizations are comprised of cognitive frameworks that essentially involve values and beliefs and which together make up the organizational culture. Poole (1998) argues that the need for organizational change will often require a shift in the culture, because when the change is implemented, the cognitive frameworks will also need to be restructured. Changes to the corporate strategy, to human resources, specifically those at the top of the hierarchy, and to the various processes that are engaged during routine operations, are all involved with organizational transformation (Poole, 1998). Clearly, many different forces are brought to bear in the overall change process, and over time, managers have developed their own ‘modus operandi’ to guide them in the effort to invoke change. One such technique is to become more aware of the culture of the organization and more appreciative of its effects upon its members. By understanding the culture, managers are able to use it to advantage by tapping into communication channels and conveying appropriate messages supporting change. However, radical shifts are



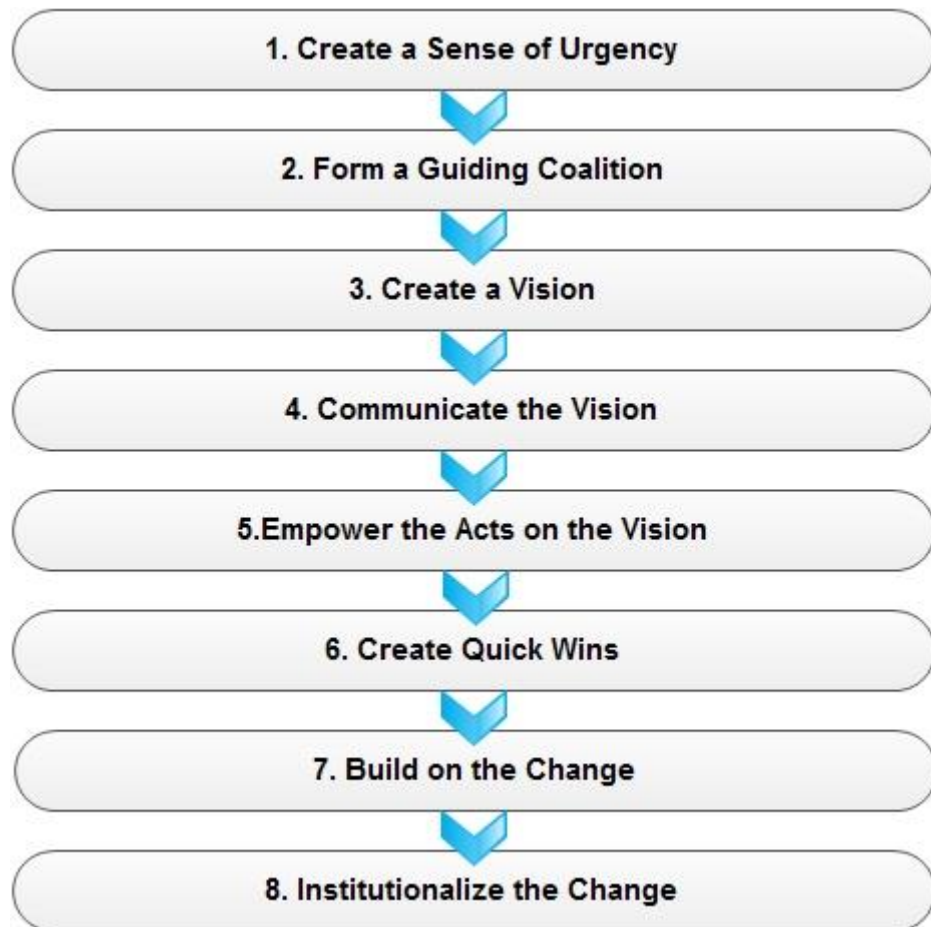
sometimes required and this has implications for the culture (Poole, 1998), which members may resist. Similarly, Kleiner and Corrigan (1989:26) suggest “culture and strategy are linked together to bring about shared values which convey desired needed changes”. As reorganization mirrors the new strategy, the culture of the existing agency links to this new strategy, evolving into a new or expanded culture.

It can be seen, therefore, that for organizational change to be fostered, transformation may be required in several areas, as already noted, but in addition, the cumulative knowledge and customs in being may also be challenged. For organizations that have traditionally been rigid in their hierarchy and methods of working, transformation will be difficult, since the entrenched culture will operate as a barrier to innovative practice. Yuki (2008:3) offers support for this argument, stating that “successful adaptation often requires innovative changes, not just incremental adjustments in traditional practices. Innovation in products and services is facilitated by strong cultural values for creativity, flexibility, tolerance of mistakes, product quality, and customer service”. Yuki (2008) adds that a flexible organization will lend itself much more to innovation than one with a strong tradition of rigidity.

Smith (2005) offers advice for leaders wanting to effect change, suggesting that they should follow particular steps during the process. The first requires the leader to be clear about the need for the change and this involves carefully articulating this, so that it can be properly communicated. The second step involves the leader in communicating this need and all relevant details to the workforce, with the sincere intention of encouraging their participation, while the third and final step requires leaders to state very clearly what each individual in the organization must do to deliver the change. Similar stepwise approaches to leading change are proposed by several other authors (Galpin, 1996; Kotter, 1996). Galpin (1996) describes a four-step process for implementing planned change:1)

setting goals; 2) measuring performance; 3) providing feedback and coaching; and 4) instigating generous rewards and recognition. Galpin (1996) emphasizes the need to utilize the strengths and capabilities of the human resources in implementing changes.

The most popular model for creating change is the planned model of change of Kotter (1996), which sees it as an eight-stage process, as shown in Figure 3.



**Figure 3: The planned model of change**

Source: Kotter (1996)

Kotter (1996) argues that organizations, which have a strong culture that is resistant to change, can benefit by the first four steps, which are designed to facilitate the refreezing process. Steps five to seven are concerned with the implementation of new practices, then step eight addresses the need to enmesh these practices within the organizational culture,

thereby refreezing them. The model is, however, over-simplistic in suggesting a linear process, since organizations do not generally experience change in that fashion and various organizational dimensions may actually be in several different phases simultaneously. Kotter (1996) also warns that an organization may move too quickly from one phase to another, effectively omitting a phase that it feels is unnecessary. In such instances, there is no solid foundation for the change and it does not take root. The eight steps of the model, corresponding to key principles and related to people's approaches and responses to change are now briefly explained in turn.

First of all, the organization needs to establish a sense of urgency. Usually, this can be achieved by identifying potential crisis and opportunities. The management team should discuss the crisis that the organization is currently facing to ensure that all employees have an idea of the intended change and are motivated to move forward. Kotter (1996) argues that in order to ensure success in implementing change, about 75% of the employees should believe that change is absolutely necessary.

The second step is to form a change coalition. This involves building an effective team with trust, emotional commitment and teamwork to guide the change process. Four main characteristics are thought to be fundamental in this step: positional power, expertise credibility, management and leadership skills (Kotter, 1996:57).

The third step involves creating a vision for change. Different people define the term 'vision' in different ways. It may refer to the guiding theme which communicates the approach and objectives of the business for the future. Further, a vision statement contains a description of the desired result, which motivates individuals towards the accomplishment of an objective. A good vision helps the leadership to direct change efforts more efficiently and rapidly, and to better motivate employees. Finally, strategies need to be developed in order to achieve the vision.

The fourth essential step is to communicate the vision repeatedly and continuously with various formats, so that employees clearly understand their roles in implementing the change. Effective communication is viewed as one of the major elements for the success of implementing change by several researchers (Kotter, 1995; Barrett, 2002; Zimmermann et al, 2008). Specifically, Kotter (1996) stresses that leaders should use every possible vehicle to communicate vision emotionally with followers and that it is important to address any anxiety or confusion which may inhibit follower's desire to attain the vision. For a large and complex public sector organization like the ADP, effectively communicating the vision behind change can sometimes be a challenging task.

The fifth step involves empowering others to act on the vision. In this step, leaders must remove obstacles to change, by modifying systems or structures that undermine the change vision. The authors of several studies (e.g. Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Özaralli, 2003) note the importance of this step. For example, Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggest that empowerment is a principal component of organizational effectiveness which extensively influences organizational outcomes, while Özaralli (2003) states that if leaders are able to create a participative climate, this will likely result in the subordinates having the authority and power to act. The bureaucracy of the ADP may prevent sufficient empowerment. Therefore, efforts should be made at this stage in order to ensure that employees at all levels feel able to act on the vision.

The sixth step requires generating short-term 'wins', which means quickly creating visible and unambiguous successes, in order to validate the effort and maintain the level of urgency. It also helps to keep everyone motivated, valued and interested in the success of change. Otherwise, employees may not see results and are likely to give up. In addition, recognising and rewarding people who contribute to the change will help to lower resistance and ensure the building of momentum (Kotter, 1996).

The seventh step requires building on the change. This involves continuous efforts to consolidate improvements and sustain the momentum for change. As change takes effect, leaders should reinvigorate the process with new themes to ensure that more changes are produced. On the other hand, when change becomes difficult and employees start to have doubts about it, this step helps to identify problems that were not anticipated. In combination with step six, more employees can be brought in to implement change; especially lower ranked ones, who can provide important support from below.

The last step is institutionalizing the change. This ensures that the success of implementing change become a part of the culture of the organization and is consistent with its nature and core values. Kotter suggests in an earlier study (1990) that the greatest barrier to change is organizational culture; if it remains the same, the changes will be ineffective. It takes a significant time for organizational culture to change, especially in a public sector agency like the ADP. Therefore, this step is critical in ensuring that the change is anchored into the culture.

To summarize, Kotter's model provides a good foundation for leaders and organizations to plan and implement changes. As organizational transformation is a long-term process, these eight steps must be all implemented successfully to ensure successful change. However, given the complex and dynamic nature of the change process, the model has been criticized in terms of its applicability to different situations (Collins, 1998) and for being prescriptive (Dawson, 2003). On the other hand, some have argued that "Kotter's model is used analytically instead of prescriptively, and it does provide clarity and focus within the complexity" (Palmer et al, 2006).

There is no doubt that the complexities of organizations and change management place great demands on leaders. Some recent approaches to change management are based on a combination of transformational and contingency models of leadership. For example,

Applebaum et al (1998) argue that contingency or adaptive strategic planning models of organizational change should be developed with special consideration of a few key change variables such as goals and strategies, technologies, the structure of the organization, job design and people, among which the most crucial element is the last, because any strategic management decisions will ultimately fail if participants are not willing to accept changes. A more recent study (Pardey, 2007) supports this viewpoint by stressing that change in the workplace is very often on somebody else's terms, which causes resistance.

For their part, Kavanagh & Ashkanasy (2006) explain that resistance to change is due to the nature of the social systems comprising work, people, formal and informal systems, and organizations. Resistance to change introduces costs and delays into the change process (Ansoff, 1990). When change takes place, especially profound change, employees often feel threatened and become defensive, which ultimately increases the risk that change will fail. Therefore, about one-third to a half of all failures related to change in organizations are due to employees' resistance to change (Maurer, 1996). According to Oldham and Kleiner (1990), individuals unconsciously use habitual defence mechanisms to protect themselves from change itself and from the feelings of anxiety that change causes. With this in mind, today's change models stress the necessity of achieving consensus and participation among employees. For example, Lewin's three-step model shows that the effects of forces that either promote or resist change must be balanced (Burnes, 2004b). Leaders have to identify the sources of resistance and seek solutions to alleviate them, such as motivating, rewarding or encouraging employees to change their outlook and create a vision of change.

Similarly, Koestenbaum (1991) argues that great leaders are often capable of creating innovative visions, while Kavanagh and Ashkanasy (2006) state that ideal leaders must create a vision for others to follow. Applebaum (1998) summarizes several works

which demonstrate that change occurs as a result of a 'vision' and the will to achieve it and that leaders play important roles in implementing change, which involves multiple steps: developing a clear vision, creating a sense of urgency, building enabling structures, communicating with people and reinforcing the change. According to transformational leadership theories, change is most effective when a leader presents a unique vision and has capabilities of persuasion to change an organizational culture. Thus, it is essential for any organization to articulate a vision and persuade all employees to share it, in order to implement change.

Gill (2003) proposes an integrative model of leadership for change, reflecting its cognitive, spiritual, emotional and behavioural dimensions and requirements. The model comprises vision, values, strategy, empowerment, motivation and inspiration. The author asserts that successful change needs to explain these elements of effective leadership practice. In particular, a shared vision is the key to successful change. Shared values are a key feature of a strong organizational culture that supports a common purpose and engenders commitment to it. Strategies are ways of pursuing the vision and mission, while empowerment stimulates people's creativity in the change process and boosts motivation and inspiration.

Alternatively, Yukl (2008) argues that change management requires transformational leadership, which is capable of articulating the vision, taking risks and building a coalition of support; furthermore, it is change oriented, evaluating the position of the organization within its external environment, identifying threats and opportunities, and able to persuade others of the necessity of change. Tyler and De Cremer (2005) concur, noting that transformational leadership motivates people to go beyond their own self-interest to pursue the goals and values of the collective, whereas Landrum (2000) asserts that teams of change agents are essential to implement change, as transformational

leaders cannot always bring in the change by themselves. He argues that multi-talented and diversified teams, rather than transformational leaders, are the key to facilitating organizational change. In the future, organizations may need both transformational leaders and change agents to help implement change.

Pardey (2007:19) is among those emphasizing the role of the leader:

An increasingly unpredictable business environment demands innovation and change, and effective leadership is required to successfully implement such change. Change is destabilizing. Organizational change can give rise to fears of job loss or job change that result in resistance. Effective leaders can ease the transition if they are committed and have a clear vision that they can communicate to staff with the conviction that will win hearts and minds. Good leaders talk to staff about change programs and listen astutely before reacting to their feedback’.

Pardey (2007) further stresses that change requires effective leadership and an innovative and flexible environment so that organizations can easily adapt to the change. Despite the fact that employees by nature tend to resist change, a good leader—i.e. one who is willing to listen and has the ability to help people overcome their fears and create a new culture of innovation—can inspire and persuade employees to adapt to change when necessary. In addition, involvement must be encouraged (Pardey, 2007).

Nevertheless, the role of leadership in terms of adoption of change management strategies has not been adequately studied (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy, 2006). Consistent with this view, Stephen and Banks (2005) contend that senior executives should articulate a vision with a corresponding strategic plan and manage change effectively. Therefore, recent studies on change management have focused on transformational, transactional, strategic and charismatic leadership styles (e.g. Bass, 1999; Lowe and Kroeck, 1996). Here, strategic leadership is used to define the key moment for strategic change in organizations (Davies & Brent, 2004). Although these different types of leadership are



often compared and contrasted, they are not mutually exclusive, according to William and Clements (1999). Finally, it has also been found that change often failed as a result of underestimation of the difficulties of producing change; thus, a powerful directing coalition is of great importance (Kotter, 2007).

#### **4.6 Effective police leadership**

It is not typical for policing organizations to evaluate their management practices, although the impact of leadership on any organization can be dramatic. Little empirical evidence is available to assess the impact of police leadership on organizational outcomes. The absence of good management practices in police forces may be partially due to the difficulty of establishing a measure of effectiveness in policing. Fortunately, the theories and principles discussed above can be applied to police forces to improve management practices and the effectiveness of leadership.

Traditionally, an authoritarian style was often implemented by police leaders to ensure centralised control (Brief et al, 1981; Kuykendall and Unsinger, 1982). Meese and Ortmeier (2004) observe that the police response is often reactive and bureaucratic. In other words, it focuses on procedures with little input of strategic thinking. As a result, creativity is not common. Several studies (Meese and Ortmeier, 2004; Gabris, 2004; Maccoby, 2000; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006) support the notion that police leadership tends to be bureaucratic, lacking strategic or creative thinking. As a result, employees feel bored and unmotivated. In today's world, with more talented and highly educated police officers, such leadership is no longer appropriate. Officers are no longer always willing to follow orders without question.

Therefore, it is important to study various leadership styles and their impact on employee performance to ensure best leadership practices. Several studies (Densten 2003; Schwarzwald et al, 2001; Sarver, 2008) suggest that in policing, transformational

leadership is more effective than transactional leadership, because it inspires and motivates its subordinates and is more innovative. For example, Singer (1987) found that participants preferred transformational leaders over transactional leaders, giving them higher effectiveness ratings. Similarly, Schwarzwald et al (2001) surveyed 216 police officers and found that participants preferred transformational leadership with soft power tactics over transactional leadership with harsh power tactics. Another survey study of 1,066 police officers (Dobby et al, 2004) found a strong positive correlation between participants' perception of transformational leadership and a belief that their performance would exceed their expectations under such leadership. However, Campbell and Kodz (2011) argue that transactional leadership can be also positive, as subordinates may respect and adopt their transactional leader's behaviours, which ensures better standards and performance. Therefore, implementing a mixed style leadership with a combination of transformational and transactional leadership may be more advantageous than either one.

Beside the model of transactional and transformational leaders, research also suggests that situational leaders who can adjust their behaviours depending on different situations may be most effective. This coincides with an earlier study (Hersey, 1985) showing that a good leader should be capable of adapting to various situations and implementing whatever style is most effective in a given situation, because any particular leadership style may be proven to be most effective in one situation, but ineffective in another. The situational leader adapts to employee's particular needs with a common sense approach to leadership.

In addition, participative and supportive leaderships have also been found to be effective in police settings. According to Jermier and Berkes (1979), participative and supportive leaderships are both effective in improving job satisfaction and organizational commitment, whereas a participative style is better when tasks are interdependent.

A popular concept which has recently influenced police leadership research is emotional intelligence: several studies report a positive relationship between high emotional intelligence and effective police leadership (Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2007; Yocum, 2007; Green, 2006). Superior intelligence enables a leader to make timely, correct decisions and be able to motivate employees with integrity.

Above all, effective leadership styles were found to have certain element in common, in that leaders should be good at planning, communication and supervision, while caring about his or her subordinates. The degree to which a leader delegates may also significantly affect the effectiveness of leadership. There is clearly a trend towards a less authoritarian style of police leadership in many countries and cultures today, and there is a need to adapt different styles to suit different situations, so that the leadership is able to “command and control” as well as to cultivate participative and supportive styles.

#### **4.7 Chapter Summary**

Table 3 summarizes the leadership theories discussed above, shows how their characteristics facilitate change and lists criticisms of them.

**Table 3: Summary of leadership theories**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Characteristics of effective leadership</b>	<b>Change</b>	<b>Criticisms</b>
<b>Trait</b> McClelland (1965) Mischel & Peterson(1968) Barnard(1926) Stogdill (1948)	Intelligence, self confidence, persistence in dealing with problems, accepting responsibility, social, looking for the needs of others		Fails to locate a single trait common to all effective leaders. Raises the question of whether such qualities are inherited or acquired. Many people believe leaders are born, not made. Every trait is indicated as important in every piece of research. Thus, leadership should have certain traits. Does not predict consistent traits that make up good leader.
<b>Behavioural Approach</b> Ohio State and University of Michigan Studies Stogdill and Coons (1957) Fleishman (1962) Blake and Mouton (1964) Likert (1964) Black and Mouton(1964)	Initiating structure (task-oriented, performance and relationship with employees), consideration (friendship behaviour toward employees, such as respect and trust) Task-oriented (production, performance and technical aspects) and employee-oriented. Relationship-oriented(considerate towards employees, keeping employees informed)	Most effective leadership behaviours are strong in both initiating structure and consideration	“High-high” style is not universally optimal, because effective leader behaviour depends on a particular situation Problems with identifying essential behaviours Emphasis on individuals rather than specific patterns of behaviour
<b>Contingency</b> Fiedler (1947) Barnard(1978) Hersey and Blanchard(1984) Almaraz (1994).	Relationship-oriented, task structure, position and power. Effective leadership style to fit the specific circumstances	People involved in change and the feel for change, but runs the risk of moving too slowly and too late	Inefficiency and uncertainty about its actual meaning, which led to a number of changes. Focus on reacting rather than initiating. Fails to explain why some leaders with certain styles are more effective than others.

Theory	Characteristics of effective leadership	Change	Criticisms
<b>Approaches:</b> <b>Least preferred worker</b> Fiedler (1967)	Delegating, participating, selling and telling	Leaders communicate with, persuade and invigorate subordinates in the process of change	LPC score is controversial element of contingency theory because it is a technique with associated measurement biases and low measurement reliability Intervening variables ignored; weak empirical support
<b>Situational</b> Mintzberg (1973) Chester (1989)	This style of leadership varies according to the situation in which it is being exercised		Existing major situational and behavioural approaches to leadership have ignored the broader managerial roles Suffers from fundamental flaws since it violates three logical principles: consistency, continuity and conformity
<b>Transactional</b> Sashkin (1988) Bass(1988) Bryman (1992) Blanchard & Hersey (2007)	Process-oriented, contingent rewards, incentives and punishment Relationship between leader and subordinates, focuses on mutual benefits	It supposes that due to the ever-changing “battlefield”, one cannot effectively lead using the same approach for every situation	Does not inspire employees to go beyond outcomes. Focus on jobs to be done Contingent reward cannot be ignored
<b>Transformational</b> Burnes (1978) Sashkin (1988) Bass(1988) Bryman (1992)	Communicating vision Inspirational, motivational, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration Transformational leadership qualities are uniquely appropriate for leading certain types of change	Better for non-routine situations Empowering and inspirational, resulting in changes in people’s abilities, attitudes, values, beliefs and motivation(Gill, 2006:580) Process through recognizing the need for revitalization, creating a new vision and institutionalizing change (Hautala, 2006:778) Foster change and innovation Entrepreneurship (Tichy and Devanna, 1990)	Little is said of vision and nothing at all is said of mission or strategy(Gill, 2006:57) It also supposes that due to the ever-changing “battlefield”, one cannot effectively lead using the same approach for every situation (Blanchard & Hersey, 2007), yet there is no conclusive research that focuses on this relationship between leadership and change.

Source: Author

Horner (1997) summarizes the difficulty with theories of leadership: it is dynamic and requires constant study in order to assess its effectiveness in any given context. The critical functions of a leader are to create a vision, provide guidance, initiate strategic plans and motivate subordinates, in order to achieve the organization's objectives. Based on an extensive literature review and investigation of empirical studies, we may conclude that the most dominant styles used by leaders, which enable them to effectively lead an organization during change, should reflect the ability: (1) to create a clear vision for the future, (2) to communicate the vision, (3) to motivate, (4) to involve employees in change, and (5) to delegate and empower. However, applying these abilities also depends on culture; according to Schein (1985), effective leadership is contingent on cultural issues. Change and adaptability are integral facets of change in culture and environment. Horner (1997) explains that culture management is an integral aspect of effective leadership; organizations are more likely to succeed if they respond positively to changes in external environment and culture. To address the effectiveness of leadership styles during change in a Middle Eastern context, it is essential to examine cultural factors. Therefore, the next chapter will present a general perspective on the impact of international culture upon leadership styles, particularly in the context of Arab culture.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP STYLE**

The preceding chapter discussed issues regarding change management and the most effective leadership style during change. This chapter concentrates on organizational culture and leadership from a global perspective, the relation between international culture and leadership style, and the impact of leadership style on change in the Middle East.

#### **5.1 Organizational culture**

##### **5.1.1 Methods of researching organizational culture**

Conducting research into the culture of an organization, including methodology, data assessment and application, was addressed to some degree as early as the 1920s (Williams 1923). Within the field of organizational culture research there are several schools of theory. Each approach can be employed in a variety of ways for a variety of reasons and each has advantages and limitations.

One approach to researching and analysing the culture of organizations is known as structuralism. According to structuralists, each culture is a stable system. Levi-Straussian structuralists place emphasis on the stability of the structure of ideas in the form of texts and symbols, rather than behaviour. For them, social reality exists in verbal statements (Singh, 2004:95). An example of a strategy employed by a structuralist might be the practice of learning history, in which the researcher “analyzes business writing for methods and styles of business communication. Researchers clearly saw the learning history as both a research method and a text to be used to spur further dialogue and reflection” (Amidon, 2008:475). Learning history is useful when examining the cultural practices of communication as symbolic of values, goals or practices inherent in the organization. It is also useful for considering messages sent both internally and to an

external audience (Amidon, 2008). From a structuralist perspective, organizational identity resides in a set of “institutional claims—that is, explicitly stated views of what an organization is and represents—that are expected to influence its members’ perceptions of central, enduring, and distinctive features of the organization by providing them with legitimate and consistent narratives” (ibid). By examining those published claims, researchers can draw conclusions about the values and norms inherent within the organizational culture.

A different approach to researching cultural organizations is the cognitivist perspective, which focuses either on the processes of thought (individual or collective) or the structures of thought (knowledge representations). “Emphasizing processes meant studying how information and beliefs are combined and used in forming judgments and making decisions and emphasizing structure meant describing knowledge and its inherent organization” (Meindl et al, 1994:291). An example of this sort of study is the work of Msanjila & Afsarmanesh (2008), who determined the effects of different categories of trust in a corporate environment, concluding that “at present, in practice, in order to solve the trust assessment problems, organizations use some ad-hoc and mostly subjective approaches to both identifying the trust elements and evaluating the trust level of others” (Msanjila & Afsarmanesh, 2008:1262). This study also draws attention to one of the limitations of cognitivist studies, namely, its subjective nature in both data collection and interpretation of that data.

This is not to suggest that all forms of organizational culture research are clearly defined into separate approaches. An example of research where such definitions overlap is political cultural analysis. Within this approach, the focus is one “largely of reifications—that is, an attempt is made to analyse and explain systems often taken-for-granted assumptions and typifications utilized, without reflection, by organizational members. The



analysis attempts to map logical categories by which interest groups define themselves and their common situation” (Lucus, 1987:149). These types of studies might examine both cognitivist and structuralist data to draw conclusions regarding existing practices within the organization. For example, using the example of social responsibility as part of the organizational culture, Ubious (2009: 89) identifies “employee attitudes and behaviours affected by organizational culture and climate, by whether CSR policies are couched in terms of compliance or in terms of values, and by whether such policies are integrated into business processes or simply an ‘add-on’ that serves as window-dressing”. This sort of study considers the interaction between published policies and the accepted values of employees within the hierarchy of administration, thus effectively blending the structuralist and cognitivist approaches.

There are advantages in adopting such integrationist practices. From the integrationist viewpoint, knowledge-based studies are combined with understanding the interactions between elements within the culture. As Foss (1999: 740) outlines it, there is an inherent advantage to adopting both perspectives, as “the knowledge-based view is more of an explanatory than a predictive approach. That is to say, it allows the analyst to tell some ex post story about the causes of the success of a given firm, or why the boundaries of that firm are placed where they are, but it is considerably weaker with respect to predicting future success or future patterns of economic organization”. Thus, combining an empirical study with a cognitive one allows for both reflection and prediction.

Within the field of organizational culture research, the objective of analysis “is to identify the behavioural norms and expectations currently in effect, recognizing that they are not necessarily those espoused in the company handbook or set forth in a published code of ethics” (Lightle et al, 2009:71). At times, this objective is met through qualitative

research, but requires dutiful analysis of the data in light of understanding the more subjective elements of the organizational culture. One theory that is often discussed when considering the analysis of research data is grounded theory. Essentially, “the major difference between grounded theory and other qualitative research methods is its specific approach to theory development – grounded theory suggests that there should be a continuous interplay between data collection and analysis” (Urquhart, 2009:357). An example of the implementation of grounded theory is the work of Kimberly & Bouchikhi, who advocate (1995:17) an “approach [that] places a premium on more qualitative, in-depth, longitudinal, field-based research. Whether real-time or retrospective, the more of this kind of research that gets done, the more obvious its potential for generating important insights into the fundamental engines of organizational development and change will become.” Grounded theory calls for consideration of the context from which the data emerges. Quantitative research requires the researcher “to identify sources of data relevant to the conceptualisation of culture, and data collection techniques which correspond with the level of cultural consciousness of research respondents or participants. Quantitative researchers typically use standardised, pre-designed and value-free survey instruments to study the more visible, audible, tangible and conscious aspects of culture’ (Pearse & Kanyangale, 2009:71). Grounded theory gives consideration to the methods of data collection. For example, Ashkenas et al (2011:128) describe a company that was conducting organizational cultural research and “wanted to discourage people from holding back their ideas for fear of conflict or agreeing to something that they might not actually support. [They therefore] commissioned an outside firm to engage team members in confidential conversations”.

### 5.1.2 Defining organizational culture

Culture is a social construct that extends to all areas of human behaviour. A great deal of business literature considers the phenomenon of organizational culture, or the culture existing within and around the organization. Essentially, organizational culture can be defined as “some combination of artefacts (also called practices, expressive symbols, or forms), values and beliefs, and underlying assumptions that organizational members share about appropriate behaviour” (Detert et al, 2000:851). The exact definition of this term varies, but most definitions encapsulate leaders, stakeholders (including employees) and policies (ibid).

A great deal of complexity exists within that broad definition. To begin with, the culture of an organization is apparent on multiple levels. These include “the level of deep tacit assumptions that are the essence of the culture, the level of espoused values that often reflect what a group wishes ideally to be and the way it wants to present itself publicly, and the day-to-day behaviour that represents a complex compromise amount the espoused values, the deeper assumptions, and the immediate requirement of the situation” (Kendra & Taplin, 2004:36). Neghab et al (2009:88) summarize these layers as “Fundamental Assumptions, Core Values, and Cultural Norms”. Thus defined, culture can be analysed and assessed within any type of business organization, and research regarding this sort of culture incorporates a wide variety of topics.

The issue of culture in management has long been documented (Handy, 1993; Hofstede, 2001; Lessem, 1990), but in spite of the vast literature on organizational culture, a clear definition remains elusive. The reason Handy (1993) provides for this is that culture is something that is perceived and felt. In this section, the intention is to review the principal definitions given by previous researchers, then to offer a working definition for this thesis. It must be stated that it is exceedingly difficult to provide a straightforward and

a clear-cut definition of culture. This is not to say that it is impossible to define it, but that the concept of organizational culture to some extent complicates this process. Managers and researchers have never agreed on one general definition that could apply to different situations. This remains a contested issue; however, it is useful to review some attempts at resolving it.

House et al (2002) argue that culture includes “shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations”. For them, one useful aspect of culture is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members”. An alternative view is that of Hofstede (1991:19), who see organizational culture as “holistic, historically determined, related to things like rituals and symbols, socially structured, created and preserved by the group of people who together form the organization”. Thus it is both “soft and difficult to change”.

Turning to definitions, rather than descriptions, for Al-Yahya and Vengroff (2005), the most comprehensive is that of Schein (1985:5), which states that organizational culture consists of “patterns of basic assumption that a given group has invented, discovered and internal integrated and which have worked well enough to be considered valid”. Therefore, this definition of culture is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems. Al-Yahya and Vengroff (2005) again assert that available literature on organizational culture reflects a array of various assumptions and a list of meanings, but what gives people understanding is a two-dimensional perspective, comprising internal and external dimensions. The internal perspective relates to organizational outcomes and functions, individual performance and productivity, strategic planning and implementation, recruitment and selection,

socialization and innovation in new product development (Akin & Hopelain, 1987; Schein, 1985), whereas the external perspective highlights the existence of a powerful societal culture outside the organization, involving issues that the organization considers and adapts to its elements that exist in society. These viewpoints emphasise a kind of association between organizational culture and performance, irrespective of whether culture is a product of formalisation or a reflection on a collective basis to the background of the organizational members.

Lessem (1990:1) defines culture holistically as “an integral whole consisting of implements and consumer goods, of constitutional charters .... of human ideas and craft, beliefs and customs ... a vast apparatus partly material, partly human and partly spiritual, by which man is able to cope with the concrete specific problems that face him”, while for Joynt & Warner (1996:33), culture relates to the “collective programming of the mind”, “collective soul,” or some type of “social glue” that holds people together. Such definitions see culture as a multifaceted concept that cuts across the traditional business disciplines of production, marketing, finance and human resources (Lessem, 1990). Culture facilitates the understanding of human aspects of management in that it affects leadership or how the organization is run. It may be attributed to human actions and represents a clear link between the idea of programming and the consequences of behaviour derived from this (Berthon, 1993, cited in Darlington, 1996:35). Following from this, Hoecklin (1995) believes that culture is about the way people become aware of their world and construct meaning from it. People become conscious of their existence only when we challenge this set of assumptions (Hoecklin, 1995). As the present research deals with police officers, members of a somewhat unique institution, it is important to understand how they do things in their world and how to construct meaning from their actions.

### 5.1.3 Applications of organizational culture research

The ever-expanding field of organizational culture research stems from the desire for more efficient, adaptable and productive environments. The investment in such research reflects the notion that changes in societies, markets, customers, competition, and technology around the globe are forcing organizations to clarify their values, develop new strategies, and learn new ways of operating” (Heifetz and Laurie, 1997:132). One particular goal of such research is often a more collaborative community, where there is ideally

...a basis for trust and organizational cohesion that is more robust than self-interest, more flexible than tradition, and less ephemeral than the emotional, charismatic appeal of a Steve Jobs, a Larry Page, or a Mark Zuckerberg. Like a good strategy or vision statement, an effective shared purpose articulates how a group will position itself in relation to competitors and partners—and what key contributions to customers and society will define its success (Adler et al, 2011:96).

Thus, the organization can better utilize the capacities of its staff in a more methodical approach.

Organizational culture studies have also revealed aspects of the working environment that can be manipulated for higher productivity and effectiveness. As Chaudry et al (2011:47) found, “two factors like organizational learning culture and supportive leadership will moderate the relation between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment and also suggest that there is a positive link between the psychological empowerment and organizational commitment”. By understanding the interplay between cultural norms and their effect on empowerment and commitment, companies can better adjust their practices to foster such attitudes. A closer understanding of that relationship is required to maximize the benefits in an example such as this, for as Angle & Perry (1981:11) found in their study of this topic, “commitment to stay and

commitment to work are independent constructs and, in combination, have complex implications for organizations”. Some studies found that organizational identification and performance were “antecedents to organizational commitment and therefore had an indirect relationship with turnover through organizational commitment” (Deconinck, xxxx:28). By fostering a healthy organizational culture, therefore, members of the organization were more likely to commit themselves substantially to the enterprises undertaken by the organization.

However, the effectiveness of such applications are called into question by others. For example, there is some debate concerning “the actual portion of culture that consensus analysis estimates reflect. [Such] estimates are only measuring the shared knowledge portion of culture. Therefore, a researcher should not think that consensus analysis estimates provide a comprehensive summary of a group’s culture. Consensus analysis provides statistical estimates of shared knowledge” (Horowitz, 2009:53). In effect, consensus analysis is limited by its very nature, and understanding these limitations can help leaders avoid misinterpreting or inappropriately applying the data.

Despite the complexity of application and the limitations suggested by Horowitz, many organizations do use cultural research as a basis for adjusting practices. In many cases, findings about “organizational culture (individual values and beliefs) determine the importance of project manager competencies, performance measurements (project metrics), business processes that are employed to perform project work, and project organization structures (team members) to project success” (Kendra & Taplin, 2004: 40). Thus, organizational culture research is used to determine key practices within some companies.

Another example of this sort of implementation is what Georgieva & Allan (2008:49) call “awareing”. This proactive practice is intended to predict problems a project

team might encounter to “avoid problems rather than having to fix them [...]”. Good leadership, good responsibility and high PM motivation will motivate the development team, whereas poor leadership coupled with poor responsibility and low PM motivation will inhibit a team’s motivation [...]. There emerged a strong connection between motivation and being aware of motivation” (ibid). Other studies document attempts to manipulate how cultural values enhance accuracy, stability, innovation, team orientation and respect for people, outcomes and aggressive competition (Mainiero, 1993:84). Cultural researchers hope to conclude, as did Denison & Mishra (1995:220), that “an inductive, theory-building approach to organizational culture and effectiveness can be coupled with deductive, quantitative research to provide an emergent theory and an exploratory test of the theory [to prove that] the cultures of organizations have an important influence on effectiveness”.

Another widespread application of organizational culture research is to allow for increased adaptability. Adaptability is considered an attractive quality in the constantly evolving contemporary marketplace, but some organizations struggle to keep up the changes if they “are oriented toward managing scale and efficiency, and their hierarchical structures and fixed routines lack the diversity and flexibility needed for rapid learning and change. Such management paradigms die hard, especially when they have historically been the basis for successes” (Reeves & Deimler, 2011:141). In such cases, using cultural research is intended to provide for better manoeuvrability. According to COSO (2008:50), data from such research is used to assess “internal environment, objective setting, event identification, risk assessment, risk response, control activities, information and communication, and monitoring”. In other words, an understanding of its culture can help the organization to identify risks, effective practices and the structures needed to adapt.

In addition to improving manoeuvrability in the marketplace, an understanding of organizational culture is relied upon to help develop internal coping mechanisms in the



face of change. Internal changes can also cause problems, as “many of the substantive changes that occur in organizations, such as promotions or shifts in strategic direction, have multiple meanings and interpretations to members of the sales force. Actions that conflict with traditional values can create confusion, spawn rumours, and divert attention from superordinate goals” (Barnes, 2006:263). One way to assess the potential for disruption is to engage in cultural research.

#### **5.1.4 Types of culture and appropriate leadership styles**

Several different strands or types of organizational culture can be discerned (Handy, 1993; Line, 1999). Attention now turns to this key issue in terms of the organizational culture that may be present within the Abu Dhabi police. Culture and leadership are believed to be inextricably interwoven; each impacts the other. Knowing the kind of culture within an organization may well offer some indication as to the type of leadership style prevailing there.

Two factors play an important role in influencing leadership effectiveness: national and organizational culture. National culture affects leadership style in two ways. It shapes the preferences of leaders and it defines what is acceptable to subordinates. Therefore, leaders cannot choose their style at will. They are constrained by the cultural conditions in which they have been socialized and that their subordinates expect (Robbins, 2007:102). Leadership styles and organizational culture are intertwined. Numerous studies have shown there to be a constant interplay between leadership and organizational culture (e.g.

Bass & Avolio, 1993; Berrio, 2003; Lok and Crawford, 1999).Lok and Crawford (1999) found a correlation between leadership behaviour and cultural traits, while Berrio (2003) suggests that culture has a strong influence on an organization’s success and the

achievements of its leaders. In the following sections, the two types of culture are briefly discussed.

## **5.2 Researching national culture**

A widely used definition of national culture is that proposed by Hofstede (1980; 1991; 2001): the collective mental programming of the people of any particular nationality, which shapes the attitudes, values, behaviour, competences and perceptions of priority of that nationality. He further classifies national culture into four dimensions by which organizations and social structure can be shaped: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism–collectivism and masculinity–femininity.

Culture and leadership have often been discussed in tandem because it is difficult to separate them. The kind of leadership style in a specific location more often than not depends on the culture. For example, the American style of leadership is said to be strongly influenced by its unique corporate culture. Taleghani et al (2010) found that American leaders tended to use one of five leadership styles, viz. directive, participative, empowering, charismatic, or celebrity, while Japanese leaders shared characteristics including seriousness, continuous work, cooperation and coordination with others, the ability to establish close relationships with colleagues and tolerance of hardship. The authors assert that Chinese culture and leadership style have similar styles in common, but that these may operate on a different wavelength.

Key studies in the history of leadership research include those by Bass (1990), Hofstede (1991), Dorfman (1996) and Schein (2004), who have offered a wide range of reviews of cross-cultural leadership, suggesting two perspectives on the effects of national culture on leadership: the universal and the culturally specific. The universal perspective means that some concepts of leadership are generalizable across cultures, while the culturally specific perspective means that many leadership theories developed in North

American culture may not be generalizable when used by leaders with different cultural orientations. Schein (2004:1) states that culture is both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by interactions with others and shaped by leadership behaviour, and a set of structures, routines, rules and norms that guide and constrain behaviour. To support this, Robins (2003) asserts that international culture plays a critical part in determining an effective leadership style. This is a view shared by Yousef (1998), who points out that leadership differ from country to country. More precisely, leadership style plays a key role in the successful managing of organizations in international business. Leadership in national culture plays the dominant role in the ultimate success of international business through the mediation of its cultural values on leadership style (Byrne et al, 2007).

Nel (2009) conducted a study of organizational shared values and their interrelationship with the Competing Values Framework, categorizing culture into four main types: clan (cooperative), adhocracy (entrepreneurial/innovative), market (competitive) and hierarchy (conservative). The study found that most organizations gave importance to the shared values which were most fitting to the clan and market culture quadrants, with some elements of the adhocracy and hierarchy cultures. Thus, in this globalised and co-modified world, local cultures are giving way to foreign cultures as a result of trade and investment. For example, a Chinese firm wanting to do business in the Middle East will have to learn to blend its culture with the local culture. Attention is paid more to stabilization and the execution of regulations, which may centre on internal maintenance and make every effort to achieve consistency and control, clear task setting and enforcement of strict rules (Nel, 2009).

Cultural transformation in some Middle Eastern cultures is very slow, as evidenced by a study conducted by Ahmad (2009), which found that the organizational

culture in Jordan is complex because despite the strong intention to change as the private sector re-emerges, its relations with public sector organizations and the government more generally operates according to the three central paradoxes of the competition state as described by Cerny (1997). The changing organizational structure, social environment, historical traditions and cultural paradigms have impacted Jordan's environment (Ahmad, 2009). These findings are consistent with those of Hofstede (1991), who characterizes Arab national culture as having high power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance, high collectivism and moderate masculinity/femininity. As mentioned in Chapter 2, high power distance implies that Arabs respect positions of power and people in authority and that there is significant formality between leaders and followers. Strong uncertainty avoidance indicates that Arabs tend to maintain traditions rather than change. High collectivism shows that they value teamwork and collaboration, while moderate masculinity/femininity implies relatively slight gender role differences in Arab societies.

### **5.3 Social culture and its impact on leadership**

Social culture represents the cultural values of a society, which affect the leader's performance in managing a firm efficiently. According to House et al (2002), leaders usually endorse various patterns of behaviour and values that are favoured by the social culture and these are then reflected in the organizational culture. These values describe the leader's traits in managing and can possibly be used as criteria to evaluate the extent to which specific attributes and behaviours are universally endorsed as contributing to effective leadership and the extent to which they are linked to cultural characteristics. Earley and Mosakowski (2004) argue that it is essential for leaders to relate their leadership style to the geographic and ethnic culture of their organization.

Research conducted by Edwards (2004) has shown that leadership and decision-making styles are affected by the leader's culture, while Martinsons et al (2007:285)

contend that “cultural values at the national or societal level are likely to exert a significant influence on decision making”. This supports the finding of Parnell and Hatem (1999) that individuals from different cultures have differing values that correspondingly affect their responses to managerial behaviours, particularly decision making. Indeed, a leader’s decision-making style is linked to many cultural dimensions, according to Dickson et al (2003). The decision style approach is a useful way to understand a leader’s abilities in decision-making, problem solving and interaction with others in the organization. Thus, their ability to do this influences their members’ acceptance of the leaders’ attributes and values; it eventually influences their efficiency as they function effectively when their values are accepted (House et al. 2002).

Societal culture has a direct influence on organizational culture, according to House et al (2002:8), who cite the work of Lord & Maher (1991) and House et al (1997) in support of the contention that “the shared meaning that results from the dominant culture, values, beliefs, assumptions, and implicit motives endorsed by culture, has consequences for common implicit leadership and organizational theories held by members of the culture”. It is the leaders’ responsibility then to adjust their behaviour and values in order to control the organization, to guide the members to meet the requirements of those contingencies and to achieve efficiency. Therefore, communicating values effectively to the members of the organization creates a “balanced culture” whereby all the members and firms share the same values and expectations, and all contribute to achieving organizational effectiveness (Gregory et al, 2008).

An effective, charismatic leader can change the attitudes, behaviours and goals of followers, enabling the norms of the organization to be transformed (Shamir et al, 1993). However, being charismatic is not enough, according to Landrum et al. (2000). A truly effective leader must also be able to understand cultural differences and know how to adapt

leadership strategies to reach organizational objectives (Northouse, 2010). Although some studies have investigated this theory in different cultures, relatively few have considered it in emerging nations (e.g. Denison, 1990; Oakley and Krug, 1991; Schein, 1985). Given this paucity, Bass and Avolio (1994) offer two reasons for not assuming that the supposed optimal leadership profile, characterized by a very high level of transformational behaviour, a high degree of contingent reward, some active management-by-exception, less frequent passive management-by-exception and a minimum of laissez-faire, is equally applicable to all cultures. First, subordinates may not react in the same way to these styles in different cultures; and second, the particular styles of leadership which are associated with leadership effectiveness may vary in different cultures (Smith & Peterson, 1988).

The literature reviewed here indicates that social and cultural values generally play a critical role in shaping leadership behaviour and decision-making styles. For example, concepts like hierarchy, collectivism and attention to context may be more important for organizations under the influence of Arab culture, while those influenced by North American culture may favour egalitarianism, individualism and less attention to context. The following subsections offer an overview of the literature on leadership in Arab culture and the particular part played by religion.

### **5.3.1 Leadership in Arab culture**

The way that Arab organizations are managed is highly personalized and often dependent on traditional hierarchal organizational structures (Hofstede, 2001). However, while Hofstede categorizes the Arab nations as a single cultural entity, other researchers suggest that each should be treated separately (Lamb, 1987; Sidani and Gardner, 2000; Ali and Wahabi, 1995). Thus, although “most Arab nations share the same religion, Islam, and the same language, Arabic, they differ in many other aspects such as history, social norms, traditions, dialects, political and economic systems, religious denominations and presence

of substantial minorities (Smith et al, 2007:278). In the particular context of leadership, Al-Hajiri (1997) found that leaders in Qatar tended to persuade subordinates to contribute to decision-making only when the issue was related to personal matters, rather than organizational ones. Another study, by Hunt and At-Twajiri (1996) suggests that managers in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States may operate differently from those in other Arab countries because of the large number of foreign workers present in the region. Nevertheless, most researchers have tended to view the Arab countries as a single unit. Wilson (1996) notes that Arabs share many cross-national beliefs and attitudes, while Dedoussis (2004) suggests that some generalizations are to be expected, since the Arab countries comprise a large geographical region which has been treated as one entity, identified as “Arab culture”.

Relatively little research has been undertaken within Arab countries regarding leaders' behaviour. Robertson et al (2001) surveyed the work values of managers in three Arab countries: Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman. The results show that subjects believed work to be good in itself and that it bestows dignity on an individual; there was stronger endorsement of these trends in Saudi Arabia than in Kuwait or Oman. Twajiri (1966) also found that top Saudi managers' values were derived mainly from Islam and that they showed a moderate propensity towards individualism, thus giving their personal lives and relationships more concern than the interests of their organization. On the other hand, Islam urges Moslems to work at their best (Abuznaid, 2006). These concerns therefore affect an organization's performance and goals. The most significant interpretation of Arab culture is by Bjerke (1999), who claims that Arabs share three closely interrelated bases of identity: language, religion and history. However, the paramount factor in understanding Arab culture is religion, which affects all aspects of life among Muslim business leaders (Bjerke, 1999).

In another study, Badawy (1980) found that the leadership style in the Middle East was highly authoritarian. This finding is consistent with the culture, which happens to be a power culture steeped in centralization and a tall organizational structure. Although, taken as a whole, real decision-making seems to be consultative in style, there are differences in the degree of power and influence sharing (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005). However, there is some dissimilarity in terms of demographic and organizational variables, including managerial level, rank, sex, education, managerial training, number of subordinates, leadership experience, region and functional responsibility (Al-Yahya, 2005). It is also believed that a people's position within the hierarchy is of huge importance to their mind-set and opinion of their involvement within it (Fiedler, 1964).

As noted in Chapter 4, the delegation of power is a major factor in implementing change successfully; thus, Al-Yahya & Vengroff (2005) refer to the considerable uncertainties facing leaders related to the delegation of power, while the unwillingness of employees to accept delegated authority is of grave concern to stakeholders. In the Middle East, employees expect leaders simply to issue instructions and guidelines for their subordinates, which often results in ineffective delegation of authority, causes confusion and immobilizes staff and resources. This can further lead to weak performance and may be seen as a hurdle to the organization's development (Longenecker et al, 2007). Solving this difficulty requires a well planned policy, understood through the analysis of several challenges associated with power-sharing during the decision-making process (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005). Some also believe that once the opportunity is given to subordinates to take part in the decision making process, especially when decisions may affect them, they may automatically become intoxicated by power and may want to be involved in the making of decisions which do not affect them in any way (McGregor, 1960).



How much participation takes place in any organization depends by and large on the culture of the organization. Leaders may be unwilling to delegate authority when they feel that delegation will lead to a reduction of their influence in the organization, or they may lack confidence in subordinates.

However, delegating authority is good for the organization, because it makes subordinates feel that they are valued (Stroh, 2002). Involvement is also found to be a major predictor of effective utilization of competencies and maximization of the value of the employees as intellectual assets (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005; McGregor, 1960). The finding from a study conducted by Al-Yahya and Vengroff (2005) is that in the specific context of Saudi Arabia, there is strong evidence of both shortcomings and improvements in bureaucratic practices in the Arab world. The existing conditions in any given sector or country may affect the introduction and effectiveness of such models of power or influence sharing and participative organizational culture which was tested by Al-Yahya and Vengroff (2005). There is a need to ensure a balance with the cultural requirements of creativity and collaboration, labour market conditions, the strength and mobilization of labour unions, local cultural values and the ideological positions of public and private actors (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005).

### **5.3.2 Islamic leadership**

As a religion, Islam stands for complete submission and obedience to Allah. Muslims believe that only Allah can foresee the future and that plans must be based on His will (Bowker, 2000). Islam is said to have created a unique management paradigm that nurtures civility, prosperity, diversity and happiness among people of different origins around the globe (Abbasi et al, 2010). The two primary leadership roles from an Islamic perspective are those of servant leader and guardian leader. In the first case, leadership is viewed as a service to the organization and its members (Jabnoun, 1994). Servant leaders believe that

their first role is to serve, then to lead (Crippen, 2005). The second role perceived by Muslims is that of the guardian leader, who will protect the community against tyranny and oppression. Beekun and Badawi (1999) state that such leaders mobilize their followers by a process which includes reaching out to everybody, accepting the verbal commitment of others, using an incremental approach, allocating assignments according to each person's capability and exhibiting patience and understanding with followers. This process is very similar to the intellectual stimulation factor of transformational leadership.

According to the Islamic value system, an effective leader should be trustworthy, righteous, intelligent, knowledgeable, informed, confident and strong, yet moderate, consistent, disciplined, cooperative, content, humble, just and kind (Abbasi, 2009). Each leader has to deliver all the elements of his responsibility (Kraines, 2001). The vision of Islamic leadership has four components: future orientation, learning from the past, welfare of all stakeholders and protection (Abbasi, 2009). A comparative analysis of leadership in the West and the Islamic World (Moten, 2011) shows that leadership in Islam must be established on the basis of the consent of the people through free and fair elections. The basis of leadership is the *Ummah*, the Islamic social order. The leader must also be endowed with qualities which would enable him to fulfil his responsibilities and he will be held accountable for all his decisions and actions (Moten, 2011).

Against the background of literature on organizational culture, national culture, social culture and leadership, the next section explores the influence of the specific set of social cultural values outlined above on change management.

#### **5.4 Leadership style and change management in the Middle East**

The concept of leadership has been widely documented in the past (Kotter, 1988; Anderson, 2000; Bratton et al, 2007), as has the leadership style prevailing in organizations. Types of leadership styles have been extensively discussed in the previous

chapter. In this section, attention is focused on how leadership style influences change management in organizations, with particular reference to the Middle East. Change management may be regarded as a process introducing a new way of doing old things, or completely new things in an organization (Okpara, 2007). There is a strong link between the kind of leadership style in an organization and how change management is implemented (Senior and Fleming, 2006). In the present dynamic business environment, one of the key mechanisms of a winning leadership is a proactive and effective responsiveness to change (Reardon, Reardon & Rowe, 1998). When leaders or managers are preparing to bring about change in an organization, there are certain key values that need to be kept in focus (Cameron and Green, 2009), because irrespective of the extent of change, people will react in different ways. It is therefore important for the leader to recognize that to change, all individuals have basic needs that must be met, that more often than not the change brings about a loss and that people go through what might be called a loss curve (Briggs, 1995). Peoples' expectations should include being managed pragmatically and any fears of the unknown must be addressed (Briggs, 1995). Leaders who are able to consider what it takes to effect the needed changes at every step of the change process are what Reardon and Rowe (1988) call "strategic leaders".

As highlighted earlier, the organizational culture of the Middle East is grounded in the core philosophical underpinnings of Islam (Al-Yahya & Vengroff, 2005). This makes it extremely difficult to undertake and manage change, because people are dominated by strong uncertainty avoidance and prefer to maintain the current situation rather than change it (Schneider and Barsoux, 2003). However, as Al-Yahya & Vengroff (2005) and Reardon et al (1998) note, while altering culture is difficult, protracted and at times volatile, it is not unachievable. In authoritarian leadership, which is believed to be prevalent in the Middle East (Badawy, 1980), implementing change can be a very hard

task. For example, in a police administration which is sometimes perceived to be corrupt and constrained by a centralized system of management, change may well be a top-down process. Conversely, under an authoritarian regime, members of the organization have little or no power to resist change in most cases. Considering the leadership styles identified by Reardon et al (1998) and listed Table 4, Middle Eastern culture may well go with the commanding style in terms of change management, which focuses on performance and has a short-term goal orientation. Commanders are highly productive and results-oriented. They can be very effective when goal achievement is the primary focus. They learn better by their own successes and failures than by input from others.

**Table 4: Leadership styles**

Leader style	Focuses on	Persuades by	Make changes	Learns by
Commanding	Results	Directing	Rapidly	Doing
Logical	Innovation	Explaining	Carefully	Studying
Inspirational	Opportunities	Creating trust	Radically	Questioning
Supportive	Facilitating work	Involvement	Slowly	Listening

Adapted from Reardon et al (1998:132)

The change-oriented leader must possess diverse skills and experience in order to be able to bring about effective change (Gilley et al, 2009). Reardon et al (1998:132) argue that “the strongest case for versatility in leadership style comes from the recognition that change is not an event but an extended process. Each stage of that process benefits from different leadership orientations”. The change process has to have a beginning, as it does not happen spontaneously. Since leadership and change are thus predominantly affected by culture, the coming section will discuss leadership research that specifically includes culture among its variables.

### 5.5 Leadership research addressing culture

Organizational culture explains the cultural diversity among organizations. The Abu Dhabi Police has an institutional culture which may be seen to differ from that of a corporate organization which has profitability as its primary motive. Here, the organizational structure is highly hierarchical, while authority and responsibility follow a top-down rule (Anwar and Chaker, 2003). Moreover, there is a relationship between “managers’ personal values, their leadership styles and organizational culture” (Byrne and Bradley, 2007). Schein (1991) states that the success of the business and its organization’s culture is highly influenced by the values of the founder. Calder (1977) also asserts that the members of an organizational culture will tend to believe that the results achieved by the firm are the responsibility of the leaders.

As Wu (2008) states, while people usually provide the means to combine values and meanings to generate and carry a culture, it is the leaders’ characteristics and values that form organizational culture. Accordingly, Yang (2007) cites Schein (1986) as arguing that organizational culture is about the ability to control members’ behaviour in order to define the values and beliefs that leaders wish to encourage in the organization’s members. To support this, Judge et al. (2002) assert that the situation within the organizational culture also plays a role in shaping leaders’ effectiveness, and in order to be effective, leaders must behave according to the situation. Tsui et al. (2006) discuss the idea that leaders are considered “institution builders” because they create organizational culture, systems and processes.

In Chapter Three, it was stated that a situational leadership style involves reacting to the situation. Indeed, many authors have noted that leadership styles are affected by the situation in hand (Kalantari, 2005; Ke & Wei, 2007; Line, 1999). The argument is that a leader’s efficiency is higher under certain conditions, such as crisis and high environmental

uncertainty. These are referred to as “weak situations” of an organizational culture. According to Tsui et al (2006), the leadership style in such situations influences other members in various manifestations, including performance and culture. Another view concerns the “strong situations” of an organizational culture, where leadership style and influence are predicted to have less impact. Tsui et al (2006) cite Mischel (1973) as defining a strong situation as “one in which everyone construes a similar meaning or a situation which induces uniform expectancies or responses.” In these situations, the efficiency and actions of leadership are reduced, because members hold a common understanding and demonstrate appropriate behaviour to accomplish the goals, missions and visions of the organization; yet strong cultures are in essence institutions consisting of cognitive, normative and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning to social behaviour in the organization (Scott, 1995).

In a given culture, styles may differ from those experienced in other cultures. This could cause negative reactions towards a leader’s policies, rules and expectations if the culture of the leader and the members are different. “Consequences of incompatible cultural practices involved within decision-making processes, determining contractual changes and working conditions, can be seen in the actions of a significant number of Western expatriate teachers who break their contracts and ‘do a runner’ out of the country, apparently unable to adapt to the different culture” (Edwards, 2004). On the other hand, Tsui et al (2006) refer to social culture as tradition, arguing that “strong traditions” with strong “institutional control” create a situation that could affect leadership styles negatively and may limit the leaders’ responsibilities by influencing the organizational culture. Therefore, based on the cultural background of members within an organization, leadership styles are categorised to distinguish leaders from non-leaders; that is, employees create an image of what a leader is, then compare this image to the actual leadership behaviours they

witness (Testa, 2008). For this reason, to ensure members' acceptance of leaders, the leaders' values and attributes should be close to the categorization scheme (Testa, 2008). It is incumbent on any leader to preserve the core cultural values of the organization. Edwards (2004) argues that leaders aiming to guide an organization into achieving success and efficiency must understand and manage cross-cultural differences within it.

Leaders should easily anticipate and explain any misunderstandings that occur between them and the employees, in order to avoid any management chaos (Barrett, 2006). Hofstede (1998) emphasises that cross-cultural differences are mainly encountered in the members' shared values and beliefs within the culture. In case of any organizational changes, chaos or information overload, the leaders' capabilities in self-organizing and effective performance are key to the survival and management of the firm (Wheatey, 1999; Collins & Porras, 1994). These capabilities are defined by the leaders' values, which also define the leadership style implemented within the organization.

In terms of organizational changes, Bass (1985) suggests that leaders could accomplish success by implementing influential and persuasive personal characteristics and actions in order to change the internal structure of the organizational culture. According to Kwantes & Boglarsky (2007), leaders' effectiveness and the success of the organizational culture is related to their leadership style. It is positively perceived that an effective leadership style is one that promotes members' satisfaction with the organizational culture. Furthermore, leaders' efficiency derives from their ability to create a culture that fulfils the members' "personal needs and goals" (Chemers, 2000). Organizational culture also plays a role in determining when a management perceives a need for change, the nature of any resistance and the planning for change (Francisco and Gold, 1998). This view is supported by Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002), who indicate

that regardless of leadership styles, management and strategic change are derived from organizational culture.

The intimation is that organizational culture is the pivot around which leadership style revolves; thus leaders may well have their direction for change, but this has to be done in accordance with the culture of the organization.

Edwards (2004) recommends that both management and workforce overcome the disparity in styles of thinking, language barriers, religious and cultural differences in general and that they increase awareness of the diversity of values held, including by “training in how to identify and respond to different cognitive styles”. It is the leader’s responsibility to create the “integrated culture” in which all the members involved in the organizational culture share the same values and knowledge to achieve efficiency in the firm (Tsui et al, 2006). Furthermore, considering and managing the cross-cultural differences empowers the leadership to influence members of an organization to work willingly and efficiently to achieve the goals, mission and vision of the organization. Wu (2008:2) contends that “managements can borrow momentum and powers from critical masses to strengthen the leadership”.

## **5.6 Factors influencing leadership and change management**

Variables at three levels are known to influence leadership styles and organizational management: national factors (culture, religion and dynamic business environment), contingent variables (e.g. age, gender) and organizational strategies (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001). National factors having been discussed in previous sections, contingent variables are examined here.

Neal et al (2005) studied the influence of gender on attitudes to leadership authority and suggest that leadership training in the Arab region should be sensitized and tailored to address gender-specific conceptions of leadership. Another contingent variable



that might influence change management is the position of employees. So far, the literature review has focused on a top-down approach to change management, but from a low-ranking employee's perspective, organizational change does not happen solely in a top-down, leader-led, strategic manner. Employees at all levels can engage in change, regardless of whether their roles and vantage points are those of low-level employees, change agents, strategists or leaders of the organization (Brown & Duguid, 2000), and employees of various rankings may play different roles in change management (Dutton et al, 2001; Rouleau, 2005). A third contingent variable is education level. Islam et al (2010) examined the effects on resistance to change among first-line managers of their competence, the perceived costs and benefits of the change and their level of involvement in change; they found that the education level of first-line managers had an influence on their resistance to change. In particular, older managers with a higher level of education were more resistant. Hence the present study examines the differences in employees' perceptions of leadership and change management among groups with different educational levels, position and work experience.

### **5.7 Chapter summary**

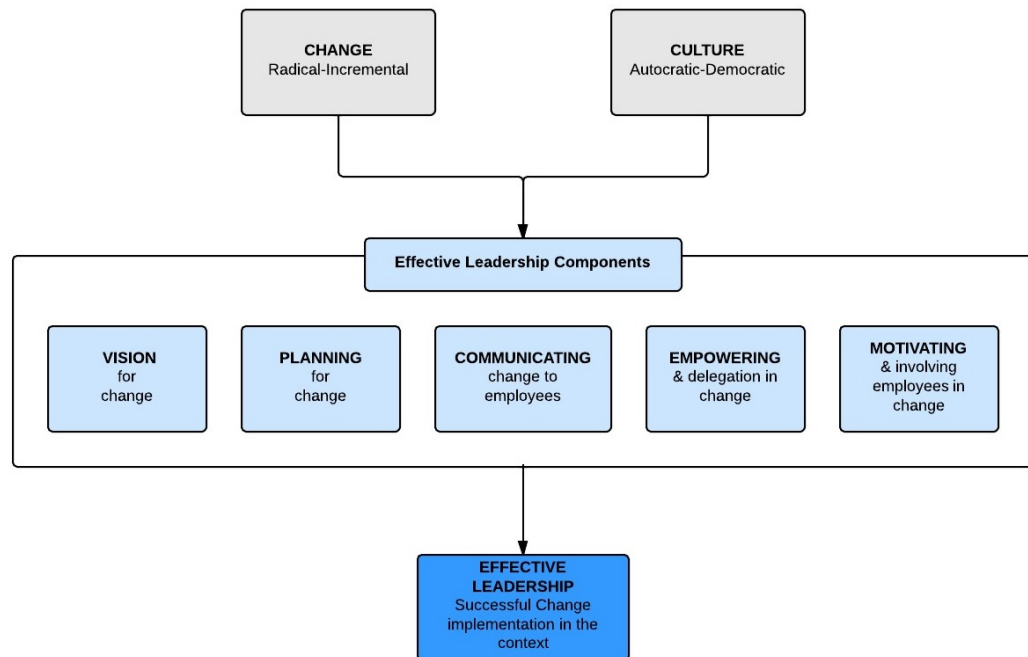
Leadership style differs among cultures and countries, even if the countries share the same language and religion. Leaders should have sufficient knowledge of the national and organizational cultures and be able to execute their tasks under the impact of these cultural characteristics. This chapter first discussed the various ways in which culture has been looked at by various researchers and academics, reporting the clear suggestion that leadership style and organizational culture are linked. Organizational culture is the foundation which shapes the way that the work of the organization gets done and establishes the environment which either empowers members or constrains them by the structure of its rules, regulations and customs. On the other hand, leaders are the catalysts

of organizational change and development, and influence the organizational culture. As Williams (1961:57) argues, “culture is a description of a particular way of life which expresses certain meanings and values not only in art and learning, but also in institutions and ordinary behaviour”. Understanding the cultural perspective of public administration is crucial to the achievement of its practice and implementation; the culture of a public organization must be the personification of the cultural values that determine the public expectations of its public institution (Kalantari, 2005).

A police force, as a public institution, has a duty to ensure that public expectations are met. This can be achieved by ensuring that the organizational culture is like-minded with the principal social values (Kalantari, 2005; Williams, 1961). This is a key signal of public contentment with the operations of the police. For Kalantari (2005:127), “in order to assess the success or failure of any public entity, it is imperative that its cultural compatibility with the general culture be realized and studied to assess its support, strength and ability to sustain and tolerate threat.”

### **5.8 Conceptual framework**

In chapters 3, 4 and 5, an endeavour has been made to identify and elucidate the related concepts that form the conceptual framework for the present study, illustrated in Figure 4. This section further develops this framework and explains the concepts and variables contributing to it, to provide the basis for developing a research design. The conceptual framework is drawn from the models and theories discussed in the literature review chapters and are also grounded in the reality of the change process.



**Figure 4: Conceptual framework of the study**

According to this model, the effectiveness of the leadership is dependent upon two key factors, namely Culture and Change. If the culture is democratic and change is steady or incremental (that is, if the environment is stable), then the planned change management is effective, for all the components of change are leadership-aligned. These components are as follows: developing vision and values for change, developing a detailed and clear change plan, communicating change, developing and empowering the team, and last but not least motivating and involving personnel in change. If the situation is reverse, however that is, of there is an autocratic culture which takes no account of employees' opinions and the environment is unstable then the planned change management is ineffective and cannot produce the desired results. Here, radical change makes difficult to predict future events and trends. In such conditions, it is very difficult for organizations to find an appropriate way of leading change. It can even be disadvantageous for the organization since it can

lead to dysfunctional management. When there a democratic style of leadership and the environment is unstable, then there is a need for collaboration, which can lead to effective results for the company; whereas, in cases of an autocratic culture and stable environment, then decisions must be taken at the top and passed to the bottom and the upper ranks must work out the proper instructions to issue. Similarly, there are various scenarios between the type of change and the different cultural variations that can impact the effectiveness of the leadership in change. There are various empirical situations between the type of change and cultural practices and these may not match the practical situations on the ground.

- When the change is incremental and in a phased wise manner and the culture is open or democratic, the coordination between the five leadership components will be in alignment.
- When the change is incremental and phased wise but the culture is autocratic or dictatorial, the change leadership will have a phase-wise approach to the five components of leadership. Some of the components like motivation or empowerment will have lesser roles than the others. The planning will be a top-down planning but the level of tension between the five components will be limited and the approach will remain central control.
- When the change is radical and the culture is open and democratic, the leadership of change emphasizes emergence. The teamwork and collaboration between the employees will work as a team to manage the change and respond to the changing conditions rather than formal planning. Here the success of the change management depends on the agility and responsiveness to the changing conditions to suit the emerging situation.
- When the change is radical and the culture is autocratic or dictatorial, the planned change will be ineffective. The disruptive nature of

change makes it difficult to predictive planning and the dictatorial decision making does not encourage empowerment or motivation to perform leadership changes. Under these circumstances, the organisation will not find an effective way to lead change and probably become rigid or paralysed or dysfunctional.

First of all, organizational change provides the opportunity for organizations to build more focused, disciplined and mature businesses. When there is a demand for change, it is essential to consider the possible types of change. As described in the literature review, change is defined when viewed from an evolutionary perspective as transitional, transformational or developmental: developmental change improves what already exists through the improvement of skills, methods or conditions; transitional change replaces current ways of doing things with something new over a controlled period of time; and transformational change means the emergence of a new state, unknown until it takes shape, out of the remains of the chaotic death of the old state (Ackerman, 1986).

Different leadership styles may need to be adopted when implementing different types of change, as is evident from the conceptual framework. Previous studies support this idea; for example:

- Dunphy and Stace (1993) state that a coercive leadership style is often adopted when transformational change is implemented, while the consultative and collaborative styles are often found when implementing incremental change.
- Waldersee and Griffiths (2004) suggest that a directive and less participative leadership style is required when implementing structural-technical change, which is often considered to be transformational.

Nonetheless, based on the Dunphy and Stace (1993) contingency model of organizational change, James (2005) studied the optimum leadership style in implementing

transformational change with a sample of 128 managers of an Australian government-owned enterprise and found that a directive and consultative leadership style led to more successful transformational change, while coercive leadership was less effective in implementing the same type of change.

Second, leadership is a key success factor in change management, which has been extensively researched (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Zeffane, 1996; Landrum et al, 2000). The findings of these studies led to the identification of certain skills in leadership that are linked to success of organizational change. Leaders may function as change agents, i.e. those individuals responsible for change strategy and implementation (Kanter, Stein & Jick, 1992), by doing the following:

- Developing vision and values for change
- Developing a clear and detailed change plan
- Evaluating progress for change
- Communicating change
- Delegating and empowering
- Motivating people and involving them in change.

These practices of effective leadership are crucial in change management and are thus included as key variables in the present study. Variables in the boxes denote that these are linked, rather than being the effects or causes of each other.

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In particular, developing a vision and values for change is a crucial step that leaders must consider as they lead their organization through change efforts. This notion is derived from Kotter's eight-step model, which requires the leader to develop and articulate a compelling vision that will guide the change effort and formulate the strategies for

achieving that vision. To be committed to the change process, followers need to believe in the leader's vision of a promising future that is significantly better than the present, to justify the costs and hardships that the transformation will bring (Kotter, 1996).

Another important variable is evaluating progress for change. Successful leaders can use various tools to evaluate the strength and weakness of the change process so that the change can be sustained over the long run. Developing a clear and detailed change plan is also crucial. Change efforts that succeed often share a common approach: combining a well-executed plan for change with the leadership needed to sustain that change over time (Donahue and Yelton, 2010). Communicating change provides employees with feedback and reinforcement during the change (Peterson and Hicks, 1996), helping employees to make better decisions and preparing them to appreciate the advantages and disadvantages of change (Saunders, 1999). Motivating and involving people in change is identified as another key variable in effective leadership. Motivation, in an organizational context, refers to a leader's ability to persuade and influence others to work in a common direction. Leaders must create a work environment that elicits employee motivation in order to successfully implement change (Gilley et al, 2009). A growing body of research suggests that employee involvement has a positive impact on change implementation (Sims, 2002) and productivity (Huselid, 1995). Delegating and empowering is the last key characteristic of effective leadership included in the conceptual framework. Delegation ensures that leaders are more focused on high-priority tasks, mobilize resources and secure better results. Delegation also trains employees and improves their self-esteem, thus easing the stress and burden on managers. By delegating responsibilities, leaders can focus on doing a few tasks well instead of many tasks less effectively. Consequently, they improve their management and leadership potential while training others to succeed them (Lussier and Achua, 2009).

Finally, organizational culture was included in the framework because numerous studies show it to have a significant impact on leadership, which in turn influences the decision-making and change processes (e.g. Sapienza, 1985). The study aims to explore the effectiveness of leadership and change management in the particular cultural context of the Middle East, an Arab country and a policing organization. Previous research in the Middle East (Anwar and Chaker, 2003; Sabri, 2007; Yasin and Saba, 2008) suggests that Arab culture adopts a top-down approach in terms of decision-making, while other studies (Ali et al, 1997; Darwish, 1998) have found that managers in organizations under the influence of Arab culture tend to adopt consultative and participative decision styles. The present study examines how organizational culture influences employees' perceptions of effective leadership and the successful implementation of change.

Having set out the background, reviewed the relevant literature and outlined the conceptual framework of the study, this thesis turns in the next chapter to the research methodology.



## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter details the research design and the approach employed in the current study. It explains the case study methodology and provides an explanation of the chosen design, the means used for data collection and the techniques employed in data analysis (Lee and Lings, 2008). Essentially, it links the research problem and the methods, i.e. a mixed research methodology including both qualitative and quantitative methods.

As mentioned in Chapter One, the primary aim of this study is to examine the most effective style of change leadership in Arab culture generally, in the context of the UAE and the Abu Dhabi Police in particular. To achieve this objective, a case study methodology was adopted and three key data collection methods were used: a questionnaire survey, an interview exercise and an analysis of organizational documents, which was carried through with the help of a qualitative research methodology.

#### **6.2 Philosophical assumptions**

As argued by Easterby-Smith et al (2002:27), it is helpful to explore the philosophical assumptions underlying the different research approaches, since an understanding of these enables the researcher to select the most appropriate design for a study, and may even encourage the use of a design that is outside his previous experience. Such a strategy might, therefore, help to avoid the limitations of particular approaches, or allow for the adjustment of particular approaches to enhance their suitability (Easterby-Smith et al, 2002:27). Over the years, there has been considerable debate by social researchers and philosophers regarding the best way of conducting research, from which two main philosophical positions have emerged (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Collis and Hussey, 2003).

The first, which dominated the field from the 1930s to the 1960s, is that of the positivists (Davis et al, 2000), whose fundamental beliefs are that the social world has an external existence, that its diverse properties are capable of being measured by objective methods and that they should not be inferred in a subjective manner using sensation, reflection or intuition (Singleton and Straits, 2005). Positivism holds that social reality does not exist because of the human beings who participate in it, but rather emerges irrespective of whether individuals exist or not. In other words, positivists believe that there is an objective reality that exists apart from the perceptions of those who observe it and the goal of science is to better understand this reality. The positivist approach presents evidence of social trends in order to check any correlation between variables, paying hardly any attention to the subjective state of individuals who engage in the behaviour expressed in those trends (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004).

The second philosophical position is characterized by the phenomenological approach, which according to Bryman and Bell (2003:13) is “concerned with individuals’ observation of the world around them and the ways in which they bracket up their preconceptions of it”. The phenomenologists’ belief is that reality is actually determined by people as part of what is being observed and not so much by any external elements (Singleton and Straits, 2005). Arguably, phenomenologists concentrate on what human behaviour means by observing every possible way of behaving (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004). In this way, reality is perceived as being constructed socially; hence, people may have diverse explanations of the situations in which they find themselves. These different explanations influence their behaviour and social relationships; Saunders et al (2003) argue that it is therefore important to explore subjective meanings in order to understand people’s actions, motives and intentions.

The particular philosophical approach is, in reality, determined by the nature of the research and the particular questions posed. In this respect, Saunders et al (2003:84) observe that “the social world of business and management is unable to lend itself to theorising with the help of definite laws because of its complexity in much the same way as the physical sciences”. Clearly, the use of a positivist approach in such a world would result in much loss of insight regarding these complexities, although a number of advantages of a positivist approach are also noted, such as clear theoretical focus, greater opportunities for the researcher to retain control of the research process and the ease with which the collected data can be compared. Creswell (2003) argues that a phenomenological approach is more appropriate for research in business and management, since, despite the uniqueness of studies in these fields, they are nonetheless complex in nature, and, as argued by Saunders et al. (2003), they are further complicated by the involvement of various sets of situations and individuals. In order to manage such challenging investigations, Creswell (2003) suggests the use of a phenomenological approach, as this can better capture the richness and nuances of social situations.

However, whilst the phenomenological approach can facilitate the acquisition of in-depth information and the subjective meanings of theories, concepts, views, ideas, beliefs and current practices, this approach alone may not suffice for the present study, since its incorporation of the researcher’s personal interpretations and experiences creates further bias and precludes the generalization of results to a wider audience (Sekaran, 2000). At the same time, the sole use of a positivist methodology is also insufficient to describe the relevant phenomena or to offer any real understanding of the different processes and management systems. Furthermore, the essential goal of this study is not simply the justification of knowledge or the discovery of facts, but rather to conduct a serious attempt to comprehend how diverse perceptions can be aligned in order to obtain

better and richer insights. Hence, the study is not totally independent of its objective, as is ordinarily required in a positivist approach (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004; Saunders et al, 2003; Singleton and Straits, 2005).

Consequently, based on the compatibility between the phenomenological and positivist approaches, a pragmatic approach is adopted for the study, in which the “focus is on the significance of research, on the primary consequence of the question asked rather than the method, and multiple methods of data collection inform the problems under study”(Creswell and Clark, 2007:23). Several reasons underpin this strategy, the first being that it allows insight to be gained of the phenomena being studied. It also permits the researcher to employ all possible methods to examine the problem, thereby allowing for the collection of comprehensive evidence and for triangulation (Jick,1979) of the data secured by the use of mixed methods (Creswell and Clark, 2007; Tashakori and Teddlie, 1998).

### **6.3 Research strategy: Case study**

According to a number of authors (e.g. Cavaye, 1996; Miles & Huberman, 1994), there are many research design alternatives, such as experiments, surveys, grounded theory, operational research and case studies. In order to achieve the objectives outlined in Chapter One, a case study methodology is employed for this research project as the most appropriate alternative. This methodology will be explored in this section and the use of this research method for the research purpose will also be justified in the following section. The method is described in detail and its strengths and weaknesses are discussed, as are the types of study that are served well by it. There is consideration of how to conduct a case study effectively, what types of data are valuable and how to guarantee the reliability and validity of the process and the findings.

It has been argued that case study is a strategy, which involves the investigation of a particular phenomenon within its real-life perspective, applying various sources of evidence (Saunders et al. 2003). As this current research study is grounded in a real-life context, a case study approach is deemed the most appropriate. A justification of using case study design for the particular research is that leadership and organisational culture involves complexities of real-life situations that cannot be isolated and captured through alternative designs. The case study method facilitates understanding of real-life scenarios in a better and more convenient way. Furthermore, case study provides better insights into the detailed perceptions and behaviours of the participants. Appropriateness is important in choosing a research strategy; thus, Yin (1994) notes that each strategy has its own advantages and disadvantages. A justification for using this design is that the study of leadership and organizational culture involves the complexities of real-life situations that cannot be isolated and captured through alternative designs. Furthermore, case study provides better insights into the detailed perception and behaviours of the participants of interests. Appropriateness is important in choosing a research strategy; Yin (1994) notes that each strategy has its own advantages and disadvantages, while Saunders et al (2003) argue that the strategy chosen must reflect the set of research questions posed and be the best to ensure that answers to these can be obtained. Hence, the way answers are arrived at and the type of data collected are important elements of the strategy adopted.

Rewely (2002) states that case study for the purpose of research emerges as an option for students and researchers in cases where a modest scale research project is set in the workplace or compares a limited number of organisations. In the present case, the purpose of the research is to identify the effectiveness of leadership in the Abu Dhabi Police, so this method, comprising a self-administered survey and interviews with selected personnel, constitutes the best approach for the research.

Robson (1993) also asserts that where researchers need to gain a rich understanding of the context of a research study and of how the processes under investigation are performed, a case study is recommended, since this allows for a sound explanation of what occurs in a given situation to be provided. Fellows and Liu (2003) add that case study is the preferred strategy when examining contemporary events and when the relevant behaviours cannot be influenced.

Case studies are one of the many ways to conduct research relating to the social sciences. Schell (1992) has stated that despite the misconception that this method is limited to qualitative research, it can and often does incorporate quantitative methods as well.

The case study method typically involves a detailed examination of one, two or three situations in depth and holistically. In this research, a detailed examination of the leadership styles of the Abu Dhabi police was required, so the case study method proved beneficial. In some studies, more cases may be involved. Case studies take the situation as given and try to discover what it means to those individuals who are associated with it. In general, a case study draws on a variety of data collection techniques and can take months or even years to complete (Cavaye, 1996).

Rewely (2002) further states that case studies are useful in providing answers to “how” and “what” questions. The best possible way to conduct the research for the topic adopted was the case study method, as the main focus of the research was to determine how the ADP leaders behaved and how their leadership was perceived. These questions were investigated with the help of a mixed research methodology, using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Case studies are just as demanding as other research strategies, if they are properly conducted, but because the rules governing the conduct of such studies are less transparent than those that prevail in quantitative research, there is much potential for them

to be poorly managed (Yin, 1984). For example, it is easy to be intellectually lazy and there is therefore an important requirement to adopt a rigorous and systematic approach to the gathering of data and to demonstrate that rigour in the eventual report (Yin, 1984). This is secured by the use of valid and reliable research instruments within the case study, such as properly designed questionnaires and properly organized samples.

At all times, the researcher must be assured of the validity and reliability of all the various methods employed to collect data (Denscombe, 2000) and the focus should always be on locating linkages between cause and effect. In the present study, face validity and content validity were confirmed by having a panel of experts in the research area to read and comment on the readability and clarity of the interview questions and the items of the survey instruments. Reliability was determined by calculating Cronbach's alpha values.

Case studies are usually undertaken in a natural environment where there is no chance of being able to adjust situations that continually occur. The method is sufficiently flexible to allow researchers to explore different data sources and various methods of arriving at findings. Yin (2003) believes that a case study could be defined as a theoretical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context. He highlights the fact that boundaries between the phenomenon and its context may be hazy and that questions of 'how' and 'why' are capable of being answered using this methodology.

At this point it is important to highlight the fact that whilst the case study method has a close connection with qualitative methods and the two terms 'qualitative' and 'case study' have been used interchangeably, this erroneously suggests that there is no room in a case study for quantitative methods, which is clearly not so. Indeed, case study research may involve quantitative data only, qualitative data only, or a combination of the two. The key is to create a wide base of evidence so as to maximise the validity of the study (Yin, 2003). Cho and Park (2001) second this view and indicate that a combination of qualitative

and quantitative methods is commonly used in business and management research in an attempt to improve the generalisability of the findings.

Nonetheless, it must be recognised that criticisms exist of the case study design. Saunders et al (2003) note that a common complaint about single case studies is that they do not have much scope for external validity, since the findings associated with such investigations may not be generalizable to a larger population or a universe. That said, Yin (2003) has argued that case studies are dependent on analytical rather than statistical generalisation. Siggelkow (2007) also argues that a case study can be persuasive if it provides a conceptual insight rather than just standing on its descriptive feet. Another criticism of case study design concerns the reliability of the findings inasmuch as they have little potential for being achieved again in similar circumstances (Cho and Park, 2001). Yin (2003) states that reliability is pursued in order to reduce the incidence of errors and bias in research studies, but that it is not an easy outcome to achieve, because it concerns the ability to replicate the study and produce the same findings, whereas each case has characteristic differences which may well detract from this. That said, Yin (2003) suggests that this anxiety can be overcome if researchers take steps to maximise the reliability of their findings, which essentially involves following a “case study protocol” and implementing a “case study database”. Gibbert et al (2008) reviewed 159 case studies published during the period 1995–2000 in 10 influential management journals and found that case studies emphasized external validity at the expense of internal and construct validity. Therefore, they suggest criteria and strategies, which can be used by those wishing to conduct methodologically rigorous case study research.



According to the purpose of the research, Yin (2003) categorizes case studies into four types:

- Exploratory
- Descriptive
- Illustrative
- Explanatory

The present study is an explanatory one, examining the data closely at both a surface and deep level in order to explain the phenomena within the data. However, it should be noted that there is no exclusivity between these categories of case studies. Yin suggests that a more appropriate view would be a pluralistic one, whereby each type of research strategy could be used for exploratory, descriptive or explanatory purposes; explanatory case studies seek to associate an event with its effects and are suitable for examining connections. In terms of design, Yin (2003) describes studies with a single source of information as holistic and those with multiple sources of information as embedded cases, yielding four types of case study on a 2×2 matrix: single-case holistic designs, single-case embedded designs, multiple-case holistic designs and multiple-case embedded designs.

The present study employs a single-case (the ADP) embedded design using multiple sources of information (survey, interview and document analysis). The ADP is one of the largest public sector organizations in the UAE and since 2002 it has undergone a major organizational transformation by virtue of a strategic change plan. It has a well-documented history of the successful implementation of organizational change and consequently offers an appropriate context that can provide several useful insights into the phenomenon in question. Yin (2003:41) makes the observation that “the lessons learned from ... [case study organizations] ... are supposed to be very informative about the experiences of the average institution”; whilst the ADP can be considered a unique case (a paramilitary entity employing over 35,000 individuals), it is nonetheless argued that it can

act as an important beacon for other organizations that also have special features and some similarities to it. Such organizations may well aspire to learn from the ADP's experience.

The main objectives of the present study are to identify the most effective leadership style in the ADP, to identify the role of leadership in successful implementation of change, to investigate national cultures in general and Arab culture in particular in terms of leadership and change, to investigate the most effective style of leadership in ensuring successful change among employees of the Abu Dhabi police and to identify their views on the characteristics of leadership in change and the ethos of the public sector in the UAE. The study also seeks to explore the correlations among the above factors. The ADP was selected as the subject of this case study for many reasons. First, the ADP is one of the largest public bodies in the UAE in terms of numbers of personnel. Secondly, it has properly recorded the process of executing institutional transformation since 2002, as exemplified by its receipt of the Sheikh Khalifa Excellence Award for superior execution and progress. Yin (2003) states that the findings of a successful case study are presumed to be enlightening about the experiences of a typical organization, while Jankowicz (1991) contends that it may also focus on a group of issues applicable to a single organization, where investigators desire to conduct a comprehensive investigation of that firm. He also proposes the use this design when investigators have recognised several crucial variables applicable to a particular firm that they desire to investigate.

For these reasons, the choice of a single embedded case study design and the ADP as its subject is justified. To detail the context of this justification, the following section outlines the historical background to the development of the ADP and indicates the different phases of change management that have occurred within it.

## 6.4 The case study organization

### 6.4.1 Historical background to policing in the UAE and Abu Dhabi

The Abu Dhabi Police is the primary law enforcement agency in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. It is responsible for enforcing the criminal law, enhancing public safety, maintaining order and keeping the peace throughout the Emirate, which requires the universal and consistent application of rules and procedures and hence has implications for the organizational culture and leadership. In addition, the ADP works closely with local, national and international agencies to contribute to global peace and stability. Integrity, honesty and respect for human rights are its core values, while the notion of public service is a central pillar in its thinking. Embraced as a legitimate partner by the community, the ADP pursues efficiency and effectiveness through the use of the latest technological advances and systems management practices (Abu Dhabi Police, n.d.).

The establishment of the Abu Dhabi Police Force was a totally new experience for the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, and now over half a century later, it stands as a strong organization, the outcome of much patience and determination amongst its management and individual members. At its inception in 1957, the ADP had no policies or procedures to follow other than the traditional ways of solving problems, referred to as the *Matarzi* system, which reflected a deep-seated paramilitary culture that operated with military norms. The *matarzi* were commanded by the ruler to protect the community and to guard the ruling families (ADP, 2007). Sheikh Shakhbut bin Sultan Al Nahayn, who ruled Abu Dhabi from 1928-1966, founded the ADP in an attempt to provide the Emirate with a government institution that would assure its internal security. Then, when Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahayn assumed power in 1966, he introduced a vision of a modern police that would be able to provide better policing and maintain security and stability within the

Emirate. Since then, the ADP has become one of the most prominent police forces in the world (ADP, 2007).

#### **6.4.2 Four stages of development in the ADP**

Over the past fifty years, the ADP has undergone four stages of development, these being:

- 1) Foundation, 1957-1966
- 2) Building, 1966-1979
- 3) Progress, 1979-1995
- 4) Qualitative and strategic development, quality and distinction, 1995-2007.

During its foundation stage, the ADP was charged with responsibilities such as securing palaces, markets and banks. At its inception in 1957, it had only 80 policemen, who had to sign a two-year contract with a salary of 150 Indian rupees (IR) without food or IR 100 including food. The IR was the prevailing currency at that time (ADP, 2007). In addition, the ruler hired retired officers from Britain to assist the police in becoming better trained and more effective, a practice that was sustained until the declaration in 1974 of the federation of the UAE.

The second stage of development, known as the building stage, began in 1966 when the late Sheikh Zayed became ruler of Abu Dhabi. Sheikh Zayed was a staunch supporter of the ADP and demonstrated this by allocating substantial financial, technical and human resources to it (ADP, 2007). Furthermore, he invited the administration of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan to send qualified police officers to join the ADP, which contributed greatly to its transformation into a much larger organization consisting of the police school and departments responsible for traffic, licensing, interrogation, criminal investigation, communication, guards, administration and financial affairs (ADP, 2007). In 1977, a number of police stations were opened in different locations in Abu Dhabi City

under the overall authority of the Capital Police Department, which was established in 1967 with responsibility for public matters and comprehensive duties.

The third stage began in 1979 when the Abu Dhabi Police General Directorate merged with the Ministry of the Interior, making the ADP part of the federal police and security forces. Many other government departments were also affiliated to the Ministry of the Interior, such as Legal Affairs, Medical Services, Public Relations, Planning and Training, and the Criminal Laboratory. The ADP General Headquarters is independent with regard to financial expenditure, being structurally linked with the Abu Dhabi Department of Finance (ADP, 2007). In late 1978, the Women's Police School was opened in the Emirate, providing the first and most important police training qualification in the GCC countries (ADP, 2007). The first cohort of graduates comprised 160 policewomen, considered an extremely high number at that time. In addition, many new departments were created, such as the marine police, rescue police, police music, police clinic, police officers' club, criminal laboratory, research centre, special security force, workshops and transport, and the financial affairs section (ADP, 2007).

The fourth and final stage is that marking the strategic development of the ADP, which began in 1995 when Lt. General Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed AlNahayn, the son of the late president Sheikh Zayed, was appointed chief of the ADP. Since then, the force has witnessed remarkable development and orientation toward strategic and social activity, having become distinctive in all aspects including its institutions, technical expertise, electronic services and communication systems. In consequence, all the various sections and branches of the ADP are active in delivering the new security strategy, designed to cope with external changes and potential challenges. Under the leadership of Lt. General Sheikh Saif bin Zayed, the ADP has been awarded many certificates in recognition of its

excellence and many awards of honour in various activities, both locally and internationally.

#### **6.4.3 Creating a vision for change within the ADP**

In 2003, the Minister of the Interior, Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahayn, expressed a clear vision to make the ADP the most effective operational police force in one of the safest and most secure countries in the world. This vision statement directed special attention to the identification of the characteristics that the ADP should possess, these being:

- Responsiveness to the community's needs and demands;
- Adherence to moral values and integrity;
- Motivation of police personnel and adequate training;
- Organization, education and creativity encouragement;
- Cost-effectiveness and scalability (ADP, 2007).

Subsequent to the announcement of this vision, a new department responsible for developing the strategy through the formulation of strategic plans was established. The Department's brief is extensive, ranging from particular tasks to the supervision of all development within the ADP. Additionally, is it charged with preparing and designing strategic qualitative plans that fully integrate with the ADP's main strategic plan.

When the Minister of the Interior announced the vision for the ADP, he also indicated the first strategy plan associated with it; within this plan, seven major strategic goals were identified, each being assigned to a 'responsible officer'. Each directorate and department was instructed to contribute to the realization of the plan by addressing its objectives in its own annual plan. The First Five Year Plan for Strategic Development in the Abu Dhabi Police General Command (2003-2007) concentrates on:

- 1) Focusing efforts in reality on maintaining stability, limiting crime and boosting the sense of safety and security in society.
- 2) Building confidence and spreading tranquillity to all categories of the community through consultation and effective contact.

- 3) Developing and improving the quality of services and performance.
- 4) Developing the quality of police services.
- 5) Developing the capacities and skills of all staff in the Abu Dhabi Police.
- 6) Boosting the concepts of integrity, trade ethics and honesty at all levels.
- 7) Providing the supplies, buildings and technology that support the effective provision of services (ADP, 2007).

The plans for each of these strategic objectives were assigned to all directorates within the ADP with the expectation that they would cooperate with the sentiments expressed in them and contribute towards their achievement by addressing the relevant issues in their own annual plans. Such co-operation has been forthcoming and directors are in regular liaison with the Strategic Department to ensure that their efforts are on the right track (ADP, 2007). Hence, in managing this organizational change, the leadership has accorded the Strategic Department a vital role in guiding and supervising the process of conducting surveys and studies, with the aim of determining the needs of strategic development planning through an approach which realizes the desired organizational goals. In particular, the Strategic Department was placed in charge of enhancing the execution of strategies and identifying any technical or operational obstacles that might face the organization in liaising with the directorates and assuring effective co-ordination of effort to overcome such obstacles.

### **6.5 Triangulation of data within the study**

Having outlined the history of the organization used as the case study, it is important to discuss the possibilities available in respect of data collection methods; in this connection, quantitative and qualitative methods present themselves for consideration.

According to Cho and Park (2001), quantitative methods have a general focus on numbers inasmuch as they attempt to quantify phenomena through the use of particular research instruments that allow numerical and/or statistical testing of the data collected.

They present data in charts, tables and graphs, imposing statistical formulae and analysis to arrive at some conclusion. The main strengths of such methods are that they are able to deal with a wide range and type of population or sample and can also be fast and cost-effective (Creswell, 2003). Additionally, they are helpful in being able to test theories, since they concentrate on the issue or case at hand. However, quantitative methods do have their drawbacks in that they lack flexibility and may be unable to fully characterize the phenomenon being studied (Van Manen, 1979).

Qualitative techniques, on the other hand, “bring the opportunity for interpretation, and indeed, have been described as offering an array of interpretative techniques that work towards describing, decoding, translating and also coming to terms with the meaning rather than the frequency of some reasonably naturally occurring phenomena in the social world” (Van Manen, 1979:520). These methods have several strengths, such as:

They enable the understanding of social phenomena and human behaviour. They facilitate researchers in trying to adjust to newer issues and ideas as and when they come up. They make a strong contribution to the development of newer theories. They help towards developing new theories. By virtue of these data collection methods, the process appears more natural than artificial (Van Manen, 1979:520).

Nevertheless, the methods also have their own drawbacks and limitations, such as:

- Data collection becomes very cumbersome and time-consuming
- Data analysis is a difficult process
- The methods lack reliability (Singleton and Straits, 2005).

Qualitative methods are also believed to lead to findings that are not easily generalizable to wider populations, yet they do carry the benefit of being able to overcome the limitation of



quantitative methods in respect of the latter's inability to provide a dynamic picture of social life (Zikmund, 2000).

A common response is to use mixed methods research, intended to maintain the advantages of each approach while limiting its drawbacks. This does, however, present some difficulties for the researcher, which it is important to acknowledge before embarking upon it. Table 5 thus shows both the strengths and the weaknesses of the mixed methods design, which the present study used in order to take advantage of the strengths of this approach while overcoming the resource limitations and time constraints with efficient time management and careful budgeting. The qualitative data from interview and document analysis provided a deeper understanding of survey responses, while statistical analysis of the survey provided detailed assessment of patterns of responses. Although combining the data from three sources can be time consuming and expensive, thus imposing tight budgetary and time constraints on the researcher, this design is ultimately the most appropriate to address the complex question of leadership and change management.

**Table 5: Strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods research**

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers.</li> <li>• Numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative.</li> <li>• The researcher can generate and test a grounded theory.</li> <li>• Can answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach.</li> <li>• The specific mixed research designs discussed in this article have specific strengths and weaknesses that should be considered (e.g., in a two-stage sequential design, the Stage 1 results can be used to develop and inform the purpose and design of the Stage 2 component).</li> <li>• The researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in a research study.</li> <li>• Can provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings.</li> <li>• Can add insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method is used.</li> <li>• Can be used to increase the generalizability of the results.</li> <li>• Qualitative and quantitative research used together produce more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both qualitative and quantitative research, especially if two or more approaches are expected to be used concurrently; it may require a research team.</li> <li>• Researcher has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately.</li> <li>• Methodological purists contend that one should always work within either a qualitative or a quantitative paradigm.</li> <li>• More expensive.</li> <li>• More time consuming.</li> <li>• Some of the details of mixed research remain to be worked out fully by research methodologists (e.g., problems of paradigm mixing, how to qualitatively analyse quantitative data, how to interpret conflicting results).</li> </ul>

Source: Onwuegbuzie et al (2006:19-21)

Yin (2003:15) states simply “case studies may be based on any mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence”. The triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data can lead to a credible understanding of the case.

## 6.6 Data collection methods

The decision to triangulate data within the case leaves open the question of which particular methods to employ and how to triangulate the data in this respect. Three data sources were chosen: questionnaires, interviews and documents. Each of these is discussed in detail after a brief account of the sampling strategy adopted.

### **6.6.1 Sampling strategy**

A well-defined sampling strategy is critical for any research. Denscombe (1998) argues that whether probability or non-probability sampling is used, the sampling frame should be relevant, complete, precise and up-to-date. Probability sampling is often used in quantitative research, as greater confidence can be placed in the representativeness of the sample. On the other hand, a non-probability approach, such as purposive sampling, is well suited to small-scale and in-depth studies (Ritchie et al., 2003). In the present study, two different sampling techniques were used:

- A simple random sampling technique was used in order to select participants for the survey;
- Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the in-depth semi-structured interviews.

### **6.6.2 The questionnaire**

A questionnaire was employed in order to investigate employee perspectives regarding the leadership style, which is most effective in securing change in the ADP. It was preferred over the option of qualitative interviews because it was believed that lower-level officers might be unresponsive in such a personal situation due to the militaristic nature of the organization. The questionnaire data were collected between the autumn of 2009 and summer 2010. Questionnaires, which are usually associated with quantitative methods, were employed to investigate employees' opinions regarding the critical factors in the successful implementation of change in the Abu Dhabi Police. In practice, employing this method was very useful for this study for two main reasons: it allowed the study to cover a wide sample of ADP personnel; and conducting qualitative interviews with junior officers would have been difficult, because such interviewees might have been reluctant to give the

researcher full and frank answers, given his status as a senior police officer interviewing subordinates. Therefore, it may be that respondents would have provided socially acceptable responses, rather than the truth (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

A questionnaire is an instrument for collecting data without requiring an interview situation, or indeed without needing the presence of the researcher while the respondent is completing the form (Kumar, 1996; Brace, 2004). It is considered the most basic and popular research instrument in quantitative studies, consisting of a set of questions circulated among the sample population, which can be large or small. Hence, the approach is very flexible in sample terms, as can be seen by its use in collecting census data from national populations. Ruane (2005:123) describes a questionnaire as a “self-contained, self-administered instrument for asking questions”. The type of questions asked may be unstructured, i.e. open-ended, implying that respondents answer in their own words, or structured/closed, where the respondent is offered several answer choices. In the latter case, the choice may be either scaled or dichotomous (Yes/No) (Moustakas, 2004). Hence, questions may be open-ended or completely closed. Questionnaires are easy to administer amongst a varied sample (Phillips, 2001), and have other advantages, as follows:

- They are relatively cheap to administer, because they are not dependent on the presence of the researcher, as in the case of a telephone survey or interviews.
- They are relatively easy to analyse, since the answers to the questions follow a similar structure.

Notwithstanding these advantages, questionnaires also have certain drawbacks. Firstly, the common format of answers tends to bother some respondents, who feel they are being forced into a particular answer. Secondly, where respondents are unable to comprehend the questions, their responses may be vague, which could jeopardise the entire

data collection process. Another problem is that the researcher can never be sure that the desired respondent is actually completing the questionnaire. Yet another difficulty is the known low response rate to questionnaires. Thus, as Patton (2000) notes, questionnaires can prove to be impractical for data collection in some social research situations. In order to avoid such problems, it is necessary to undertake a rigorous pilot exercise to establish the suitability of any such instrument for the particular research sample envisaged.

An alternative to the traditional paper-based questionnaire is the web survey, which Couper (2000) states has many advantages, including low cost, speed, convenience and global reach, and represents an effort to democratise the research process. However, Groves (1989) argues that web surveys are susceptible to errors like mismatch between the target and the frame population, inability to calculate the non-response rate and the fact that the online questionnaire may not be compatible with the respondents' screen size, web settings, etc (Miller, 2001). These arguments are further corroborated by Grandcolas et al (2003), who assert that web surveys often have a low response because invitations to participate are placed on websites rather than personally emailed. In comparison to web surveys, hand-distributed printed instruments enable the researcher to avail full-scale rich descriptions and are also less susceptible to the respondent's short-term memory (Dillman and Bowker, 2001).

#### **6.6.2.1 Questionnaire construction and design**

Questionnaire design is a crucial consideration in the attempt to secure answers that satisfy the research questions and meet research objectives, according to Collis and Hussey (2003), and several procedural elements must be considered in the formulation of the instrument, these being:

- The objectives of the questionnaire must be clear.
- The questionnaire should be pilot tested.

- The researcher must consider what questions the sample population will have the knowledge or opinion to answer, and include only those.
- 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 but shorter for mailed questionnaires)

(Collis and Hussey, 2003).

#### **6.6.2.2 Questionnaire content**

The literature offers suggestions in respect of how to design items to be included in a questionnaire (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al, 2003), as follows: Self-compilation questionnaires should look attractive and professional; there should be a short introduction to ensure informed consent; and the first section should seek background information relating to the participant if that is necessary, but the questions should be non-contentious to help build trust and to develop a question-and-answer routine.

It is also of extreme importance to consult the literature relating to the topic of the proposed questionnaire to be certain that the questionnaire is not attempting to gain information of which there is already a surfeit in the literature. Consequently, in this study, the leadership and change literature was examined to determine what was already known about leadership theory in general, effective leadership style in the implementation of change, and leadership and change in Arab culture. These three 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 (ADP employees). This comprised five questions relating to the respondent's gender, rank, position, qualification

and length of experience, since these demographic variables were considered to have a potential bearing on the answers provided later. Part 2 was designed to elicit the general perceptions of employees regarding the strategic plan, vision, values and mission of the ADP. If they were able to communicate such perceptions, this would indicate that the leadership had paid attention to these variables. Part 3 focused on effective leadership styles for change management and Part 4 addressed the role of effective leadership style in the implementation of change in Arab culture. The questionnaire concluded with three open-ended questions aimed at capturing employees' views of change implementation.

#### **6.6.2.3 Language and wording**

In order to ensure the validity of responses, attention should be given to the wording of all questionnaire items (Saunders et al, 2003). The use of jargon and technical terms should be avoided, as should words, which may have a double meaning or be misinterpreted. It is important, therefore, to be aware of the culture of the respondents, as some words have different meanings for different groups of people. Above all, the researcher should avoid questions which may cause annoyance, frustration, offence, embarrassment or sadness, as apart from the ethical reasons for doing this, a respondent who experiences such emotions is unlikely to give accurate answers. Likewise, questions that attempt to force an answer must be avoided, since they may well prompt a respondent to give a false reply simply to comply with the request to participate in the questionnaire.

Clearly, for a questionnaire to stand the best chance of completion it should be produced in the language of the respondents, and in international studies, this may require a questionnaire to be drafted in one language and then translated into another before being administered. In this study, as the individuals in the research sample were Arabic speakers, it was necessary to produce the questionnaire in Arabic, but as the instrument was initially designed in English, translation was required. The translation process comprised many

stages, designed to minimise any potential problems. Firstly, an independent translator specialising in both languages translated the questionnaire from English into Arabic. Secondly, the researcher, who is fluent in both languages, in order to ensure that the questionnaire maintained the required meaning, revised the Arabic version. The two versions of the questionnaire were then given to three native Arabic speakers who were also fluent in English and who were asked to confirm that the meaning had been retained. Finally, on the basis of the comments received from these people, some modifications were made.

#### **6.6.2.4 Question types**

Gray (2004) advises using a variety of question formats in order to improve response rates to questionnaires and to minimise the potential for bias. Essentially, the first consideration is whether to use open or closed questions, which are described as follows:

**Open** questions ask respondents to provide answers in their own words. No prompts are given, and the expectation is that respondents give their thoughts and opinions, thereby enabling the researcher to obtain vital and rich information. However, such questions require a longer time to answer, and their use might affect the response rate. Furthermore, the researcher might encounter difficulties in coding and analysing open questions, since no parameters are set for the answers, and this might lead to the collection of unrelated information, because it increases the possibility that participants will interpret the questions in a different way (Neuman, 2006).

**Closed** questions ask the respondent to choose from a set of pre-designed answers (Gray, 2004), so they take less time to complete, thus enabling the researcher to get a quick response from participants and potentially increasing the rate of return. These questions are useful when a questionnaire is long and concerns sensitive issues; another benefit is that the answers are relatively easy to code and analyse. However, closed questions may



frustrate respondents, since their opinions may not fall into one of the categories provided and hence they may feel constrained. Moreover, if a respondent has no knowledge or opinion of a certain issue, s/he may choose an answer just to complete the questionnaire, despite that answer being inappropriate (Neuman, 2006).

In order to capitalize upon the advantages and counteract the disadvantages of both types of question, the questionnaire employed both open and closed items, thereby giving participants the opportunity to express their own views whilst at the same time providing precise information, as encouraged by the closed questions.

#### **6.6.2.5 Rating scales**

As the purpose of closed questions is to allow for some measurement of trends or opinions, it is common to use a rating scale. Lee and Lings (2008) identify four different types of scale that can be used to measure a particular variable: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.

In the initial part of the questionnaire, two types of scales were used: a nominal scale, to obtain information relating to gender, rank, position and qualifications, and a quantity scale for age and experience. In second part, an ordinal scale was used, as respondents were asked to select Yes or No. Subsequently, there was a range of items soliciting degrees of agreement/disagreement on scales such as Clear, Not sure or Not clear. The other half of the questionnaire required participants to express their level of agreement on the basis of their beliefs, opinions, attitudes and views, by ticking one of five boxes with levels of agreement graduated from Strongly disagree to Strongly agree.

Thus, standard five-point Likert scales were used throughout parts 3 and 4 of the questionnaire, being convenient for respondents as well as the researcher, who was then able to code and analyse the responses (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2005). Indeed, Merriam (2001) shows how the dependability of the Likert scale combined with the wide range of answers given to respondents delivers a reliability figure of .805.

When rating scales are used, however, it is important to consider the tendency for respondents to gravitate towards the middle of the scale; researchers disagree upon whether or not it is sensible to offer the option of a neutral position. One school of thought suggests that a neutral position should not be included, in order to encourage respondents to consider their answer and provide one which is closest to their opinion, whilst the other argues that it is important to cater for the occasion when a respondent really does not have an opinion or actually does believe in the middle option (Hooley et al, 2008). Additionally, there are cultural considerations to take into account, since particularly in Arab countries, people are keen not to indicate an opinion and the mentality is to opt for the middle statement as a kind of protection of their own interests. The decision to choose the neutral response is confirmed as being culturally conditioned (Halvorsen, 2002), with collectivist cultures such as those in Arab countries being particularly known to favour this (Patton, 2000). Hence, the exclusion of a middle position forces a response irrespective of whether respondents do have an opinion, thereby negatively affecting the reliability of the answers, especially where self-administered questionnaires are used and the respondent has no possibility of clarifying a question with the researcher. Nonetheless, neutral options were included in all except the demographic items in the present questionnaire.

#### **6.6.2.6 Piloting the questionnaire**

It is strongly argued that a questionnaire should be piloted prior to being finally administered, to ensure that respondents do not experience any difficulties in comprehending the questions and answering them accordingly (Neuman, 2003). Such piloting testifies to the validity of a questionnaire and the dependability of the data that is to be gathered by it (Phillips, 2001). Consequently, the questionnaire used in this research was subject to several piloting exercises before it reached its final version, as follows.

In the drafting stage, the questionnaire was prepared on the basis of a wide reading of the appropriate literature and consideration of earlier questionnaires that were relevant to change management. This was then discussed in detail with the researcher's supervisor and modified according to suggestions relating to similar questions and the inability to quantify certain factors, before being translated into Arabic by the researcher. Thereafter, the questionnaire was discussed with several PhD students whose native language is Arabic to check the nuances of translation. On the basis of this discussion, many changes were made, such as some items being removed in order to reduce the overall length of the questionnaire. A better version of the instrument resulted.

To confirm the validity of the content during the second stage (Walsham, 2005), this improved version of the questionnaire was given to two senior lecturers in the Research Department of the ADP, who both agreed that the quality and validity of the questionnaire would allow it to achieve its objectives.

During the third stage of piloting, in summer 2009, twenty ADP employees were asked to complete the questionnaire to determine whether any barriers existed to their ability to respond to the questions within it. On the basis of this test, a few items were reworded to improve their simplicity and clarity. These changes resulted in the final version which was given to all staff members in the sample.

#### **6.6.2.7 Testing for reliability**

The dependability of the questionnaire had to be tested. For this purpose, the researcher tested for internal consistency of the instrument, which basically consisted of checking an individual's response for consistency on a particular item as compared to another scale item (item to item correlation) (Myers, 2009). As pointed out by Polit and Hungler (2009), researchers generally check such dependability by measuring the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which should result in a score of .7 or over to guarantee consistency

(reliability) (Bryman and Bell, 2003). However, the internal consistency was rather low for each of the six sections of the questionnaire in the present study, as indicated by Cronbach's alpha values of 0.60, 0.40, 0.53, 0.36, 0.50 and 0.40 respectively.

#### **6.6.2.8 Questionnaire sample**

A representative sample can be properly selected only when the study population is clearly identified (Sandelowski, 2000). In this study, the population comprised all 35,000 employees of the ADP. Certain criteria then had to be invoked in order to calculate a proper sample size. According to the literature, this is very often a matter of judgment as well as calculation (Miles and Huberman, 2004) and several factors must be considered in making that judgment (Sandelowski, 2000):

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

No one single variable can be used for determining the sample size, and as Miles and Huberman (2004) observe, it is not rational to be absolutely precise in numerical terms. Using a sample size calculator, this research chose a 95% confidence level and approximately  $\pm 5\%$  confidence interval or sampling error as benchmarks, which resulted in a sample size of 300 employees. However, to reduce any sampling error, 350 ADP staff members were selected randomly with the support of the HR Department, which held all employees' details. The questionnaire was evenly distributed across the five main departments that control the whole police system: Human Resources, Medical Services, Engineering Projects, Strategy and Development, and Education and Scholarship. The questionnaire was filled out and sent back to the Education and Scholarship Department, which had granted approval for the survey.

#### **6.6.2.9 Gaining access**

Issues of access were unproblematic, since the researcher is an ADP employee and the ADP had sponsored the research. Nonetheless, it was still important for the researcher to secure the formal consent of the Education and Scholarship Department to undertake the study with regard to change management. Subsequently, the Department distributed a formal letter to the various other departments of the ADP to make them aware of the research and to request their support in meeting the researcher's requirements.

#### **6.6.2.10 Administration of the questionnaire and response rate**

Questionnaires were personally delivered to and collected from the respondents, who administered the questionnaire themselves, a method which Miles and Huberman (2004) describe as having the advantage of producing a high response rate and precise sampling while limiting researcher influence on the respondents. All participants were assured of absolute anonymity and asked not to write their names on the questionnaire. Additionally, they were aware of the researcher's position within the organization and of the fact that the research was an academic exercise, which ultimately aimed at enabling the organization to become more effective in terms of its leadership and change management. As a result, respondents were comfortable in participating, in the knowledge that they were making a contribution towards the improvement of their organization.

It is believed (Sandelowski, 2000) that handing questionnaires to participants in person attracts better responses than mail or Internet surveys, although the topic of the survey also has a role to play in this, since culturally-sensitive questions might well have negative impact on the response rate (Miles and Huberman, 2004). In all, 312 questionnaires were received, of which 288 (92.3%) were fully completed.

#### 6.6.2.11 Questionnaire analysis

The SPSS program was deployed to analyse the questionnaire data. All items in the questionnaire related to the main study themes were dealt with using descriptive statistics, such as mean, standard deviation, minimum, maximum and frequency distribution, then further analysed using inferential statistics (correlation and ANOVA) in order to draw conclusions and at times graphs were used in order to provide a clear picture of the whole results. Brace (2004) considers how descriptive statistics can deliver valuable results through summarising and organizing the data, thereby assisting researchers in understanding patterns and links that are not conspicuous in the raw data. Couper (2000) elaborates on this by stating that descriptive statistics aid the researcher in creating a summary sample with regard to the main variables researched. Therefore, the frequency distribution having reasonable values of central tendency (*mean*) and dispersion (*standard deviation*) was used to conduct a descriptive analysis of the questionnaire, comparing the various parts of the data so as to understand the macro-level attitudes of the participants with regard to the items (Couper, 2000). Miller (2001) argues that central tendency and dispersion measures give the researcher a fair picture of the reactions vis-à-vis the different items and measures.

Pearson's correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) was also computed to determine the relationships among the overall evaluations of the six leadership characteristics. Such analysis was imperative, because no previous empirical evidence was available to demonstrate the relationship between these characteristics in the context of the ADP. Pearson's  $r$  is a number between -1 and +1 that measures the degree of association between two variables X and Y. A positive value for the correlation implies a positive association (large values of X tend to be associated with large values of Y and small values of X tend to be associated with small values of Y), while a negative value implies a negative or

inverse association (large values of X tend to be associated with small values of Y and vice versa). The significance of the correlation was also tested.

In addition, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the differences in overall evaluation of ADP leadership characteristics among groups with different lengths of experience, qualifications and positions. ANOVA is a statistical test used to determine if more than two population means are equal. The test uses the F-distribution function and information about the variances within and between groupings of the population to help decide if there is significant variability between or within those groups.

The primary questionnaire analysis and its statistical collection show that the data sample was normally distributed and the data sample is parametric. The parametric samples and their statistical estimates produce a more accurate and precise estimate than non-parametric estimates do. The non-parametric tests such as the Spearman Test were conducted on nominal or ordinal data but the data results from the leadership models are parametric because the data were ratio or interval based.

The above explains why the tests which were conducted for analytical purposes are parametric in nature (CSSE, 2014). Parametric tests are the tests which make certain assumptions about the parameters of the population distribution from which the sampling has been drawn, whereas non-parametric tests are those which make no such assumption (Anderson & H, 1961). ANOVA (analysis of variance), Pearson, and Tukey tests were used as parametric tests. The parametric tests are more powerful and their results have greater explanatory power than others.

Regarding the collection of statistical data for the questionnaires, if the questions have a YES/ NO answer, then the scale is called nominal. This is an example of non-parametric data and the mode and cross tabulation with chi-square can be used. In addition, ordinal data collected on scales based on personal preferences are also non-parametric. The

statistical tools that can be used are variance of non-parametric data, correlation, median and mode.

**Pearson Correlation Coefficient:** The questionnaire sample from a standard interval based survey rating to rate the satisfaction or choice is one possible parametric data choice. Parametric tests are the kind of test which makes certain assumptions about parameters of the population distribution from which the sampling has been drawn. The parametric tests used here, as noted above, are the .ANOVA (analysis of variance), Pearson, and Tukey tests.

Pearson's test measures how far two values are proportional to each other. The values of the coefficient lie between +1 and -1; the value of +1 indicates perfect positive correlation which shows that with an increase in the value of one variable, the other variable will increase by the same proportion. A correlation of -1, in contrast, indicates that there is perfect negative correlation between two variables; thus, the increase in one variable will cause the other variable to decrease in the same proportion. The ultimate objective for using the Pearson correlation coefficient is that it makes it easier to interpret the relationship between two variables and the relationship can further be quantified in order to know from the change in one variable what will be the impact on the other variable. But at the same time this test does not specify whether the relationship is cause-and-effect. However, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient could have been chosen instead, but Pearson's correlation coefficient was preferable because Spearman's rank correlation coefficient relies on ranking rather than actual observations, in which Pearson's correlation coefficient counts for more (Braak, 1992).

**ANOVA** has been used because it enables us to see that how effective and durable two different types of treatments are. It can be demonstrated by the use of analysis of



variance how well treatment works and how long it will last. It makes the comparison of two means easy while at the same time it also boosts the level of efficiency and reduces random variability (Sawilowsky, Blair, & Higgins, 1989). ANOVA compares all means simultaneously and maintains the type 1 error probability at the designated level. If the t-test had been used, however, it would have made comparison more difficult and would also have been time consuming. Thus the reason for choosing ANOVA instead of single t-tests, and for also choosing two paired t-tests was that they made it easier to compare two or more variables (Szohir, 2012). In this study, these were the styles of leadership. It provides more valid results by minimizing the chances of Type-1 error.

**Tukey:** This test was used to determine the differences in overall evaluation of the leadership characteristics contributed by employees with different educational qualifications, lengths of working experience and job positions, because it is normally used to evaluate whether differences between any two pairs of means are significant or not. Studies show that it has greater power than other tests in most circumstances (G & T.D, 2004) .

One of the concerns in this type of research is response bias., which is the cognitive bias that affects a statistical survey if respondents respond in the way in that they think the questionnaire wants them to answer. This of course undermines the validity of the research, since the answers may not represent the beliefs of the respondents. It is equally important for the researcher to minimise the response bias by defining the objectives of the research to do so; the questionnaire has been designed in compliance with the guidance which dictates that not even one biased question should be asked which could give the respondent any idea of the researcher's intention in asking it or what answer might have been hoped for. It was also scrutinized whether the questions were loaded in any way, or ambiguous, which could also change the mind-set of the respondents. Care was also taken

to reassure the respondents that they could choose freely without fear of the consequences. Finally, to minimize the effect of response bias, the anonymity of the respondents was assured even before asking the questions, which gave them the confidence to say what they believed in response to the questionnaire. The sampling technique which was used for the study was random sampling, which is one of the best techniques for minimizing response bias in a study. These initiatives played an important role in the research; the completion rate was high and people felt free to express their thoughts in the questionnaires as well as in the interviews conducted. The interviews indeed gave a better chance of this than the questionnaires because most people do hesitate to express their thoughts in front of others in speech and feel more comfortable about expressing their thoughts on paper. But still the possibility of sampling bias cannot be discounted. This might yield skewed results if the respondent who did not return the questionnaires were not randomly selected.

### **6.6.3 Interviews**

As noted earlier in the chapter, interviews are a good source of qualitative information and are often used to complement the quantitative data obtained from a questionnaire survey, allowing for a comprehensive understanding of themes and trends. They are particularly useful in case study research (Yin, 2003) when several data collection methods are used, as they perform the function of enabling triangulation and clarification of the information secured by other means.

The findings of the questionnaire are quantifiable, measuring the views of employees on the themes of this study. These quantifiable findings require qualitative methods in order to identify hidden factors, which cannot easily be identified by employing a quantitative approach alone. To do this, qualitative interviews were employed in order to complement the questionnaire survey by examining managers' and experts' views, thus

providing a comprehensive picture of themes. These types of respondents prefer to be interviewed rather than complete a questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2003). Yin (2003) argues that interviews are one of the most important sources of case study information, while Myers (2009:121) states that “interviews are one of the important data gathering techniques for qualitative researchers in business and management”. Bell (1993) expresses the opinion that the major advantage of the interview is flexibility, as researchers can follow up an idea, probe for additional information and explore motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do.

Being of particular use in business and management research where qualitative information is required (Miller, 2001), interviews offer a flexibility (Bell, 1993) that enables researchers to explore an idea more deeply or search for more information while understanding emotions, whereas a questionnaire (even a qualitative one) cannot do this. However, this flexibility is not the same in all interviews, since as noted by Saunders et al (2003), their nature can vary according to whether the interview is structured, semi-structured or unstructured.

Structured interviews make use of questionnaires, previously and properly prepared. By nature formal and standardised, this type of interview aims basically to obtain quantitative information (Saunders et al, 2003; Easterby-Smith et al, 2004). There is little room for pursuing a tangential discussion as the pattern is set, but there is the opportunity for an interviewee to ask for clarification of any particular question, which does not exist when completing a questionnaire without the researcher being present.

Semi-structured interviews also follow a protocol, which enables researchers to work through themes and gain opinion and thoughts. However, in this type of interview, the researcher may change direction to follow up an interesting comment made by the

interviewee; hence, it can be seen that the actual questions posed may differ from interview to interview, on the basis of the actual conversation between the two participants.

Unstructured interviews are much more informal, non-directive and conversational in nature. There is no set list of questions, which makes it even more important for the researcher to be clear about what s/he wants to gain from the interviewee (Saunders et al, 2003); these interviews demand a range of good skills on the part of the researcher, since there is a great tendency for them to last for long periods of time, for much data to be gathered and for it to be so unstructured as to make analysis extremely complex and difficult.

Given his understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of each type of interview, the researcher decided to use semi-structured interviews, since this format provides a proper framework but simultaneously allows for some improvisation (Miller, 2001). Semi-structured interviews are also very capable of explaining a connection between variables similar to those in the questionnaire survey (Bell 1993; Saunders et al, 2003). Indeed, the aim of this study made it a requirement to collect valuable and well-built data on attitudes, opinions and emotions vis-à-vis change in the ADP; hence, the semi-structured interview was appropriate, since it is valuable in providing the opportunity to look deeper into a specific answer given and in helping to increase the depth and quality of the data obtained from the questionnaire. Additionally, the questions formulated for the interview are quite complex, which means that the researcher may well be required to elaborate on every little detail (Saunders et al, 2003).

#### **6.6.3.1 Interview design**

Much attention has been given to the structure and design of an ideal interview. Essentially, 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 (Bogdan and Taylor, 1998). Consequently, an interview guide (Appendix 4) was constructed so that the major themes of the study(see Figure 4)followed 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, 2004). Silverman (2006:286) supports this view and states that “every respondent must comprehend the questions in a similar way, while answers should also be coded with no scope for uncertainty”.

According to Gray (2004), interviews have greater validity if the question schedule that is followed relates to the extant knowledge in the literature published on the topic being considered. This is true if it is specifically external validity which is of concern. However, if a researcher is taking a highly phenomenological stance, then the most valid questions are those that reflect the individual’s experience, irrespective of whether they reflect the extant literature.

Silverman (2006) also notes that interview schedules have to be piloted before the real-life event to ensure reliability. Therefore, the interview guide was tested in advance by sharing the initial set of questions with the researcher’s supervisor. Subsequently, some questions were removed because it was decided that these were too sensitive nature and might perhaps have unpleasant repercussions. With the removal of these questions, the interview guide was translated into Arabic, then discussed with PhD students/co-workers whose native language is Arabic, to ensure clarity and accurate translation. Many changes were made after these discussions and a new guide was eventually developed; this was then given to two senior lecturers within the ADP Research Department in an attempt to develop the validity of the content (Saunders et al., 2003). In this way, the usefulness of the interview guide in measuring the factors was also communicated. Next, some ADP managers were chosen to be 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.

The purpose of conducting interviews along with the survey questionnaire was to avoid a number of hurdles as listed by Phellas, Baloch & Seale (2011):

- The interviewer can explain questions that respondents have not understood and which need some further explanation.
- Questions asked by an interviewer sometimes have more rewarding responses than survey questions.
- Self-completion questionnaires may have advantages over personal interviews, but at times interviews prove to be more beneficial, as in the case of limited options or fixed categories.

#### **6.6.3.2 Interview sample**

A significant concern in qualitative research is the ideal number of interviewees that should be chosen so as to be able to generalize the outcome or register external validity. In this respect, 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 (2004) 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 generalizable results. Hence, a good strategy is that once sufficient data has been acquired, the interviews should come to an end, since the process will have reached ‘saturation point’, where the effective chance of eliciting new information is negligible (Guest et al, 2006).

Different sampling approaches are valid for different types of data and purposes. It was decided here to employ purposive sampling, which is used by many qualitative researchers according to Silverman (2006), since they are particularly looking for certain

groups that have good knowledge about the phenomenon being researched, in contrast to the use of random sampling for the questionnaire, whose aim was to gain information that could be generalized 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. It seems, therefore, that to secure valid qualitative data via interviews, researchers must pay attention to the process of collecting data and its analysis, rather than to worry unduly about the sample size (Saunders et al., 2003). However, Silverman (2006) makes the point that samples should accurately reflect the population about whom the findings are to be made and he does acknowledge that certain constraints prevail in this respect; for example, the sampled participants may not correspond to every group within the population, the resources available may not facilitate interviews throughout the population and the researcher may need to prioritize to some degree.

In this respect, Gray (2004:219) offers two practical guidelines that can be useful for generalizing interview findings:

The sample must be chosen from diverse levels that can add value by viewing the entire phenomenon from different angles.

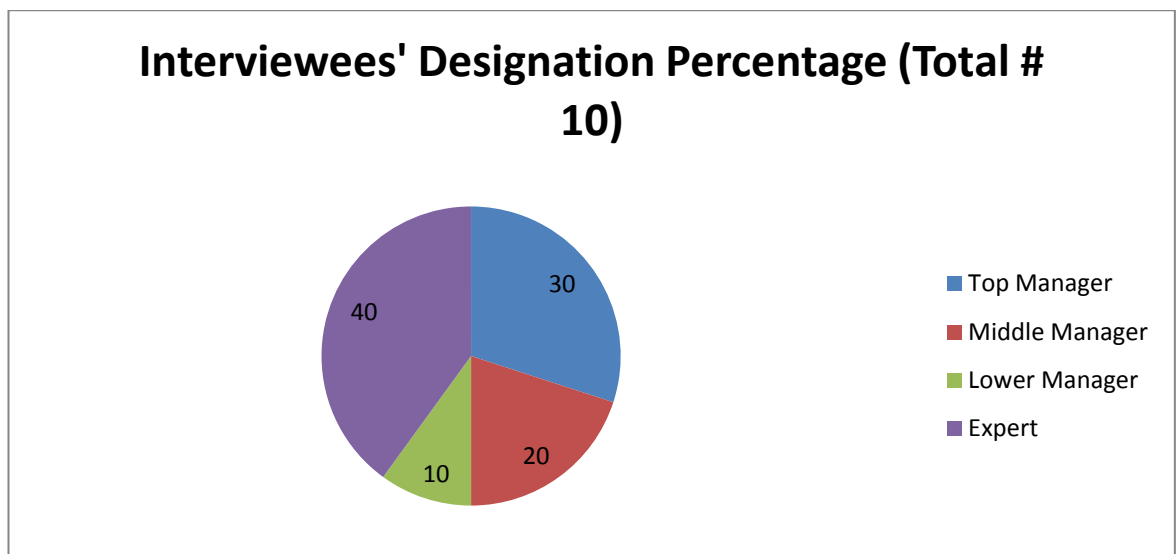
The sample size must be continually widened to represent different perspectives until such a point where there are no new themes or sub-themes that emerge from the data. For this to happen, a sample size of eight is generally sufficient.

It was decided that a diverse sample would be used for the interview exercise, thereby gaining representation from different levels within the case study organization and ensuring that the interviewees involved would be experienced and knowledgeable in respect of the changes within the ADP. The advice of Gray to continue with interviewing until the saturation point was understood, but the time constraints upon the study required

the researcher to stop the process when ten interviews had been completed. Nonetheless, it was believed that no more new insights would have been forthcoming had the interview exercise been extended, because the interviewees offered similar opinions. Table 6 shows the interview sample.

**Table 6: Interview sample**

Interviewees' Position	Numbers	Percentage
Top manager	3	30%
Middle manager	2	20%
Lower manager	1	10%
Expert	4	40%
Total	10	100%



As Table 6 indicates, more than half of the interviewees were managers at different levels within their departments, thereby bringing a cross-section of opinion, although half of these managers were at the senior level. Experts within the organization represented 40% of the sample. For ethical reasons, the names and other personal details of the interviewees are not disclosed.



### **6.6.3.3 Interview process**

The interviews were conducted in the autumn of 2011, mutually convenient arrangements having been made with the participants by telephone. The researcher briefly explained the overall purpose of the research study, its importance and the way in which the information generated by the study would be used. In an attempt to reduce any possibility of interviewer bias, consideration was given to how the language used in questions might affect the answers given (Saunders et al, 2003). The interviews took place on ADP premises and during their interactions the interviewees seemed comfortable, open and prepared to offer information as part of the interview process, because they knew that the interviews would provide rich information to help the organization to identify its weaknesses. Thus, their support and co-operation at this point were substantial and much appreciated. Additionally, the support from the Education and Scholarship Department was especially valuable, for two reasons: first, the participants to be interviewed had to be aware of the research study and its effects in the future; secondly, it smoothed the way for the interviews, thereby relieving any potential difficulties emanating from the management protocol or bureaucracy.

Most interviews were held in the interviewees' offices and lasted between 40 minutes and an hour, discounting interruptions in the form of telephone calls and/or people knocking on doors, and the interviews that were held in these surroundings were successful in obtaining their objectives. Some individuals, however, usually those holding high positions within the ADP, had such busy daytime schedules that interviews in the work environment were precluded and they were consequently held in the evening to allow their participation in the study. Irrespective of the time and place of the interview, the process provided some extremely rich data, especially in respect of interviews with senior ADP personnel.

The interview data were collected by writing down the statements in condensed form, rather than by making audio recordings. The interviewees were thoroughly briefed on their right and duty to correct the wording of the interview transcripts, which was done verbally during the interviews and in writing immediately afterwards. This ensured high reliability in comparison with the standard procedures that take place when transcribing recordings, where interviewees are often not given the opportunity to correct either the statements or the first interpretations of them. A recent study (Clausen, 2012) shows that such a method can replace the audio transcription without affecting reliability, validity and transparency if the interviewees are professional and if the interviews are thoroughly planned, with well-focused themes and a thorough and repeated introduction to the interview. The interview transcripts appear in Appendix 3 and the original notes are available upon request.

In respect of the conduct of the interviews, after having developed a good rapport and a trusting relationship with the interviewees, the researcher explored the major themes of the research study described in the conceptual framework (Figure 4), in particular: developing vision and values for change, developing a clear and detailed change plan, evaluating progress for change, communicating change, motivating and involving people in change, delegating and empowering. These six major characteristics were thoroughly examined using the questions listed below.

***1. How would you describe the leadership style in the Abu Dhabi Police?*** This question aimed to examine employees' perceptions of effective leadership in the ADP.

***2. To what extent are the ADP's vision, mission and values clear and understandable?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of developing vision and values for change, developing a detailed and clear change plan and evaluating progress for change.

**3. *How does the leadership of the ADP motivate employees to bring about change?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of motivating change.

**4. *How does the leadership of the ADP communicate and involve employees to bring about change?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of communicating change and involving people in change.

**5. *How does the leadership of the ADP delegate authority and empower employees to bring about change?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of delegating and empowering.

**6. *How does the organizational culture affect the process of implementing change?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of the impact of organizational culture on successful change implementation.

**7. *How does organizational culture affect the leadership style and its characteristics?*** This question aimed to examine the employees' perceptions of the impact of organizational culture on effective leadership style.

It is generally recognized that "leading" questions should be avoided to minimize bias in semi-structured interviews (Barriball and While, 1994). Some of the interview questions in the present study might be viewed as leading in a general sense. For example, "How does the leadership in the ADP delegate authority and empower employees to bring about change?" could be criticised because it appears to assume that ADP does delegate authority. However, the researcher, having prior knowledge of the organization, was aware that authority had actually been delegated. Thus, the inclusion of such questions does not constitute the introduction of significant bias.

#### 6.6.3.4 Ethical issues

- The simplicity and clarity of these questions helped the interviewees to focus and their responses appeared to be frank and freely given, thereby reducing the risk of bias. In addition, much attention was paid to the need to conduct the interviews professionally and ethically, in order to increase the dependability of the information supplied.
- The interview guide was followed totally when asking questions to ensure consistency between interviews;
- The interviewer worked to the best of his capabilities to be neutral in order to avoid any bias or complication.
- The interviewer avoided sensitive issues in order not to embarrass the participants or make them feel uncomfortable.
- The interviewer allowed the pace of the interview to be dictated by the participants in order that they felt they had adequate time to respond.

It is believed that these considerations helped to create trust and faith in the minds of the interviewees, such that they were prepared to offer opinions on the organizational culture of the ADP (Saunders et al, 2003; Easterby-Smith, 2004). Additionally, the interviewees were assured of complete confidentiality and not asked to allow the researcher to tape record the proceedings. During the pilot study, it had become clear that interviewees were not comfortable with the idea that their voices would be tape recorded, so in order to respect their privacy, the researcher decided to take notes rather than press for tape recordings. Both methods of recording interview proceedings are acceptable, although if the researcher does not have to make notes, he obtains the advantage of being able to concentrate on the interviewee, to interact with proper eye contact and to sense any possible doubt or query that the interviewee might have (Saunders et al, 2003). Moreover,

taking notes becomes difficult when an interviewee talks at length and this problem did occur in the interview process. However, by following the interview guide and transcribing all interviews in detail, it is believed that the researcher minimised any loss of information.

It is important to note that some of the ten interviews were conducted in English and some in Arabic, according to each interviewee's preference, in order best to capture the essence of the responses. The researcher took notes in Arabic during the Arabic interviews and English notes when interviewees preferred English. This meant that some interview transcriptions were initially in Arabic before being translated into English by a translator from the ADP who was fluent in both languages, to retain the intended flavour.

#### **6.6.3.5 Interview analysis**

The analysis of interview data is difficult and complex if that data is predominantly qualitative in nature, because there is usually much data to deal with, and according to Brace (2004), and Creswell (1998), there is no established group of principles similar to those applied to the analysis of quantitative data. Rather, it is argued that analysts can create their own techniques to evaluate qualitative data (Bogdan and Taylor, 1998). However, in the current investigation, the six-stage qualitative data evaluation technique endorsed by Creswell (2003) was considered appropriate for evaluation purposes. In the first stage of this procedure the researcher must arrange the data and make it ready for evaluation, which means that all the data that has been collected from the participants should be sorted by categories according to the research topics. The next stage involves the researcher in reading all the data in order to secure a broad idea of what information has been amassed, which entails examining all the interview transcripts several times in order to gain a fundamental understanding of the information and then make some basic interpretations, which should be documented. The third stage involves coding the data, which according to Miller (2001), requires the analyst to apply codes (marks) to portions

of textual data which are then further classified into specific units. This process of coding facilitates the business of condensing the data, correlating the pertinent data gathered from various transcriptions, creating premises and initiating constructs (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). The coding procedure for the current investigation comprised the following steps.

All transcriptions were interpreted thoroughly so as to identify certain concepts, then the main sub-divisions were categorised according to the chief topics of the current investigation: leadership styles, key characteristics of leadership (i.e. developing vision and values for change, developing a clear and detailed change plan, evaluating progress for change, communicating change, motivating and involving people in change, delegating and empowering), and leadership and culture.

Important statements were next highlighted in varied colours, using Microsoft Word, then all statements were assigned to the correct segments (Coffey and Atkinson 1996; Creswell, 2003; Denscombe, 2003; Saunders et al, 2003; Gillham, 2005). Since all of the interviewees were employees at the researcher's place of work, the identity of each was completely verifiable.

The fourth stage involved using the coding to develop an explanation of situations and divisions for evaluation. Creswell (2003:194) observes "these sub-divisions or sub-segments are considered to be a crucial inference in qualitative investigations". The creation of such sub-divisions is important in properly evaluating the data. Indeed, Gillham (2005) contends that if one is not discriminating sufficiently, one is not actually evaluating the metrics. Hence, sufficient sub-divisions must be produced at this stage to demonstrate the multiple viewpoints that have arisen from the research participants, and these must be reinforced by including the words of participants (Creswell, 2003). As a crucial element of evaluation, qualitative investigators must also search for arrangements, topics,

consistencies, differences, inconsistencies and abnormalities, which may result in the researcher altering those sub-divisions, possibly further sub-dividing or amalgamating (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Denscombe, 2003; Saunders et al, 2003). In this study, sub-topics were identified and similarities and differences amongst replies were observed and reinforced by citations.

The fifth stage was concerned with symbolising and exhibiting the data to facilitate its interpretation, which is acknowledged as a crucial element of the evaluation process (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Coffey and Atkinson, 1996; Creswell, 2003). Thus, the data was symbolised via an extensive discussion of topics and sub-topics (incorporating sub-topics, particular images, multiple viewpoints from people and citations). Tables were then constructed to indicate the chief inferences.

The ultimate stage was clarification and highlighting the significance of the data, which involved recognising what, had been learnt from it. In qualitative studies, this elucidation can take several forms; such as the researchers own explanation that incorporates his/her personal background, history and experience into the discussion. Additionally, the implications of the data should be raised, whether for example the outcomes agree with what already appears in the literature or whether something new has emerged, in which case the investigator must identify whether there is support from the study for the findings of previous research, or whether there are counter-arguments to put forward (Creswell, 2003).

#### **6.6.4 Document analysis**

Document analysis was also used to explore three topics: leadership in general, the leadership style during the change process and the culture within the ADP. This aspect of the research was undertaken on ADP premises in summer 2011, after the questionnaire data had been collected, in order to assist with its analysis and interpretation. It is claimed

that records can be crucial sources of information during the time 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 that would not be possible through the use of interviews only (Miller, 2001). Indeed, Miller (2001) has noted other benefits of document analysis as being that documents: (1) offer crucial details of occurrences; (2) can be employed to triangulate inferences with other sources; (3) assist in making things evident; (4) are consistent and can be referred to time after time; (5) are cost-effective and can be used faster in contrast to other sources; and (6) may be considered to provide rich data that is not subject to hasty interpretation.

Thus, in addition to collecting interview and questionnaire data, this study also examined documents in order to identify the roles of leadership, power and politics, organisational structure and organisational culture in the implementation of change within the ADP. Bryman and Bell (2003) and Yin (2003) claim that documents can be a very important source of information in case studies of organisations. Documents are employed in this study as a supplement to interviews, rather than on their own. Myers (2009) stated that using documents can help researchers to obtain a richer picture than could be obtained by interviews alone.

Despite the benefits associated with the use of records as a source of data, it must be borne in mind that on occasions, records may be inaccurate and include incorrect information or be prejudicial (Miller, 2001). Hence, careful attention must be paid to establishing the soundness and dependability of any documents used. In the present study, this was done using the criteria listed by Denscombe (2003), who notes that government journals and official papers might be thought likely to be trustworthy, impartial and



accurate. Nonetheless, he suggests four benchmarks that can be used to assess the status and suitability of records:

**(1) Soundness:** an investigator can make a rapid assessment of records by considering their source.

Denscombe (2003) and Saunders et al (2003) note that survey data from enterprises, which are reputable, and from government bodies will most probably be dependable and authentic. In this study, all records were governmental documents and hence assumed to be accurate and reliable.

**(2) Dependability:** An investigator must ensure that the record is unbiased and does not contain any mistakes, by considering many aspects, including the objective of the record, who generated it and when it was generated.

The most crucial point to be kept in mind is that the record must not provide information to the investigator, which is required to resolve the investigative research questions. Saunders et al (2003) observe that there is no evident solution to this dilemma, leaving researchers to select their individual methods for evaluating the soundness of the data. In the present study, no calculations related to research queries depended on any statistics provided in the documents; therefore, these records can be taken as unbiased.

**(3) Symbolism:** The investigator must consider the symbolic weight of records by considering factors such as whether access to all the required records is available and whether the records are complete in themselves.

The result of not using a complete record may well be selective prejudice (Miles and Huberman, 2004). In this study, the researcher tried his utmost to gather all records and to access crucial records linked to the primary topics of the investigation, so as to mitigate this risk of prejudice. Those documents, which recorded the on-going changes in police organization, were selected, since they supported the research.

**(4) Significance:** The records must be comprehensible and definite.

However, Miles and Huberman (2004) contend that records cannot be considered to offer aims, which explain the current scenario. Thus, records need to be used to complement other sources, so as to reduce the danger of overreliance on them and emerging with insufficient information (Miles and Huberman, 2004). In the current study, documents were employed to complement the interview and questionnaire data, in order to reduce any bias arising from the sole use of documentary evidence. In particular, the researcher thoroughly examined several documents including the Five Year Plan for the Strategic Development of the Abu Dhabi Police (2003-2007), the succeeding Strategic Plan (2008-2012), themed 'Progressive Police for a Modern City', and the reports of the Government of Abu Dhabi in 2007 and 2009.

### **6.7 Confidentiality**

Ethical standards were upheld in order to ensure professional conduct throughout the entire study. This approach can be assumed to enhance the quality of the participants' responses by guaranteeing their confidentiality and general respect for them (Sandelowski, 2000). In assuring adherence to ethical standards, the researcher followed certain guidelines. For instance, he secured consent from the ADP to gather data (Appendix 4); the aims of the research and the way in which the data would be used were fully explained to all those who took part in the study so that they had a holistic picture of the investigation in which they were involved; where particular consent was required to access certain records, this was gained; and all research participants were informed that they were free to leave the study at any time without providing any reason to the researcher or enduring any effects from this action. Moreover, participants were assured that all the data would be securely stored, completely secret and private, so as to avert any adverse repercussions on them in the future (Sandelowski, 2000).

## 6.8 Research questions

The study aimed to explore three main research questions using questionnaire, interviews and documents analysis. It is useful to reiterate these here, before summarising the contribution of the present chapter to the study. Table 7 therefore makes explicit the research questions and the study methods applicable to each, along with study samples and the techniques used to gather data in pursuit of answers to each of these questions.

**Table 7: Research questions and methods**

Research Questions	Research Methods	Sample Size	Analysis Methods	Objectives
Q1: What are employees' perceptions regarding their managers' leadership styles?	Questionnaire (48 questions)	350 ADP personnel, from whom 288 completed survey forms were collected	1) Descriptive statistics	To address Q2 through descriptive analysis of 48 Likert-scale survey questions
Q2: What are the characteristics of leadership deployed in implementing change in the ADP?			2) Correlation	To address Q2 through correlation to determine the relationship among these characteristics
Q3: How does culture affect leadership style?			3) ANOVA followed by Tukey test	To address Q2 using ANOVA to identify the differences in perception among groups with different education, working experience and job position To address Q3 by examining employees' perceptions of the ADP's organizational culture
	Interviews (7 questions)	10 ADP supervisors and specialists	The six-phase approach as espoused by Creswell (2003)	To address Q2 and Q4 through several interview questions
	Documents	Two documents	The six-phase approach as espoused by Creswell (2003)	To address Q2 and Q3 by reviewing the ADP's Strategic Plan and Performance Report

## 6.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has explained the conduct of the empirical work associated with the study. The decision regarding the research approach, which is detailed as a mixed methods approach within an overall case study design, has been justified on the grounds that such methods will allow the researcher to triangulate the data received and thereby gain a clear understanding of the views of ADP members at all levels. Additionally, the particular techniques of data collection have been discussed in detail, together with their suitability for collecting the information required to meet the study aims. The approach to data analysis has also been considered in detail. Specifically, questionnaire, interview and documentary data were collected in summer 2010 and analysed in winter 2011. The data collection methods were based on the factors represented in the conceptual framework (Figure 4). Issues regarding sampling have also been considered in depth, and an indication of how the study was actually conducted, together with information concerning the researcher's adherence to ethical principles, has been included. From this, it can be seen that the researcher followed best practice as identified in the literature, while bearing in mind the cultural imperatives prevailing in the Arab context.

For the evaluation of the questions given above, three methodologies are used, namely a Questionnaire survey, Interviews and Document analysis. The questionnaire contains 48 questions which cover all aspects of the research questions. The methodology of a questionnaire was used because it can give detailed information about the topic and questionnaires are very practical. Through questionnaires a great deal of information can be collected from many people in a shorter time than by other methods. Questionnaires can be easily analyzed scientifically and objectively. In addition to questionnaires, data were gathered using interviews. This method yields deeper information. In this way one can discover how a particular person feels about or perceives an event

(<http://www.evalued.bcu>). Interviews add a human dimension to the research. The methodologies used are well suited to answering the research questions.

Regarding the first of these questions, the employees' perceptions about the leadership style of their managers can be asked by breaking it down into further sub-questions. These questions can be put directly to the employees in personal interviews, but at some point certain employees may hesitate to talk about their managers. This reluctance can threaten the quality of the data from the interviews. This is particularly the case because of my own role in the ADP. Consequently asking questions in an anonymous questionnaire can obtain data more effectively by minimizing the personal bias in the interview data. By using documents I found relevant information about the research questions by reviewing the strategic planning of the ADP and by looking into the performance report.

As far as the second question is concerned, about the characteristics of leadership of the ADP managers, it could be thoroughly answered through the research methodologies which were used. Employees could easily express their feelings and give suggestions in the questionnaires, while other research was also being conducted through personal interviews and through the company documents. With the help of the documents, the research proceeded by reviewing the company strategic policy and checking what it implied about leadership styles.

The material for the 3<sup>rd</sup> question was also being gathered by the use of the three methods mentioned above.

In the questionnaire different types of multiple choice question and yes-no questions were put to the respondents, so the data were comprehensive and easily extractable. When detailed open-ended questions had to be asked, personal interviews were the best option, allowing individuals to directly interact with one another. Through

documents, the company's strategic plan and performance report could help considerably to get information for research purposes.

Chapter Seven, which follows, begins the reporting and analysis phase of the study by setting out and analysing the quantitative results.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

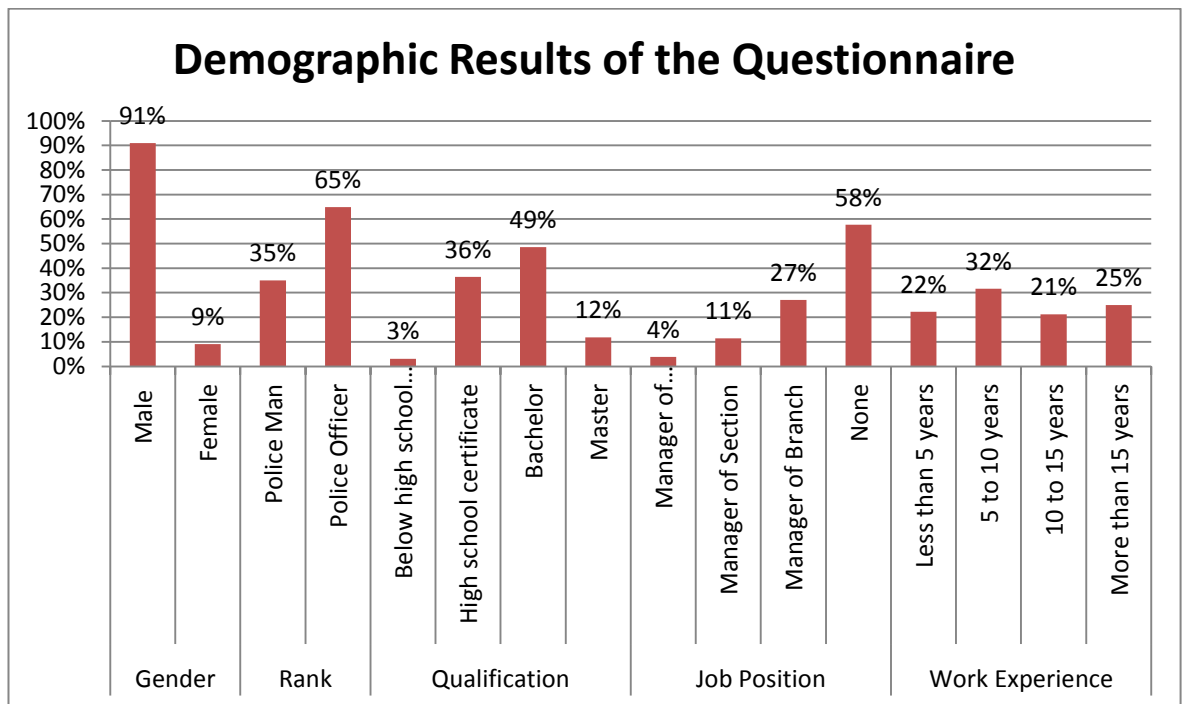
### **QUANTITATIVE RESULTS**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to investigate the leadership style in implementing change in Arab culture in the particular setting of the ADP and to identify differences in perceptions of employees with different demographic characteristics (educational qualifications, working experience and job position). This chapter presents the results of an analysis of the quantitative survey data. A total of 350 questionnaire forms were distributed to ADP employees and 288 were returned, giving a response rate of 82.3%.

#### **7.2 Demographic characteristics**

The first section of the questionnaire (Appendix 2) assessed the respondents' demographic characteristics. Of the 288 respondents, 101 (35.1%) were low-ranking (other ranks) and 187 (64.9%) occupied higher ranks (officers). A large majority of the respondents (91.0%) were male. The employees were selected as occupying variety of positions including departmental manager (3.8%), section manager (11.5%), branch manager (27.1%) and employees without management responsibilities (57.6%). In line with the different positions of the respondents, their educational qualifications also varied, with about 60% of them having at least a bachelor's degree and 36.5% a high school degree, while the remaining few had an education level below high school. In addition, participants were selected to have had sufficient experience of working in the organization. This is evident from the fact that more than three-quarters of the respondents had more than five years of experience. The demographic profile of the respondents indicates that the sample contained all types of employees and can therefore be taken as representative of all the employees of the organization (Table 8). The low proportion of females (9.0%) was expected in the Arab setting, where the culture is dominated by masculinity.

**Table 8: Demographic characteristics of the study sample**

### 7.3 Perceptions of strategic plan, vision and mission

The second section of the questionnaire comprised six questions, which assessed the respondents' perceptions regarding whether the strategic plan, the vision and mission statement were clear and understandable, whether the vision statement was consistent with strategy, whether the mission interpreted the vision, and whether the value statement was consistent with the mission. These questions were designed to explore the perceptions of employees on leadership through key steps in organizational change, as described in the conceptual framework (Figure 4). While it is important for leaders to develop a clear vision and values for change, the vision and mission statements are worthless without the support of the employees. It is therefore extremely important that they are shared with the entire organization, so that each employee can commit to them. Thus, the six questions were designed to measure whether ADP employees at all levels had established a clear understanding of the vision, mission and strategic plan. The frequency distributions for all



six questions are presented in Table 9 and the respective findings are discussed in the following paragraphs.

**Table 9: Frequency table for second section of the questionnaire**

Characteristic	Category	Count (%)
Understanding the ADP's strategy plan	unclear and not understandable at all	18 (6.3%)
	clear and understandable to some extent	51 (17.7%)
	clear and understandable to a large extent	219 (76%)
Understanding the ADP's vision statement	unclear and not understandable at all	8 (2.8%)
	clear and understandable to some extent	37 (12.8%)
	clear and understandable to a large extent	243 (84.4%)
Vision consistent with strategy	not consistent at all	14 (4.9%)
	consistent to some extent	65 (22.6%)
	consistent to a large extent	209 (72.6%)
Understanding the ADP's mission statement	unclear and not understandable at all	16 (5.6%)
	clear and understandable to some extent	54 (18.8%)
	clear and understandable to a large extent	218 (75.7%)
Mission interprets the vision	does not obviously interpret the vision at all	25 (8.7%)
	obviously interprets the vision to some extent	41 (14.2%)
	obviously interprets the vision to a large extent	222 (77.1%)
Value statement consistent with mission	not consistent with the mission at all	33 (11.5%)
	consistent with the mission to some extent	52 (18.1%)
	consistent with the mission to a large extent	203 (70.5%)

The strategic plan is an important part of the working of any organization, as it provides direction to it, helping its leaders to plan the approach to be taken and the path to be followed over the long term. This applies to the ADP, as indicated by the survey results, since all of the respondents agreed that ADP did have a strategic plan. The next significant point is that the strategy plan must be clear and understandable to all, since only then will the employees be clear as to where the organization is headed and why is it working in the way it is. More than three-quarters of respondents agreed that the strategic plan was clear and understandable to a large extent and 17.7% to some extent, showing that the strategy plan was perceived as clear and understandable to most employees.

A clear and understandable vision statement is also necessary for an organization to remain directed towards its goals and for its people to have a clear understanding of

what is required in the end (Kotter, 1996). All employees in the survey stated that the ADP had such a vision statement, which about 84% of respondents described as clear and understandable to a large extent, while 12.8% said that it was clear and understandable to some extent.

Vision and strategy are thus two important pillars of the organizational function, and they must be aligned in the same direction for the organization to function properly (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990). Strategy defines the path to be taken by the organization for the accomplishment of the objectives, whereas vision is about the goals that the organization wants to achieve (Lussier and Achua, 2009). As such, the path must be aligned with accomplishing the right objectives. In the case of the ADP, the majority of employees surveyed (72.6%) agreed that vision was aligned with strategy. This can be attributed to the fact that a majority said that they had a clear understanding of the vision statement and the strategy plan. On other hand, fewer than 5% of respondents felt that the vision was not aligned consistently with the strategy. This suggests that in general, the ADP had a vision and strategy plan that were shared by the majority of its employees at all levels.

A third important element of organizational function is the mission, which can be described as the reason for the existence of the organization (Hunger and Wheelen, 1999), in other words, why it was created in the first place. As such, the mission statement is highly significant for the organization. Again, all of the participants in the survey agreed that the ADP had a mission statement. As with the vision statement and strategic plan, it is essential for all members of an organization to understand the mission statement, since it serves as the basis for effective planning and keeps all employees on the same page. According to the survey, about three-quarters of respondents found it clear and understandable to a large extent, which indicates that the ADP employees were mostly clear to its importance for the organization.

The mission and vision are at times confused and thought to have the same meaning, but the two are quite different. The mission statement concerns the present state of the organization, whereas the vision statement focuses on its future (Bernus et al, 2003). However, the present must also translate into the future, i.e. the mission must lead to the accomplishment of the vision. In the survey, more than 77% of ADP employees agreed that its mission was aligned with its vision to a large extent, whereas only 9% said that the two statements were not consistent at all. This can be attributed to the fact only a small minority of respondents had no clear understanding of the mission statement or of the vision statement.

Values are a fourth important characteristic of an organization, determining the approach that it will take in a given situation; they are the set of rules that help in deciding between right and wrong, good and bad. They are also viewed as principles and priorities that enable an individual or an organization to make decisions on a regular basis (Barrett, 2006). The decisions taken by an organization will reflect the aspects that it values the most, which may be growth, stability, development and so on. Values are of great significance to a public sector organization, because they help to build the trust and confidence of its members (Barrett, 2006). The survey respondents agreed once more that the ADP had a value statement. They were then asked whether it was aligned as required with the basic reason for existence of the organization, i.e. the mission. This is essential, because values help in making day-to-day decisions, while mission defines what the organization is doing. Such an alignment helps the organization to create harmony between the key reason for its existence and the rules that command the decisions. On this point, 70.5% of the respondents agreed that the ADP's values were consistent with its mission to a large extent and 18.1% that they were consistent to some extent, while only about 11.5% felt that they were not consistent at all.

#### **7.4 Perceptions regarding leadership and change**

The third main part of the questionnaire was subdivided into six sections, concerned respectively with the leadership style in the ADP, whether there was a clear vision for change, whether managers motivated employees to change, whether the change was communicated effectively to the employees, whether or not employees were kept in the loop for change and whether managers delegated their responsibility and authority during changes. Questions in each section were based on the conceptual framework and guided by the extensive literature review of various change management and leadership theories.

The first section, on leadership style, comprised 13 items, intended to measure perceptions of effective leadership in the ADP. Leadership style is the combination of traits, skills and behaviours that leaders use as they interact with followers. Although a leadership style is based on traits and skills, the most important component is the behaviour, because it is a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that characterizes a leader (Lussier and Achua, 2009). In the present study, the 13 items evaluated respondents' perceptions of such behavioural matters as whether managers had a high concern for production and people, whether they encouraged teamwork, encouraged followers' participation in decisions, worked with employees to determine what to do, informed followers of their weaknesses and bad performance and rewarded employees equitably. These and other questions were designed to identify the ADP's leadership style and whether a certain style of leadership was perceived as effective in this particular organization.

The second section, on a clear vision for change, comprised six items assessing the effectiveness of the ADP leadership in developing clear, detailed change plan. A key first step in change management, before embarking on it, is to identify and analyse the need for change. This is usually achieved by creating and communicating clear new vision

for change (Lussier and Achua, 2009). These six items assessed respondents' perceptions of whether there were logical reasons for change, whether change was necessary and would be helpful for the organization in the long run, whether the vision was relevant and whether they had a clear indication of how change would affect their jobs. The responses to these items thus illuminated employees' views on the effectiveness of leadership style in implementing change, described in the conceptual framework as a key practice of effective leadership.

The third section, on motivating employees to change, comprised nine items intended to discover whether the ADP leadership had effectively motivated its employees. As described in the conceptual framework, motivation is a key variable for measuring effective leadership. The nine items were designed to evaluate the leadership's ability to motivate ADP employees, based on previous studies. Carlisle and Murphy (1996) suggest that motivating others requires managers to organize and provide a motivating environment: communicating effectively, addressing employees' questions, generating creative ideas, prioritizing ideas, directing personnel practices, planning employees' actions, committing employees to action and providing follow-up to overcome motivational problems. An earlier study (Sager, 1979) indicates that employees are motivated by achievement, recognition, the work itself, increased responsibility, advancement or promotion within the organization, the opportunity to learn new things and growth. All nine items were guided by these studies; for example, 'my managers suggests rewards for my good performance', 'my manager tries to make me loyal to change', 'my manager creates an environment that enables me to carry out change'.

The fourth section, communicating change to employees, consisted of seven items investigating the ADP leadership's practice of communication about change. This is one of the key elements of effective leadership as described in the conceptual framework.

Previous studies demonstrate that leading change requires the use of a diverse set of communication techniques to deliver appropriate messages, solicit feedback, create readiness for change along with a sense of urgency, and motivate recipients to act (Gilley et al, 2009). In addition, communications should be frequent and enthusiastic (Lewis et al, 2006). The items were designed to measure the effectiveness and style of communication in the ADP, based on such research; for example, asking whether communication was encouraged, whether managers transferred ideas and information properly and whether various methods were used in communicating change.

The six items in the fifth section were designed to elicit perceptions of the effectiveness of the ADP leadership in involving employees in change. Research shows that allowing employees to make decisions yields constructive results (Risher, 2003). Therefore, four items sought to assess whether involving employees in decision making was encouraged in the ADP: 'My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions related change', 'my manager shares his thoughts with employees', 'My manager interferes in decision making related to change tasks that are handled by his/her subordinates' and 'My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes'. The remaining two items, 'My manager chooses the right time for meetings' and 'My manager compiles information about change before making any decision', were included to evaluate the perceptions of employees of their leaders' effectiveness in this area.

The final section comprised seven items on delegation and empowerment during change. A leader should delegate responsibility when there is not enough time to attend to priority tasks, when followers desire more challenges and opportunities, and when the tasks match followers' skill levels and experience. The seven items were designed to elicit employees' perceptions of their managers' ability to delegate and empower their followers;

for example, whether they delegated and followed up the delegated tasks, and whether they showed confidence in followers' ability to carry out such tasks.

Responses to these 48 items were first analysed within each subsection using descriptive statistics and frequencies (the number and percentage of employees choosing each response category). The overall mean evaluation of the six subsections was then evaluated with descriptive statistics. The relationships among the six subsections were determined by means of Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. Finally, the differences associated with educational qualifications, length of experience and job positions in the overall evaluation of these six subsections were assessed using one-way ANOVA followed by Turkey's HSD test for multiple comparison.

#### **7.4.1 Leadership style**

Leadership style was evaluated on the basis of replies to items 1-13 using descriptive statistics (Table 10) and frequencies (Table 11). A bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 5. Respondents on average disagreed with the statement that 'Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department' ( $M=2.76$ ,  $SD=1.27$ ). In particular, 26.4% of employees strongly disagreed with this. The respondents also disagreed that 'My manager enjoys giving orders to others' ( $M=2.41$ ,  $SD=1.42$ ), which actually revealed a positive aspect of the leadership. On average, respondents agreed with the other eleven items. In particular, they agreed relatively strongly ( $M>4.0$ ) with these statements: 'Competition among employees in this department is based on their skills and knowledge', 'My manager accepts his subordinates' views even though they are against his/her views as long as their views are correct', 'My manager gives space to subordinates to suggest appropriate solutions', 'Our manager is equally concerned with us as workers as well as our productivity', and 'My manager informs me about my weaknesses and bad performance'. It is worth noting that no one disagreed or strongly

disagreed with the statement that the manager accepted subordinates' views as long as they were correct (item 6), indicating that ADP's leadership was very open to suggestions from subordinates. In general, respondents agreed moderately ( $3.0 < M < 4.0$ ) with the statements 'My manager is flexible with me when expecting good performance', 'My manager motivates me to create and use new methods in performing my tasks', 'My manager demands that I completely comply with the organization's procedures', 'My manager is concerned with solving work problems', 'My manager is concerned with resolving conflicts that occur sometimes among his/her subordinates' and 'My manager sticks to his/her opinion even if he/she feels wrong'.

**Table 10: Descriptive statistics for questions related to leadership style (N=288)**

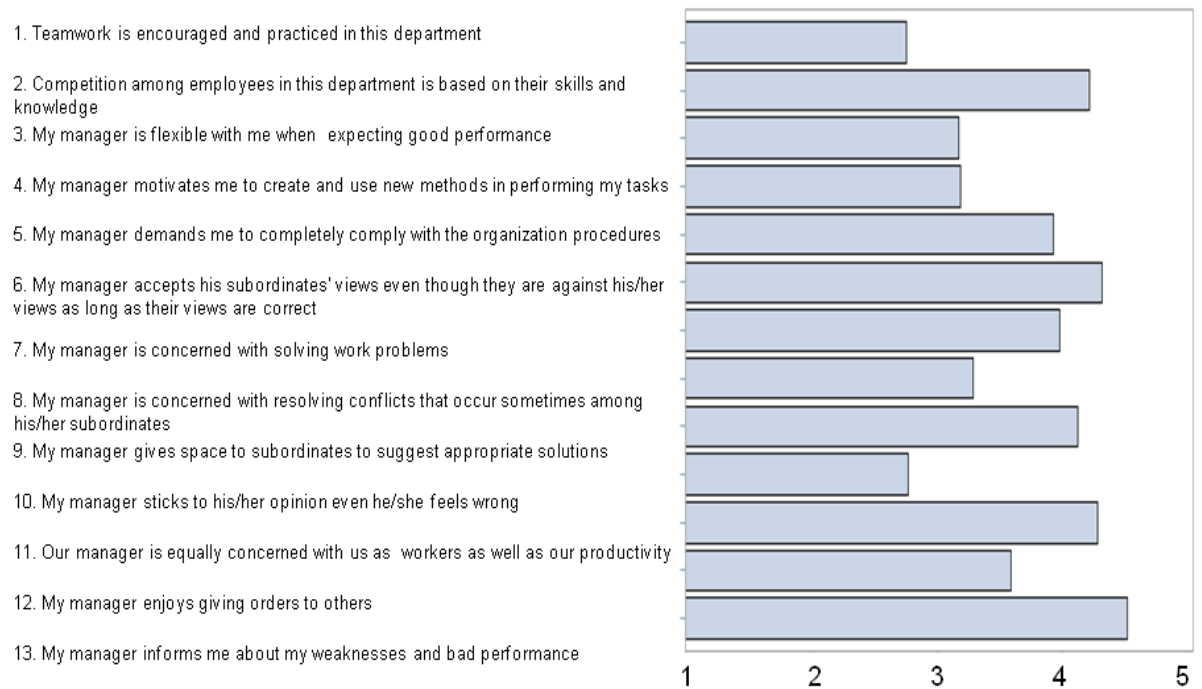
Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
1. Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department	2.76	1.27	1	5
2. Competition among employees in this department is based on their skills and knowledge	4.21	0.91	1	5
3. My manager is flexible with me when expecting good performance	3.17	1.13	1	5
4. My manager motivates me to create and use new methods in performing my tasks	3.18	1.13	1	5
5. My manager demands that I completely comply with the organization's procedures	3.92	0.98	1	5
6. My manager accepts his subordinates' views even though they are against his/her views as long as their views are correct	4.31	0.67	3	5
7. My manager is concerned with solving work problems	3.98	1.00	1	5
8. My manager is concerned with resolving conflicts that occur sometimes among his/her subordinates	3.28	1.24	1	5
9. My manager gives space to subordinates to suggest appropriate solutions	4.12	0.92	1	5
10. My manager sticks to his/her opinion even if he/she feels wrong	3.23	1.23	1	5
11. Our manager is equally concerned with us as workers as well as our productivity	4.27	0.64	1	5
12. My manager enjoys giving orders to others	2.41	1.43	1	5
13. My manager informs me about my weaknesses and bad performance	4.51	0.56	3	5

*Note.* Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.



**Table 11: Frequency table for questions related to leadership style (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree(3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1. Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department	76 (26.4%)	4 (1.4%)	164 (56.9%)	2 (0.7%)	42 (14.6%)
2. Competition among employees in this department is based on their skills and knowledge	8 (2.8%)	0 (0%)	48 (16.7%)	100 (34.7%)	132 (45.8%)
3. My manager is flexible with me when expecting good performance	33 (11.5%)	6 (2.1%)	186 (64.6%)	4 (1.4%)	59 (20.5%)
4. My manager motivates me to create and use new methods in performing my tasks	33 (11.5%)	3 (1.0%)	190 (66%)	2 (0.7%)	60 (20.8%)
5. My manager demands me to completely comply with the organization procedures	10 (3.5%)	1 (0.3%)	88 (30.6%)	91 (31.6%)	98 (34.0%)
6. My manager accepts his subordinates' views even though they are against his/her views as long as their views are correct	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	33 (11.5%)	133 (46.2%)	122 (42.4%)
7. My manager is concerned with solving work problems	10 (3.5%)	1 (0.3%)	83 (28.8%)	86 (29.9%)	108 (37.5%)
8. My manager is concerned with resolving conflicts that occur sometimes among his/her subordinates	40 (13.9%)	2 (0.7%)	153 (53.1%)	22 (7.6%)	71 (24.7%)
9. My manager gives space to subordinates to suggest appropriate solutions	6 (2.1%)	0 (0.0%)	70 (24.3%)	90 (31.3%)	122 (42.4%)
10. My manager sticks to his/her opinion even he/she feels wrong	42 (14.6%)	0 (0.0%)	161 (55.9%)	19 (6.6%)	66 (22.9%)
11. Our manager is equally concerned with us as workers as well as our productivity	2 (0.7%)	0 (0.0%)	18 (6.3%)	165 (57.3%)	103 (35.8%)
12. My manager enjoys giving orders to others	118 (41%)	27 (9.4%)	96 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	47 (16.3%)
13. My manager informs me about my weaknesses and bad performance	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (3.1%)	123 (42.7%)	156 (54.2%)



*Note.* Adjusted mean was computed for leadership style with reversed scale for two questions (10 and 12) for which disagreement indicated positive leadership.

**Figure 5: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to leadership style**

#### 7.4.2 Clear vision for change

The clarity of the vision for change was evaluated via items 14-19 using descriptive statistics (Table 12) and frequencies (Table 13). A bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 6. Respondents on average agreed with all the statements ( $M > 3.0$ ). In particular, they agreed relatively strongly ( $M > 4.0$ ) with the statements 'There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organization', 'I understand how change will help the organization in the long term' and 'I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job' and moderately ( $3.0 < M < 4.0$ ) with 'I understand why change is happening and necessary for organization', 'The vision statement of the organization is relevant to the change project' and 'I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project'. Overall, it can be said that employees tended to perceive ADP managers as able to create a clear vision of change.

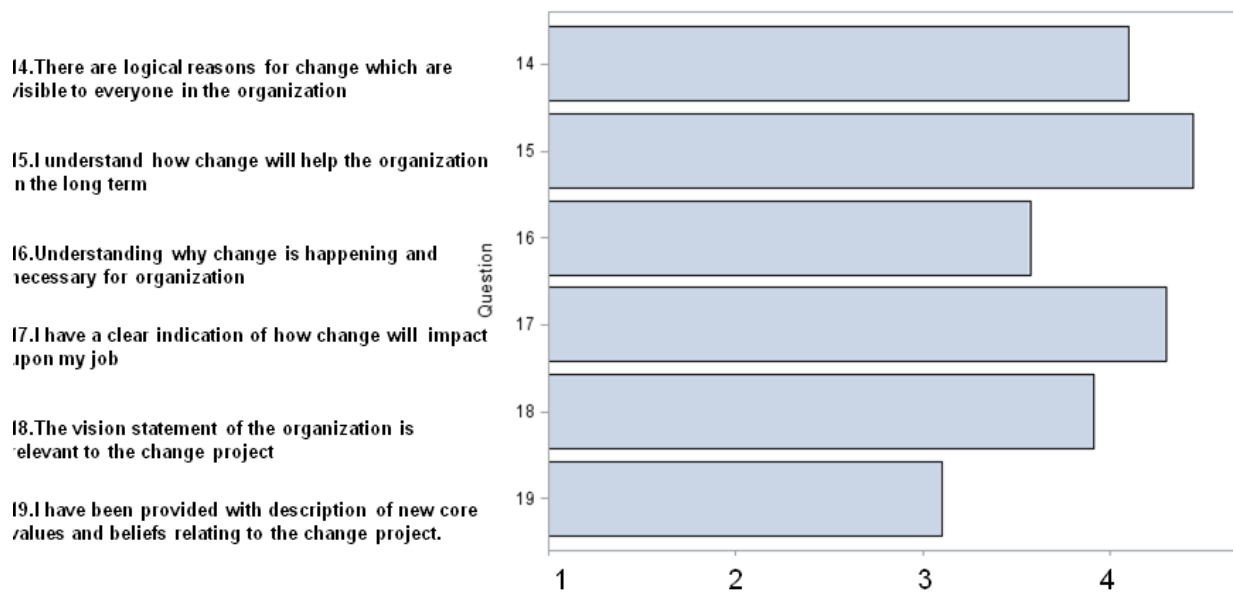
**Table 12: Descriptive statistics for questions related to clear vision (N=288)**

Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
14. There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organization	4.09	1.15	1	5
15. I understand how change will help the organization in the long term	4.44	0.62	1	5
16. I understand why change is happening and necessary for the organization	3.58	1.31	1	5
17. I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job	4.30	0.64	1	5
18. The vision statement of the organization is relevant to the change project	3.91	1.26	1	5
19. I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.	3.10	1.46	1	5

Note. Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Table 13: Frequency table for questions related to clear vision (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
14. There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organization	16 (5.6%)	4 (1.4%)	71 (24.7%)	43 (14.9%)	154 (53.5%)
15. I understand how change will help the organization in the long term	1 (0.3%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (4.9%)	128 (44.4%)	145 (50.3%)
16. I understand why change is happening and necessary for the organization	31 (10.8%)	7 (2.4%)	125 (43.4%)	15 (5.2%)	110 (38.2%)
17. I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job	2 (0.7%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (5.6%)	163 (56.6%)	107 (37.2%)
18. The vision statement of the organization is relevant to the change project	25 (8.7%)	2 (0.7%)	84 (29.2%)	39 (13.5%)	138 (47.9%)
19. I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.	74 (25.7%)	4 (1.4%)	93 (32.3%)	52 (18.1%)	65 (22.6%)



**Figure 6: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to clear vision**

#### 7.4.3 Motivating employees to change

In an organizational context, a leader's ability to persuade and influence others to work reflects his or her talent to motivate. Therefore, motivation was evaluated via items 20-28 using descriptive statistics (Table 14) and frequencies (Table 15). A bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 7. Respondents on average agreed with all the statements ( $M > 3.0$ ). In particular, they agreed relatively strongly ( $M > 4.0$ ) with six of the nine (items 22-27) and moderately ( $3.0 < M < 4.0$ ) with three: 'My manager suggests rewards for my good performance which is compatible with change initiatives', 'My manager tries to make me loyal to change' and 'I have adequate opportunities for professional growth in this department'. Overall, the results show that the ADP's ability to motivate employees in the common direction was satisfactory.

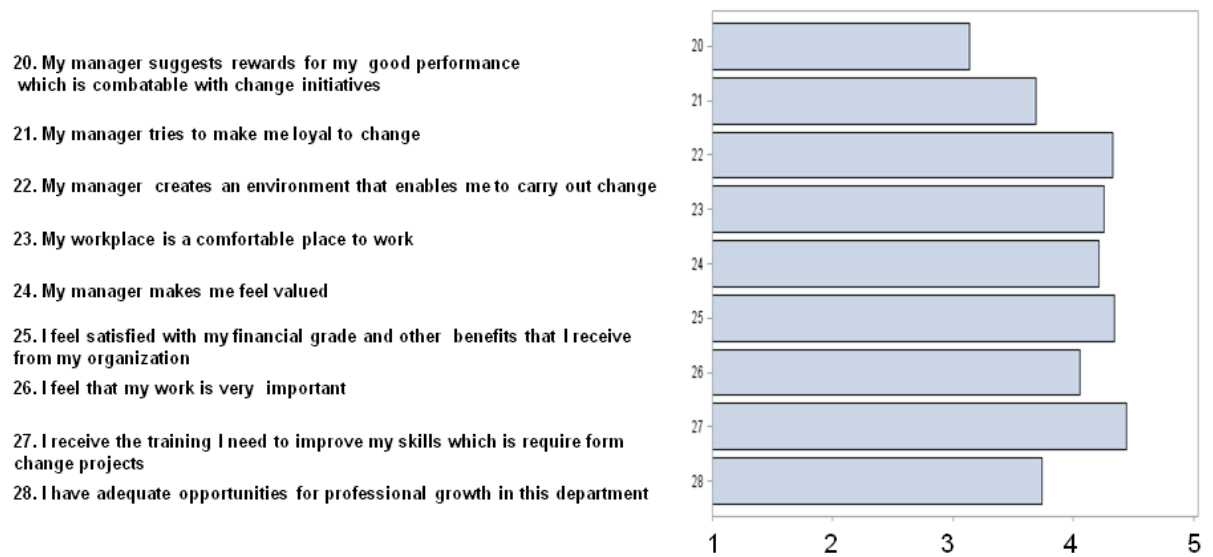
**Table 14: Descriptive statistics for questions related to motivation (N=288)**

Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
20. My manager suggests rewards for my good performance which is compatible with change initiatives	3.14	1.45	1	5
21. My manager tries to make me loyal to change	3.69	1.15	1	5
22. My manager creates an environment that enables me to carry out change	4.32	0.79	1	5
23. My workplace is a comfortable place to work	4.26	0.65	1	5
24. My manager makes me feel valued	4.21	1.00	1	5
25. I feel satisfied with my financial grade and other benefits that I receive from my organization	4.34	0.67	1	5
26. I feel that my work is very important	4.06	0.85	1	5
27. I receive the training I need to improve my skills which are required by change projects	4.44	0.56	3	5
28. I have adequate opportunities for professional growth in this department	3.74	1.14	1	5

Note. Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Table 15: Frequency table for questions related to motivation (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
20. My manager suggests rewards for my good performance which is compatible with change initiatives	65 (22.6%)	8 (2.8%)	121 (42%)	11 (3.8%)	83 (28.8%)
21. My manager tries to make me loyal to change	23 (8%)	6 (2.1%)	92 (31.9%)	83 (28.8%)	84 (29.2%)
22. My manager creates an environment that enables me to carry out change	5 (1.7%)	0 (0.0%)	28 (9.7%)	119 (41.3%)	136 (47.2%)
23. My workplace is a comfortable place to work	4 (1.4%)	0 (0.0%)	10 (3.5%)	178 (61.8%)	96 (33.3%)
24. My manager makes me feel valued	10 (3.5%)	0 (0.0%)	59 (20.5%)	70 (24.3%)	149 (51.7%)
25. I feel satisfied with my financial grade and other benefits that I receive from my organization	2 (0.7%)	0 (0.0%)	21 (7.3%)	140 (48.6%)	125 (43.4%)
26. I feel that my work is very important	2 (0.7%)	0 (0.0%)	84 (29.2%)	96 (33.3%)	106 (36.8%)
27. I receive the training I need to improve my skills which are required by change projects	17 (5.9%)	4 (1.4%)	10 (3.5%)	131 (45.5%)	126 (43.8%)
28. I have adequate opportunities for professional growth in this department	35 (12.2%)	6 (2.1%)	125 (43.4%)	25 (8.7%)	97 (33.7%)



**Figure 7: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to motivation**

#### 7.4.4 Communicating change

Communication was evaluated via items 29-35 using descriptive statistics (Table 16) and frequencies (Table 17). A bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 8. Respondents on average agreed that ‘Formal communication is encouraged in this department in order to give employees information about change’, ‘Communication usually takes the form of commands and instructions’ and ‘My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she communicates change to staff’, but disagreed with the other items: ‘My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department’, ‘Information related to change is shared openly in this department’, ‘Our manager keeps us informed of changes to the department/organization in time’ and ‘Our manager gives us instructions and makes sure his/her message about change is clear by encouraging us to ask questions and repeating the instructions’. These results suggest that on average, respondents had negative perceptions of their managers’ performance in transferring ideas from top management, sharing information related to change openly and keeping them informed of changes in a timely way. In particular, the frequencies show that about half of

respondents disagreed with two items: ‘Information related to change is shared openly in this department’ and ‘My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department’. Therefore, improvements should be made to these aspects of communication in order to enhance change implementation in the ADP.

**Table 16: Descriptive statistics for questions related to communication (N=288)**

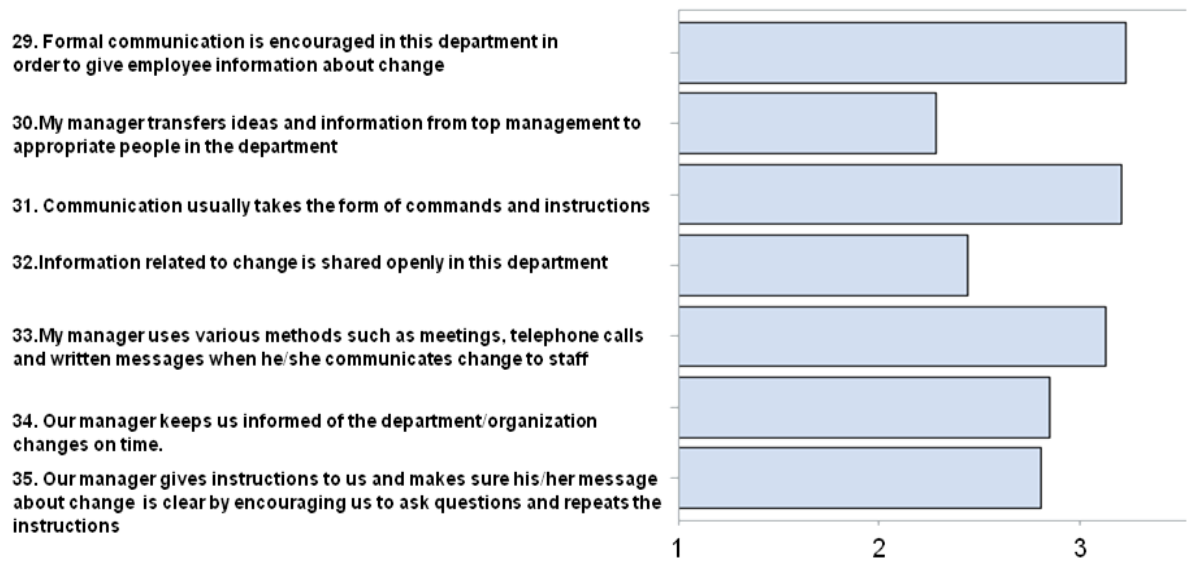
Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
29. Formal communication is encouraged in this department in order to give employees information about change	3.23	1.33	1	5
30. My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department	2.28	1.20	1	5
31. Communication usually takes the form of commands and instructions	3.21	1.38	1	5
32. Information related to change is shared openly in this department	2.44	1.44	1	5
33. My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she communicates change to staff	3.13	1.35	1	5
34. Our manager keeps us informed of changes to the department/organization in time.	2.85	1.49	1	5
35. Our manager gives us instructions and makes sure his/her message about change is clear by encouraging us to ask questions and repeating the instructions	2.81	1.43	1	5

*Note.* Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Table 17: Frequency table for questions related to communication (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree(3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
29. Formal communication is encouraged in this department in order to give employees information about change	43 (14.9%)	36 (12.5%)	83 (28.8%)	63 (21.9%)	63 (21.9%)
30. My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department	109 (37.8%)	37 (12.8%)	115 (39.9%)	6 (2.1%)	21 (7.3%)
31. Communication usually takes the form of commands and instructions	51 (17.7%)	28 (9.7%)	88 (30.6%)	52 (18.1%)	69 (24%)
32. Information related to change is shared openly in this department	127 (44.1%)	4 (1.4%)	98 (34%)	20 (6.9%)	39 (13.5%)
33. My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she communicates change to staff	51 (17.7%)	33 (11.5%)	90 (31.3%)	56 (19.4%)	58 (20.1%)
34. Our manager keeps us informed of changes to the department/organization on time.	93 (32.3%)	6 (2.1%)	100 (34.7%)	30 (10.4%)	59 (20.5%)
35. Our manager gives instructions to us and makes sure his/her message about change is clear by encouraging us to ask questions and repeating the instructions	94 (32.6%)	6 (2.1%)	87 (30.2%)	63 (21.9%)	38 (13.2%)





**Figure 8: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to communication**

#### **7.4.5 Involving employees in change**

Involvement was via items 36-41 using descriptive statistics (Table 18) and frequencies (Table 19). A bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 9. Respondents on average agreed with statements ‘My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions related change’ and ‘My manager compiles information about change before making any decision’, but disagreed with these: ‘My manager chooses the right time for meetings’, ‘My manager shares his thoughts with employees’, ‘My manager interferes in decision making related to change tasks that are handled by his/her subordinates’ and ‘My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes’. In addition, the frequency table shows that about half of the employees did not agree with statements ‘My manager shares his thoughts with employees’, and ‘My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes’. This suggests that respondents did not feel that their managers shared thoughts with them. Furthermore, they showed a particularly negative attitude regarding the ADP leadership’s follow-up support. Therefore, the leadership needs to make more effort in the future to involve employees and provide sufficient follow-up support.

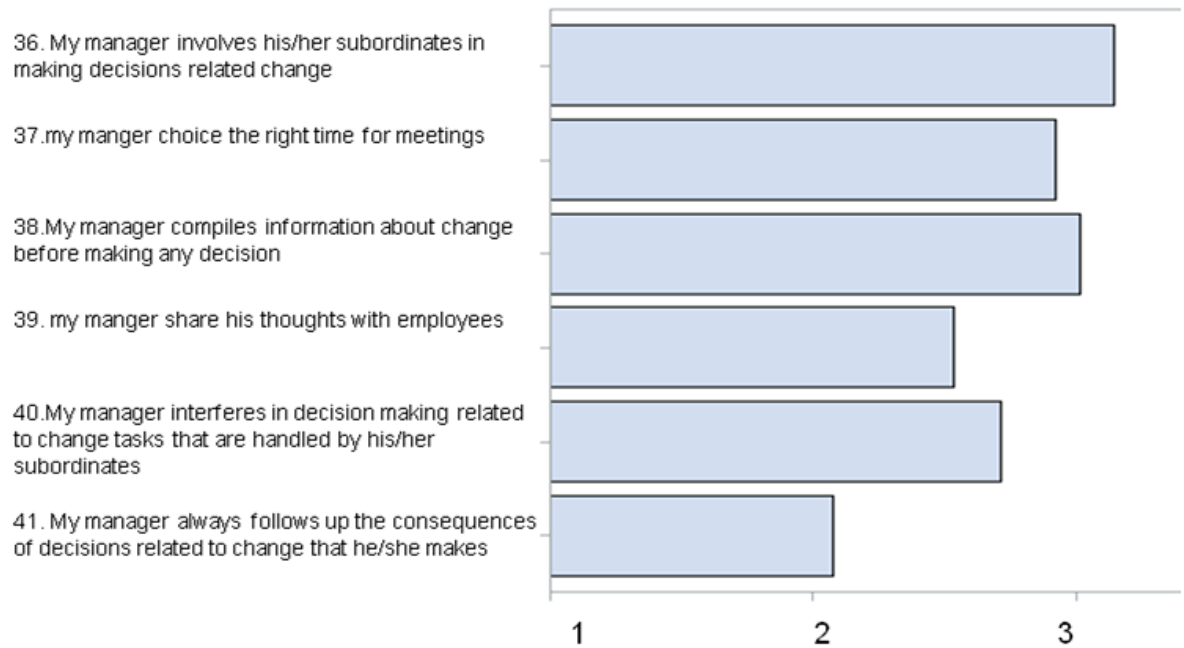
**Table 18: Descriptive statistics for questions related to involvement (N=288)**

Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
36. My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions related change	3.14	1.31	1	5
37. My manager chooses the right time for meetings	2.92	1.24	1	5
38. My manager compiles information about change before making any decision	3.01	1.42	1	5
39. My manager shares his thoughts with employees	2.53	1.32	1	5
40. My manager interferes in decision making related to change tasks that are handled by his/her subordinates	2.71	1.28	1	5
41. My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes	2.07	1.12	1	5

Note. Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Table 19: Frequency table for questions related to involvement (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
36. My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions related change	44 (15.3%)	36 (12.5%)	103 (35.8%)	45 (15.6%)	60 (20.8%)
37. My manager chooses the right time for meetings	54 (18.8%)	41 (14.2%)	95 (33%)	69 (24%)	29 (10.1%)
38. My manager compiles information about change before making any decision	54 (18.8%)	67 (23.3%)	47 (16.3%)	61 (21.2%)	59 (20.5%)
39. My manager shares his thoughts with employees	93 (32.3%)	41 (14.2%)	92 (31.9%)	32 (11.1%)	30 (10.4%)
40. My manager interferes in decision making related to change tasks that are handled by his/her subordinates	74 (25.7%)	37 (12.8%)	106 (36.8%)	40 (13.9%)	31 (10.8%)
41. My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes	132 (45.8%)	40 (13.9%)	81 (28.1%)	33 (11.5%)	2 (0.7%)



**Figure 9: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions related to involvement**

#### **7.4.6 Delegation and empowerment**

Leaders need to delegate authority to employees in order to implement successful change. Hence, employees were asked to respond to seven statements about the delegation of authority and empowerment. The results are again reported using descriptive statistics (Table 20) and frequencies (Table 21), while a bar chart visualizing the mean evaluation of each question is shown in Figure 10. Respondents on average agreed with the statements ‘My manager delegates to me the authority to perform change tasks’, ‘My manager empowers employees during change’, ‘My manager shows complete confidence in my ability to carry out delegated tasks properly’, ‘My manager gives me instructions with a description of delegated tasks’ and ‘My manager is committed to perform well in implementing change’, whereas they disagreed with two statements: ‘My manager follows up the delegated tasks’ and ‘My manager encourages me to monitor my own performance related to change’. Similar to the findings regarding involvement, the results show that the respondents did not on the whole believe that their managers followed up well or that they encouraged employees to monitor their own performance related to change.

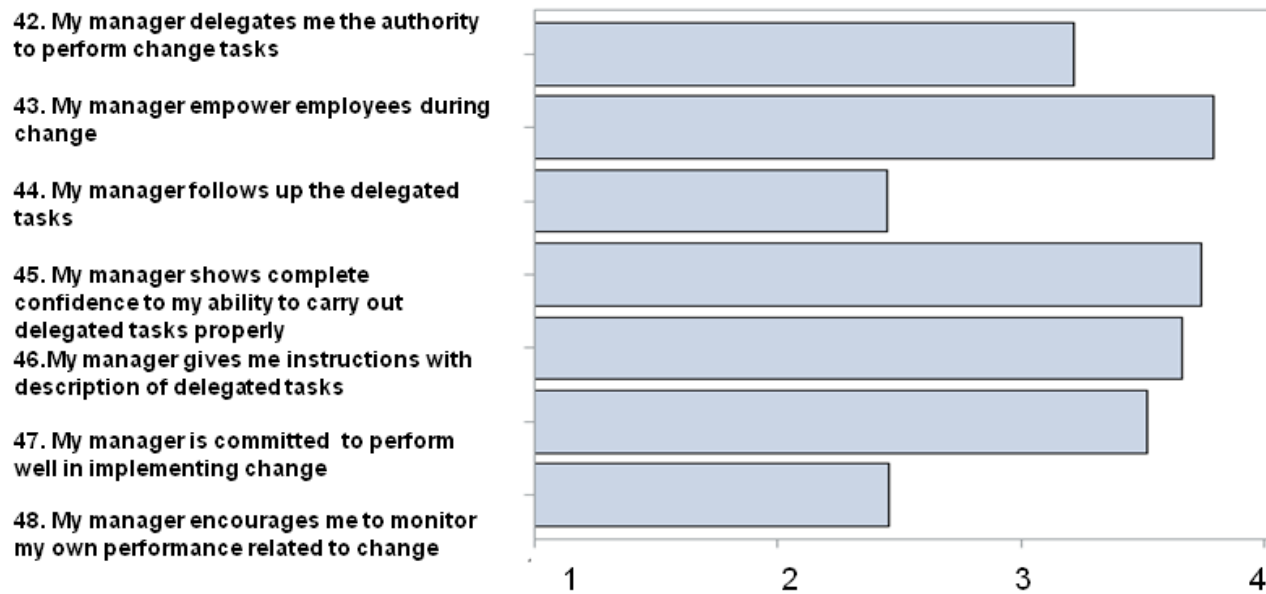
**Table 20: Descriptive statistics for questions related to empowerment and delegation (N=288)**

Question	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
42. My manager delegates to me the authority to perform change tasks	3.22	1.23	1	5
43. My manager empowers employees during change	3.79	1.10	1	5
44. My manager follows up the delegated tasks	2.45	1.09	1	5
45. My manager shows complete confidence in my ability to carry out delegated tasks properly	3.74	1.16	1	5
46. My manager gives me instructions with a description of delegated tasks	3.66	1.24	1	5
47. My manager is committed to perform well in implementing change	3.51	1.20	1	5
48. My manager encourages me to monitor my own performance related to change	2.46	1.08	1	5

Note. Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Table 21: Frequency table for questions on empowerment and delegation (N=288)**

Question	Count (%)				
	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
42. My manager delegates to me the authority to perform change tasks	31 (10.8%)	30 (10.4%)	141 (49%)	17 (5.9%)	69 (24%)
43. My manager empowers employees during change	22 (7.6%)	0 (0%)	80 (27.8%)	101 (35.1%)	85 (29.5%)
44. My manager follows up the delegated tasks	90 (31.3%)	9 (3.1%)	174 (60.4%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (5.2%)
45. My manager shows complete confidence in my ability to carry out delegated tasks properly	22 (7.6%)	6 (2.1%)	92 (31.9%)	74 (25.7%)	94 (32.6%)
46. My manager gives me instructions with a description of delegated tasks	25 (8.7%)	8 (2.8%)	112 (38.9%)	38 (13.2%)	105 (36.5%)
47. My manager is committed to perform well in implementing change	27 (9.4%)	6 (2.1%)	130 (45.1%)	42 (14.6%)	83 (28.8%)
48. My manager encourages me to monitor my own performance related to change	90 (31.3%)	4 (1.4%)	180 (62.5%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (4.9%)



**Figure 10: Bar chart of mean evaluation for questions on empowerment & delegation**

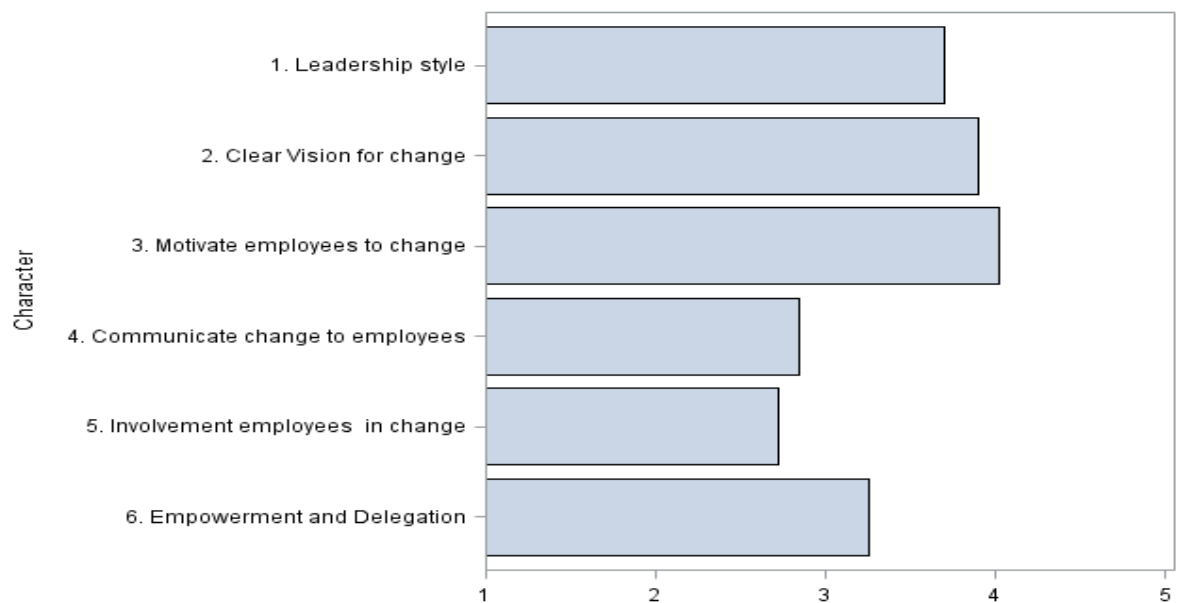
#### 7.4.7 Overall evaluation

The respondents' overall evaluation of ADP leadership characteristics, on the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 5 (agree strongly), is shown in Table 22, while Figure 11 shows a bar chart visualizing the overall mean of the six characteristics. The results demonstrate that on average, respondents agreed with the statements regarding the ADP's leadership style ( $M=3.70$ ,  $SD=.43$ ), its vision for change ( $M=3.90$ ,  $SD=.56$ ), motivating employees to change ( $M=4.02$ ,  $SD=.43$ ) and empowerment and delegation ( $M=3.26$ ,  $SD=.71$ ), but disagreed with the statements on communicating change to employees ( $M=2.85$ ,  $SD=.75$ ) and involving them in change ( $M=2.73$ ,  $SD=.62$ ). Respondents' negative attitudes and beliefs about communicating change to employees and involving them in change suggest that the ADP should make more effort in these two areas in order to implement change successfully in the future.

**Table 22: Descriptive statistics for overall leadership characteristics (N=288)**

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Leadership style	3.70*	0.43	2.23	4.92
Clear vision for change	3.9	0.56	2.17	5
Motivating employees to change	4.02	0.43	2.67	4.89
Communicating change to employees	2.85	0.75	1	4.71
Involving employees in change	2.73	0.62	1.33	4.5
Empowerment and delegation	3.26	0.71	1	4.86

*Note.*\*Adjusted mean was computed for leadership style with reversed scale for two questions (question 10 and 12) for which disagreement indicated positive leadership.



*Note.* Likert scale: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=agree to a moderate degree; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

**Figure 11: Bar chart of overall means for the six leadership characteristics**

## 7.5 Correlation analysis of the six factors

This section presents the results of the relationships among the overall evaluations of the six factors discussed above. Cronbach's alpha was computed to verify the internal consistency of the six factors before the correlation analysis. Pearson's  $r$  was also computed. The results, shown in Table 23, demonstrate the following:

**Leadership Variable Correlation**

‘Leadership’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Vision’ ( $r=.533, p<.01$ ), ‘Motivation’ ( $r=.423, p<.01$ ), ‘Communication’ ( $r=.138, p=.02$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.336, p<.01$ )

**Vision Variable Correlation**

‘Vision’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Motivation’ ( $r=.579, p<.01$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.317, p<.01$ )

**Motivation Variable Correlation**

‘Motivation’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Communication’ ( $r=.228, p<.01$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.258, p<.01$ )

**Communication Variable Correlation**

‘Communication’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Involvement’ ( $r=.228, p<.01$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.258, p<.01$ )

**Involvement and Empowerment Variable Correlation**

‘Involvement’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.204, p<.01$ ).

**Non-significant Correlation**

In other words, the only non-significant relationships were those between ‘Vision’ and ‘Communication’ ( $r=.099, p=.09$ ), between ‘Involvement’ and ‘Leadership’ ( $r=.110, p=.06$ ), between ‘Involvement’ and ‘Vision’ ( $r=.065, p=.27$ ) and between ‘Involvement’ and ‘Motivation’ ( $r=.047, p=.42$ ).

**Table 23: Estimated correlation matrix for the six leadership characteristics (N=288)**

	Value	Leadership style	Clear vision for change	Motivating employees to change	Communicating change to employees	Involving employees in change	Empowerment and delegation
Leadership	r	1					
	p						
Clear vision for change	r	.533*	1				
	p	0.000					
Motivating employees to change	r	.423*	.579*	1			
	p	0.000	0.000				
Communicating change to employees	r	.138*	0.099	.228*	1		
	p	0.020	0.095	0.000			
Involving employees in change	r	0.110	0.065	0.047	.256*	1	
	p	0.063	0.274	0.427	0.000		
Empowerment and delegation in change	r	.336*	.317*	.258*	.636*	.204*	1
	p	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	

\* indicates the level of significance (alpha).

The table above shows the correlation between variables. For convenience, the table also highlights the correlation between that same variables – that is obvious, as 1. It indicates that these values are perfectly positively correlated and with any increase in the value of one variable, the other variable will increase by the same proportion. While the other figures indicate that there is a positive correlation between all the relationships within different variables, the correlation between a clear vision for change and leader is 0.533, which shows the positive correlation between these variable at the significance level of 0.05. Here the P value is greater than alpha, showing that the results are significant. Similarly the relationship between motivation and leadership is 0.423, at the significance level of 0.05. This means that the factors are significantly positively correlated, while the correlation of leadership with other factors is as follows: ‘Communication’ ( $r=.138$ ,  $p=.02$ ), ‘Involving employees for change’ ( $r=0.110$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.336$ ,  $p<.01$ ); ‘Vision’ was significantly positively correlated with ‘Motivation’ ( $r=.579$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and ‘Empowerment’ ( $r=.317$ ,  $p<.01$ ), while with ‘communication’ ( $r=0.099$ ,  $p<.01$ ), with ‘involving employees in change’ ( $r=0.065$ ,  $p>0.10$ ), which confirms that there is no



significant relationship between these variables. 'Motivation' was significantly positively correlated with 'Communication' ( $r=.228, p<.01$ ), and 'Empowerment' ( $r=.258, p<.01$ ), while 'involving employees in change' ( $r=0.047, p>0.10$ ), which suggests no significant relationship, 'Communication' was significantly positively correlated with 'Involvement' ( $r=.228, p<.01$ ) and 'Empowerment' ( $r=.258, p<.01$ ); and 'Involvement' was significantly positively correlated with 'Empowerment' ( $r=.204, p<.01$ ). In other words, the only non-significant relationships were those between 'Vision' and 'Communication' ( $r=.099, p=.09$ ), between 'Involvement' and 'Leadership' ( $r=.110, p=.06$ ), between 'Involvement' and 'Vision' ( $r=.065, p=.27$ ) and between 'Involvement' and 'Motivation' ( $r=.047, p=.42$ ). This confirms that the relationship between these variables is not significant.

Below are the individual values of Cronbach's alpha, which do not support any magnifying of the relationship of two or more variables at the same time.

Cronbach's alpha values	
Leadership	0.60
Clear vision for change	0.40
Motivating employees to change	0.53
Communicating change to employees	0.36
Involving employees in change	0.50
Empowerment and delegation in change	0.40

## 7.6 Comparison of employees' perceptions among groups

While change efforts require more initiative from the top, communications among all levels of employees should be encouraged in order to implement the changes successfully. In particular, more participation from lower ranks or less experienced employees should be cultivated (Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008). In order to determine whether the ADP had made sufficient efforts to motivate employees at all levels in favour of change, one-way ANOVA was used, followed by Turkey's test, to determine the differences in overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics among employees with different educational qualifications, lengths of working experience and job positions.

### 7.6.1 Education

In terms of the effect of qualifications, the results show that the scores for 'Leadership', 'Vision', 'Communication' and 'Empowerment' were not significantly different at  $p < .05$  across groups (Table 25), whereas 'Motivation' scores differed significantly across the four groups,  $F(3,284)=2.91, p=.035$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicate

that respondents with a high school certificate ( $M=4.10$ , 95% CI [4.02,4.19]) made significantly higher overall evaluations than those with a Bachelor degree ( $M=3.95$ , 95% CI [3.84,4.02]),  $p=.025$  (Tables 24&26). This indicates that respondents with a higher education tended to have higher expectations in terms of the ways in which their leaders motivated them, making their perceptions significantly lower than those of respondents with only a high school education. In addition, 'Involvement' differed significantly across the four educational qualification groups,  $F(3,284)=3.70, p=.012$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicates that respondents with a high school certificate ( $M=2.61$ , 95% CI [2.50,2.72]) made significantly lower overall evaluations than those with a Bachelor degree ( $M=2.85$ , 95% CI [2.74,2.95]),  $p=.038$  (Tables 24&26). This suggests that respondents with a higher education may have been more confident and thus more willing to be involved while demanding less from the leadership in terms of involving them.

**Table 24: Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by educational qualification (N=288)**

Characteristic	Educational qualifications	N	Mean	95% CI	SD	Minimum	Maximum
<b>Leadership style</b>	Below high school	9	3.79	[3.53,4.04]	0.33	3.23	4.15
	High school	105	3.66	[3.59,3.74]	0.39	2.54	4.46
	Bachelor	140	3.62	[3.54,3.70]	0.48	2.23	4.92
	Master	34	3.66	[3.54,3.78]	0.35	3.08	4.46
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.64</b>	<b>[3.59,3.69]</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>2.23</b>	<b>4.92</b>
<b>Clear vision for change</b>	Below high school	9	3.80	[3.30,4.29]	0.64	3.00	4.67
	High school	105	3.93	[3.83,4.03]	0.52	2.50	5.00
	Bachelor	140	3.85	[3.74,3.95]	0.61	2.17	5.00
	Master	34	4.09	[3.96,4.22]	0.37	3.50	5.00
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.90</b>	<b>[3.84,3.97]</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>2.17</b>	<b>5.00</b>
<b>Motivating employees to change</b>	Below high school	9	4.00	[3.62,4.38]	0.5	3.00	4.67
	High school	105	4.10	[4.02,4.19]	0.45	2.67	4.89
	Bachelor	140	3.95	[3.88,4.02]	0.43	3.00	4.78
	Master	34	4.08	[3.96,4.19]	0.33	3.56	4.78
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>[3.97,4.07]</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>2.67</b>	<b>4.89</b>
<b>Communicating change to employees</b>	Below high school	9	2.60	[2.16,3.04]	0.57	1.43	3.14
	High school	105	2.81	[2.67,2.95]	0.73	1.00	4.71
	Bachelor	140	2.89	[2.77,3.01]	0.72	1.00	4.43
	Master	34	2.87	[2.54,3.21]	0.97	1.00	4.43
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>2.85</b>	<b>[2.76,2.94]</b>	<b>0.75</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>4.71</b>
<b>Involving employees in change</b>	Below high school	9	2.48	[2.09,2.87]	0.51	1.67	3.17
	High school	105	2.61	[2.50,2.72]	0.56	1.33	4.00
	Bachelor	140	2.85	[2.74,2.95]	0.63	1.33	4.50
	Master	34	2.71	[2.47,2.94]	0.68	1.33	4.00
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>2.73</b>	<b>[2.66,2.80]</b>	<b>0.62</b>	<b>1.33</b>	<b>4.50</b>
<b>Empowerment and delegation</b>	Below high school	9	3.38	[3.10,3.67]	0.37	3.00	4.00
	High school	105	3.17	[3.03,3.30]	0.69	1.57	4.71
	Bachelor	140	3.29	[3.17,3.41]	0.72	1.00	4.86
	Master	34	3.40	[3.14,3.66]	0.76	1.57	4.57
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>[3.18,3.34]</b>	<b>0.71</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>4.86</b>

**Table 25: Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among respondents with different educational qualifications (N=288)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leadership style	Between Groups	0.344	3	0.115	0.619	0.604
	Within Groups	52.678	284	0.185		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>53.022</b>	<b>287</b>			
Clear vision for change	Between Groups	1.856	3	0.619	1.987	0.116
	Within Groups	88.434	284	0.311		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>90.291</b>	<b>287</b>			
Motivating employees to change	Between Groups	1.586	3	0.529	2.913*	0.035
	Within Groups	51.548	284	0.182		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>53.134</b>	<b>287</b>			
Communicating change to employees	Between Groups	0.95	3	0.317	0.556	0.644
	Within Groups	161.648	284	0.569		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>162.598</b>	<b>287</b>			
Involving employees in change	Between Groups	4.114	3	1.371	3.697*	0.012
	Within Groups	105.354	284	0.371		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>109.469</b>	<b>287</b>			
Empowerment and delegation	Between Groups	1.842	3	0.614	1.222	0.302
	Within Groups	142.688	284	0.502		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>144.53</b>	<b>287</b>			

\* p&lt; 0.05

**Table 26: Tukey HSD comparison of leadership characteristics among groups of respondents with different educational qualifications**

	(I) qualification	(J) qualification	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Motivating employees to change	Below high school	High school	-.103	.148	.899	-.485	.280
		Bachelor	.053	.147	.984	-.325	.432
		Master	-.078	.160	.961	-.491	.334
	High school	Below high school	.103	.148	.899	-.280	.485
		Bachelor	.156*	.055	.025	.014	.298
		Master	.024	.084	.992	-.193	.241
	Bachelor	Below high school	-.053	.147	.984	-.432	.325
		High school	-.156*	.055	.025	-.298	-.014
		Master	-.132	.081	.371	-.342	.079
	Master	Below high school	.078	.160	.961	-.334	.491
		High school	-.024	.084	.992	-.241	.193
		Bachelor	.132	.081	.371	-.079	.342
Involving employees in change	Below high school	High school	-.126	.212	.933	-.673	.420
		Bachelor	-.367	.209	.298	-.909	.174
		Master	-.224	.228	.759	-.814	.366
	High school	Below high school	.126	.212	.933	-.420	.673
		Bachelor	-.241*	.079	.013	-.444	-.038
		Master	-.098	.120	.847	-.409	.213
	Bachelor	Below high school	.367	.209	.298	-.174	.909
		High school	.241*	.079	.013	.038	.444
		Master	.143	.116	.610	-.158	.444
	Master	Below high school	.224	.228	.759	-.366	.814
		High school	.098	.120	.847	-.213	.409
		Bachelor	-.143	.116	.610	-.444	.158

Note. Multiple comparisons performed only for characteristics with significant overall F-value

\* p&lt; 0.05

### 7.6.2 Experience

The effect of length of working experience was then test using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test. The results show that differences across groups in 'Leadership', 'Communication' and 'Involvement' were not significant at  $p < .05$  (Table 28), while 'Vision' differed significantly across the groups,  $F(3,284)=6.77$ ,  $p < .001$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicated that respondents with less than five years' experience ( $M=4.07$ , 95% CI [3.97,4.18]) made significantly more positive evaluations than those with 5-10 years ( $M=3.84$ , 95% CI [3.72,3.96]),  $p=.044$  and those with 10-15 years ( $M=3.69$ , 95% CI [3.72,3.96]),  $p=.001$ . Respondents with more than 15 years' experience ( $M=4.02$ , 95% CI [3.88,4.16]),  $p=.044$  also made significantly more positive evaluations than those with 10-15 years ( $M=3.69$ , 95% CI [3.72,3.96]),  $p=.003$  (Tables 27&29). 'Motivation' differed significantly across the four groups,  $F(3,284)=4.22$ ,  $p=.006$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicate that respondents with 5-10 years' experience ( $M=4.05$ , 95% CI [3.95,4.14]) made significantly more positive evaluations than those with 10-15 years ( $M=3.86$ , 95% CI [3.76,3.96]),  $p=.035$ , while those with more than 15 years' experience ( $M=4.10$ , 95% CI [4.02,4.19]) made significantly more positive evaluations than those with 10-15 years ( $M=3.86$ , 95% CI [3.76,3.96]),  $p=.005$  (Tables 26&28). Finally, 'Empowerment' differed significantly across the four groups,  $F(3,284)=2.95$ ,  $p=.033$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that respondents with less than five years' experience ( $M=3.43$ , 95% CI [3.26,3.61]) made significantly more positive evaluations than those with 5-10 years ( $M=3.12$ , 95% CI [2.98,3.27]),  $p=.039$  (Tables 27&29).

**Table 27: Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by working experience**

Characteristic	Working experience	N	Mean	95% CI	SD	Minimum	Maximum
<b>Leadership style</b>	Less than 5 years	64	3.63	[3.52,3.75]	0.46	2.54	4.92
	5 to 10 years	91	3.61	[3.53,3.69]	0.39	2.23	4.46
	10 to 15 years	61	3.63	[3.52,3.74]	0.43	2.54	4.46
	More than 15 years	72	3.71	[3.60,3.81]	0.45	2.85	4.62
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.64</b>	<b>[3.59,3.69]</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>2.23</b>	<b>4.92</b>
<b>Clear vision for change</b>	Less than 5 years	64	4.07	[3.97,4.18]	0.42	3.00	4.67
	5 to 10 years	91	3.84	[3.72,3.96]	0.56	2.17	5.00
	10 to 15 years	61	3.69	[3.55,3.83]	0.56	2.50	5.00
	More than 15 years	72	4.02	[3.88,4.16]	0.61	2.17	5.00
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.90</b>	<b>[3.84,3.97]</b>	<b>0.56</b>	<b>2.17</b>	<b>5.00</b>
<b>Motivating employees to change</b>	Less than 5 years	64	4.05	[3.92,4.17]	0.49	3.00	4.89
	5 to 10 years	91	4.05	[3.95,4.14]	0.44	2.67	4.78
	10 to 15 years	61	3.86	[3.76,3.96]	0.39	3.22	4.67
	More than 15 years	72	4.10	[4.02,4.19]	0.35	3.11	4.78
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>4.02</b>	<b>[3.97,4.07]</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>2.67</b>	<b>4.89</b>
<b>Communicating change to employees</b>	Less than 5 years	64	2.93	[2.74,3.13]	0.79	1.29	4.43
	5 to 10 years	91	2.79	[2.64,2.94]	0.72	1.00	4.43
	10 to 15 years	61	2.90	[2.71,3.09]	0.74	1.00	4.29
	More than 15 years	72	2.81	[2.62,2.99]	0.78	1.00	4.71
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>2.85</b>	<b>[2.76,2.94]</b>	<b>0.75</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>4.71</b>
<b>Involving employees in change</b>	Less than 5 years	64	2.65	[2.50,2.80]	0.60	1.33	4.17
	5 to 10 years	91	2.65	[2.54,2.76]	0.52	1.33	3.67
	10 to 15 years	61	2.87	[2.71,3.03]	0.61	1.50	4.17
	More than 15 years	72	2.79	[2.62,2.96]	0.73	1.33	4.50
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>2.73</b>	<b>[2.66,2.80]</b>	<b>0.62</b>	<b>1.33</b>	<b>4.50</b>
<b>Empowerment and delegation</b>	Less than 5 years	64	3.43	[3.26,3.61]	0.70	1.57	4.86
	5 to 10 years	91	3.12	[2.98,3.27]	0.68	1.71	4.57
	10 to 15 years	61	3.36	[3.18,3.53]	0.67	1.57	4.57
	More than 15 years	72	3.20	[3.02,3.38]	0.76	1.00	4.43
	<b>Total</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>3.26</b>	<b>[3.18,3.34]</b>	<b>0.71</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>4.86</b>

Note. CI=confidence interval

**Table 28: Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among groups with different working experience (N=288)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leadership style	Between Groups	0.4302	3	0.143	0.774	0.509
	Within Groups	52.5918	284	0.185		
	Total	53.0220	287			
Clear vision for change	Between Groups	6.0276	3	2.009	6.772*	0.000
	Within Groups	84.2632	284	0.297		
	Total	90.2908	287			
Motivating employees to change	Between Groups	2.2675	3	0.756	4.220*	0.006
	Within Groups	50.8668	284	0.179		
	Total	53.1343	287			
Communicating change to employees	Between Groups	1.0758	3	0.359	0.630	0.596
	Within Groups	161.5226	284	0.569		
	Total	162.5984	287			
Involving employees in change	Between Groups	2.4476	3	0.816	2.165	0.092
	Within Groups	107.0212	284	0.377		
	Total	109.4688	287			
Empowerment and delegation	Between Groups	4.3674	3	1.456	2.950*	0.033
	Within Groups	140.1626	284	0.494		
	Total	144.5300	287			

\* p&lt;0.05



**Table 29: Tukey HSD comparison of leadership characteristics among groups of respondents by working experience**

Dependent Variable	(I) Work Experience	(J) Work Experience	Mean Diff.(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Clear vision for change	Less than 5 years	5 to 10 years	.234*	0.089	0.044	0.004	0.464
		10 to 15 years	.384*	0.097	0.001	0.133	0.636
		More than 15 years	0.052	0.094	0.945	-0.19	0.294
	5 to 10 years	Less than 5 years	-.234*	0.089	0.044	-0.464	-0.004
		10 to 15 years	0.15	0.09	0.343	-0.083	0.383
		More than 15 years	-0.182	0.086	0.15	-0.404	0.04
	10 to 15 years	Less than 5 years	-.384*	0.097	0.001	-0.636	-0.133
		5 to 10 years	-0.15	0.09	0.343	-0.383	0.083
		More than 15 years	-.332*	0.095	0.003	-0.577	-0.087
	More than 15 years	Less than 5 years	-0.052	0.094	0.945	-0.294	0.19
		5 to 10 years	0.182	0.086	0.15	-0.04	0.404
		10 to 15 years	.332*	0.095	0.003	0.087	0.577
Motivating employees to change	Less than 5 years	5 to 10 years	0	0.069	1	-0.178	0.179
		10 to 15 years	0.191	0.076	0.059	-0.005	0.386
		More than 15 years	-0.058	0.073	0.855	-0.246	0.13
	5 to 10 years	Less than 5 years	0	0.069	1	-0.179	0.178
		10 to 15 years	.190*	0.07	0.035	0.009	0.371
		More than 15 years	-0.059	0.067	0.817	-0.231	0.114
	10 to 15 years	Less than 5 years	-0.191	0.076	0.059	-0.386	0.005
		5 to 10 years	-.190*	0.07	0.035	-0.371	-0.009
		More than 15 years	-.249*	0.074	0.005	-0.439	-0.059
	More than 15 years	Less than 5 years	0.058	0.073	0.855	-0.13	0.246
		5 to 10 years	0.059	0.067	0.817	-0.114	0.231
		10 to 15 years	.249*	0.074	0.005	0.059	0.439
Empowerment and delegation	Less than 5 years	5 to 10 years	0.307*	0.115	0.039	0.011	0.603
		10 to 15 years	0.075	0.126	0.933	-0.250	0.400
		More than 15 years	0.230	0.121	0.227	-0.081	0.542
	5 to 10 years	Less than 5 years	-0.307*	0.115	0.039	-0.603	-0.011
		10 to 15 years	-0.232	0.116	0.192	-0.532	0.068
		More than 15 years	-0.076	0.111	0.901	-0.363	0.210
	10 to 15 years	Less than 5 years	-0.075	0.126	0.933	-0.400	0.250
		5 to 10 years	0.232	0.116	0.192	-0.068	0.532
		More than 15 years	0.156	0.122	0.581	-0.160	0.472
	More than 15 years	Less than 5 years	-0.230	0.121	0.227	-0.542	0.081
		5 to 10 years	0.076	0.111	0.901	-0.210	0.363
		10 to 15 years	-0.156	0.122	0.581	-0.472	0.160

Note. Multiple comparisons performed only for characteristics with significant overall F-value

\*  $p < 0.05$

### 7.6.3 Position

Finally, the effect of job position was tested using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test. The results show that scores on 'Communication' and 'Empowerment' were not significantly different at  $p < .05$  across groups with different job positions (Table 31), while 'Leadership' differed significantly across the four groups,  $F(3,284)=3.87$ ,  $p=0.01$ . Tukey

post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicate that respondents who were departmental managers ( $M=3.97$ , 95% CI [3.70,4.25]) made significantly more positive evaluations than those with no management position ( $M=3.60$ , 95% CI [3.54,3.67]),  $p=.028$ . Scores on 'Vision' differed significantly across the four groups by job position,  $F(3,284)=5.70, p=.001$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicate that departmental managers ( $M=4.23$ , 95% CI [3.93,4.53]) made significantly more positive evaluations than branch managers ( $M=3.74$ , 95% CI [3.61,3.86]),  $p=.03$  and that section managers ( $M=4.14$ , 95% CI [3.98,4.29]) also made significantly more positive evaluations than branch managers ( $M=3.86$ , 95% CI [3.61,3.86]),  $p=.003$ . As respondents in higher positions were more likely to be involved in creating the vision for change and shaping the leadership style, it is anticipated that they had more positive perceptions than those in lower positions. 'Motivation' scores differed significantly across the four groups,  $F(3,284)=2.65, p=.049$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons indicate that respondents with no management position ( $M=4.06$ , 95% CI [3.99,4.14]) made significantly more positive evaluations than branch managers ( $M=3.90$ , 95% CI [3.82,3.99]),  $p=.034$ . This suggests that non-managerial respondents may have had lower expectations of the leadership than those in managerial positions and were thus more readily motivated. 'Involvement' scores differed significantly by job position,  $F(3,284)=4.61, p=.004$ . Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicate that section managers ( $M=3.09$ , 95% CI [2.88,3.30]) made significantly more positive evaluations than branch managers ( $M=2.74$ , 95% CI [2.60,2.89]),  $p=.033$  and non-managerial respondents ( $M=2.66$ , 95% CI [2.57,2.75]),  $p=.001$  (Tables 30&32). This suggests that respondents in higher positions were more involved in implementing changes and thus had more positive perceptions.

**Table 30: Descriptive statistics for overall evaluation of the six leadership characteristics by position**

Characteristic	Position	N	Mean	95% CI	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Leadership style	Manager of Department	11	3.97	[3.70,4.25]	0.41	3.46	4.62
	Manager of Section	33	3.78	[3.66,3.90]	0.34	3.15	4.23
	Manager of Branch	78	3.63	[3.53,3.72]	0.44	2.23	4.46
	None	166	3.60	[3.54,3.67]	0.43	2.54	4.92
	Total	288	3.64	[3.59,3.69]	0.43	2.23	4.92
Clear Vision for change	Manager of Department	11	4.23	[3.93,4.53]	0.45	3.67	5.00
	Manager of Section	33	4.14	[3.98,4.29]	0.44	3.17	5.00
	Manager of Branch	78	3.74	[3.61,3.86]	0.56	2.17	5.00
	None	166	3.92	[3.83,4.00]	0.57	2.17	5.00
	Total	288	3.90	[3.84,3.97]	0.56	2.17	5.00
Motivate employees to change	Manager of Department	11	4.05	[3.83,4.27]	0.33	3.78	4.67
	Manager of Section	33	4.07	[3.97,4.16]	0.27	3.44	4.56
	Manager of Branch	78	3.90	[3.82,3.99]	0.38	3.11	4.78
	None	166	4.06	[3.99,4.14]	0.47	2.67	4.89
	Total	288	4.02	[3.97,4.07]	0.43	2.67	4.89
Communicate change to employees	Manager of Department	11	2.99	[2.37,3.60]	0.91	1.00	4.43
	Manager of Section	33	3.00	[2.77,3.22]	0.63	1.29	4.29
	Manager of Branch	78	2.77	[2.58,2.97]	0.88	1.00	4.43
	None	166	2.85	[2.74,2.96]	0.70	1.00	4.71
	Total	288	2.85	[2.76,2.94]	0.75	1.00	4.71
Involvement employees in change	Manager of Department	11	2.76	[2.34,3.17]	0.62	1.50	3.67
	Manager of Section	33	3.09	[2.88,3.30]	0.59	1.50	4.50
	Manager of Branch	78	2.74	[2.6,2.89]	0.64	1.33	4.17
	None	166	2.66	[2.57,2.75]	0.59	1.33	4.17
	Total	288	2.73	[2.66,2.80]	0.62	1.33	4.50
Empowerment and Delegation	Manager of Department	11	3.14	[2.57,3.72]	0.85	1.00	3.86
	Manager of Section	33	3.39	[3.16,3.61]	0.63	1.71	4.43
	Manager of Branch	78	3.30	[3.13,3.47]	0.76	1.57	4.57
	None	166	3.22	[3.12,3.33]	0.69	1.43	4.86
	Total	288	3.26	[3.18,3.34]	0.71	1.00	4.86

**Table 31: Summary of ANOVA for comparison of leadership characteristics among groups by job position(N=288)**

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leadership style	Between Groups	2.083	3	0.694	3.871*	0.010
	Within Groups	50.939	284	0.179		
	Total	53.022	287			
Clear Vision for change	Between Groups	5.124	3	1.708	5.696*	0.001
	Within Groups	85.166	284	0.300		
	Total	90.291	287			
Motivate employees to change	Between Groups	1.449	3	0.483	2.653*	0.049
	Within Groups	51.686	284	0.182		
	Total	53.134	287			
Communicate change to employees	Between Groups	1.350	3	0.450	0.792	0.499
	Within Groups	161.249	284	0.568		
	Total	162.598	287			
Involvement employees in change	Between Groups	5.089	3	1.696	4.616*	0.004
	Within Groups	104.380	284	0.368		
	Total	109.469	287			
Empowerment and Delegation	Between Groups	1.026	3	0.342	0.677	0.567
	Within Groups	143.504	284	0.505		
	Total	144.530	287			

\*  $p < 0.05$

**Table 32: Tukey HSD comparison of leadership characteristics among groups of respondents by position**

Dependent Variable	(I) Job Position	(J) Job Position	Mean Dif. (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Leadership style	Manager of Department	Manager of Section	.193	.147	.556	-.188	.575
		Manager of Branch	.347	.136	.056	-.006	.699
		None	.369*	.132	.028	.028	.709
	Manager of Section	Manager of Department	-.193	.147	.556	-.575	.188
		Manager of Branch	.153	.088	.303	-.074	.381
		None	.175	.081	.134	-.033	.384
	Manager of Branch	Manager of Department	-.347	.136	.056	-.699	.006
		Manager of Section	-.153	.088	.303	-.381	.074
		None	.022	.058	.982	-.128	.172
	None	Manager of Department	-.369*	.132	.028	-.709	-.028
		Manager of Section	-.175	.081	.134	-.384	.033
		Manager of Branch	-.022	.058	.982	-.172	.128
Clear vision for change	Manager of Department	Manager of Section	.091	.191	.964	-.402	.584
		Manager of Branch	.490*	.176	.030	.034	.946
		None	.312	.170	.262	-.129	.752
	Manager of Section	Manager of Department	-.091	.191	.964	-.584	.402
		Manager of Branch	.399*	.114	.003	.105	.693
		None	.221	.104	.151	-.049	.490
	Manager of Branch	Manager of Department	-.490*	.176	.030	-.946	-.034
		Manager of Section	-.399*	.114	.003	-.693	-.105
		None	-.178	.075	.084	-.373	.016
	None	Manager of Department	-.312	.170	.262	-.752	.129
		Manager of Section	-.221	.104	.151	-.490	.049
		Manager of Branch	.178	.075	.084	-.016	.373
Motivating employees to change	Manager of Department	Manager of Section	-.017	.149	.999	-.401	.367
		Manager of Branch	.146	.137	.713	-.209	.501
		None	-.014	.133	1.000	-.357	.329
	Manager of Section	Manager of Department	.017	.149	.999	-.367	.401
		Manager of Branch	.163	.089	.258	-.066	.392
		None	.003	.081	1.000	-.207	.213
	Manager of Branch	Manager of Department	-.146	.137	.713	-.501	.209
		Manager of Section	-.163	.089	.258	-.392	.066
		None	-.160*	.059	.034	-.311	-.008
	None	Manager of Department	.014	.133	1.000	-.329	.357
		Manager of Section	-.003	.081	1.000	-.213	.207
		Manager of Branch	.160*	.059	.034	.008	.311
Involving employees in change	Manager of Department	Manager of Section	-.328	.211	.406	-.874	.217
		Manager of Branch	.016	.195	1.000	-.488	.521
		None	.101	.189	.951	-.387	.589
	Manager of Section	Manager of Department	.328	.211	.406	-.217	.874
		Manager of Branch	.344*	.126	.033	.019	.670
		None	.429*	.116	.001	.131	.728
	Manager of Branch	Manager of Department	-.016	.195	1.000	-.521	.488
		Manager of Section	-.344*	.126	.033	-.670	-.019
		None	.085	.083	.738	-.130	.300
	None	Manager of Department	-.101	.189	.951	-.589	.387
		Manager of Section	-.429*	.116	.001	-.728	-.131
		Manager of Branch	-.085	.083	.738	-.300	.130

## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **QUALITATIVE RESULTS**

#### **8.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents an analysis of the qualitative results of two data gathering methods: semi-structured interviews and document analysis.

#### **8.2 Results of interview data analysis**

While the survey results set out in the previous chapter supplied much insight into employees' perceptions of various aspects of ADP leadership, surveys are sometimes subject to bias and distortion. Therefore, to enhance the reliability and credibility of the present study, a semi-structured interview with seven main questions was used to obtain qualitative data so as to complement the quantitative data produced from the survey questionnaires and to provide a deeper understanding of the views of the ADP managers who were agents of change and also responsible for implementing it.

The researcher interviewed ten managers, identified as Prt1-10, for this purpose, asking them seven main questions, set out in Appendix 1, on the ADP's leadership style, the clarity of its vision, mission and values, the motivation of employees, communication with employees, delegation and empowerment, the effect of organizational culture on change implementation and the effect of culture on leadership. The following subsections present an analysis of the interviewees' responses to each of these questions, which are reproduced in full in Appendix 3.

##### **8.2.1 Leadership style**

The first question was designed to elicit the managers' opinions, experiences and feelings related to leadership style. The leadership style of an organization plays an important role in the way the employees carry out their work and their motivation towards their jobs. The

majority of the interviewees expressed the view that ADP leadership was directive, supportive and highly disciplined, exercising strong command and control over the organization. For example, participant 1 mentioned the leadership's strong command and control, while participant 2 said that leadership was "strong and very directive, but mixed messages between directorates can cause staff difficulties in implementation." Other interviewees suggested that some leaders were willing to involve others in change and inspire all employees to implement the organization's vision, which can be viewed as a transformational leadership style. In addition, three interviewees, whose responses are quoted below, thought that leadership style varied among the leaders and that ADP could be said to have adopted a mixed style.

*[Prt8]: In my personal opinion, leadership style varies among leaders within the ADP. While we have some open minded and supportive leaders, we also tend to have some directive and single minded ones. However, I would say that generally in the ADP, we have leaders who due to the changeable environment that we live in as police officers have a tendency towards involving more junior officers in the leadership's decision making.*

*[Prt9]: We can say that there are a variety of leadership styles in the Abu Dhabi Police Command. There are authoritarian leaders and democratic leaders and there is a freestyle, but in my opinion the main style is the absent authoritarian style.*

*[Prt10]: The leadership style in the ADP varies in the top management, as some of them are supportive and some are not, because they are afraid of the consequences after implementing change. Most leaders are willing for change but it's slightly new to them and their culture. I see the supportive leaders want to involve everyone in change and make them understand how well the organization will develop after implementing this change.*

However, interviewees made some negative points regarding leadership style; for example, participant 1 suggested that occasional differences can result in confusion between the directors, while participant 2 warned that mixed messages can lead to confusion.

### **8.2.2 Vision, mission and values**

The interviewees were then asked their opinion on the extent to which the ADP's vision, mission and values were clear and understandable. Vision, mission and values provide the necessary direction for the working of an organization. Vision relates to the objectives that it wants to accomplish, while the mission is the reason for its existence and the values are the basis on which the decision makers select between right and wrong (Lussier and Achua, 2009). The three must be clearly understood by the organization and its employees, which, according to all participants, was the case at the ADP. For example, participant 1 said "Very clear and understandable", while participant 3 responded: "Clear by using different kinds of communication". Participant 5 put it this way: "Fairly clear, as I am in the Strategic Planning Department". However, three participants identified a few negative aspects regarding this question. Specifically, participant 6 thought that the impact of values, mission and vision on the employees might not be clearly understood: "The words are clear, but the organization may not understand how they affect the working regime"; participant 7 thought that the leaders needed more effective communication skills in order for employees to understand the strategy; participant 8 thought that it might be less clear to people in junior positions; and participant 10 thought that the leaders needed to communicate more effectively with employees in order to involve them more in change.

### **8.2.3 Motivation**

The next question sought to elicit managers' views of methods used in the ADP to motivate employees to bring about change, as change is necessary for any individual or



society to remain in harmony with its environment. The same holds true for any business organization, and in fact it is more appropriate for the business sector, as the mechanism of supply and demand depends on it. As such, the leadership of any organization must create an atmosphere that encourages change and must also promote this among its members, giving them a sense of ownership. The leaders of the ADP were felt to promote change among employees in various ways. According to participant 8, the motivational approaches varied among leader, with some being relatively positive while others were more directives. Participant 10 also pointed out that motivation and following orders were both common in the ADP. Participant 7 noted that “there are many awards to support change”, but suggested that “we need a good mechanism to give these awards”. Participant 9 mentioned several ways in which the leaders motivated the employees to change: by involving them, by clarifying the goals of change and its causes, and through training and the continuous development of skills and abilities. Participant 1 identified “strong vision and clear processes” as the factors that bring about change, while Participant 3 described the leadership style as being “built on change management by using a Benchmarking Programme Committee”, thus indicating that the ADP’s benchmarking programmes were quite instrumental in change. On the other hand, participants 4 and 5 were of the belief that the support and authority given by management to employees helped to bring about change and that sponsorship of service management was another factor responsible for bringing about change. Thus, it can be seen that the ADP leadership was perceived to have various ways of bringing about change among its employees.

#### **8.2.4 Communication**

The next question asked about the leadership’s efforts to communicate with employees and to involve them in change. Employee involvement has become quite important for various reasons, one of the most important being that involved employees will feel that they are

part of the organization and tend to take responsibility for their own decisions. Effective communication regarding changes in the organization also enables employees to remain informed and to accept changes more positively, as compared to when things come as a surprise. According to almost all participants, the ADP involved its employees in many ways, including through periodic meetings, interactions, magazines, announcements, official circulars and correspondence, more advanced tools like an official short message service, workshops, suggestion forms and the sharing of awards for excellence. Participant 10 emphasized that the meetings should be more effective in communicating the change process and the outcomes of organizational change. Similarly, participant 6 believed that employees were merely informed and not involved in the changes: “By using orders for work to proceed. No consultation”. Participant 5 mentioned the sharing of “awards for excellence that they can apply and motivate them as well”, while participant 7 believed that the ADP needed to improve its communication and its involvement of employees:

*[Prt7]: Regarding communication, managers use official letters, workshops and conferences to communicate with employees. However, managers need to listen to their employees, rather than give them directions and orders to change. Many managers use communication tools to give orders rather than listen, while I think managers need more communication skills. In terms of involvement, I think it's very poor. I think participation is only for those employees who have a management position. However, employees on the front line have often been ignored when it comes to participating in change.*

### **8.2.5 Delegation and empowerment**

The interviewees were then asked their opinions on the delegation of authority, which is an effective approach for involving employees in the functions of an organization. With authority, responsibility must also be assigned to employees for carrying out work. Empowering employees by delegating authority and responsibility can be a significant tool for bringing about change ,because they can have a different way of looking at things

which comes from being involved in the day-to-day operations of the organization, a perspective which maybe absent in upper management. In the ADP, according to participant 5, leaders delegated authority and empowered employees to bring about change by providing them with the necessary support. Participant 3 believed that scholarships were an effective method of providing benchmarking and best practice, while participant 4 was of the view that investing in people could have a significant impact on bringing about change. The other participants stated that they were not clear about the strategy adopted by the leadership to delegate and empower employees. Participant 2 gave no details, saying simply, “They choose the right person when delegating authority for a work assignment and let the team know who is in charge. ”Participants 7 and 9 agreed that delegation of authority was rather weak and constituted a major problem, because some leaders were afraid to delegate their authority for fear of making a mistake in the prevailing blame culture. Participate 8 thought that the delegation of authority had improved recently because the ADP’s workload was expanding to include more demanding projects and tasks, whereas participant 10 thought that leaders delegated authority only to certain personnel under certain circumstances:

*[Prt10]: Leaders do delegate authority to some employees, but not all. They only delegate to some who they can rely on to get things done when they are not present. This is because they think not all of them can have work delegated to them, because it is based on trust, not based on polices or rules, to avoid blame and mistakes.*

Overall, managers thus addressed a few underlying problems in the delegation of authority, such as a conservative culture, being afraid of mistakes and having an unclear strategy. The topic of the negative influence of culture is covered further in the next subsection

### 8.2.6 Organizational culture

The last two questions asked interviewees' opinions on the impact of culture on implementing change and on leadership style. First, organizational culture defines the way an organization operates. It has a significant influence on the working of the enterprise, as it describes the general thinking of the employees and the organization as a whole. Organizational culture also has an impact on the way change is implemented; for instance, if the culture is open and employees adapt readily to new things, then changes will be easily accepted. According to the interviewees, culture has a definite influence on the way change is implemented at the ADP. According to the majority of the interviewees, the ADP's paramilitary organizational culture meant that changes were implemented in a controlled manner and that employees were quick to react to change. Thus, culture was seen as having an important impact on the implementation of change. It was also again suggested that the organization was affected by a blame culture, as can be seen from the following interview extract:

*[Prt7]: Our society has been affected by a blame culture. We blame the person who makes a mistake. Therefore, many managers prefer to centralize decision-making and do not delegate authority, in order to avoid blame. Therefore, we have a blame culture. Also, we do not have an evaluation culture. Our culture considers evaluation as criticism. In order to be successful, the evaluation culture should be improved. In my view, the ADP is dominated by the concept of instantaneous change. I mean that employees want to see the effects of change straight away, which is difficult. Change takes time and people should look to the long term rather than the short term.*

One interviewee acknowledged the effects of organizational culture on change implementation and pointed out that strong competition, an integral part of the ADP's organizational culture, had both positive and negative effects:

*[Prt8]:Organizational culture certainly has its affects on change implementation. It does so by a tendency among employees towards involving themselves in the details of operational processes. The nature of police officers' work requires them to ask the details of any operation or process. In addition, due to the size of the ADP, competition is high and sometimes this issue produces negative as well as positive effects, which result in challenges to the process of change implementation.*

Two other participants identified some negative aspects of the culture, which might influence the leadership:

*[Prt9]:Cultural factors play a large and influential role in making a difference in the culture of the Abu Dhabi Police. Fear of decision-making and fear of change and the absence of organizational justice in some quarters. The whole culture of negative effects.*

*[Prt10]: The ADP is a unique organization with a unique culture that is rooted in the fact that Arabs are afraid of mistakes during any new process. Also, favouritism is part of Arab culture, where you may assign people that you favour over others to be engaged in change, even if they do not fully understand the change or the implementation of change very well. This may affect the process or delay it sometimes.*

Secondly, culture is an important part of the working of an organization and has an impact on its leaders as well. The leadership is influenced by the organizational culture, since the leaders are part of the entity and work in accordance with its overall ethos. In the case of the ADP, the participants agreed that culture affected the leadership style. As the ADP is a police organization, its competitive and directive culture makes its leaders adopt a similar approach, as pointed out by participants 2, 3 and 4, while participant 1 expressed the view that the leaders tended to adopt the approach of becoming knowledgeable in every possible area, since the police culture required them to interact with different types of people in a variety of circumstances. Participants 5, 6, 9 and 10 agreed that culture influenced the leadership in some ways. In particular, participant 6 suggested that the leadership was

influenced by Arab culture in its adoption of an authoritarian and centralized style, while participant 9 said that the culture of fear of error influenced the leadership style by making it more authoritarian and less free. Finally, participant 10 declared that the ADP's leaders were sometimes uncertain in making decisions because they were afraid of not making the right one and because they assumed that everything should be done perfectly, which is impossible.

### **8.3 Document analysis**

In order to offer a valid, triangulated argument, documentation evidence was also included in the present study. The selection covered all the necessary information and materials needed from recent official documents produced by the Abu Dhabi Police and dealing with organizational change. Several strategic documents were reviewed and analyzed with a special focus on leadership and organizational culture.

Specifically, the ADP Five-Year Strategic Development Plan (2003-2007), the ADP Strategic Plan (2008-2012) and Change Management in the ADP (2008) were reviewed. The last of these documents states that the Commander General of the ADP recognised that a new vision and strategic plan were required to deal with rapid changes in the external environment, such as fast economic growth in Abu Dhabi and the UAE, a more vibrant mix of cultures, greater expectations of service quality from the community, increasing numbers of high-income tourists and growth in the number of reported crimes (Change Management in the ADP, 2008:5).

Thus, a 'new vision' was developed for the ADP: "To be the most operationally effective police force possible in one of the safest countries in the world" (Five-Year Strategic Development Plan, 2003:4). In order to implement this vision, the ADP developed the Five-Year Plan (2003-2007) and the subsequent Strategic Plan (2008-2012), themed 'Progressive Police for a Modern City'. Both of these plans addressed many

important aspects of agency operations including future technology acquisition, employee career development and the restructuring of departments to better serve the community.

The outlines of the two strategic plans are as follows:

***Five-Year Plan 2003-2007***

1. Focusing on all of the operational efforts in order to maintain stability, reducing crime, promoting reassurance and safety within our communities.
2. Building the trust and confidence of our communities by effective consultation and effective communication.
3. Improving the quality of our service and of our overall performance.
4. Achieving best value in the delivery of our service.
5. Developing the talents and abilities of all members of ADP to achieve our professional goals.
6. Promoting corporate and individual honesty, ethics & integrity.
7. Providing equipment, buildings and technology which promote the delivery of effective and efficient services (Source: Five-Year Strategic Development Plan, 2003:4).

***Strategic Plan 2008-2012***

1. Controlling crime
2. Making the most of our people through the implementation of the best international practices
3. Increasing community confidence in police and public safety services
4. Maintaining the safety and security of Abu Dhabi
5. Providing all policing operations with functional support (Source: Strategic Plan for ADP, 2008:7).

Furthermore, the ADP leadership' simple mention of its vision and strategic planning was described in reports of the Government of Abu Dhabi in 2007 and 2009. The report on the ADP's performance, based on the Abu Dhabi Excellence programme, suggested that the ADP leadership had "developed vision and strategy based on clear

procedures through the Total Quality Management Team and then revised by all Departments” (2007:14). It was confirmed in a subsequent report that the ADP leadership had “developed vision and strategy in participation with departmental managements” and had “developed new values and culture related to policing behaviours” (2009: 11). Above all, these documents suggest that the ADP leadership had indeed developed a new vision and strategic plan which were the results of a joint effort of all departmental managers.

The document analysis shows that the ADP recognized the importance of motivation and reward programmes in implementing successful organizational change. The Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:4) states that that “Leaders are working to provide a suitable environment to support and encourage creativity and innovation within ADP”. Thus, there are three main awards:

1. The Policing Innovation Award, which was launched in 2004 in different fields such as management, security and policing;
2. The General Manager of Human Resources Award, which was launched in 2006; and
3. The Interior Minister Award for Innovation and Development, which was launched in 2008.

The main objectives of such awards are “to promote the implementation of the overall strategic goals, to encourage the development of work processes and to improve the quality of services” (EFQM Submission Report, 2008:4). The above discussion strongly suggests that the ADP had an integrated reward philosophy to encourage employee innovation and to support each step of the organization’s change initiative.

In addition, the ADP had made substantial efforts in training. The Excellence Award Submission Report (2008) shows that there was a continuous increase in the proportion of trainees in the ADP from 2005 to 2007. In 2005, only about a third (33.93%)



of all ADP employees received training, whereas half (50.75%) did so in 2006 and the percentage rose to 56.27% in 2007 (Excellence Award Submission Report, 2008:54). This commitment to training was also reflected in the ADP's efforts to improve leadership skills at high, middle and lower levels, as described in the Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:7-8):

Since 2003, ADP has been providing different levels of leadership training such as programmes in Organizational Excellence, Strategic Planning and Project Management and a Diploma in Change Management, in order to give leaders the skills and abilities to manage change and excellence. Also, ADP sent some leaders at different levels to the United Kingdom, Germany and Malaysia in order to participate in conferences and workshops in Organizational Excellence.

Besides training efforts, the ADP leadership also allocated sufficient resources to implement change. The Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:10) describes the ADP's resource allocation activities as follows:

They support the implementation of the Comprehensive Police Station Project by providing (1) appropriate human resources, (2) equipment, electronic devices and techniques, (3) specialized training courses and (4) appropriate data and information.

Lastly, the ADP used a diverse set of communication techniques to deliver appropriate messages regarding its change initiative. The Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:11) states:

Leaders have attempted to communicate messages of change through internal communication tools such as meetings, open-door policy, official correspondence and site visits. For example, the Strategic Department conducted a series of meetings and workshops with departmental managers and sections managers regarding Total Quality Management. Also, liaison officers were appointed to carry out communication with each department".

However, unfavourable comments were found in the Feedback Report on ADP Performance (2009:14), which states that “although ADP attempted to communicate the vision, values and mission, there is no clear evidence that employees understand them”.

In summary, organizational leadership behaviours have a direct influence on actions in the work environment that enable change. The document analysis supports the contention that the ADP leadership had developed a clear vision and strategic plan, engaging multiple approaches to ensure that change initiatives were executed successfully, although the outcome of its communication efforts to support change appears to have been less satisfactory.

## **CHAPTER NINE**

### **DISCUSSION**

#### **9.1 Introduction**

The main purpose of the present study was to examine employees' perceptions of the ADP's leadership and the impact of culture on the process of implementing changes and on the style of that leadership. A mixed methodology was adopted, which proved instrumental in capturing the viewpoints of employees with different educational backgrounds, work experiences and job positions.

Overall, the findings suggest that the ADP used a planned approach when implementing changes, which is preferred by those exercising a command and control leadership style. All three data analyses confirm that the ADP's new vision and strategic plan were developed by the joint effort of all departmental managers. These results can be explained by noting the influence on the ADP of the predominant Arab culture, characterised by avoidance of uncertainty, so that leaders prefer a top-down approach to change in order to resolve ambiguous situations. This finding is in accord with those of the authors of previous studies including Rees and Althakhri (2008), who report that a planned approach to change is preferred in Arab culture.

The following sections discuss the findings related to each research question in more depth.

#### **9.2 Leadership**

There is a large volume of published studies describing the role of leadership in the success of change management (e.g. Kotter, 1996; Zeffane, 1996; Landrum et al, 2000; Higgs and Rowland, 2000; 2001; Kanter, 2000; Taylor-Bianco and Schermerhorn, 2006; Wren and Dulewicz, 2005; Karsten et al, 2009). A review of empirical studies allows the present study to conclude that the most dominant styles used by leaders, which enable them to lead

an organization effectively during change, should reflect the ability to: (1) developing vision and values for change, (2) developing and detailing of change plan, (3) communicating change, (4) delegating and empowering team and (5) motivating & involvement in change. Each of these abilities is discussed below, as is leadership style itself, beginning with the ability receiving the highest overall evaluation score and ending with the one receiving the lowest.

### **9.2.1 Vision and change plan**

The section of the survey on a clear vision for change received the second highest overall evaluation scores. Specifically, positive perceptions about the following aspects were relatively strong: logical reasons for change ( $M=4.09$ ), understanding how change will be helpful in the long term ( $M=4.44$ ), having an indication of how change will impact the job ( $M=4.30$ ), understanding why change is happening and necessary ( $M=3.58$ ), the relevance of vision to change ( $M=3.91$ ) and being provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project ( $M=3.10$ ). These results corroborate the interview findings, as all but one interviewee believed that the vision was clearly understood. In a planned change initiative, the leader must have a clear vision and a plan that both involves people in the change and ensures that there is a support infrastructure for the change. From this standpoint, the ADP's leadership was effective at creating a clear picture about the change.

However, the results demonstrate that groups of respondents with different working experience and job positions had different perceptions. In particular, respondents with either less than 5 years or more than 15 years of experience appeared to have more favourable perceptions than those with 5-15 years' experience, while respondents who held a higher position also tended to have more favourable perceptions. This was generally expected, since respondents with higher positions were more involved in implementing the

change; they were also more aware of the vision statement and thus appeared to be more optimistic. Respondents with more than 15 years of experience are likely to have viewed change more positively because their longer experience gave them a better understanding of the vision statement than those with 5-15 years. On the other hand, respondents with less than 5 years of experience are likely to have been younger and more open-minded and thus tended to absorb new information more easily. As to job position, respondents who were managers of a department or a section provided a significantly more positive evaluation than branch managers. This was also expected, as senior managers were more involved in the change process than were the relatively junior branch managers, which perhaps gave them a stronger belief that the vision was clearly understood.

In this study, respondents were asked to evaluate six statements about employees' understanding of the ADP's strategy plan, vision, mission and value statement, such as whether the vision was consistent with the strategy and whether the mission interpreted the vision. The majority of respondents (>70%) agreed with these statements to a large extent, illustrating the leadership's effectiveness making these key components of implementing changes clear and understandable to the employees. Interview analysis results coincided with the survey analysis results in that all participants agreed that the mission, vision and values of the ADP were clear and understandable. This further confirms that the ADP's leadership had established a clear vision and shared it with employees. However, a few negative aspects were identified. For example, the vision may have been less clear for employees in junior positions and it was suggested that more effective communications were needed.

The document analysis results were also consistent with those of the interviews and questionnaire. The Feedback Report on ADP Performance (2009:14) reports that "although ADP attempted to communicate the vision, values and mission, there is no clear

evidence that employees understand them”. In summary, all three types of analysis show that the ADP leadership had developed a clear vision and strategic plan, using numerous approaches to ensure that change initiatives were executed successfully. However, the outcome of the communication of change efforts was less satisfactory, in that some employees understood, whereas others found it to be somewhat confusing.

### **9.2.2 Leadership style**

‘Leadership style’ received the third most positive evaluation scores, although not all questions related to this factor received positive ratings. Specifically, respondents disagreed that ‘Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department’ ( $M=2.76$ ) and agreed moderately with statements that their managers were flexible when expecting good performance ( $M=3.17$ ), motivated them to create and use new methods ( $M=3.18$ ) and demanded that they comply completely with procedures ( $M=3.92$ ). Furthermore, respondents who were managers of a department showed a significantly more positive belief than did respondents with no managerial position, which was expected, because managers who were part of the change process tended to be more positive than employees who were affected by the changes.

The interview results provided further details regarding managers’ and experts’ perceptions of the leadership style at the ADP. Interviewees tended to view the leadership as employing strong command and control across the organization and some mentioned that occasional differences between directorates caused confusion. A study by Fyfe et al (1997) showed that policing systems traditionally employed a command and control leadership style. This style focuses on leadership from the top, leading to officers at the bottom being told what to do instead of empowering them to make decisions (Steinheider and Wuestewald, 2008). Therefore, it has been criticized as less effective in motivating its

employees (Ginger, 2003). A number of studies have shown that police forces continue to adopt this style of leadership (Fyfe et al, 1997; Silvestri, 2007).

Interviewees 1 and 2 described the ADP leadership as strong and very directive. Ronald et al (2008) found that under a directive leadership style, since the leader gives specific guidance and tells the subordinates what to do, they tend to be excluded from decision-making. Because of the authoritative nature of directive leadership, employees may be less likely to adopt management's vision or values if they are excluded from the decision-making process. Therefore, directive leadership is not effective in creating the necessary culture for shared values (Bass, 1981). This may explain why both the first and second interviewees suggested that staff had some difficulty in implementing changes. Interviewee 5 agreed that the ADP's leadership was directive, while interviewee 6 stated that there was a highly disciplined approach to management, which also suggests a directive leadership style.

These interview responses coincide with the questionnaire results in that ADP's leadership was viewed as directive and strong in style, which may have resulted in the negative rating regarding teamwork. Haberfeld (2006) argues that teamwork may not appear to work well in policing due to the long-standing hierarchal structure. In addition, teamwork suffers under conditions of poor communication. Given the fact that the items on communication received overall negative ratings, ineffective communication among employees from different levels may have contributed to the negative responses regarding teamwork. The ADP must realize that teamwork enables members to work cooperatively to achieve more than what they could by working independently (Trent, 2004). In a rapidly changing world, teamwork has been found to be essential to accomplish organization tasks in response to serious challenges (Towry, 2003).

In contrast to the others, interviewee 3 thought that the ADP's leaders inspired all employees to appreciate the organization's vision, suggesting a participative leadership style. Participative leadership involves inspiring and subordinates and consulting them to elicit their opinions and suggestions. Yousef (2000) found that such leadership made employees more committed to their organization and improved their performance. This finding is consistent with the responses to survey item 12, showing that employees overall disagreed that their managers enjoyed giving orders to others ( $M=2.41$ ). The rest of the interviewees suggested that the ADP's leadership adopted mixed styles. For example, interviewees 4, 8 and 9 thought that it was both supportive and directive, whereas interviewee 7 listed three leadership styles: supportive, neutral and resistive. Interviewee 9 said that authoritarian, democratic and free styles were all used, but he also emphasized that the most common was the absent authoritarian style.

Democratic leaders are also participative leaders, who exhibit a pioneering, imaginative and adventuresome mind-set in order to empower employees to make decisions involving the organization (Smith, 2008). Such leaders reward employees through financial gains and positive evaluations, which in turn increase motivation and morale (Murphy, 2005). This is consistent with the responses to survey item 25, showing that employees overall indicated that they were satisfied with their financial grades and other benefits that they received from the organization ( $M=4.34$ ). Overall, the present study indicates that ADP leaders do not appear to have employed a single leadership style in all situations. Today's law enforcement agencies are facing a dynamic environment and thus the appropriate leadership style varies from situation to situation. The ADP's leaders must be able to use a variety of leadership styles depending on task, mission and individuals, in order to be successful in today's rapidly changing society.



### 9.2.3 Delegation and empowerment

“Delegation and empowerment in change” was next in line in terms of overall evaluation scores. Empowerment emphasizes teamwork and reflects the value of equality. According to Sanders (1994), the degree to which a leader is able to delegate work is a measure of his success. Similarly, various other studies show that leaders enable others to act not by holding the power they have but by giving it away (e.g. Fairholm, 1998; Kouzes and Posnes, 1995). Clearly, delegation ensures improved decision quality and greater subordinate commitment to decisions.

In terms of the empowerment and delegation perceived to be exercised by the ADP's leadership, the questionnaire findings were essentially positive, reporting that managers delegated the authority to perform change tasks ( $M=3.22$ ) and empowered employees during changes ( $M=3.79$ ). However, there was an overall negative response to item 44 on managers following up delegated tasks ( $M=2.45$ ) and to item 48: ‘My manager encourages me to monitor my own performance related to change’ ( $M=2.46$ ). The interview results reflect this mixed picture, revealing a lack of agreement between interviewees regarding delegating authority; indeed, a majority said that leaders were afraid to delegate their authority due to the blame culture. It can thus be said that ADP leaders were perceived as delegating authority but being afraid of being blamed for mistakes. The conclusion is that the ADP is dominated by a blame culture. This result confirmed by previous studies (e.g. Aarons and Carmazzi, 2005), which indicate that leaders in Arab culture are afraid to delegate because of the blame culture.

Some interview participants were unclear as to the strategies of delegation adopted by the ADP. For example, two interviewees said that they were not clear about this topic, while another thought that delegation was the main problem at the ADP, again citing the fear related to the blame culture. Several interviewees also thought that delegation of

authority was weak in the ADP, including interviewee 10, who asserted that leaders delegated authority only to certain people, due to the blame culture. These rather negative views about delegation may reflect that fact that ADP's leaders primarily employed a highly centralized and bureaucratically controlled paramilitary leadership style. The drawback of such a style, as described by Fyfe et al (1997), is that it focuses on leadership at the top and not at all on the officers at the bottom, which leads to a lack of empowerment. Palmberg (2009) highlights the need for a strong follow-up system in order to have a strong delegation of responsibility. Therefore, the ADP should improve its leadership efficiency by developing a better follow-up programme and employee monitoring system to ensure that delegated tasks are well executed.

The survey results also show that respondents with less than 5 years of experience were more positive than those with 5-10 years of experience, reflecting the fact that the expectations of employees with longer experience were higher in terms of delegation. Empowerment is "the awareness of a person's potential talents, gifts, and power and how a person can contribute to the organization's goals" (Wolf, Boland & Aukerman, 1994). ADP leaders must consider that employees with different work experience may have different needs and they must make an effort to transform the ADP into a place where people are empowered and supported in their personal and professional growth, in order to reach long-term goals.

#### **9.2.4 Communicating change**

'Communicating change to employees' received overall negative ratings, which indicates that ADP leaders were relatively ineffective in communicating with their employees about change. In particular, respondents did not agree with the statements 'My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department' ( $M=2.28$ ), 'Information related to change is shared openly in this department' ( $M=2.44$ )

and ‘Our manager keeps us informed of changes to the department/organization in time’ ( $M=2.85$ ). The interviews showed similar outcomes. Although interviewees did mention various ways in which the ADP communicated with employees, they pointed out several shortcomings, which need further improvement.

Specifically, the first interviewee stated that consultation, face-to-face meetings and briefing sessions were used for communication, the second mentioned staff meetings, the third referred to messages, magazines and announcements, while the fourth stated that various methods were used, but did not give examples. The fifth interviewee mentioned awards and the sixth interviewee said that leaders used orders for work to proceed, which is reflective of the command-and-control leadership style. Similarly, interviewee 7 observed that managers tended to give directions and orders. This is consistent with a previous study (Silvestri, 2007) showing that most police leaderships remained unwilling to share information within the organization and continued to foster their centralized culture through the use of hierarchy and rank; thus, they produced quasi-militaristic officers who were disciplined and followed orders within a bureaucracy. The rest of the interviewees provided further examples of communication tools used at the ADP, such as meetings, official circulars, correspondence, periodic meetings, official letters and conferences.

These findings are consistent with the document analysis, which showed that the ADP used a diverse set of communication techniques to deliver appropriate messages regarding change initiatives. The Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:11) states:

Leaders have attempted to communicate messages of change through internal communication tools such as meetings, open-door policy, official correspondence and site visits. For example, the Strategic Department conducted a series of meetings and workshops with departmental managers and sections managers regarding Total Quality

Management. Also, liaison officers were appointed to carry out communication with each department.

However, improvements in communication are still needed. First, the interviewees thought that managers needed to listen to their employees rather than giving them directions and orders to change, and that managers needed more communication skills. Similarly, the Feedback Report on ADP Performance (2009:14) states “although ADP attempted to communicate the vision, values and mission, there is no clear evidence that employees understand them”.

Previous studies have found that leading change requires the use of a diverse set of communication techniques to deliver appropriate messages, solicit feedback, create readiness for change, along with a sense of urgency, and motivate recipients to act. Consequently, communications should be frequent and enthusiastic (Lewis et al, 2006). On the other hand, inaccurate or unfulfilled communications may lead to employee perceptions of misrepresentation and violation of trust (Folger and Skarlicki, 1999; Tomlinson et al, 2004). In the present study, respondents disagreed with statements that their managers transferred ideas from top management to appropriate people in the department ( $M=2.28$ ), that information related to change was shared openly ( $M=2.44$ ), that their managers had kept them informed of the changes ( $M=2.85$ ) and that they were encouraged to ask questions to ensure that change messages were clear ( $M=2.81$ ).

No significant differences were found among groups of respondents with different education qualification, work experiences and job positions, indicating that the negative beliefs regarding communication were shared by the entire sample. Communicating a vision of change is essential for any significant business process change to occur (Kettinger and Grover, 1995). Earlier studies have demonstrated that in the context of planned organizational change, the leaders should explain why the change is needed and

discuss the nature of change, thereby reducing employees' confusion and uncertainty (Fiol et al, 1999; Kotter, 1995). Therefore, as change agents, the ADP's leaders should seek more effective ways to communicate with employees, such as providing a more detailed explanation of the rationale for change, addressing employees' questions and concerns, and exploring ways to improve their acceptance of and participation in change.

### **9.2.5 Motivating and Involving Employees**

The results of the survey questionnaire, interviews and document analysis revealed that of the five abilities listed above, plus leadership style, 'Motivating employees to change' received the highest overall evaluation scores. Appropriate questions were designed to measure the behaviour of the ADP's leadership with respect to motivating employees, such as questions about rewards, the work environment, benefits and opportunities. Positive perceptions were observed for all of these aspects, which suggests that the ADP leadership had been effective in motivating employees to change. One of the primary responsibilities of a leader is to get employees to produce desirable results through specific behaviours. To do this, the leader very often has to motivate employees to change their behaviours. ADP employees agreed relatively strongly that the leaders created an environment that enabled them to carry out change and made them feel valued, and that they received the training they needed to improve their skills so that they could make the desired changes. In addition, they felt that their workplace was comfortable and that their work was important. They agreed moderately that their managers provided rewards for their performance, tried to make them amenable to change and provided adequate opportunities for professional growth. According to a previous study (Wiley, 1995), good wages, full appreciation for work done and promotion and growth in the organization were among the top five factors that motivate employees to change. Therefore, the ADP should focus on developing a

better reward system and providing more opportunities for professional growth in the future.

The viewpoints of employees with different educational backgrounds, work experiences and job positions also were evaluated and compared. The results demonstrate that all three factors affected respondents' perceptions of the leaders' ability to motivate employees to change. Specifically, respondents with a high school education tended to be more satisfied with the leadership than those with a bachelor degree; those with 5-10 years or more than 15 years of experience tended to be more satisfied than those with 10-15 years of experience; and non-managerial respondents tended to be more satisfied than those who were managers of a branch. Typically, branch managers who were well educated and had 10-15 years of experience were mid-level employees, who might need more recognition and opportunities to fulfil their career ambitions. Therefore, they demanded more and had a less positive perception than other groups of employees. These results are consistent with motivation theories (Ramlall, 2004), which posit that employees have different motivational needs depending on their current and desired economic and social status, career aspirations and other factors.

Interview analysis shows that the ADP used a variety of means to motive its employees. For example, interviewee 1 said that a strong vision and clear process motivated employees to bring about change. Menzies (2007) argues out that police leaders who can build a collective vision will have a major emotional impact on their employees. The present study supports this claim, as interviewee 1 felt motivated when the vision was strong and clear. Interviewee 2 claimed that creating a work environment, which elicited employee motivation, was important, indicating that leaders have the responsibility to create a motivating working environment. These results indicate that ADP's leaders were effective in providing a positive work environment to motivate their employees. This is

consistent with the survey findings that overall, respondents strongly agreed with the following two statements: 'My manager creates an environment that enables me to carry out change' ( $M=4.32$ ) and 'My workplace is a comfortable place to work' ( $M=4.26$ ).

Interviewee 3 reported that leaders built on change management by using a benchmarking programme committee to motivate employees to bring about change. The committee worked to improve the way they created a vision and made it happen through planning, strategic management and involvement of employees. Therefore, interviewee 3 viewed it as an effective way to motivate the employees to bring about change. Interviewee 4 responded that support for new ideas and suggestions, and an open-door culture motivated employees to bring about change. Pugh and Hickson (1993) argue that a supportive relationship between leaders and employees enables better achievement and promotes change in organizations. Interviewee 5 mentioned that giving employees authority to suggest new projects and implement them was important, thus supporting the importance of empowerment in implementing change. Jogulu & Wood (2007) assert that effective leadership must empower employees to accept the challenges that change will bring. Interviewee 6 stated that change occurred under the sponsorship of service management. While it is less clear how this would motivate employees to bring about change, it does emphasise the function of service management in implementing change.

Interviewee 7 mentioned the value of awards. This is consistent with survey results showing that respondents agreed on average ( $M=3.14$ ) that their managers offered rewards for their good performance which was compatible with change (item 20). Several previous studies (e.g. Webb, 2007; Chan & Chan, 2005; Murphy, 2005) have found that employees who received rewards for accomplishments were more motivated and that leaders were more apt to report success in their employees. The eighth interviewee said that the approaches used by the leadership varied, in that some used positive approaches

while others used a more directive approach. Positive approaches can inspire motivation, by paying particular attention to an individual employee's need for personal growth, advancement and achievement. Survey results show that employees agreed that they received the training they needed to improve skills ( $M=4.44$ ) and had adequate opportunities for professional growth within their department ( $M=3.74$ ). Directive approaches may include rewards, as already mentioned. The document analysis results also supported the premise that ADP employed effective methods to motivate employees such as training and awards, as described in the Excellence Award Submission Report (2008:10): "They support the implementation of the Comprehensive Police Station Project by providing (1) appropriate human resources, (2) equipment, electronic devices and techniques, (3) specialized training courses and (4) appropriate data and information". Interviewee 9 stated that leaders motivated employees to change through their involvement, by clarifying the goals of change and its causes, and through training and the continuous development of skills and abilities. This view coincides with several previous interviewees' responses in terms of training and clear vision as methods to motivate employees. Additionally, it emphasizes employees' involvement. Bass (1981) suggests that employees who were more involved were more likely to commit to changes.

The last interviewee also mentioned rewards, but he tended to be less positive about it. He viewed the way in which leaders motivated employees as similar to that used in a paramilitary organization. Overall, interviewees noted that the various methods that the ADP employed to motivate its employees, such as creating a pleasant work environment, supporting new ideas and suggestions, having an open-door culture, delegating authority, providing rewards, supporting involvement, clarifying the goals of change and offering training, helped it to be very effective in motivating employees to implement change.



#### 9.2.5.1 Involving employees in change

The ADP leadership also appeared to be inefficient in ensuring the involvement of employees in change, as this issue also received a negative overall evaluation. Specifically, respondents disagreed that their managers chose the right time for meetings ( $M=2.92$ ) and shared their thoughts with employees ( $M=2.53$ ). They also disagreed with the statement that their manager always followed up on the consequences of decisions related to changes that they made ( $M=2.07$ ). The comparison among groups with different characteristics showed that the respondents with a lower level of education and a lower job position tended to be more negative. This finding suggests that at the ADP, managers and more educated employees were more closely involved in implementing change, while those with a lower job position and less education seemed to be left out. Most interview participants indicated that the ADP involved employees through meetings and interactions, but the responses were not very positive. One interviewee claimed that involvement was very poor and stressed that only top managers were involved, while front-line employees were often ignored.

The effectiveness of involving employees in change was thus less than satisfactory, as revealed by the survey results. A growing body of research suggests that employee involvement has a positive impact on change implementation and productivity (Huselid, 1995; Sims, 2002). For example, Risher (2003) reports that relinquishing control and allowing employees to make decisions yielded constructive results. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) explain that those allowed to participate meaningfully in change are more committed to its success, because their relevant contributions are integrated into the change plan. However, as a result of its culture and traditions, the ADP seemed to be relatively weak in this regard. Therefore, future action plans are critical to resolving the weaknesses

in communication and involvement and ensuring that both employees and managers are part of the process and its implementation.

### **9.2.6 Correlation among the six leadership characteristics**

Another important finding of the present study concerns the correlations among the six leadership characteristics analysed. All pairs of characteristics were found significantly correlated, except between clarity of vision and communication, between involvement and leadership style, between involvement and clarity of vision, and between involvement and motivation. Each non-significant correlation included a characteristic that had received a negative rating. Therefore, there is no doubt that these characteristics of leadership were intertwined. A successful leadership may consist of all six of these characteristics. This finding coincides with those of previous studies. For example, Drucker (1999), Denning (2005) and Williams (2001) have shown that successful change execution requires a facilitative management style which ensures that communication (including coaching, information sharing and appropriate feedback) mechanisms are in place, that worker involvement flourishes and that social networks (teams and collaboration) are supported.

## **9.3 Organizational culture**

Culture is an important part of how an organization works and has an impact on the leaders. However, few studies have investigated the impact of Arab culture on change, which limits the possibility of comparing the present findings with those of other empirical research. The present study examined how organizational culture affected the process of implementing change and explored the links between leadership and organizational culture. The following subsections discuss the research findings regarding these two aspects.

### 9.3.1 Organizational culture and implementing change

Organizational culture has consistently emerged as a critical variable in determining the success of efforts to implement institutional change (Curry, 1992; Hercleuous, 2001). Previous studies have demonstrated that knowledge of organizational culture plays an integral role in shaping an effective vision for change (Bate et al, 2000). Furthermore, organizational culture is associated with attitudes toward organizational change (Ahmed, 1998; Lorenzo, 1998). In this study, the interview results provide an understanding of the relationship between organizational culture and attitudes toward organizational change, particularly in the ADP context. Interviewee 1 explained that staff members at ADP tended to be quick to react to change once requirements were explained, which indicates that the ADP has a fast-paced working environment. Interviewees 2 and 4 mentioned the impact of the military-style organizational culture on change implementation, thus emphasizing the paramilitary nature of the organizational culture. Interviewee 3 referred to awareness and awards, while interviewee 5 mentioned ranks, which indicates that the ADP has a centralized culture with hierarchy and rank. This in and of itself continues to produce quasi-militaristic officers who are disciplined and who follow orders within a bureaucracy. Interviewee 6 acknowledged the impact of culture on the process of implementing change, but did not give further details. Interviewee 7 asserted that the blame culture in the ADP had resulted in a lack of delegation of authority.

According to Aarons and Carmazzi (2005), a blame culture cultivates distrust and fear, so that people blame each other to avoid being reprimanded or put down. The survey and interview data are consistent with a culture where people avoid new ideas or personal initiative because they do not want to risk being wrong, so that the delegation of authority appeared to be weak in the ADP. Therefore, the blame culture should be avoided in future. In addition, interviewee 7 stated that the ADP lacked an evaluation culture and that people

should look to the long term when implementing changes. Interviewee 8 suggested that the nature of police officers' work required them to be detail oriented and that the ADP was highly competitive; such an environment can positively or negatively affect the process of change implementation. Interviewee 9 indicated that the APD's leadership was fearful of making decisions or initiating change and that the absence of organizational justice in some quarters had negatively affected the change process.

Interviewee 10 mentioned the blame culture and favouritism, which were considered, negative aspects of the culture. Lee (2001) argues that favouritism has a negative value and hinders the openness of an organization. Nepotism describes a variety of practices related to favouritism. Hayajenh et al (1994) note that nepotism has maintained a particularly strong footing in the Arab world. They also indicate that the major factors behind nepotism in Arab countries include tribal and kinship relationships, alongside economic, educational and political structures. In order to address favouritism, the ADP should overcome the shortcomings of the traditional culture and restructure the organization to make it more open and democratic.

### **9.3.2 Organizational culture and leadership**

Thus use of different types of research makes it clear that the ADP leadership style is top-down. This means that the higher officials pass the orders and the other employees have to obey them. There are many advantages of the top-down approach; one is that if the department has low or few resources then the higher management can handle the resources very well, since it has to make the decisions and if they are aware of their resources then they can easily handle the resources in the best way. Top-down management also helps to maintain the same objectives throughout the organization because the orders are made from a central point so controlling is easy. Because the standards are set by the top management, everyone has to follow them, so there is no chance of random ideas floating

about the organization. The control is in the hands of the top management and employees have to follow its orders.

Regarding the leadership of the ADP, it is quite effective. The vision of the higher management was clear and the management tended to encourage change, empowerment and delegation in the organization. But the culture of the region made it was very difficult for the employees to adopt change. A significant challenge was the failure to communicate information about the changes to the employees; the higher management simply did not do this.

The analysis of the data also leads to the finding that evaluation of the leadership varied from group to group of employees. Some of them thought that the higher management was good enough and had good leadership skills and was using these in the right way, but many other employees had other opinions. Basically, the Arab culture has a great effect on the leadership style of the ADP. The culture is deeply rooted in to the organization and is not supportive enough to tolerate change. Hence the employees were not at all involved in the change process and because of the prevalent blame culture many of the leaders and high officials were afraid to make decisions in case the decision or anything to do with went wrong.

Meanwhile the ADP is making a praiseworthy effort to apply the transformational style for the support of employees. In this way employees are being motivated and getting inspired to work hard and work with full efficiency. The research found that ADP is now clearly changing its vision and strategic plan with the help of different approaches. Analysis of the data from the personal interviews finds that the top management is taking several steps to bring about change and improve the efficiency of the organization, but as stated earlier cultural issues are placing barriers in its way. Organizational culture plays an important role in improving the functions of the organization. In this scenario the

organizational culture has greatly affected the leadership because of the Arab cultural influence. The ADP still has a centralized command policy and has never involved employees in the decision making procedure at all. But now the organization is making some progress towards change that can help top management to adopt the best leadership style.

This analysis of the data which were extracted with the help of questionnaires, interviews and documents helps to support different approaches to implementing change. Because employees can help in the decision making for the organization, higher management should involve them. The research shows that the leadership of the ADP is influenced by Arab cultural assumptions. As the leaders of the ADP are afraid of being blamed for any kind of mishap due to their decisions, they hesitate to even try to adopt new and innovative things and concepts. They are afraid of making mistakes and thus not attracted to making changes. To change the culture of a place is very difficult and can take years; hence, only now have managers become willing to take risks by introducing change in their organization. Mostly Arab culture seeks to avoid uncertainty, so a mixed type of leadership and a planned change process may be most appropriate for the ADP.

The ADP has to clear its vision and motivate employees in order to implement effective leadership. It can make itself stronger by involving its employees in the change process, for this will gain the trust of the employees and in any case if anything goes wrong then no-one will blame others. Leadership style and organizational culture are two most important elements for any organization to implement change. The study suggests that the strong management and effective leadership are required from higher management to implement change.

The ADP is under the influence of Arab culture in general and the organizational culture of the police as an institution in particular. In general, leadership behaviour in Arab

societies is influenced by both tribal traditions and Western methods. Previous studies (Badawy, 1980; Kalantari, 2005) have demonstrated that leadership style in such an environment can be highly authoritarian and hierarchical. Hierarchy cultures place importance on doing work the correct way by following existing procedures, with an emphasis on efficiency and smooth-running operations. In Arab organizations, innovative and creative styles of problem solving are not commonly adopted and organizational problems are settled in terms of tribal and cultural values (Jerisat, 2004). Therefore, major characteristics of these organizations are hierarchical power, compliance of regulations and laws with personalities, instability and hesitance in decision-making, paternalism in leadership, nepotism at high levels and open-door policies (Taleghani et al, 2010). In particular, the ADP is also under the influence of the police organizational culture. Traditional policing has relied on an authoritarian and bureaucratic model and law enforcement is rather slow to change (Densten, 2003).

The present study indicates that culture has played an important role in the implementation of change and the leadership approach adopted by the ADP management. Clearly, both Arab culture and policing organizational culture have influenced the way in which change was implemented at the ADP. The qualitative analysis shows that the majority of interviewees viewed the ADP as having a paramilitary organizational culture believing that changes were implemented in a controlled manner. As a police organization, its competitiveness and directive culture caused its leaders to adopt a corresponding leadership style.

Interviewee 1 stated that leaders occasionally appeared to believe that their role required them to be experts on everything within their business area. This could be viewed as reflecting a less effective leadership style. The most effective leadership styles reinforce the premise that leaders need to know what they need and be confident enough in their

positions. Leadership styles that demand all-encompassing leadership expertise motivate other team members. Interviewee 2 stated that leaders seemed to believe that they need to be more directive than most police leader is on international benchmark forces. This was consistent with answers to the leadership style items in the questionnaire, which indicate that a directive leadership style was employed at the ADP. Interviewees 3 and 4 mentioned a competitive culture at the ADP. A competitive culture may motivate employees, which could be viewed as a positive aspect of the organizational culture. Interviewee 5 did not give details of how culture influenced the leadership, although he did recognize that it did so. Interviewee 6 stressed that the authoritarian Arab culture, in the centralized form, influenced leadership style. This response was in agreement with a previous study suggesting that most Arab organizations are managed under such leadership style (Jerisat, 2004). Interviewee 7 again mentioned the blame culture. In addition, he stressed that some leaders regard evaluation as criticism, which hinders the openness of the organization. Interviewee 8 reported that the directive style was used and that hesitancy to delegate and the use of a ranking system had affected the relationship between leaders and employees within the more junior ranks. Interviewee 9 stated that the culture of fear of errors had influenced the leadership, making it more authoritarian and less free. Interviewee 10 noted that leaders sometimes felt uncertain in making decisions because they were afraid of making mistakes.

Overall, the interviewees identified several major characteristics of the leadership in Arab culture. According to Jerisat (2004), the tribal and cultural values in Arab countries have led to the adoption of the Sheikh leadership system, with the following specifications: 1- hierarchical power, 2- compliance with regulations and laws with personalities, 3- priority of relation on order, 4- instability and hesitance in decision making, 5- paternalism in leadership, 6- nepotism at high levels, 7- open-door policies. Here, interviewees



identified three of these as applying to the ADP: hierarchy, weak decision-making and nepotism. Similarly, a study by Taleghani et al (2010) found that leadership under the influence of Arab culture tends to be hierarchical and hesitant in decision-making.

The quantitative survey results of the present study show that on average, respondents agreed that their managers required them to comply completely with the organizational procedures and that communication usually took place in the form of commands and instructions. This is indicative of the second characteristic of the Sheikh system: compliance. Respondents also agreed that their managers suggested rewards for their good performance and said that they were satisfied with their financial rewards and other benefits received from the organization. This implies that the ADP's leadership tended to adopt an essentially transactional style within a hierarchical cultural environment. On the other hand, the positive feedback concerning vision and motivation suggests that the leaders may also have adopted a transformational style under some circumstances, creating a vision that inspired and motivated the employees (Burns, 1978). Thus, a dual style of leadership may be said to have been identified at the ADP, whose leadership may adopt different styles under different circumstances. Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) report that in the public sector, there is a desire to maintain important standards and procedures, while also trying to increase flexibility and innovation. Further investigation is necessary to determine when each style of leadership and its associated behaviours are most effective in public sector organizations.

## CHAPTER TEN

### CONCLUSION

#### 10.1 Introduction

This present study has explored the perceptions of ADP employees at all levels concerning essential abilities of the leadership of their organization: ‘Clear vision for change’, ‘Motivating employees to change’, ‘Communicating change to employees’, ‘Involving employees in change’, ‘Empowerment and delegation’ and the impact of organizational culture on the leadership in the context of the public sector in Arab culture in general and in the ADP in particular. This purpose was accomplished by a comprehensive analysis of the literature and a mixed-method approach. The literature review of over 200 articles and books established a fundamental understanding of the background of the empirical part of the research, such as the major theories and models of leadership, the background to the case study, and research progress on organizational culture and change management. For the empirical part of the study, a case study design was adopted and a mixed research methodology was used with the help of a self-managed survey based on a questionnaire, interviews and documentary analysis. The chapter provides a summary of the implications of the study, discusses its limitations, draws conclusions and makes suggestions for further research. The study findings are significant in a number of ways in relation to effective leadership in implementing change in Arab culture: The case of the Abu Dhabi Police helps to understand the effective leadership style in different situations. In the case of ADP, the style of leadership seems to be autocratic and the environment is steady, so, from the models which have been explored in the literature review, the study suggests that the ADP should adopt the approach of top-down planning, which means that the upper management should give instructions to the lower ranking staff in a more rigid way, and should guide them to work on

to the instructions being provided to them. The recommendations which have been extracted from the study for the top-down approach are that the organization should implement a focused use of resources on individually managed applications, rather than too many people being involved in the decision making; strategy design for the organization is also to be recommended. Moreover the first becomes a showcase for the solution to identity management. When the phases are completed for the managed application, the top management will have implemented it more deeply and maturely. With that, operation and maintenance resources are not initially impacted as severely as with the bottom-up approach, because fewer people will be involved in decision making. While the research is also significant in highlighting the importance of changes in management and leadership relations, change cannot be imposed; if it is imposed, it will not succeed in producing effective results for the management.

A vision for change is needed, together with knowing what the change needs and what it will involve which how is different from the current situation. There is also there is a need to properly plan the procedure for implementing change. Then the most critical part of the process is the communication about change. Employees must be informed about the objectives of the change as well as its improved outcomes. Here the management may suffer some sort of resistance from the staff but it will not cost too much as if the employees are informed before it is implemented. After the communication process, authority will have to be assigned to the individuals who will be affected by the change. This phase is known as empowerment, and it is equally important for successful results. With this, there is also a need to motivate the employees to implement the change, or to become part of the process of implementing it, motivation can be instilled in different ways. The positive approach can be followed, guiding the employees about change and its expected productive results, while negativity can also be followed in order to pressurize

them to be take part of the change process. However, this may not provide effective results for the organization.

From the study, the organization style has not only been identified in terms of leadership but also an environmental analysis has been made in order to know the frequency of the change, and certain standards have been studied which can result in the effective results for the ADP if they are followed in an appropriate way. These standards relate to Vision, Planning, Communication, Empowerment, and Motivation. The study highlights one of the key aspects of effective leadership style in change management in the case of the ADP which is problems with communication. As identified earlier, communication is one of the most important elements in implementing change. If the employees are unaware of the change, its outcomes, and the process for introducing it, then the results will not be effective for the organization. This is due to the fact that employees are the ones who are mostly involved in the routine activities for the organization, even sometimes more involved than the top management, since the latter design the long-term strategies for the organization while employees or the lower management work on those strategies to meet the organization's objectives. So, in case of the ADP, it is most important of all that management should work on communication about the changes in management. First they need to have structure and a system within which they can implement the change, otherwise by implementing the change in a system which does not support it will lead to failure for the ADP.

## **10.2 Summary of literature review**

The systematic literature review indicated that the critical functions of a leader are to create a vision, provide guidance, initiate strategic plans and motivate subordinates, in order to achieve the organization's objectives. Therefore, effective leaders should possess the abilities needed to: (1) create a clear vision for the future, (2) develop a detailed and clear

change plan, (3) communicate the change, (4) motivate and involve employees in change, (5) effectively delegate and empower. An effective leadership style is the combination of these characteristics used when leaders interact with employees and implement changes. Furthermore, leaders should foster a positive work culture to ensure that these traits can be applied successfully (Schein, 1992; Lewin et al, 2010). Schein (1985) suggests that effective leadership is contingent on cultural issues. Change and adaptability are integral facets of change in culture and environment. Horner (1997) explains that culture management is an integral aspect of effective leadership and that organizations are more likely to succeed in implementing changes if they respond positively to changes in the external environment and culture. Thus, this thesis studied cultural values and their linkages to leadership in the context of Middle Eastern and Arab culture, establishing that the most effective leadership style in an Arab culture is probably a consultative one. However, some studies have observed that leadership in Arab culture is often authoritarian; indeed, Badawy (1980) argues that most Middle Eastern leaders are highly authoritarian. In addition, the personal attributes of leaders and subordinates (e.g. their age, education and experience) and organizational factors (e.g. public or private) have a significant relationship with leadership style. Thus, this thesis has also examined the effects of these variables on effective leadership.

### **10.3 Summary of methodology**

The study used a case study design and was based on both quantitative and qualitative research. In bringing together the benefits of both approaches, the triangulation of data-gathering methods yielded results with greater validity and provided a comprehensive understanding of the findings of the study. The case study design enabled investigation of a contemporary phenomenon: leadership and change management within a real-life context. The Abu Dhabi Police was selected for several reasons. First, it is the primary law

enforcement agency in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi and has more than 40,000 employees. Embraced as a legitimate partner by the community, the ADP pursues efficiency and effectiveness through the use of the latest technological advances and systems management practices. Second, by incorporating the best of the old and of the new, it has achieved the flexibility, adaptability and durability required to be widely regarded as one of the world's leading law enforcement agencies. It recently implemented changes through the Five-Year Plan for the Strategic Development of the ADP (2003-2007) and the succeeding Strategic Plan (2008-2012), which addressed many important aspects of agency operations including future technology acquisition, employee career development and the restructuring of departments to better serve the community. Third, the ADP is under the influence of both Arab culture and police culture, which is ideal for collecting empirical evidence, as few studies have looked at this setting.

Stake (1995) states that the protocols that are used in case studies to ensure accuracy and alternative explanations are called triangulation. The need for triangulation arises from the ethical requirement to confirm the validity of the processes. In case studies, this can be done by using multiple sources of data (Yin, 2003). The present study used questionnaires, interviews and documentary data to address the research questions. Questionnaires were administered to a random sample of 288 employees in order to explore their perceptions of leadership and organizational culture. The questionnaire analysis not only provided a basic understanding of the employees' perceptions, but also identified perceptual differences among groups with different educational backgrounds, work experience and job positions. Ten managers and experts in change at the ADP were also interviewed, in order to add depth to the understanding of the viewpoints of respondents. Finally, document analysis was performed as an invaluable part of the triangulation. This involved reading and analysing the ADP's Five-Year Strategic

Development Plan (2003), the ADP Strategic Plan (2008) and Change Management in the ADP (2008).

#### **10.4 Summary of key findings**

The key finding of the study was that the ADP leadership was dominated by a top-down approach, directive and commanding in style. In general, employees understood the strategic plan, vision, values and mission of the ADP. The leadership was effective in terms of style, clear vision for change, motivating employees to change, and empowerment and delegation, but because of its culture and traditions, it was rather weak in communicating change to employees and in involving the min change. The findings also suggest that the employees' perceptions of leadership varied among groups with different educational backgrounds, work experience and job positions. The study further demonstrated that the five characteristics of leadership were intertwined. The organizational culture, which is rooted in Arab culture and police culture, was found to have shaped the leadership styles in the ADP.

The results of the questionnaire, interviews and document analysis consistently showed that the ADP leadership style was dominated by the top-down approach, directive, strong and commanding. This had a great impact on the implementation of change, as it focused on regulation and rules, rather than strategic change. Employees, especially at the junior level, were not sufficiently involved in the change process. In addition, under the influence of a blame culture, leaders were afraid to delegate and were hesitant to make decisions. This leadership style was further enhanced by the fact that the ADP, as a police force, still tended to have the hierarchical structure of a paramilitary organization.

On the other hand, the ADP made an effort to apply the transformational style to create a vision that inspired and motivated its employees. This can be seen in the employees' positive perceptions and responses regarding vision and motivation for change.

Furthermore, the document analysis showed that the leadership had developed a clear vision and strategic plan, using numerous approaches to ensure that change initiatives were executed successfully. However, the outcome of efforts at communicating change was less satisfactory, due to negative cultural influences.

The present study also explored the relationship between organizational culture and leadership style. It was found that organizational culture shaped the leadership of the ADP and that the organization had made efforts to improve its culture in order to cultivate a leadership that could effectively implement changes. However, as an Arab organization, the ADP still preferred to adopt a centralized, command-and-control policy and its encouragement of teamwork was weak. This can be seen in the results of the questionnaire analysis: the statement that ‘Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department’ received negative ratings.

### **10.5 Implications for practice**

The present study contributes to a better understanding of the ADP’s leadership characteristics and provides empirical evidence of the perceptions of employees regarding that leadership. Knowledge of employees’ perceptions can help leaders to design and lead more effectively. This study yields the following practical implications: First, its how’s that under the influence of Arab culture, the ADP is directive and strong in its leadership style. In addition, there is a tendency for the leadership to avoid blame and to be afraid of making mistakes during new processes. Therefore, the use of innovative and creative styles is not common for solving problems and breaking organizational norms in Arab countries. In such a setting, a planned approach to change and a mixed style of leadership may be most appropriate to meet organizational needs under different circumstances, while maintaining ‘command and control’ under the influence of Arab culture. This idea may help the public sector in the Middle East in general and in the UAE in particular to



implement successful change. Arab organizations are often characterized by strong avoidance of uncertainty. Thus, detailed planning for change is more suitable than an emergent approach to implement changes. This is supported by a study conducted by Maddock (2002), who found that a planned approach was preferred in Arab public sector bodies.

Second, effective leadership requires a multidimensional set of leadership skills. In order to improve its leadership, the ADP has to enhance its strengths (i.e. clear vision for change; motivating employees to change, empowerment and delegation) while tackling its weaknesses (communicating change to employees and involving the min change). The findings of the present study suggest that leadership, organizational structure and organizational culture are the most important elements in implementing change strategically and successfully. Thus, close attention should be paid to these elements and the interrelationships among them.

Third, the present study supports the theory that Middle Eastern organizations often adopt authoritarian, bureaucratic and socially integrative leadership styles. As a result, strong direction and commitment from upper management are required when implementing changes, especially radical ones. It should also be stressed that Arab organizations are strongly affected by the Islamic faith, that is, Muslims believe that only Allah can foresee the future and that plans must be based on his will. Therefore, short-term plans maybe more effective than long-term ones. In addition, public sector organizations often expect quick results from change implementation; therefore, employees sometimes face unrealistic deadlines when implementing change. It is of great importance that this point should be further evaluated and adjustments should be made to set up more realistic time frames for change management.

Fourth, the results reveal significant differences in perceptions among employees with different educational backgrounds, working experience and job positions. Therefore, there is a need for the ADP's leaders to develop change implementation techniques that meet the expectations of employees at all levels. Finally, since the relationship between cultures and leadership styles was confirmed in the present study, the ADP's managers should seek to establish an organizational culture that promotes optimum efficiency and styles of leadership.

### **10.6 Contribution to knowledge**

The present study aimed to fill a number of research gaps in the area of police leadership in Arab culture. First, it was unprecedented in providing a better understanding of the contextual reality of change management in a public sector organization in the UAE, where little has been done in the field of organizational leadership. It also examined Arab culture and their implications for change management; this approach has special value, as these cultural factors have been rarely mentioned in previous studies. In addition, this study examined the beliefs of ADP employees from a wide variety of backgrounds with different positions, educational attainments and experience, thus contributing to a better understanding of the perceptions of employees at all levels.

Recent evidence suggests that change implementation still has a very high failure rate (~70%) in both developed and developing countries, according to Drummond-Hay and Bamford (2009). Furthermore, the authors argue that not all change management theories are relevant to the challenges faced by organizations in today's rapidly changing world. While it is thus difficult to identify the most appropriate model for a particular organization, the present study has attempted to do this through a comprehensive literature review and mixed-method research in a particular setting (the ADP), a public body under the influence of Arab culture. Numerous studies have investigated change management and

leadership in the private sector, while there is a lack of research in public sector organizations (Werkman, 2009). In this sense, the present study's findings represent a significant contribution to the extant empirical literature on implementation of change and effective leadership in the public sector context.

Similarly, there are a variety of theoretical models and concepts in change management literature, while how these theories can be applied to a public sector body under the influence of both Western and Middle Eastern culture is less well known. Most of these theories were established on the basis of research in the private sector and few authors have discussed the application of different models and methods of change management in public sector entities, which often operate dramatically differently, with different missions, cultures and sets of rules and regulations. The present study addresses this knowledge gap by providing a comprehensive review of different approaches to managing effective change and their application in different types of change in the context of a specific organizational culture. As suggested by Appelbaum et al. (2008) and Higgs (2003), there is an urgent need to conduct more empirical studies in the field of organizational change leadership. The study has provided additional empirical evidence, contributing to the current understanding of critical factors in the successful implementation of change and effective change leadership in a real-world setting. Finally, it has utilized a mixed-method approach with three sets of data. This approach allowed data triangulation and can be used as a model for studying change management in similar settings.

### **10.7 Limitations of the study**

This study has certain limitations. First, a case study design was used because of the nature of the research problem and the questions being asked. A potential limitation of this design is its lack of representativeness, which poses challenges to the generalizability of the

results. Comprehensive research would involve replication of this study in a number of other police forces in the UAE. However, a case study design is not necessarily a negative limitation, as the main objective is to generalize the results to a set of theoretical propositions (Saunders et al., 2003; Yin, 2003), rather than to a population.

Second, the possibility of sampling bias cannot be discounted. The study targeted 350 ADP personnel, but data from only 288 of them were valid for analyzing. This may yield skewed results if the personnel who did not return the questionnaires were not missed at random.

Another limitation is that the study captured respondents' perceptions only at a single point in time. A longitudinal design measuring effectiveness at key time points during the change would have allowed further understanding of leaders' effectiveness throughout the change initiative.

The reliance on mostly perceptual, subjective data may be a further limitation. Although employee perceptions are meaningful, they are a soft measure of change success. Use of observable variables such as production and performance would have provided additional evidence of the success of the leadership.

Several methodological issues also need to be addressed. A number of sections of the survey instrument appeared to have a low internal consistency, which suggests that some of the items may have been too specific and not homogeneous as compared to other items in the same section. Changes in the instrument design need to be made in future studies to improve the internal reliability. The researcher and interviewees may have introduced bias when conducting the semi-structured interviews. This researcher tried to minimize this risk by cross-validation with documentation and questionnaire results and by using a neutral introduction. Document analysis does not preclude the chance of bias either, as suggested by a number of studies (e.g. Yin, 2003; Gray, 2004). However, this

research tried to minimize such bias by careful examination of the sources of the documents and by cross-validation with survey and interview data.

Finally, this study was limited to organizational factors in the workplace. There was little consideration of the external environment, which may have had an influence on change.

### **10.8 Future study**

This study has identified some strengths and weaknesses in the ADP's leadership. Specifically, the leaders still need to develop a better strategy to communicate and get employees more involved in the implementation of change. Additional investigations may be warranted to identify effective means by which they can facilitate more open communication between themselves and their followers in order to involve employees more effectively in change. Future work is required to establish a deeper understanding of the specific needs and demands of leadership for different groups of employees with different educational backgrounds, work experience and job positions. This study has demonstrated that a respondent's level within the organization might influence his or her perceptions of the effectiveness of change leadership. In particular, employees with higher positions had more favourable perceptions of change initiatives. Does one's position influence expectations or perceptions of change and leadership? Are participants' responses based on the size or scope of the changes they face, since departmental managers are responsible for larger-scale change initiatives than branch managers? Further research might address these questions and explore the scope of the perceived difference according to respondents' level within the organization.

This study has examined only one public sector organization. There is certainly a need to explore leadership and change management in other organizations the Arab world, both public and private. Rees and Althakhri (2008) argue that cultural values differ from

country to country and may evolve over time. It is imperative in future studies to examine how organizational leaderships within Arab countries can implement change more effectively under the influence of globalization.

The findings of the present study suggest that in order to implement different types of change effectively, a combination of leadership styles may be useful. Thus, there is clearly a need to examine how a combination of different leadership styles can be effective in implementing change and how any conflicts in using different leadership style scan be resolved. Finally, future research should examine to what extent employees and organizations in the Arab world might accept and utilize Western models of leadership for effectively managing change.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Interview Questions

*Dear participant,*

You will appreciate that your valuable effort in achieving the purpose of this study requires a frank and careful answer to all questions contained in the attached interview protocol. While emphasizing that it is not necessary to state your name or give your signature, we would like to assure you that the information you give will be strictly confidential and will appear only as gross statistical data for research purposes. The researcher will be happy to answer any of your inquiries related to this study.

Please accept our sincere appreciation and thanks for your kind assistance in this endeavour.

Sincerely yours,

Major. Saif Al-Nuaimi

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#### *Option 1*

Semi-structured interviews for people who are responsible for implementing change and managers who are involved in change and expertise.

Q1: How would you describe the leadership style in the Abu Dhabi Police?

Q2: To what extent are the ADP's vision, mission and values clear and understandable?

Q3: How does the leadership of the ADP motivate employees to bring about change?

Q4: How does the leadership of the ADP communicate and involve employees to bring about change?

Q5: How does the leadership of the ADP delegate authority and empower employees to bring about change?

Q6: How does organizational culture affect the process of implementing change?

Q7: How does culture affect the leadership style and its characteristics?

**Appendix 2: Survey Questionnaires**

Demographic information	
<b>Gender:</b>	Male() Female()
<b>Age:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Below 25years ()</li> <li>· From 25 to below 35 years()</li> <li>· From 35 to below 45years()</li> <li>· 45 years and above()</li> </ul>
<b>Experience:</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Less than 5 years()</li> <li>· 5 years to less than 10 years()</li> <li>· 10 years to less than 15 years()</li> <li>· 15 years and more()</li> </ul>
<b>Rank:</b>	
<b>Position</b>	
<b>Qualifications</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· Below high school certificate()High school certificate()</li> <li>· Intermediate college diploma() Bachelor degree()</li> <li>· Masters degree ()Other (), Specify:.....</li> </ul>
<b>Department:</b>	

<p><b>1. Has your organization established a strategic plan? Yes ( ) No ( )</b></p> <p>If your answer is Yes, is the strategy statement clear and understandable?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· It is clear and understandable to a large extent()</li> <li>· It is clear and understandable to some extent()</li> <li>· It is unclear and not understandable at all()</li> </ul>
<p><b>2.Has your organization developed a vision statement? Yes ( ) No ( )</b></p> <p>If your answer is Yes, is the vision statement clear and understandable?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is clear and understandable to a large extent()</li> <li>• It is clear and understandable to some extent()</li> <li>• It is unclear and not understandable at all()</li> </ul>
<p><b>3. And is the vision consistent with the strategy?</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is consistent to a large extent()</li> <li>• It is consistent to some extent()</li> <li>• It is not consistent at all()</li> </ul>
<p><b>4. Has your organization developed a mission statement? Yes ( ) No ( )</b></p> <p>If your answer is Yes, is the mission statement clear and understandable?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is clear and understandable to a large extent()</li> <li>• It is clear and understandable to some extent()</li> <li>• It is unclear and not understandable at all()</li> </ul>

**5. And does the mission interpret the vision obviously?**

- It interprets the vision obviously to a large extent()
- It interprets the vision obviously to some extent()
- It does not interpret the vision obviously at all()

**6. Has your organization developed a value statement? Yes ( ) No ( )**

If your answer is Yes, are the values consistent with the mission?

- They are consistent with the mission to a large extent()
- They are consistent with the mission to some extent()
- They are not consistent with the mission at all()

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Leadership Style
					1. Teamwork is encouraged and practiced in this department
					2. Competition among employees in this department is based on their skills and knowledge
					3. My manager is flexible with me when expecting good performance
					4. My manager motivates me to create and use new methods in performing my tasks
					5. My manager demands that I completely comply with the organization's procedures
					6. My manager accepts his subordinates' views even though they are against his/her views as long as their views are correct
					7. My manager is concerned with solving work problems
					8. My manager is concerned with resolving conflicts that occur sometimes among his/her subordinates
					9. My manager gives space to subordinates to suggest appropriate solutions
					10. My manager sticks to his/her opinion even if he/she feels wrong
					11. Our manager is equally concerned with us as workers as well as our productivity
					12. My manager enjoys giving orders to others
					13. My manager informs me about my weaknesses and bad performance

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Clear vision for change
					14. There are logical reasons for change which are visible to everyone in the organization
					15. I understand how change will help the organization in the long term
					16. I understand why change is happening and necessary for the organization
					17. I have a clear indication of how change will impact upon my job
					18. The vision statement of the organization is relevant to the change project
					19. I have been provided with a description of new core values and beliefs relating to the change project.

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Motivating employees to change
					20. My manager suggests rewards for my good performance which is compatible with change initiatives
					21. My manager tries to make me loyal to change
					22. My manager creates an environment that enables me to carry out change
					23. My workplace is a comfortable place to work
					24. My manager makes me feel valued
					25. I feel satisfied with my financial grade and other benefits that I receive from my organization
					26. I feel that my work is very important
					27. I receive the training I need to improve my skills which are required by change projects
					28. I have adequate opportunities for professional growth in this department



Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Communicating change to employees
					29. Formal communication is encouraged in this department in order to give employees information about change
					30. My manager transfers ideas and information from top management to appropriate people in the department
					31. Communication usually takes the form of commands and instructions
					32. Information related to change is shared openly in this department
					33. My manager uses various methods such as meetings, telephone calls and written messages when he/she communicates change to staff
					34. Our manager keeps us informed of changes to the department/organization in time.
					35. Our manager gives us instructions and makes sure his/her message about change is clear by encouraging us to ask questions and repeating the instructions

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Involving employees in change
				best	36. My manager involves his/her subordinates in making decisions related to change
					37. My manager chooses the right time for meetings
					38. My manager compiles information about change before making any decision
					39. My manager shares his thoughts with employees
					40. My manager interferes in decision making related to change tasks that are handled by his/her subordinates
				worst	41. My manager always follows up the consequences of decisions related to change that he/she makes

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Agree to a moderate degree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)	Delegation and empowerment in change
					42. My manager delegates to me the authority to perform change tasks
				highest	43. My manager empowers employees during change
				low	44. My manager follows up the delegated tasks
					45. My manager shows complete confidence in my ability to carry out delegated tasks properly
					46. My manager gives me instructions with a description of delegated tasks
					47. My manager is committed to perform well in implementing change
				lowest	48. My manager encourages me to monitor my own performance related to change

### **Appendix 3: Interviewees' Responses**

#### **Q1:How would you describe the leadership style in the Abu Dhabi Police?**

*[Prt1]:* Strong command and control leadership across the organization. However, occasional differences between directorates can cause confusion

*[Prt2]:* Strong and very directive but mixed messages between directorates can cause staff difficulties in implementation

*[Prt3]:* Inspire all employees to reach the organization's vision.

*[Prt4]:* Supportive and directive leadership

*[Prt5]:* Directive and follows leaders

*[Prt6]:* The leadership maintain a highly disciplined approach to management.

*[Prt7]:* The implementation of this strategy has been affected by the power and politics of some leaders which create four types of leadership and all have an impact on change. The first style is supportive leaders. These leaders have a clear vision for change and support all change initiatives and development. The second style is neutral leaders. They are waiting to see what will happen and they do not resist change. These leaders have no power to affect change. The third style is resistive leaders. These leaders resist change in order to maintain their own interests. The final style is supportive leaders but in their own way. These leaders are willing to accept change but in different directions. They have their own interpretations of change which cause conflict in terms of change implementation. In general, I think the leadership style is supportive to change. This is because the government has a strategy and needs all leadership to be supportive.

*[Prt8]:*In my personal opinion, leadership style varies among leaders within the ADP. While we have some open minded and supportive leaders, we also tend to have some directive and single minded ones. However, I would say that generally in ADP, we have

leaders who due to the changeable environment that we live in as police officers we have tendency towards involving more junior officers in the leadership decisions making.

*[Prt9]:* We can say that there are a variety of leadership styles in the Abu Dhabi Police Commanders, there is an authoritarian leader and democratic leader and there is a free-style, but in my opinion the style is the absent authoritarian style.

*[Prt10]:* The leadership style in the ADP varies in the top management as some of them are supportive and some are not, because they are afraid of the consequences of implementing change. Most leadership styles are willing for change but it's slightly new to them and their culture. I see the supportive leaders wanted to involve everyone in change and make them understand how well the organization will develop after implementing this change.

**Q2: To what extent are the ADP's vision, mission and values clear and understandable?**

*[Prt1]:* Very clear and understandable

*[Prt2]:* Clear

*[Prt3]:* Clear by using different kinds of communication

*[Prt4]:* They are clear and understandable to all employees in the ADP

*[Prt5]:* Fairly clear as I am in the strategic planning department.

*[Prt6]:* The words are clear, but the organization may not understand how they affect the working regime.

*[Prt7]:* In my view the vision and mission and values are clear for leadership positions. However, I think that our leaders need more effective communication skills with employees in order to understand strategy. Therefore, there is a gap between leaders and employees.

*[Prt8]:* I personally think that the ADP's vision, mission and values are clear enough for those who are in top positions. However, they become less clear in the junior positions.

*[Prt9]:* Clear to a large extent

*[Prt10]:* In my view the vision and mission and values are clear for leadership positions. However, I think that our leaders need more effective communication skills with employees in order to understand how this change will be great for the organization. Also, there are still employees who are not involved in change for the sake of the organization but for the sake of keeping themselves appearing to be engaged, active and understanding everything about change.

**Q3: How does the ADP leadership motivate employees to bring about change?**

*[Prt1]:* Strong vision and clear process.

*[Prt2]:* Creating a work environment that elicits employee motivation.

*[Prt3]:* Our leadership style builds on change management by using the Benchmarking Programme Committee

*[Prt4]:* Supporting new ideas and suggestions, open-door culture.

*[Prt5]:* Giving them the authority to suggest new projects and implement them.

*[Prt6]:* Change occurs under the sponsorship of service management.

*[Prt7]:* I think leaders motivate their employees to change. There are many awards to support change; however, we need a good mechanism to give these awards.

*[Prt8]:* I believe that leaders in the ADP are very enthusiastic about making changes in the organization; however, the motivation approaches followed are varied. Some leaders follow positive approaches for motivating employees through encouragement. Others may follow more directive approaches.

*[Prt9]:* In my opinion, the leaders motivate employees to change through their involvement, by clarifying the goals of change and its causes, and through training and continuous development of skills and abilities.

*[Prt10]:* Leaders motivate employees to bring about change because they are asked to do so; on the other hand, as it's a paramilitary organization, everyone takes orders to do their job properly. So motivation within the ADP is not an alternative for engaging employees in change. Moreover, the ADP leadership has created a reward to motivate employees to bring about change; however, these awards are for general ideas to improve the effectiveness of the ADP.

**Q4: How does the ADP leadership communicate and involve employees to bring about change?**

*[Prt1]:* Consultation with the leadership, face-to-face meetings and briefing sessions.

*[Prt2]:* Staff meetings

*[Prt3]:* Through messages, magazines, announcements.

*[Prt4]:* Involving all the concerned partners and using different communication methods.

*[Prt5]:* Through sharing with them. Awards for excellence that they can apply and motivate them as well.

*[Prt6]:* By using orders for work to proceed – no consultation.

*[Prt7]:* Regarding communication, managers use official letters, workshops and conferences to communicate with employees. However, managers need to listen to their employees, rather than give them directions and order them to change. Many managers use communication tools to give orders rather than listening, so I think managers need more communication skills. In terms of involvement, I think it's very poor. I think the participation is only for those employees who have a position. Meanwhile, employees on the front line have often been ignored when it comes to participating in change.

*[Prt8]:* Communication channels are many. The most widely used approaches include meetings and official circulars and correspondence. Recently there is a tendency towards

using more advanced methods, which include communications through an official SMS, workshops and suggestions forms.

*[Prt9]:* This is done through periodic meetings and circulars.

*[Prt10]:* Leaders use all types of communication to involve employees in implementing change, such as official letters, meetings, magazines and conferences. However, these meetings are in general about how change will help to improve the organization, but I think it should be more about how these improvements will be developed within the organization and feeling the outcomes of this change and knowing what has been achieved.

**Q5: How does the ADP leadership delegate authority and empower employees to bring about change?**

*[Prt1]:* I am not clear on this, due to my universal role with the ADP.

*[Prt2]:* They choose the right person when delegating authority for a work assignment and let the team know who is in charge.

*[Prt3]:* A scholarship is one method to bring in benchmarking and best practice.

*[Prt4]:* Investing in people to improve their skills and capability to handle the change.

*[Prt5]:* I am not clear on this.

*[Prt6]:* Providing the support required to drive the change

*[Prt7]:* Delegation of authority is the main problem. I mean by this, some leaders are afraid to delegate their authority because they want to avoid mistakes in a blame culture.

*[Prt8]:* This may vary among different leaders. While some leaders may easily delegate their authority, others may tend to be more conservative about delegation. However, recently, delegation of authority has become more common. This may be partly due to the workload, as the ADP is expanding and involved in demanding projects and tasks.

*[Prt9]:* I'm sorry to say that the delegation of authority is weak to some extent in the Abu Dhabi Police.

*[Prt10]:* Leaders do delegate authority to some employees, but not all. They only delegate to those who they can rely on when they are not present or to get things done. This is because they think not all of them can be relied on, because it is based on trust, not based on policies or rules. They want to avoid blame and mistakes.

**Q6: How does organizational culture effect the process of implementing change?**

*[Prt1]:* Staff tends to be quick to react to change once requirements have been explained.

*[Prt2]:* Changes are implemented with ease due to the military ethos. What is needed is greater consistency across directorates.

*[Prt3]:* Awareness, the EFQM model and His Highness's award across ADP employees.

*[Prt4]:* People do resist change, but due to the military culture, tasks and coordination are managed and controlled.

*[Prt5]:* Sometimes rank plays a big role in motivating change.

*[Prt6]:* It is a critical influence and calls into question the need for change.

*[Prt7]:* Our society has been affected by a blame culture. We blame the person who makes a mistake. Therefore, many managers prefer to centralize decision-making and do not delegate authority, in order to avoid blame. In other words, we have a blame culture. Also, we do not have an evaluation culture. Our culture considers evaluation as criticism. In order to be successful, the evaluation culture should be improved. In my view, the ADP is dominated by the concept of instantaneous change. I mean that employees want to see the effects of change straight away, which is difficult. Change takes time and people should look to the long term rather than the short term.



*[Prt8]:* Organizational culture certainly has its effects on change implementation. It does so by a tendency among employers towards involving people in the details of operational processes. The nature of police officers' work requires them to ask for details of any operation or process. In addition, due to the size of the ADP, the competition is high and sometimes such issues produce negative as well as positive effects, which result in challenges towards the process of change implementation

*[Prt9]:* Cultural factors play a large and influential role in making a difference in the culture of the Abu Dhabi Police. Fear of decision-making, fear of change and the absence of organizational justice in some quarters. The whole culture of negative effectiveness.

*[Prt10]:* The ADP is a unique organization with a unique culture that is rooted in the fact that Arabs are afraid of mistakes during a new process. Also favouritism is part of Arab culture whereby you tend to assign people that you favour over others to be engaged in change, even if they do not fully understand the implementation of change very well, which may affect the process or delay it sometimes.

**Q7: How does culture affect the leadership style and its characteristics?**

*[Prt1]:* Leaders occasionally appear to believe their role requires them to be an expert on everything within their business area.

*[Prt2]:* Leaders seem to believe they need to be more directive than most police leaders are in international benchmark forces.

*[Prt3]:* Culture is affecting our leadership by competition across all ADP employees.

*[Prt4]:* Being a part of a federal institution creates a competitive culture, to aim for the best.

*[Prt5]:* I think culture has shaped the leadership style.

*[Prt6]:* The leadership is definitely influenced by Arab culture, with an authoritarian style and in the centralized form.

*[Prt7]:* I think that the blame culture makes the leadership hesitate to take decisions and centralize change. Also, some leaders regard evaluation as criticism, which affects change.

*[Prt8]:* Some leaders may follow a directive approach to keep their lead. Others may be hesitant to delegate their authority and power. The ranking system may also affect the relationship between leaders and those who are in more junior ranks.

*[Prt9]:* The culture influences the leadership style by making it more authoritarian and less free, due to the culture of fear of error.

*[Prt10]:* The leaders sometimes seem to be uncertain in making decisions because they are afraid of not making the right one and also they assume that everything should be done perfectly, which is impossible.