The Impact of Leadership on Employees' Knowledge Sharing in the General Secretariat of the Executive Council in the UAE

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Abstract

This study investigated the enablers and barriers of implementing a knowledge sharing strategy within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in line with the 2030 Vision in the UAE. It seeks to evaluate the current leadership styles at GSEC to find out whether they have a direct bearing on successfully driving or hindering knowledge sharing initiatives. This study gauges the perspectives and perceptions of the different key stakeholders regarding leadership styles and their impact on driving effective knowledge sharing at GSEC.

The extant literature on leadership is extensive. However, much of the debate and deliberation on how different styles of leadership stimulate and drive followers to be creative and share knowledge within an organisation is inconclusive as many questions remain unanswered. The key literature focuses mainly on defining leaders' qualities and attributes, highlighting the main leadership models, theories and styles to find out which leadership style is most suitable for different organisational settings. The literature also suggests that the relationship between leadership styles and knowledge sharing is complex and multidimensional. Firstly, knowledge in today's volatile economies has become a driving force for the sustainability of organisations working in dynamically-competitive environments. Secondly, leaders who have the skills and attributes to motivate and boost knowledge creation and sharing activities, play a key role in the process. There is a consensus among authors that there is a positive correlation between leadership styles and knowledge sharing.

Based on the purpose of the study, the nature of the problem and research questions, the philosophical paradigm underpinning this study is predominantly positivist because this study aims to find out the answer to a question through numerical data. Quantitative data are collected using a questionnaire involving employees at GSEC.

Findings revealed that knowledge sharing (KS) initiatives at GSEC are experiencing some resistance due to traditional leadership styles and employee knowledge creation and sharing processes are not working to full potential. There is a recognition of the pertinence of KS but there is a need for adequate investment in training to produce significant outcomes and progress. Findings suggest that there are no clear policies or documents to support the practice of KS. The results also showed that there is little motivation or incentive for employees to share knowledge and drive the organisational structure and culture towards an effective sharing of knowledge strategy. The findings of this study identified some challenges hindering the implementation of KS within GSEC, namely the lack of clear and consistent policies, regulations and commitment by key stakeholders. This study's findings are consistent with similar studies within the broad literature related to KS.

This study has provided a platform for further in-depth research into the challenges of leadership styles and their impact on knowledge sharing by expanding the literature which will benefit future research. The findings will benefit the leadership in understanding the drivers and challenges of KS enablers. It raises awareness of management engagement, employee training and incentivisation as crucial to ensuring the implementation of KS strategy and to coordinate efforts to effectively create a knowledge sharing culture among employees.

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I would like to thank in particular my family for standing by me in difficult times.

I also wish to thank all those who participated in this research, who kindly gave up their time to fill in the questionnaires which helped me in collecting valuable data.

Finally, I would like to thank many friends who supported me throughout this long and arduous PhD journey.

Declaration

This is to declare 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. Furthermore, all the work in this dissertation is entirely my own, unless referenced in the text as a specific source and/or included in the bibliography.

Signed: *Omar Al Ketbi*

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List of Abbreviations

GSEC   General Secretariat of the Executive Council

KM   Knowledge Management

KS   Knowledge Sharing

GCC   Gulf Cooperation Council

UAE   United Arab Emirates

KHDA   Knowledge and Human Development Authority

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Purpose of the study

This study examines the main leadership styles within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and the nature of their influence on employee knowledge sharing. It seeks to find out whether the leadership styles practised within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council drive or impede knowledge sharing among employees. Therefore, this research investigates the enablers and barriers of how knowledge is processed, shared and transferred within the different departments of the GSEC. It also assesses the extent to which western leadership styles and knowledge sharing models can be applied to different cultural settings such as the UAE. This study explores the leadership styles and knowledge sharing theories in use in the west that could benefit the GSEC. It brings leadership and knowledge sharing thinking and theoretical base together to generate a clear framework for the development of knowledge sharing in the public services in the UAE setting.

The overall aim of the research is to develop a framework for improved knowledge sharing practices within GSEC by providing recommendations based on the findings of this study on how to develop effective leadership practices and to optimise employee knowledge sharing within GSEC.

1.2 Background of the study

Leadership has always generated a broad debate and has been defined, debated and researched from different perspectives in both business and political fields. Mainstream leadership literature often focuses on leaders themselves, their characteristics and attributes, while existing and common leadership models, theories and styles are also investigated, all claiming to help individuals become better at leading. Recent studies provide fresh insights (Hoch et al. 2018; Ford et al, 2017; Da Costa Nogueira et al, 2018; Anandaciua, et al, 2018; Weaver, 2015; Northouse, 2014; Bass and Bass, 2014). In other words, leadership appears to be what makes the world go around as suggested by Huczynski and Buchanan (2013: 652): *'Leadership appears to be a critical determinant of organisational effectiveness, whether people are discussing an army, an orchestra, a hockey team, a street gang, a political party, a group of rock climbers, or a multinational corporation. It is not surprising to find, therefore, that leadership is a focus of intense research effort.'*

This study aims to identify the enabling and impeding factors of the leadership styles regarding the sharing of knowledge, focusing on the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in Abu Dhabi in the UAE as an organisational setting. The GSEC is the administrative authority entrusted with outlining the Emirates' general policies and strategies, and presenting them to the Executive Council to take appropriate decisions. GSEC also provides supporting services to the Executive Council which include preparing and scheduling decision projects, preparing minutes of meetings and submitting the Council's decisions and following-up their implementation. The Secretary General represents the

higher authority and acts as a driver and facilitator which allows work to flow within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council departments.

The topic of leadership styles is not new as leadership has always been practised in some form or other. The breadth and depth of literature on leadership styles and their impact on employee knowledge sharing highlights the importance for knowledge sharing development and it discusses the reasons why knowledge sharing is beneficial for an organisation's success. The debate focuses mainly on the role of knowledge sharing as a driving force to achieve an organisation's performance, growth and sustainable competitive advantage (Früauff, et al. 2015; Sedighi, et al. 2018; Rice, et al. 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019; Mueller, 2014; Mas-Machuca, 2014; Song, et al. 2015; Davenport and Völpel, 2001; Park and Kim, 2015, 2018; Wang, et al. 2015; Fauzi, et al. 2015; Nonaka and Taekuchi 1995; Kang, et al. 2010). Noaman and Fouad, (2014:205) point out '*Knowledge sharing is believed by many organisations to be…a panacea for knowledge creation, and an important activity to boost innovation, improve productivity, and increase understanding among knowledge workers.*'

Thus, the value of knowledge sharing to an organisation has been emphasised by much of the literature. The 21st century is often labelled as the knowledge driven age with its diversified and continuous stream of information and knowledge (Al-Adaileh, and Al-Atawi, 2011; Park, and Kim, 2018; Früauff et al 2015; Mueller, 2014; Bakker et al. 2006). In the current era of globalisation and international competition, organisations are compelled to maintain the exchange of knowledge because successful knowledge sharing is an important driver of knowledge creation (Rice et al 2019; Mueller, 2014; Kang et al., 2010; Rafique and Anwar, 2017). To have a competitive edge, it is necessary that organisations

have a clear strategy for processing, capturing, and disseminating knowledge. It is insufficient for organisations to rely on staffing and training frameworks that focus on selecting talented staff who have expertise knowledge, skills, abilities or competencies, or helping employees acquire them (Ipe, 2003; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Foss and Pedersen, 2002; Cabrera and Cabrera, 2002). Organisations must also plan about how expertise and knowledge can be passed on from experts and employees (Hinds, et al 2001; Früauff et al 2015). Thus, knowledge sharing is a research area that has been studied from different perspectives and in many sectors and it is a topic which continues to evolve and generate interest from researchers and organisations. The take away message from the literature suggests that an organisation's sustainability depends on knowledge sharing among its human capital. As Nonaka and Taekuchi (1995) argue, knowledge sharing can play an important role in improving organisational performance in situations of limited resources. KS is an umbrella term which covers activities such as insights, skills and information which are exchanged between employees of an organisation (Kim et al., 2013). The value of the knowledge of an individual is increased when shared within an organisation (Hislop, 2013).

The relationship between leadership style and effective knowledge sharing is crucial for an organisation aiming for continuous improvement. This study aims to demonstrate that leadership style plays a facilitating and motivating role in enhancing knowledge sharing among the employees of an organisation. Walumbwa et al., (2010) and Newton (2019) support this view, stressing that a leadership style influences the behaviours of a person or a group of people under specific situations to achieve certain group objectives and by the same token

disseminate knowledge within an organisation. Similarly, Kouzes and Posner (2007: 11) argue that:

> *"The leadership challenge is about how leaders mobilise others to want to get extraordinary things done in organisations. It is about the practices leaders use to transform values into actions, visions into realities, obstacles into innovation, separateness into solidarity, and risks into rewards. It's about leadership that creates the climate in which people turn challenging opportunities into remarkable success."*

Thus, the leader's role is to motivate, drive and support followers to achieve the organisational mission objectives by creating an atmosphere of trust through recognition (Robbins and Judge, 2013; Sparks et al. 2018; Miscenko et al. 2017; Sturma et al, 2017; Suliman, and Moradkhan, 2013; Morton and Holden, 2018; Northouse, 2016; Yaghi, 2017). According to Johannsen (2018:69) leadership style is defined as: '*A set of behaviours that one consciously chooses to use that best fits the situation. When the situation changes, so does the style.*' Walumbwa et al. (2011) argue that leaders should create a climate so that employees and followers are willing to share knowledge. According to Kalshoven et al. (2011) leaders' trust has a positive psychological effect on employee performance.

The concept of leadership is understood differently in a large body of literature. As a result, a plethora of leadership definitions have been put forward. However, leadership in its generic sense is commonly referred to as '*the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals.*' (Karasneh, and Al-zoubi, 2018; Robbins and Judge, 2013; Sparks et al. 2018; Miscenko et al. 2017; Sturma et al. 2017; Morton and Holden, 2018; Northouse, 2015; Yaghi, 2017).

Some of the widely cited leadership theories can be grouped into two main streams. Early leadership theories examined historical/traditional leadership styles, focusing on the characteristics and attributes of the individual leader, for example 'the Great Man' theory (Bass, 2010; Mullins, 2010; Yukl 2013). As leadership evolved, it became a multifaceted concept. Studies on leadership started to extend and diversify the meaning and understanding of leadership through the use of a new terminology such as 'transformational, servant, ethical, strategic, democratic leadership', etc. Recent studies shifted the focus from examining leaders' exceptional and innate attributes to viewing a leader as a key player in terms of commitment, involvement, and engagement (Avolio et al., 2009; Robbins and Judge, 2013). This study will investigate the type of leadership style that encourages knowledge sharing, making recommendations that can be used to promote a KS culture and enhance knowledge sharing amongst organisational teams within GSEC.

1.3 Statement of the problem

This study focuses on the leadership styles practised at GSEC and the leader's role as an enabler and facilitator of knowledge sharing. Despite the value of knowledge sharing to an organisation, it appears that much of the knowledge within GSEC remains unshared. GSEC is a complex organisation and knowledge is not systematically shared to provide a holistic service to users due to lack of knowledge sharing between many departments which undermines performance. Collaboration of employees across departments and their ability to effectively share knowledge enhances relationships among individuals and leads to better organisational performance. At GSEC, knowledge holders tend to be reluctant to share their knowledge and experience with others as there is lack of stimulus for

knowledge exchange between individuals and between employees and leaders. There is also lack of an effective platform and motivation that support knowledge sharing which is partly due to traditional leaders' resistance to change. There is a dearth of research on knowledge sharing in the UAE, particularly within GSEC. An effective, transparent knowledge sharing framework is required to help make GSEC a competitive and sustainable organisation by effectively exploiting the knowledge-based resources that already exist within the organisation through effective knowledge communication among key managers, effective sharing of best practice and efficient utilisation of resources.

This study raises the question as to what constitutes an effective leader who has the skills to drive knowledge sharing, and seeks to establish which leadership styles are key enablers to implement a successful or effective knowledge sharing culture. There are many ways to measure leadership effectiveness (Moawad and Jones, 2015) but a leader that drives knowledge sharing can be promoted through the development of leadership qualities that meet the trust and empowerment of employees to achieve better performance.

1.4 Research questions

This study has set the following questions to achieve the aim of this research:

1) What are the main leadership styles practised at GSEC?
2) What are the challenges and barriers impeding the implementation of knowledge sharing at GSEC?
3) Is there a relationship between leadership styles and employee knowledge sharing?

1.5 Research objectives

In order to achieve the aim, this study has set the following objectives:

1) To evaluate the current leadership styles and knowledge sharing practices at GSEC

2) To identify the challenges and barriers hindering knowledge sharing at GSEC

3) To determine the enablers and drivers of knowledge sharing

4) To examine the impact of leadership styles on employee knowledge sharing

5) To analyse the extent to which western leadership styles and knowledge sharing models can be applied within GSEC

1.6 Significance of this study

This study is pertinent in view of the limited research on leadership styles and their impact on knowledge sharing in the UAE and particularly at GSEC. The importance of knowledge sharing is widely recognised by organisations and governments around the world. Knowledge is a key organisational asset that provides a sustainable competitive advantage in a competitive and dynamic economy (Früauff et al. 2015; Mueller, 2014; Bakker et al. 2006; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Foss and Pedersen, 2002). There is a growing interest, not only in the academic literature but also by policy and decision makers, as knowledge sharing is a driving force for enhancing economic development and reducing financial resources. This study is also relevant for the GSEC, as there is pressure from the federal government for continuous improvement, accountability and customer happiness to reach the level of excellence and to enhance the delivery

of services which will meet the needs and expectations of the UAE citizens in line with the UAE Vision 2030. Traditional management practices and resistance to the development of a knowledge sharing framework need to be addressed. As oil revenue is starting to shrink due to the global drop in oil prices and the market place becomes ever increasingly competitive, GSEC will need to identify and develop a leadership style that will allow staff to feel empowered to deliver the changes. If the leadership style is not appropriate to facilitate the necessary organisational changes, programmes may become fragmented, staff will become demotivated, and improvement efforts will be unproductive. The UAE cannot attain excellence in everything without effective leadership. This study has several practical implications.

Firstly, it will benefit the GSEC leadership to understand the source of problems and thus provide the organisation with an adequate strategic knowledge sharing framework to respond to the challenges of delivering quality service in line with the UAE 2030 Vision. Secondly, it will help formulate future management policies on how to enhance knowledge sharing. Thirdly, this study will provide a platform for further research on the impact leadership styles have on knowledge sharing as it will expand the existing literature on knowledge sharing in the Middle East to benefit future researchers.

1.7 Structure of this study

The purpose of this research is to investigate the influence of the styles of leadership upon employee knowledge sharing within GSEC. As such, this research consists of seven chapters:

Chapter One outlines the research study and introduces the thesis. It sets the research objectives, the research questions and offers a brief discussion on the concept of leadership and the role that it plays in organisations of today to motivate and drive knowledge sharing. It formulates the nature of the problem that is addressed by this study along with the important implications for leadership styles.

Chapter Two provides a general overview of both the UAE and Abu Dhabi, describing the history, political, economic and socio-cultural aspects of the UAE and the functions of the organisational context, GSEC.

Chapter Three provides a critical literature review regarding the concept of leadership, leadership styles and characteristics, leadership paradigms and the theories of knowledge sharing and its definitions. This chapter also provides an examination of the relationship factors affecting knowledge sharing and leadership styles within a particular set of circumstances. This chapter has also the objective of focusing on styles of leadership and knowledge sharing within a public organisation.

Chapter Four discusses the appropriate methodology for this study and outlines the methods that have been used for the data collection and analysis for carrying out this research. Within GSEC as an organisational setting, the justification for the research philosophy will be given and the research instruments and strategy that were adopted will be discussed. Details of how the researcher has conducted the research for the achievement of the research objectives will also be provided.

Chapter Five presents a description and analysis of the primary data that have been collected. There will be a schematic analysis of the findings from the

questionnaires. There will be a discussion of the quantitative findings that have been derived from the questionnaire. Based on the study findings, a conclusion will be put forward regarding the impact of the leadership styles upon knowledge sharing.

Chapter Six discusses the results of the analysis undertaken in order to achieve the research objectives. Following a summary of the findings, these will then be compared to the existing literature and a discussion then provided around the important issues for leadership and knowledge sharing.

Chapter Seven draws conclusions, highlighting key findings that have been drawn from the data and the key issues identified within the research. There will also be a discussion of the limitations of the research. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings of the research overall, the contribution made to current knowledge and an outline of the potential areas for future research in the field, along with reasoned implications and recommendations.

1.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has provided an overview of the challenges that GSEC is facing concerning leadership styles and knowledge sharing. The chapter also set the aim, objectives and formulated the research questions. It briefly outlined the proposed methodology for the study along with how this study has the potential to contribute to existing knowledge in the public sector. The next chapter will discuss the background of the UAE and knowledge sharing within GSEC to develop an understanding of the context of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the socio-economic, geographic and political background information regarding the United Arab Emirates (UAE) which has a direct bearing on the type of leadership styles and their influence on employee knowledge sharing and is in accordance with the research objectives of this study. This background information about the UAE is relevant as it contextualises and positions this study within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) which is the administrative authority in Abu Dhabi, entrusted with the responsibility of preparing the Executive Council's meetings, as well as organising its sessions, in addition to other tasks, duties and responsibilities entrusted to it.

2.2 The demography and geography of the UAE

The United Arab Emirates is located in the Arabian Gulf, and is a member-state of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) along with Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, and Saudi Arabia. The UAE has borders with the Arabian Gulf to the north, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the south and west, while Oman is to the east. It has a coastline on the Gulf of Oman and the Arabian Gulf. The total surface area of UAE is about 83,600 square kilometres of which 97 per cent can be described as desert (EIU, 2015). Abu Dhabi, the capital, occupies approximately 87% of the total surface area while Dubai, the second largest area, covers 5%. Thus, the

UAE is a relatively small, fast-developing country. This region was called the Trucial States during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and only became the United Arab Emirates in 1971 after the British withdrew from the region. The UAE was formed as a federal hereditary monarchy and is comprised of seven emirates, Abu Dhabi and Dubai being the largest and most famous, and Abu Dhabi has officially been the country's capital since 1996.

Figure 2.1 Map of the UAE

Source: Google maps

2.3 UAE demographics

The demographic landscape of the UAE is extremely diverse. The country's net migration rate stands at 21.71, the highest in the world. The UAE population averaged 0.09 million in 1960 while the current population stands at 9,634,073 as of February 28, 2019, based on the latest United Nations estimates. 93.0 % of the population is urban and the median age in the United Arab Emirates is 33.5 years. (Source: http://www.worldometers.info/world-population/united-arab-

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emirates-population). According to the Statistics Centre Abu Dhabi (SCAD), the phenomenal pace of change in the UAE over the past few decades has led to this huge rise in the population: *'The population is now 133 times what it was in 1960, having grown at an average annual rate of 9.5 percent, and the number of Emiratis doubled 46 times - with the non-Emiratis population increased 243-fold.'* (UAE Interact 29/7/2015)

A UN report suggests the United Arab Emirates accommodates roughly 7.8 million migrant workers. The latest estimates suggest around 12% of the population are UAE nationals while the majority of the population are expatriates of more than 200 nationalities worldwide.

Figure 2.2 UAE Population by Emirates
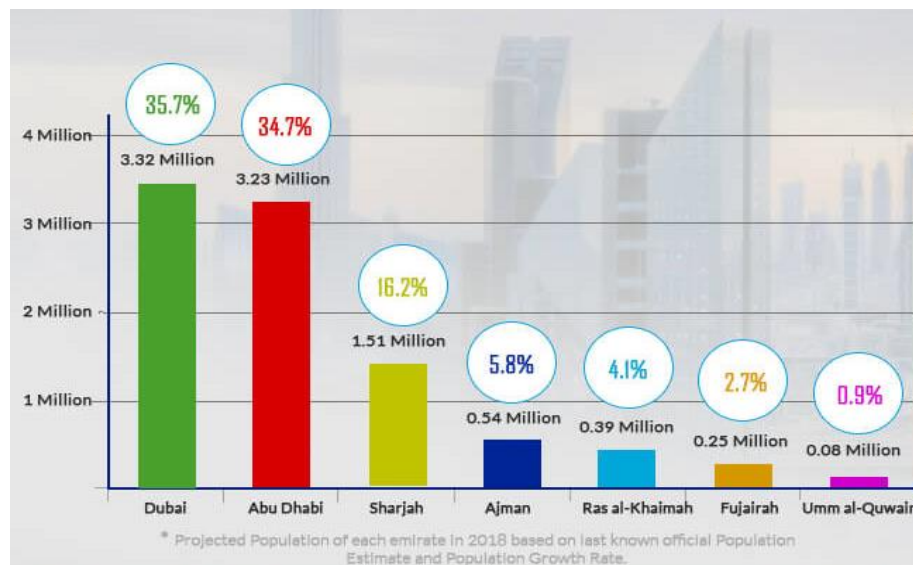
Source: Global Media Insight. Com (2018)

Abu Dhabi, the capital of the UAE, is the richest city among the other emirates with a population of around 3.23 million as of 2018 (Statistics Centre Abu Dhabi 2018). Dubai is the second largest city in the United Arab Emirates in terms of area and accounts for a population of 3.32 million. The impressive pace of change

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in the UAE over the past few decades has led to huge demand for manpower which in turn led to an overreliance on non-national workforce. This has periodically caused concerns about the potential marginalisation of nationals and this so-called "demographic dilemma", has led to a number of labour nationalisation or 'Emiratisation' drives (Forstenlechner & Rutledge, 2011). To date, Emiratisation initiatives have had limited success, and most of these have been in the public sector (Al Ali, 2008; Al Ameri, 2011; Issa, Mustafa, & Al Khoori, 2013).

Figure 2.3 Expatriate population of the UAE 2018

	Millions	Percentage
India	2.623	27.49%
Pakistan	1.211	12.69%
Bangladesh	0.706	7.40%
Philippines	0.530	5.56%
Iran	0.454	4.76%
Egypt	0.404	4.23%
Nepal	0.303	3.17%
Sri Lanka	0.303	3.17%
China	0.202	2.11%
All other countries	1.711	17.94%
Total Expat Population	8.447	88.52%

Source: Global Media Insight. Com. (2018)

The following figure illustrates Emirati population compared to expatriates showing a glaring difference in size.

Figure 2.4 Emirati population compared to expatriates - 2018
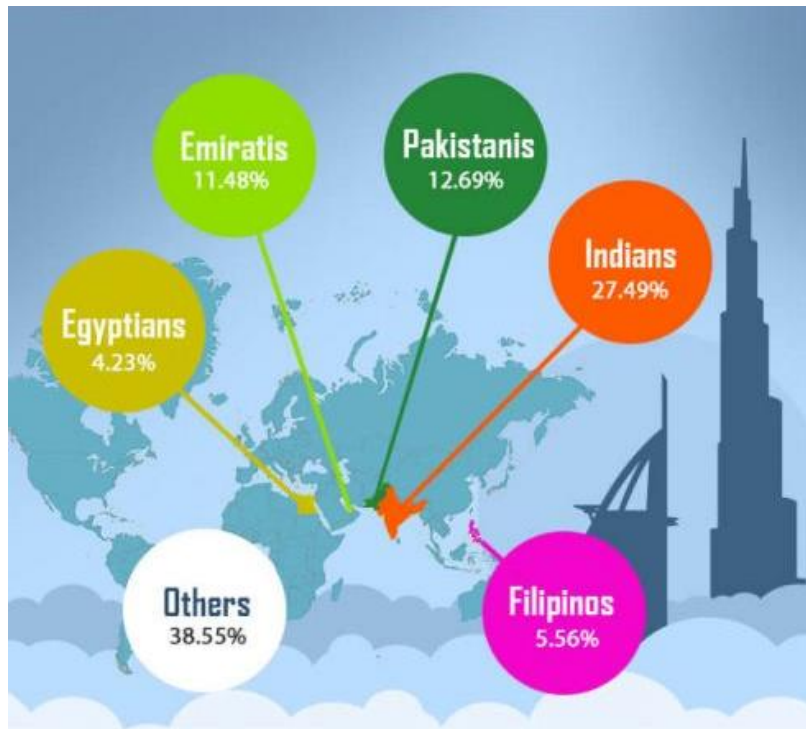
Source: Global Media Insight. Com (2018)

Thus, heavy reliance upon expatriates over the last three decades has led to insufficient development of Emirati manpower, and this could have severe consequences in future economic and human capital development. Davidson and Mackenzie (2012) argue that if the GCC's HE sector does not improve soon, there is a concern that GCC nationals will be left as bystanders as non-nationals will secure most of the employment opportunities being created in the non-oil dependent sectors of the economy. It is argued that the only solution is for the national population to be better educated and better qualified in order to be more competitive vis-à-vis non-national labour. But this is not easy as nationals will need to be able to compete for jobs alongside, for example, bilingual Lebanese and Tunisian expatriates who have benefited from an established, accredited university education in their home country, or Westerners with the skillsets required in the hi-tech knowledge-based sectors of the economy and Asians who

have very low wage demands and are willing to work long hours in all occupational roles. As the UAE has become a melting pot where the UAE nationals live in harmony with the vibrant expatriate community, some argue that this has had a profound impact on the country's culture and national identity.

2.4 General Secretariat of the Executive Council Abu Dhabi (GSEC)

The General Secretary represents the supreme authority, responsible for facilitating the General Secretariat of the Executive Council's business conduct. The General Secretariat of the Executive Council's terms of reference include the following:

- Studying the topics delegated by the Executive Council or its Chairman and following up on the implementation of the instructions issued

- Providing the Executive Council members with required support to make appropriate decisions, as well as facilitating its business conduct, including preparation and presentation affairs.

- Following up on the implementation of the Executive Council's resolutions and legislation.

- Following up on the Executive Council committees' performance administratively and legally, as well as submitting periodic reports in this respect.

- Organising the Executive Council and General Secretariat of the Executive Council's channels of communication with the federal entities, courts of rulers and crown princes, local executive councils, as well as international entities and other authorities determined by the Executive Council.

- Overseeing diplomatic affairs and decrees in coordination with concerned, local and federal entities and other authorities as well, and developing their own policies and strategies and supervising their implementation.

- Receiving, following up on and referring to the individuals and entities' complaints to the competent authorities, such as the Abu Dhabi Executive Office and the Abu Dhabi Accountability Authority.

- Providing a legal opinion on the issues presented to the Executive Council.

- Reviewing and submitting draft local and federal laws, decrees, rules and regulations, resolutions, and agreements to the Executive Council for approval purposes.

- Preparing and issuing Abu Dhabi's Official Gazette.

Source: (2017) https://www.adaep.ae/

Figure 2.5 GSEC key functions and structure

Source : (2017) https://www.adaep.ae/
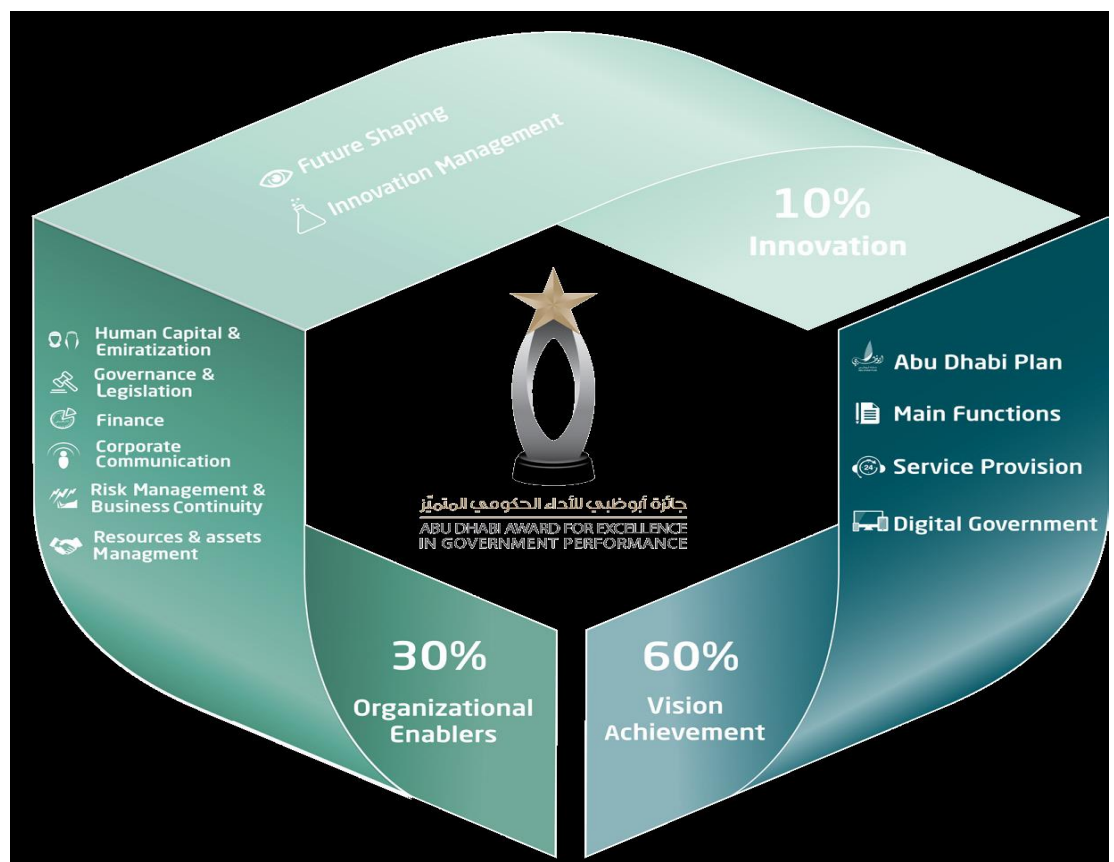
2.5 The economic and political perspective of the UAE

The UAE has witnessed incredible changes over the last few decades. It has become the land of the most extraordinary mega projects, including: the World islands; a 50,000m2 ski dome overlooking the desert; and the latest, a 360

degrees rotating building. Every new project seems more spectacular and surreal than the last to the point where Dubai is likened to Disneyland for grown-ups. In recent years there has been greater emphasis on technology, global trade and tourism in the nation's administrative policies and international relationships to diversify its economy. The UAE is emerging as a global power with an increasing presence and influence in world affairs.

Because of its size, the UAE is now one of the richest countries in the world in per capita income terms (EIU, 2018). The country's proven oil reserves, its principal source of revenue, are just under 100 billion barrels which is about 10 per cent of global reserves; it also has 5.8 trillion cubic meters of natural gas (BP, 2014). Oil was discovered in the 1950s with largescale commercial exports only really beginning in the mid-1960s. In 1935 the D'Arcy Exploration Company, a subsidiary of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company (BP of the United Kingdom), signed a number of exploration treaties with the Trucial States. Of the hydrocarbon resources, 90 per cent of the oil and more than 85 per cent of the gas, is produced in Abu Dhabi. With the rapidly expanded access to modern health care, infant mortality rates dropped sharply and, the average life span increased significantly. In the following decades, these developments, combined with high fertility rates, radically altered the region's demographic profile. At present, 60 per cent of the GCC national population is under 25 years old and the UAE is no exception to this "youth bulge" profile. The UAE's investment in welfare has had direct and indirect effects—it now ranks highly on all of the UN's Human Development Indices (UNDP, 2014). The national population of today is not only younger but also more educated, as the UAE used oil wealth to build schools and more latterly a number of HEIs. In the words of Commins (2012: 298), this allocation of oil

wealth has converted the "sons of herders, fishers and cultivators into bureaucrats and businessmen."

2.5.1 Economic growth in the UAE

The UAE economic prospects are positive, and its pace of development continues to grow. The UAE is the third fastest growing economy in the GCC. To reduce its heavy reliance on oil revenue, the UAE has diversified its economy to develop a more sustainable economy that can withstand long-term oil price volatility and global economic uncertainty.

Other positive system factors for growth include:

- a well-established infrastructure

- a strong banking system

- a stable political system

- a number of free trade zones that can allow 100% foreign ownership and a nil taxation regime

- ongoing and new developments including Sadiyaat Island in Abu Dhabi, Mohammed Bin Rashid City in Dubai, Dubai South, Al Maktoum Airport, Dubai and the Fujairah Master Plan.

Source: (2017)   https://www.adaep.ae/

2.6 Political landscape

To secure its trading routes with India during the 19th century, the UK concluded a series of truces and protectorate agreements with individual sheikhdoms in the Arabian Gulf region. These sheikhdoms were economically underdeveloped and

predominantly tribal ruled during this period. The main political story of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries was the decline and fragmentation of the Qawasim maritime empire in the northeast, and the expansion and consolidation of the inland based, semi nomadic Bani Yas Empire in the southwest under the leadership of the Nahyan tribe (present day rulers of Abu Dhabi). This was accentuated with the discovery of huge quantities of oil in Abu Dhabi and insignificant amounts of oil in the land controlled by the Qawasim (Rugh, 2007). The three external factors that most impacted tribal/Emir rule during this period then were: the increasing British involvement in the affairs of the Trucial States; the acquisition of huge amounts of wealth by some of the rulers after the discovery of oil; and the ensuing rapid urbanisation.

Since then, the UAE has become politically more mature. It is currently governed by a Federal Supreme Council made up of the seven Emirs (one for each Emirate). From 1971 onward the UAE operated under a provisional constitution, which was renewed every five years; this was only made permanent in 1996. The Supreme Council is the highest federal authority and comprises the hereditary rulers of the seven emirates. The council appoints the prime minister, which has to date been the ruler of Dubai, currently Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid al-Maktoum. Upon the death of his father in 2004—the widely respected ("founding father") Sheikh Zayed al-Nahyan—Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed al-Nahyan the ruler of Abu Dhabi, became president of the UAE. The UAE established a half-elected Federal National Council (FNC) in 2006, yet its role to date is largely consultative. The FNC consists of 40 members drawn from all the emirates. Half are appointed by the rulers of the constituent emirates, and the other half are indirectly elected to serve two-year terms

Figure 2.6: Federal Supreme Council
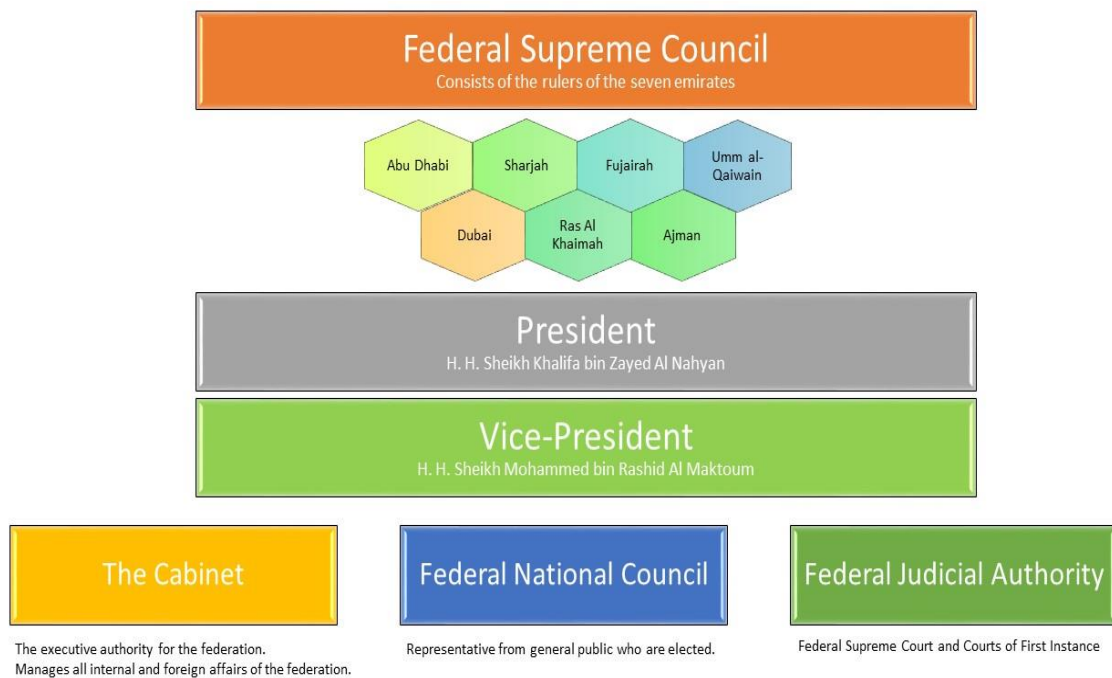
2.6.1 Future outlook

With the recent drop in global oil prices and the diminishing dependence on hydrocarbon resources and moves towards alternatives renewable sources of energy, the political volatility and uncertainty of the Middle East region is likely to keep the UAE and all GCC states and their societies in some degree of tension for the foreseeable future (Davidson, 2012; Commins, 2012; Cooke, 2014). The UAE is at the moment in an enviable position with its prosperity, citizens' level of happiness and lavish life styles because of the generous welfare policies which have won loyalty, obedience and acquiescence to date, but this does not mean they will always do so. According to Freedom House's "Freedom in the World" report, which measures both civil liberties and political rights, the UAE is currently classified as "Not free" (Freedom House, 2015). Having said this, if measured against neighbouring countries, it is considered to be among the most open, well

governed and progressive (World Bank, 2016; World Economic Forum, 2016). It also consistently ranks as the political entity that Arab youth residing in other MENA countries would most like to move to and most would like their respective governments to emulate.

2.7 Emiratisation policy: giving Emirati nationals preferential treatment in the job market

To reduce the big divide in the labour market, the UAE Government launched the Emiratisation ('Tawteen' in Arabic) campaign which imposes the inclusion of Emiratis in the job market, particularly in the private sector. Emiratisation aims to increase the number of Emiratis in the job market and their contribution to the economy. The Emirati government introduced Federal Law No. 8 (1980), also known as the Labour Law in order that national manpower can be generated, boosted and promoted. Foreign companies have started to take part in activities that are in partnership with the development of local citizens. Emirati nationals are always considered to be an exceptional asset for the development of the economy; however, the national shortage of skills had posed a great problem, which has led to the hiring of cosmopolitan people in the UAE for different industries. Many have voiced their concern that many Emirati nationals remain unemployed even though the UAE is booming with growth and economic development. The public and private sectors both are subject to the implementation of the policy of Emiratisation, the policy formed to balance the effect of a foreign workforce. This policy takes into account those barriers and hurdles that come in the way of Emirati individuals when hiring in the labour

market begins. One of the many objectives of this Emiratisation policy is to provide the citizens with optimum job opportunities.

The government introduced a quota system and incentives for recruiting Emirati nationals called *Absher,* an initiative supervised by Ministry of Presidential Affairs. One aspect that is observed is that this policy has been implemented to a greater degree in the public sector rather than the private sector, which has led to the devising of certain rules to make sure it is implemented the same way in the private sector as well. Research has shown that in some sectors, low levels of skills including spoken and written English among potential employees and a lack of employer trust has led to difficulties for Emirati individuals to be recruited. Al-Ali (2008) also states that Emirati nationals believe that there are fewer career opportunities offered in the public sector along with low wages in comparison to the private sector. To make sure that the UAE strategies are implemented in the right manner, the Emiratisation policy needs to be practised in the private sector so that human resource development takes place in an organised way (Al-Ali, 2008). The Emiratisation policy is pertinent to this study because it is about giving the Emirati nationals opportunities to lead and share knowledge and compete in the job market with millions of expatriates.

2.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter is pertinent because it provided at a glance the UAE's economic and political landscape as well as the organisational structure of GSEC, which have a direct bearing on the topic under consideration which aims to investigate the main leadership styles within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council in the UAE. It also seeks to determine whether the leadership styles practised within the GSEC have a direct bearing on employee knowledge sharing.

The conclusion that can be drawn is that the UAE has undergone a massive socio-economic transformation in a very short period of time. It has elevated a small Bedouin society of around 100,000 with virtually no 'modern' infrastructure, in the 1960s, to an ultra-modern, cosmopolitan country today with nearly 10 million people of which 80% are expatriates. The UAE now has a first-class infrastructure and the country's citizens are amongst the richest in the world, be it in GDP per capita or welfare provision terms. However, the long-run "ruling bargain" that has been in place since the UAE's foundation is now resulting in demographic, economic and political strains. While the UAE may have the oil wealth to maintain the status quo for many decades to come, it is clear that policymakers at the highest level are seeking to make national labour more attractive to the commercial and knowledge-based sectors of the economy (Government of Abu Dhabi, 2018; UAE Prime Minister's Office, 2018).

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to critically review the literature in order to contribute and broaden the debate on the influence of leadership styles on a knowledge sharing culture within a public sector organisation, the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the UAE, in line with the research objectives of this study. This study examines the extent to which leadership styles have a direct impact on employee knowledge sharing. It seeks to make recommendations on how to enhance effective leadership practices and increase employee knowledge sharing. This research aims to explore how knowledge is processed, shared and transferred within the GSEC. It seeks to identify the drivers and enablers of enhancing knowledge sharing and the extent to which leadership style has a direct impact on stimulating or impeding employee knowledge sharing. GSEC as a complex public organisation already possesses an important pool of knowledge in the form of staff qualifications, experience and expertise in various domains in dealing with the designs and processes of key projects within GSEC, etc. The challenge is how this knowledge can be harnessed in a coherent and productive way, and whether GSEC leaders are ready to drive and stimulate the collection, exploitation and sharing of knowledge in GSEC. Ideally, GSEC should try to develop a culture in which knowledge is valued across the organisation in order to remain competitive. Thus, the question this study aims to address is, how can GSEC encourage their employees to share knowledge internally?

Much of the literature supports the view that knowledge sharing provides organisations with a variety of potential benefits. Moreover, there is a large body of evidence that indicates that knowledge sharing has a positive impact on organisational performance (Kassab, 2016; Al-Adaileh, and Al-Atawi, 2011; Park, and Kim, 2018; Sedighi, et al 2018; Rice et al 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019).

3.2 Emergence and evolution of knowledge sharing

The broad literature suggests that knowledge sharing and knowledge management have become buzzwords in today's knowledge society (Raudeliuniene, and Kordab, 2019; Sedighi et al 2018; Rice et al, 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019). The pace of technological development has helped in transforming the landscape of knowledge sharing (KS) in the last ten years (Al-Adaileh, and Al-Atawi, 2011; Park, and Kim, 2018). The term KS has now become an established part of the knowledge management jargon. However, knowledge sharing is a multifarious concept which is often used interchangeably with knowledge transfer. Knowledge sharing is not new; it can be dated back to the time of the philosophical debates by Aristotle and Plato (Kordab, Raudeliūnienė, & Meidutė-Kavaliauskienė, 2020; Alexander 2017; Al-Adaileh, and Al-Atawi, 2011; Park, and Kim, 2018). Although the concept has only gained popularity over the last two decades, transmitting and managing knowledge is deeply rooted in history. The pace of technological development has driven KS from modest beginnings to multidimensional levels to respond to the needs and expectations of individuals and organisations and to face the challenges of today's volatile networking society. From its inception to its current form, KS has evolved from its generic sense to a prolific concept. According to Alexander (2017:1)

> "*One of the earliest known iterations of knowledge sharing took the form of cave drawings in 15,000 BC. From there, documentation became more sophisticated, evolving from imagery to alphabets, and from walls to scrolls. Monks and academics took on the role of transcribing books and organizing encyclopaedias, storing knowledge away in exclusive libraries. The invention of the printing press in 1440 was the first time information was easily distributed via print material. It wasn't until over 400 years later that libraries were available to the general public.*"

Moreover, the debate and growing interest generated by KS with its varying degree of complexity provided organisations and businesses with added value. Information became increasingly available and accessible thanks to technological innovation and expansion and these technologies became indispensable, leading to higher levels of connectivity and networking. It quickly became evident that managing and sharing knowledge and information was vital to meet the demand and expectations of individuals and organisations (Alexander 2017; Argote 2012; Al-Alawai, et al. 2007). However, today, many businesses and organisations are still seeking the best strategies for managing and sharing knowledge to capitalise on its full potential. In the same vein, a study conducted by Davidaviciene, Al Majzoub, and Meidute-Kavaliauskiene, (2020) found that culture, motivation, language, conflict, ICT, trust, and leadership had an impact on knowledge sharing in virtual teams.

The way knowledge sharing is perceived and understood varies from one organisation to another, based on the knowledge sharing culture and strategy adopted by the specific organisation (Muhammed, and Zaim, 2020; Avital and Hansen, 2005; Park and Kim, 2018). One of the driving forces of knowledge

sharing stems from the fact that employees must show the disposition to work together and share their knowledge for their individual and joint benefit (Goh, 2002) and leaders must have a commitment to promoting a knowledge sharing culture (Bock and Kim, 2002; Abdallah et al, 2012).

3.3 Defining knowledge-sharing

Knowledge sharing, knowledge transfer and knowledge exchange are often used interchangeably. These labels share common themes and similarities but in fact they are distinct. Jonsson, (2008, 39) argues there is an unclear line between transfer and sharing, stating that: *"Within the frame of reference, both 'knowledge sharing' and 'knowledge transfer' are used and discussed interchangeably."* These different terms are sometimes confused as one and the same as echoed by Paulin and Suneson (2018, 81): *"Knowledge Transfer, Knowledge Sharing and Knowledge Barriers – three blurry terms in KM."* Their indiscriminate use and fuzzy boundaries in defining the above concepts means their differences are not clearly demarcated. This lack of clarity and random use of the term knowledge sharing is supported by Liyanage, et al., (2009, 122), who point out that *"many authors and researchers have failed to provide a clear-cut definition for knowledge transfer and, at times, it has been discussed together with the term 'knowledge sharing.'* Knowledge transfer is used to describe the moving between different units, departments, organisations (Anand, and Walsh, 2016; Alavi et al., 2005; Carrion et al., 2016). In other words, knowledge transfer involves the sharing and the acquisition of knowledge sources. In the same vein, Connelly (2003) describes knowledge sharing as the exchange of knowledge, or the behaviour that help others with knowledge. Alavi et al., (2005) use the terms

knowledge dissemination or knowledge transfer. This process involves sharing and exchanging knowledge among individuals or a network of individuals, a group of people within the organisations and individuals. Ipe (2003) on the other hand, views knowledge sharing between individuals as the process whereby private individuals' knowledge is understood, absorbed and used by others. It means that knowledge sharing is at least a conscious behaviour. It is worth noting that many knowledge holders are also reluctant to give up ownership of knowledge (Anand and Walsh, 2016; Riege, 2007). This is understandable as human nature shows us that some people are willingly inclined to share knowledge, while others, often known as the hoarders, feel reluctant to share it.

Knowledge has many forms and sources. Knowledge sharing may occur between and among individuals, within and among teams, among organisational units, and among organisations (Paulin and Suneson 2018; King 2005). According to Marwick (2001), knowledge can be referred to as information which exists in people's minds or people's experience and understanding. King (2005, 493) argues that: *"A major distinction between knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer (terms that may sometimes be used interchangeably) is that transfer implies focus, a clear objective, and unidirectionality, while knowledge may be shared in unintended ways, multiple directionally, without a specific objective."*

Many other definitions have been put forward to explain and clarify the various shades of meaning and significance of the term KS, some overlapping, others are contradictory. The following definitions of KS are taken from the encyclopaedia of Knowledge Management (Schwartz, 2006) cited in Paulin and Suneson (2018, 81), where knowledge sharing is defined, for example, as:

1) "The exchange of knowledge between and among individuals, and within and among teams, organisational units, and organisations. This exchange may be focused or unfocused, but it usually does not have a clear a priori objective.

2) An exchange of knowledge between two individuals: one who communicates knowledge and one who assimilates it. In knowledge sharing, the focus is on human capital and the interaction of individuals. Strictly speaking, knowledge can never be shared. Because it exists in a context, the receiver interprets it in the light of his or her own background.

3) KS includes a variety of interactions between individuals and groups; within, between, and across groups; and from groups to the organisation.

4) The focused, unidirectional communication of knowledge between individuals, groups, or organisations such that the recipient of knowledge (a) has a cognitive understanding, (b) has the ability to apply the knowledge, or (c) applies the knowledge.

In contrast, incongruities and discrepancies on several levels are clearly evident in some KS definitions as highlighted by the following examples:

a) Sharing taking place between individuals only vs between individuals, teams, units or organisations

b) Focused or unfocused vs clearly focused

c) A transaction vs saying that knowledge can never be shared

d) Unidirectional vs multidirectional

Moreover, the KS literature distinguishes several types of knowledge transfer. For instance, Dixon (2000) highlights five types of knowledge transfer: *serial*

transfer, near transfer, far transfer, strategic transfer, and expert transfer. Dixon (2000) argues that these types of knowledge transfer are fit for different situations and conditions. Furthermore, knowledge may also be shared in intended ways, such as when a team attempts to develop mutual knowledge, a common ground, or knowledge that the parties know they share in common (Cramton, 2001; King 2005; AlShamsi and Ajmal, 2019). Hendriks (2004) suggests three aspects of knowledge sharing which are:

- KS as a process involves a chain of actions, activities and events.
- KS as a process involves two parties and roles which can be played by individuals or groups. One of the parties offers, shows, teaches and instructs knowledge and the other party acquires and learns that knowledge.
- KS is categorised by the characteristics of the knowledge that is shared.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the above debate is that knowledge sharing has emerged as a key research area from a broad and deep field of study on technology transfer and innovation, and moved on more recently to the field of strategic management (AlShamsi and Ajmal, 2019; Karasneh, and Al-zoubi, 2018; Ben Chouikha and Ben Dhaou Dakhli, 2012; Zhu et al, 2016). What transpires from the proliferation of KS definitions is that KS is a multifaceted term and it is not just a matter of transferring, exchanging, reusing information but it is also a cultural mind-set. The core theme that emerges from the KS literature is that KS has become part of the KM landscape and a strategic force for facilitating policy and decision making. The term still lacks clarity and precision in terms of applicability as an operational concept.

Knowledge sharing is a complex concept and process that is not value free and is boosted by internal and external drivers such as culture (national, professional and organisational) and communication (formal and informal channels) within organisations. Knowledge is generally context bound i.e., it is always marked by a particular context, and as a result cultures within this context have a direct impact on the way knowledge is generated, shared and used (Kim, 2007; Park, and Kim, 2018 Sedighi, et al 2018; Rice et al 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019). The following table illustrates the wide scope of how knowledge-sharing is perceived

Table 3.1 Perspectives on the concept of knowledge sharing

Authors	Knowledge sharing Concept
Priyadarshi and Premchandran, (2019)	Millennials and political savvy – the mediating role of political skill linking core self-evaluation, emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour
Lawson (2003)	KS is part of the knowledge management processes
Davenport and Prusak (2005)	"Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers. In organisations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories but also in organisational routines, processes, practices, and norms" (p.4).
Fong et al 2005	Knowledge sharing is a multiple of processes including exchanging knowledge (skills, experience, and understanding) and these processes take place without language (socialisation) or with language (externalisation)
Bock et al (2005)	Sharing knowledge is a behaviour which is likely to be influenced by personal motivation and contextual forces
King (2007)	It has critical influence on the process of decision making in order to name when and where and with whom and what kind of knowledge should be shared

Ardichvili et al (2006)	KS is an element of knowledge culture which is part of the organisational culture
Ismail and Yusof, (2009)	Knowledge sharing is a conscious act that makes the shared knowledge reusable by other people
Dawson, (2001)	The ultimate goal of sharing employees' knowledge is to transfer the knowledge to organisational resources and assets
Ismail and Yusof, (2009).	Knowledge sharing is defined as a process where individuals exchange knowledge (tacit or explicit) and together create a new knowledge
Fong et al (2005)	KS is a social interaction (i.e., functional, organisational, legal, physical)
Oliver and Kandadi (2006)	It is indication of an organisational life method which allows individuals to enjoy the process of creation and exchange of information
Gibbert and Krause (2002)	KS is the willingness of people in an organisation to communicate with others to share the knowledge they have gained or created
Sedighi, et al. (2018)	Multi-level knowledge sharing: the role of perceived benefits in different visibility levels of knowledge exchange
Davenport & Prusak (1998)	Knowledge-sharing (transfer) = transmission + absorption (use of knowledge)
Park and Kim, (2018)	Fostering organisational learning through leadership and knowledge sharing
Jamshed, and Majeed, (2019)	Developing a team culture and team performance through lens of knowledge sharing and team emotional intelligence
Terra (1999)	Process of knowledge dissemination in an organisation at the ontological level.
Szulanski (2000)	Knowledge-sharing is a transfer of knowledge but is not an isolated action where one individual transfers something simply to another. Sharing is an integrated process composed of phases, each one with its own characteristics.
Szulanski and Strocchia (2001)	Knowledge-sharing develops by means of an integrated process that has phases with specific characteristics
Bartol and Srivastava (2002)	Sharing of information, ideas, suggestions and organisationally relevant experiences, of the individual with others

Buono (2005)	Effective occurrence of communication and transmission of knowledge of the storage sources with the collaborators who benefit from or apply them
Tonet and da Paz (2006)	Knowledge-sharing occurs in a process integrated by a set of independent but sequential phases

Source: Compiled by the present researcher

As can be seen from the plethora of KS explanations, the various shades of meaning of knowledge sharing are rather wide-ranging, often overlapping and open-ended. It involves a blend of activities such as access, transfer, exchange, sharing, reuse of knowledge, be it explicit or tacit, individual or collective, with the aim of generating new knowledge (Grundstein, 2004; Paulin and Suneson, 2018; Schwartz, 2006). In other words, an all-inclusive and holistic definition of KS that may be used as a source of reference seems beyond reach. This study argues that the term KS is used widely and loosely. Although different in wording, the above diverse interpretations of KS contain generic meaning which refers to information, skills, experience, expertise, best practice, which is exchanged between individuals outside or inside organisations. Accordingly, McDermott (1999, 69) describes the process of *"knowledge sharing as enabling sharers to guide sharers' thinking and/or using their insights to assist sharers to examine their own situations."*

For the purpose of this study. knowledge sharing simply means the process by which organisational knowledge in all its forms (tacit or explicit) is passed on or exchanged or transferred from individual to individual and from generation to generation to ensure that the organisation's key information is made accessible and available to employees for continuous improvement.

3.4 Importance and benefits of knowledge sharing

The broad literature identifies knowledge sharing as one of the key success factors for sustaining the longevity of an organisation. In an age driven by knowledge, the chances of survival and gaining competitive edge for organisations is enhanced through cooperative and collaborative platforms promoting business knowledge sharing, where all employees are encouraged to participate and provide feedback on the practices and ideas of their teams. These platforms allow the sharing of scientific, technical and operational knowledge, but also include ideas, views and flaws that need to be addressed directly from experienced colleagues. This minimises tacit knowledge in favour of explicit transfer of knowledge, in a written form which can then be evaluated.

KS has important advantages and its effective implementation is thought to provide a number of key benefits to organisations. There is a consensus in the literature that KS is beneficial and worthwhile at both organisational and individual levels. On the organisational level, it contributes to continuous organisational improvement which in turn leads to long term sustainability and success (Argote, 2012; Al-Alawai, et al. 2007; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Paulin and Suneson, 2018; AlShamsi and Ajmal, 2018; Karasneh, and Al-zoubi, 2018; Alexander, 2017). On the individual level, KS promotes and enhances individuals' learning and innovation (Park, and Kim, 2018; Sedighi, et al 2018; Rice et al, 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019; Ben Chouikha and Ben Dhaou Dakhli, 2012; Zhu et al, 2016; Egger, 2013) through improving skills and competencies, transferring knowledge either in the same unit or from one to another (Riege, 2005), and strengthening individuals' capabilities (Cerne et al., 2014; Sedighi, et al, 2018;

Rice et al 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019; Egger, 2013) Thus, many authors support the view that organisations should promote a culture of knowledge sharing rather than knowledge hoarding (Cerne et al. 2014; Sedighi, et al 2018; Rice et al 2019; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019).

Moreover, the KS literature stresses the need to implement a clear KS strategy to be better equipped to deal with today's national and global challenges. Greene (2019, 1) points out that *"knowledge workers spend 30% of their time looking for or recreating information that already exists. When knowledge is not shared and accessible, employees waste time recreating solutions, making mistakes people made before, not getting the insights they need to be productive, and answering the same questions over and over again."* Remarkable development of information and communication technologies has transformed the world, leading to global proliferation of knowledge partly through social networking which constitutes the driving force behind data gathering, storing and analysing. As a result, information and knowledge is accessed and shared quickly among individuals and groups within an organisation through various channels, (sometimes) even without a formal knowledge management programme (Rice et al 2019). Thus, knowledge transfer is about creating an environment whereby knowledge can be shared amongst individuals in the organisation and by promoting a knowledge sharing culture.

In addition, KS as an organisational asset provides advantages and benefits that cannot be overlooked by any organisation (Rice et al, 2019; Avital and Hansen, 2005), in order to successfully achieve its mission objectives, since KS can enable better and faster decision making through enhancing capabilities,

developing organisational learning, driving change and enabling the creation of ideas. This leads to better employee relationships as employees can gain access to valuable information and deliver better results through networking, sharing and managing knowledge, which in turn leads to continuous improvement in performance within an organisation (Argote, 2012; Al-Alawai, et al. 2007; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Paulin and Suneson, 2018; AlShamsi and Ajmal, 2018). The conclusion that can be drawn from the broad literature regarding knowledge sharing benefits can be summed up as follows:

a)   Time saving: Sharing knowledge reduces the time employees spend searching for information thus speeding up the time required to deliver a product or a service, which results in an overall improved performance.

b) Reduces loss of know-how: Knowledge, expertise and know-how are the invaluable assets of an organisation and should be exploited and managed to the advantage of the organisation. Through knowledge sharing, organisations can take ownership of explicit and tacit knowledge and eventually minimise their losses.

c) Creates a knowledge sharing culture: The organisation's knowledge, strength and expertise need to be made visible and available across the departments of the entire organisation. Communication tools like forums, training events, presentations, etc. need to be made more dynamic, and peer-to-peer centred knowledge sharing platforms lead to more easily accessible information.

d) Raises awareness: Knowledge sharing plays a vital role in creating awareness amongst employees in an organisation. It makes employees become aware about what is the importance of sharing knowledge.

e) Provides fast solutions and improves response time: Knowledge sharing allows a team to work together and address problems.

f) Increases co-ordination: Knowledge sharing activities allow the team to exchange ideas with each other and deal with issues, increasing the co-ordination and efficiency of work.

g) Facilitates swift and effective decision-making: the knowledge sharing base can provide the necessary information to facilitate in making the right decision through the thinking power of a large number of users, their experiences, the diversity of views and know-how to reach an objective opinion when making a decision on a given subject. Reusing the available knowledge makes it possible to base decisions on real experiences, feedbacks and the knowledge of a large number of experts and specialists.

h) Openness to new ideas: Knowledge sharing reduces resistance to change by encouraging the acceptance of novel ideas, making individuals open to exchanging best practice and sharing new ideas.

The following figure highlight the key benefits of KS:

Figure 3.1 Key benefits of KS
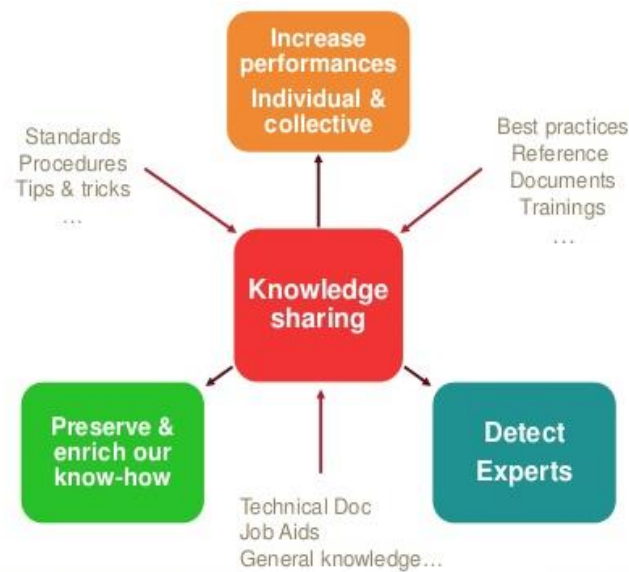
Source: Abelin (2016) Lafarge. JLA Conseil 06-18-94 15-88

3.5 Knowledge sharing constraints

Constraints to sharing knowledge are often behaviour-related. The fact that people are reluctant to share their knowledge is understandable but not a natural behaviour. It is a mind-set (Abelin, 2016). Fernie et al. (2003) stress that knowledge is highly individualistic and that it is embedded in specific social contexts. Thus, the flow of knowledge among colleagues within an organisation is subject to disruption and to hoarding by individuals for personal values, beliefs, and habits in the workplace (Rice et al 2019). Promoting a culture of knowledge is essential, to minimise the hoarding or monopolising of knowledge by only a few people. In the case when they leave or retire, that expertise could be lost (Riege, 2005; Davenport and Prusak, 2005). The literature provides a plethora of potential challenges to successful implementation of knowledge sharing (Sedighi, et al, 2018; Rice et al, 2019; Ismail and Yusof, 2009; Jamshed and Majeed, 2019). The main theme that emerges from the failure of KS within an organisation is attributed to the fact that employees in general are reluctant to share

knowledge. Since knowledge transfer consists of a dual process involving the holder or owner who transmits or transfers their knowledge and the recipient or receiver who absorbs or captures that knowledge, therefore, the knowledge sharing is greatly affected by the relationship between the knowledge owner and the knowledge recipient (Prusak, 2005; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Paulin and Suneson, 2018; Riege, 2005). According to Kocsis (2004) there are two basic models of knowledge sharing depending on the activity of the individuals taking part in the transaction. In the "two-way knowledge sharing" model both participants share their knowledge with each other; thus, they play an active role in the knowledge sharing process. In the "one-way knowledge sharing" model, only one of the participants plays an active part in the process which means that one of the party transmits the knowledge, while the other receives it (Kocsis, 2004). In the same vein, Vazsonyi (2003) identifies two types organisational knowledge sharing which consists of spontaneous and forced knowledge sharing. Spontaneous sharing of knowledge has the following characteristics (Vazsonyi, 2003):

a) The knowledge sharing process occurs willingly without any outside force;

b) A high level of knowledge approach is required by employees of the organisation, which is based on a supporting organisational culture;

c) Knowledge is shared voluntarily with organisational employees and with the organisation

The following table summarises the different classifications of knowledge sharing that have been discussed above:

Table 3.2: Classification of knowledge sharing: Source: Khan (2014)

Authors	Classification of Knowledge Sharing	
(Kocsis, 2004)	One-way knowledge sharing	
	Two-way knowledge sharing	
(Li, 2008)	Knowledge contribution	
	Knowledge consuming	
(Taminiau, Smit, & Lange, 2009)	Formal knowledge sharing	
	Informal knowledge sharing	
(Vries, Hooff, & Ridder, 2006)	Knowledge sharing behaviours	➢ Knowledge donating ➢ Knowledge collecting
	Knowledge sharing attitudes	➢ Willingness ➢ Eagerness
(Teng & Song, 2011)	Solicited knowledge sharing	
	Voluntary knowledge sharing	
(Vazsonyi, 2003)	Spontaneous knowledge sharing	
	Forced knowledge sharing	

Source: compiled by the present researcher

Riege, (2005) suggests a broad list of knowledge-sharing barriers which are pertinent for this study and worth considering. The knowledge-sharing barriers suggested are divided into three categories: personal, organisational and technological:

A. Personal knowledge sharing barriers

- general lack of time to share knowledge, and time to identify colleagues in need of specific knowledge;

- apprehension or fear that sharing may reduce or jeopardise people's job security;

- low awareness and realisation of the value and benefit of possessed knowledge to others;

- dominance in sharing explicit over tacit knowledge such as know-how and experience that requires hands-on learning, observation, dialogue and interactive problem solving;

- use of strong hierarchy, position-based status, and formal power ("pull rank");

- insufficient capture, evaluation, feedback, communication, and tolerance of past mistakes that would enhance individual and organisational learning effects

- differences in experience levels;

- lack of contact time and interaction between knowledge sources and recipients;

- poor verbal/written communication and interpersonal skills;

- age differences;

- gender differences;

- lack of social network;

- differences in education levels;

- taking ownership of intellectual property due to fear of not receiving just recognition and accreditation from managers and colleagues;

- lack of trust in people because they misuse knowledge or take unjust credit for it;

- lack of trust in the accuracy and credibility of knowledge due to the source; and differences in national culture or ethnic background; and values and beliefs associated with it (language is part of this).

B. Organisational knowledge sharing barriers

- integration of KM strategy and sharing initiatives into the company's goals and strategic approach is missing or unclear;
- lack of leadership and managerial direction in terms of clearly communicating the benefits and values of knowledge sharing practices;
- shortage of formal and informal spaces to share, reflect and generate (new) knowledge;
- lack of transparent rewards and recognition systems that would motivate people to share more of their knowledge;
- existing corporate culture does not provide sufficient support for sharing practices;
- deficiency of company resources that would provide adequate sharing opportunities;
- external competitiveness within business units or functional areas and between subsidiaries can be high (e.g., not invented here syndrome);
- communication and knowledge flows are restricted into certain directions (e.g., top-down);
- physical work environment and layout of work areas restrict effective sharing practices;
- internal competitiveness within business units, functional areas, and subsidiaries can be high;

- hierarchical organisation structure inhibits or slows down most sharing practices; and

- size of business units often is not small enough and unmanageable to enhance contact and facilitate ease of sharing.

C) Technological knowledge sharing barriers

- lack of integration of IT systems and processes impedes on the way people do things;

- lack of technical support (internal and external) and immediate maintenance of integrated IT systems obstructs work routines and communication flows;

- unrealistic expectations of employees as to what technology can do and cannot do;

- lack of compatibility between diverse IT systems and processes;

- mismatch between individuals' need requirements and integrated IT systems and processes restrict sharing practices;

- reluctance to use IT systems due to lack of familiarity and experience with them;

- lack of training regarding employee familiarisation of new IT systems and processes;

- lack of communication and demonstration of all advantages of any new system over existing ones. (Source: Riege, 2005)

Similarly, Gurteen (2007) suggests the following list of barriers to knowledge sharing:

1.   A silo mentality

2.   Knowledge is power

3.   Lack of knowledge sharing processes

4.   No time allowed

5.   No knowledge sharing by executives

6.   Managers to not walk the talk

7.   Poor IT systems

8.   Lack of encouragement

9.   Bureaucracy

10.   Resistance to change by managers

Hubert and Lopez (2013) also suggested a list of obstacles to knowledge sharing depicted in the following figure:

Figure 3.2 Breaking the Barriers to Knowledge Sharing

Source: Hubert and Lopez, (2013).

As can be seen, the recurrent factors inhibiting the implementation of KS appears to be relationships, time, trust and knowledge hoarding which need to be addressed for any chance to successfully create a KS environment and culture. This requires leadership and senior management support and a clearly communicated knowledge sharing strategy. In addition, it is important to align KS with motivational incentives for KS users and provide high quality technical and organisational infrastructure. The importance of knowledge sharing cannot be overstated. It is paramount for organisations that want to survive and individuals who want to expand their skillset to embrace KS and promote a culture of knowledge sharing. Knowledge sharing reflects the individual's mind set, individuals who are spontaneously willing to benefit other people by their knowledge and experience.

3.6 The role of leadership in driving knowledge sharing

This study investigates the extent to which leadership styles at GSEC drive or inhibit knowledge sharing. The current political and social waves of change across the Middle East have put organisations and government leadership under pressure to be proactive and get rid of their traditional ways of doing things, to respond to the challenges that have emerged and address public expectations and needs. Much of the previous research on leadership and its impact on leading change has concentrated on identifying leaders' characteristics and attributes, while popular and common models, theories and styles are investigated to find out the impact of leadership effectiveness in these organisational settings (Yaghi, 2017, 2008b; Singhry, 2018; Javidan et al., 2006; Yukl, 2013). Singhry (2018) argues that it is erroneous to attempt to attach labels of leadership styles, (transformational, transactional, laisser-faire, etc.), in a changing organisational environment, as leadership styles cannot be confined to sets of behavioural patterns.

Many studies conducted in various organisational settings have demonstrated that leadership can effectively promote knowledge sharing. For instance, Muhammed and Zaim, (2020) examined knowledge sharing by specifically focusing on peer knowledge sharing and reinforcing leadership support, while stressing the importance of knowledge sharing. Their findings suggest that employees' engagement in knowledge sharing behaviour with their peers and their managers' leadership support, exert a positive impact on organisations' knowledge management success, which, in turn, can affect organisations' innovation performance positively. Leadership support of the immediate manager is found to be an important factor that contributes to the respondent's peer knowledge sharing behaviour (Muhammed and Zaim, 2020), Javaid, et al (2018)

explored the impact of authentic leadership on knowledge-sharing behaviour and the moderating role of Islamic work ethics. They found a positive correlation between authentic leadership, Islamic work ethics and knowledge-sharing behaviour. Birasnav, Albufalasa, and Bader's, (2013) study findings showed that transformational leadership has direct influence over product and process innovation, and employees' day-to-day involvement in the knowledge management process such as acquiring, transferring, and applying knowledge. Xia and Yang's, (2020) study also demonstrated that servant leadership behaviours increase levels of knowledge sharing behaviours. The results of this study show that ethical leadership has a direct and positive effect on knowledge sharing. Swanson, et al. (2020) conducted a study entitled: 'The effect of leader competencies on knowledge sharing and job performance'. The study findings revealed that leader competencies are critical for promoting knowledge sharing and enhancing employee job performance. Both knowledge sharing and employee job performance are found to have a direct effect on employee loyalty.

In summary, the main theme that emerged from the above debate is that knowledge sharing is the driving force for organisational success and knowledge sharing does not just happen. It needs to be enabled and nurtured. There is a consensus among authors that the leaders of an organisation have a massive impact on employee's willingness to share valuable information and expertise with their peers. KS requires the right conditions and enablers for employees to feel comfortable with sharing knowledge and ideas:

- The right atmosphere and knowledge culture is essential to fostering KS

- Encouraging an environment of trust between leaders and employees

- Limiting the leader's visibility and impulse to constantly intervene

- Leaders make the effort to communicate clearly their vision and keep in touch.

3.7 Defining leadership

Leadership is not new; it dates back to ancient times, where leadership was practised in some form or other (Northouse, 2013; Bell, 2013; Stodgill, 1974; Charry, 2012; Bryman, 1986; Grint, 2000; Yukl, 2006; Bass and Bass, 2010). According to Bass (2008: 3) all societies have some form of leadership: *"even when a society does not have institutionalised chiefs, rulers, or elected officials, there are always leaders who initiate action and play central roles in the group's decision making."* Bass' view (2008) suggests that people are completely dependent on caretakers to survive during a long period of their lives, and thereby become accustomed to, and accepting of, someone leading and showing them the way. However, despite the extensive research conducted on leadership, it remains an elusive, and ambiguous construct (Pfeffer, 1993; Avolio, et al. 2009). Zumitzavan and Michie (2015: 7) support the view that: *"the literature is undecided about how leadership is formed. There have been wide-ranging discussions on whether leadership is derived from 'nature' or 'nurture': Are individuals born as leaders, or trained in leadership (Shriberg and Shriberg 2011)?"* Leadership styles are variable; different styles are fit for different environments and in different situations and each leader needs to be malleable and adopt a particular style to fit the situation and the circumstances. According to Johannsen (2018:33), leadership style is viewed as "*A set of behaviours that*

one consciously chooses to use that best fits the situation. When the situation changes, so does the style."

Owing to its long history and extensive literature, leadership and leadership styles is a research area which has generated prolific research as demonstrated by the vast publications on leadership and yet it still generates conflicting views. As Fisher (1985:168) points out *"Leadership is probably the most written about social phenomenon of all time"* and yet it is still shrouded in vagueness and not well grasped due to its complex and multifarious dimensions and perspectives. Leadership has become a big industry providing training courses for would be leaders (Alyn, 2010). Gaps still remain for further theoretical and empirical study, particularly in the Middle East. Many studies stress that the style of leadership directly affects the level of employees' creative and KS initiatives (Bass and Bass, 2008; Lussier and Achua, 2013).

In today's turbulent and rapid changing business environment, a firm's competitive advantage is closely related to its leaders' ability to drive its human capital to create and disseminate new knowledge solutions (Liu and Li 2018). To this end, one of the key roles of leadership is to instil a culture of the sharing of knowledge amongst followers.

The topic of leadership still generates plenty of interest as demonstrated by the prolific publications. Many argue that there is a leadership shortage. This vacuum has led to the search to develop future leaders equipped with skills fit for the 21st century. Leaders have always been in short supply and high demand (Miranda 2019, Day et al., 2009; Day, 2014; Bass and Bass, 2014; Ghani et al 2018, Yukl, 2008; Northouse, 2016; Mullins, 2010). This focus on leadership is now pervasive

as it is viewed as a game changer, driving change, bringing new direction, transformation, failure or success to both private and public-sector organisations alike (Ali, 2012; Kouzes and Posner, 2006, Ghani et al 2018).

The following extensive and diverse range of definitions shows that there are recurrent themes and similar explanations of what leadership means, albeit worded differently. This leads this study to argue that leadership is an overarching term. Whilst most researchers have, in general, defined leadership according to their particular personal perspectives and areas of interest, almost all definitions have their own particular perspective. The majority of definitions tend to agree that the process of leadership is one that happens when an individual has an influence in order to try and drive performance within a group or organisation (Yukl, 2002). Four central elements of the leadership concept have been identified by Northouse (2010). These are:

a) Leadership has involvement with goal attainment

b) Leadership is something that involves influence

c) Leadership can be thought of as a process and

d) Leadership occurs within the context of a group

Thus, leadership is viewed as:

- *"the process of being perceived by others as a leader"* (Lord and Maher, 1991, 11). A leader is not a leader unless he is perceived as one. He will not be able to influence his followers and cause them to change their views, beliefs, attitudes, and motivations unless they accept him as a leader.

- For Fiedler (1967), leadership involves direction and coordination of group member work;

- For Burns (1978), leadership can be seen when people mobilise resources, including political ones, in order to engage, arouse and ultimately satisfy follower motives;

- For Yukl (1981), leadership comprises processes that have an influence upon subordinate action;

- Leadership is *"the behaviour of an individual . . . directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"* (Hemphill & Coons, 1957: 7).

- Leadership is *"the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation"* (Katz & Kahn, 1978, 528).

- Leadership is *"the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal achievement"* (Rauch & Behling, 1984, 46).

- *"Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished"* (Richards & Engle, 1986, 206).

- *"Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose"* (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, 281).

- Leadership *"is the ability to step outside the culture…to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive"* (Schein, 1992, 2).

- *"Leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed"* (Drath & Palus, 1994, 4).

- Leadership is *"the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation . . ."* (House et al., 1999,184).

- For Nel et al. (2004), leadership is the process whereby one individual influences others, to willingly and enthusiastically direct their efforts and abilities towards attaining a defined group or organisational goals.

- Cole (2005) defines leadership as a dynamic process whereby one man influences others to contribute voluntarily to the realisation and attainment of the goals and objectives; the essence of leadership is to help a group or an organisation to attain sustainable development and growth

- Kellerman (2004, 69) believes scholars should understand that leadership is not a moral concept. Leaders are like the rest of us: trustworthy and deceitful, cowardly and brave, greedy and generous. To assume that all leaders are good people is to be wilfully blind to the reality of the human condition, and it severely limits our scope for becoming more effective at leadership.

- Hellriegel et al. (2004, 286) have described leadership as the *"The ability to influence others to act toward the attainment of a goal."*

- Yukl (2010, 104) stated*: "Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives."*

- Mullins (2010), for his part, defined leadership as a form of relationship that enables the behaviour of people to be affected by an individual.

- Lussier and Achua (2010) believe that leadership is a process, in social terms, that involves people being directed by someone who is a leader through communication methods towards attainment of certain goals within a particular context.

- Fullan (2007:17), leadership is "the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers"

- Zand (1997) reduced leadership to only three variables or forces: knowledge, trust and power.

- Krause (1997:14) used a far-eastern philosophy, defining leadership as "the will to control events, the understanding to chart a course, and the power to get a job done, cooperatively using the skills and abilities of other people."

- Adair (1988), argues for the need to possess the qualities expected or required in their working groups, and that leadership implies personality, with enthusiasm and warmth, and character, incorporating moral courage and integrity, which are also important.

The following table sums up the different and views of "leadership" with common features across the definitions. Although, some definitions are dated, they are the most referred to in the literature and remain credible to an extent.

Table 3.3: Leadership definitions

Leadership is …	
Hemphill and Coons (1957:7)	*"the behavior of an individual ... directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal"*
Katz and Kahn (1978:528)	*"the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation"*
Burns (1978:18)	*"exercised when persons ... mobilize ... institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers"*
Rauch and Behling (1984: 46)	*"the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement"*
Jacobs and Jaques (1990:281)	*"a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose''*
Schein (1992:2)	*"the ability to step outside the culture ... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive"*
Drath and Palus (1994: 204)	*"the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed"*
Kouzes and Posner (1995:30)	*"a dynamic process, where leaders mobilize others to get extraordinary things done. To do so, leaders engage five practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart"*
House *et al.*, (1999:184)	*"the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization..."*

Source: Yukl, 2002

In summary, the sample of definitions highlighted above suggests that providing a definition that is holistic and comprehensive and which captures or encapsulates what leadership is or means, has been difficult to find. As Schmoker, (2001, 19), put it *"Leadership consists of method, not magic."* Although authors seem to have used different labels and terms to explain what leadership means, four central elements of the leadership concept seem to reoccur as pointed out by Northouse (2010). These are:

a) Leadership has involvement with goal attainment,

b) Leadership is something that involves influence,

c) Leadership can be thought of as a process and

d) Leadership occurs within the context of a group.

As times are changing, so is the understanding and definition of leadership. A leader is no longer viewed exclusively as powerful or influential personality ordering people around. The recent studies consider a leader as a key player in terms of commitment, involvement, vision and engagement (Avolio et al., 2009). For the purpose of this study, leadership is about social influence, whereby the leader drives or enables followers to change their views, beliefs, attitudes, and motivations (Parry 1988).

3.8 Leadership theories

Leadership dates back to ancient times, yet still attracts interest from academics, businesses and individuals, as demonstrated by the prolific recent publications Leadership theories have evolved over the years and some of the widely quoted leadership theories can be grouped into two main streams. Early leadership theories aimed at highlighting the traits and attributes of the individual leader. The core argument of these theories suggest that great leaders are born not made. They have innate traits necessary to lead people. Later leadership theories shifted their investigation to situational and contingency leadership. The key argument of these theories is that leadership styles of the individual leader must be adaptable and matching their style to the specific situation or mind-sets of the employees (Drucker 2012; Avolio et al., 2009; Robbins and Judge 2008.)

The following overview focuses on a range of leadership theories starting from the four core theories to the recent leadership types, the purpose of which is to provide a clearer understanding of the concept of leadership and its evolution.

3.9 The four key theories of leadership

3.9.1 The Great Man leadership theory

The Great Man Theory of leadership is based on the assumption that leadership is in some individuals an inherent attribute. The Great Man theory suggests that leaders are born with innate natural qualities which drive them to be great leaders. Moreover, leadership was believed to be predominantly a male attribute often associated with military leaders of that time. Thus, the main enabler of the Great Man theory is that leaders are born, not made. In other words, there is a belief that some leaders are 'born to rule' and that some attributes or traits make some individuals better suited to leadership.

Despite the complex nature of today's world, the Great Man leadership theory still prevails and is popular in some regions of the world such as some regimes in Africa, the Middle East, etc. where leadership does not change hands and where leaders have a tight grip on power, firmly believing that they have almost a divine right to rule their country for life and on a hereditary principle. As Janse, (2019:3) points out: *'According to the Great Man Theory of leadership, leaders are God's gift to humanity. No one would be able to become great if there were no such thing as innate leadership traits. The Great Man theory can be compared to the idea that kings have a divine right to rule and govern their subjects. This divine right is inherited by their descendants.'*

3.9.2 Flaws of the Great Man leadership theory:

The Great Man leadership theory lacks credibility as there is no empirical evidence to support the notion that some people are born to be leaders or become great and successful leaders by birth right and inherent traits.

The reasons are not difficult to deduce and are summarised by Janse (2019):

(i) There is nothing inborn, divine or mysterious about leadership qualities. Born leaders are fantasy characters. The so called born leaders tend to be misfits in the modern complex fast changing conditions and the complex needs and demands of society for effective leadership in all spheres of activities.

(ii) Leaders are ordinary mortals who happen to acquire certain characteristics and skills useful for influencing other people. Leadership qualities can be acquired and sharpened by anyone through proper education, training and exposure.

(iii) Leadership qualities and traits by themselves are not sufficient for achieving effectiveness. Situational factors, in conjunction with leadership skills and qualities, have considerable influence on both the emergence and effectiveness of leaders.

(iv) The genetic or great man theory of leadership does not provide a scientific, verifiable and predictable explanation of why, how and when leaders emerge and become effective, what are the critical qualities needed for achieving greatness in leadership, and why as between two leaders of comparable qualities, one becomes effective and the other fails. (Adapted from Janse, 2019:3)

3.9.3 Trait Leadership theory

Leadership traits theories have the merit of identifying key characteristics of leaders such as personality, social, physical, or intellectual traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Stodgill (1974) points out that early theorists focused on the personality aspect of leadership or the Great Man Theory, viewing certain characteristics of the person as key in demonstrating leadership behaviour such as self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability (Charry, 2012; Burke 2006). However, one of the limitations of leadership traits theory is that theorists fell short of considering matters such as the interaction between individual and situational variables and that early theorists also tended to develop theories that simply account for the characteristics that great leaders possess. This approach to leadership interpretation is flawed according to Saddler (1997, 28) who indicates that: *"this methodology has two problems, firstly the world's most effective leaders display widely different personal qualities and secondly, studying such leaders is one thing, however being able to copy one of these leaders would be extremely difficult."* This view is supported by Yukl (2006, 3) who suggests that *"when defining leadership in a restrictive way, researchers are likely to take a narrow perspective on the process to be studied and it is likely they will not discover things unrelated to their initial assumptions."*

Thus, trait leadership theory is a leadership which is attribute driven. It suggests that an effective leader comes with a full package of personality "traits, such as charisma, integrity, empathy, assertiveness, good decision-making skills, and amicability). These are considered useful when leading others. Moreover, these leadership traits are not learnt or developed, they are simply innate. In other words, leaders have these traits from birth. However, Bennis (2007, 3) states that:

"Throughout the years, the views of what leadership is and who can exercise it has changed considerably." This study argues that it has become increasingly evident that leaders are not born but made. Today's effective and successful leader must have a set of individual skills and attributes, in addition to, experience, knowledge, commitment, engagement, and most importantly the skill to listen, work and motivate others to achieve the mission objectives. Effective leadership skills are developed through a continuous process of improvement, education, training, and experience (Bass & Bass, 2008; Lamb, 2013).

In the context of the UAE, GSEC future leaders will need to demonstrate strong personality, character and individual skills and attributes to implement the necessary changes and move the organisation forward to successfully respond to future UAE social and economic pressures and challenges in line with the UAE Vision 2030.

3.9.4 Behavioural Leadership theory

Dissatisfied with the limited scope of the leadership traits theory, behavioural leadership theories emerged providing fresh insights and new perspectives by focusing on the behaviours of the leaders as opposed to their mental, physical or social characteristics. In the behavioural leadership theory, the behaviour of the leader is the focal point. They seek to explain how leaders combine task and relationship behaviours to influence subordinates in their efforts to achieve their targets (Kottler, 2001). In contrast to the trait theory, where leaders are born, behavioural leadership theory claims that anyone with the right attributes and skills could be a leader. In other words, leaders are made, not born – just look at what leaders actually do. Behavioural leadership theory examines how leaders

behave. It looks at whether leaders use command and control in getting things done and expect followers to obey orders or whether they involve their followers in decision-making, listen to their feedback, motivate and appreciate their effort. Research into relationship behaviour was an important development in leadership theory as it views leadership as a relationship between individuals and not a characteristic of the individual leader (Gill, 2011). Avery (2004, 72) echoes the same view and suggests that *"studying relationship behaviours was important because until this time, most of the focus in organisations had been on making tasks as efficient as possible, with individual workers being considered rather irrelevant."* However, one of the shortcomings of behavioural theory is that it is difficult to generalise effective behaviours across situations. In short, it is well acknowledged that leaders' behaviours have a direct bearing on followers' performance. Mavranic (2005:394) rightly points out *"Leadership is a relationship between leaders and followers, both individual and group, in mutual pursuit of organisational outcomes and in the fulfilment of individual wants and needs"*

However, there is a consensus amongst researchers that different situations and times require different leadership behaviours and styles and that there is no one size fits all leadership behaviour or style. An effective leader is one who is flexible and who can adjust their behavioural styles accordingly, and choose the right style for each situation (Northouse, 2014; Bass & Bass, 2008; Lamb, 2013)

3.9.5 The Contingency Leadership theory

The behavioural leadership theory was followed by the contingency leadership theory which argues that every leadership style is situational i.e., it is based on certain situations. It stipulates that the leader's ability to lead is contingent upon

various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of followers and also various other situational factors (Bass and Bass, 2008; Lamb, 2013). Contingency Theory of leadership claims that the success of a leader depends not only on their skills but on many other influencing factors such as work environment, culture and employees, all of which have a direct impact on the type of leadership style adopted. It could be argued that the contingency leadership theory extended and built on the leadership trait theory. It suggests that individual leader's traits and characteristics are related to the situation in which the leaders exercise their leadership. In the contingency theories, leaders are more likely to articulate their leadership when they feel that their followers will be responsive and receptive. In other words, a leader must fit the situation: leadership is context bound. The situation in which a leader operates, determines their leadership style. (Northouse, 2010; Burns, 1998; Bass and Bass, 2009). Clearly there is no flawless or standardised leadership theory which can be used in all situations and in all cultural and organisational settings. In the following table, the strengths and weaknesses of the theory are outlined:

Table 3.4 Strength and weaknesses of leadership contingency theory

Strengths	Weaknesses

Leadership contingency theory provides different shades of meaning of leadership. It argues that the situation dictates the kind of leadership style required.	It does not account for the position of the leader – although it is a leadership theory, it places too much emphasis on the situation and overlooks the leader as a key player.
It stresses that different situations require different leadership styles and that cultural and organisational settings have a direct impact on the success of a leader	Can be unrealistic and difficult to put into practice
Leadership contingency theory enables HR organisations to plan, train and recruit leaders with profiles that fit the needs and achieve mission objectives of their organisations	Falls short of providing opportunities to improve leaders' attributes as it only focusing on the situation. The theory primarily proposes specific types of styles which all leaders are supposed to fall under.

Source: Compiled by the present researcher

The following figure illustrates the evolution of leadership theories:

Figure 3.3: Evolution of theories of leadership
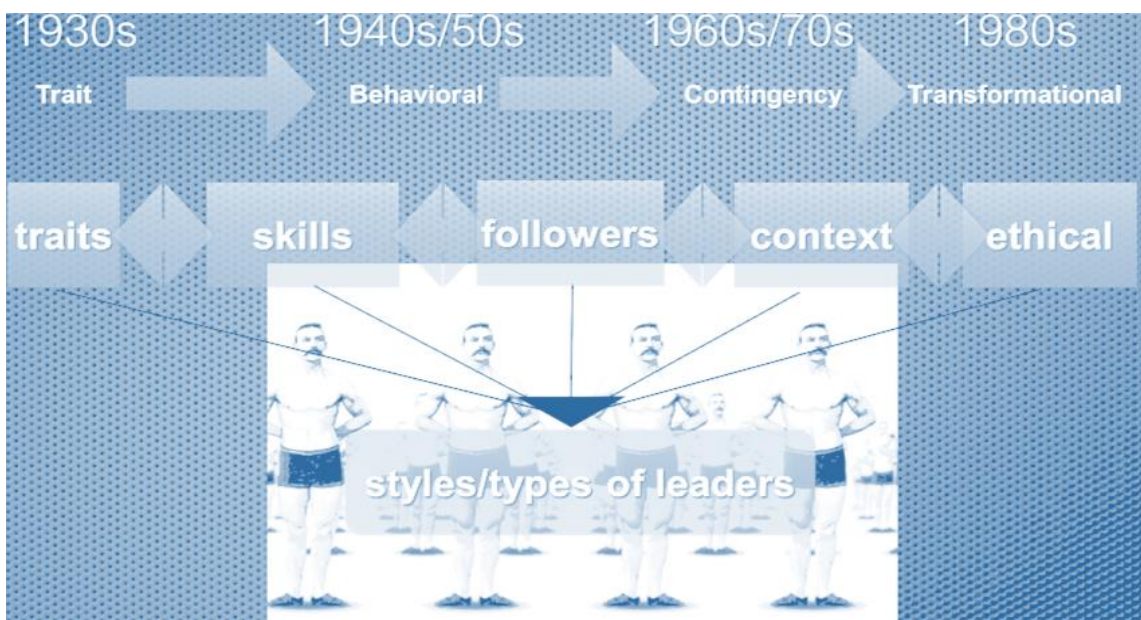
Source: Typology of leaders or styles of leadership (2004)

As can be seen from the extensive literature, leadership evolved through a series of schools of thought that range from the early theories of the 'great man' and

'traits' through to theories of 'transformational leadership' (Stogdill, 1948; Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2007; Yukl, 2010). Early leadership theories tend to concentrate on the behaviours and characteristics of leaders that have been successful. More recently, theories have consideration for the context for leadership and examine the function that followers play and their relationship to the leader.

The section that follows discusses the most commonly found styles of leadership within the business world, with three in particular that are focused upon within this study, i.e. transactional, laissez-faire and transformational leadership styles.

3.10 Distinguishing Transactional and Transformational leadership

3.10.1 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership theory, also known as management theory or exchange theory of leadership, represents a transaction between the leader and the followers. Transactional leaders guide or motivate their followers towards clear goals by clarifying roles and task requirements (Northouse, 2010; Burns, 1998; Bass and Bass, 2009). In today's context, transactional leaders exist in many organisations. A transactional leader's basic strategy is to use an incentive plan as a means to drive employees' performance and to achieve the leader-assigned tasks. In other words, reward in a form of bonus is provided when employees have achieved their targets, but when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished. Although, the transactional leader may be effective to some extent through assigning roles and responsibilities for each employee, the tasks may become routine with little innovation. As employees are not encouraged to take initiative or be innovative creative or engage in new solution-findings to problems, this could lead to employees doing just the bare-minimum to match their reward

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especially when employees find out how much their effort is worth. Transactional leadership tends to be most effective in workplaces involving straightforward routine jobs with challenges or awkward situations. Transactional leadership styles tend to exist within the military and big corporations.

The key attributes of transactional leaders can be summed as follows: they are generally responsive and tend to work within the existing organisational culture, maintain the status quo and stress correct actions to improve performance. The employees work according to a clear set of objectives to obtain rewards if they succeed in achieving their tasks and punishments if they fail. Transactional leaders motivate followers by appealing to their own self-interest (Burns 2004; Northouse 2014). According to Burns (2004) transactional leaders exchange tangible rewards for the work and loyalty of followers.

3.10.2 Transformational Leadership

The transformational leadership theory appeared in the 1980's. Transformational leaders have an ethical and moral commitment to their followers and to the mission of the organisation. Transformational leaders interact with others and can build a solid relationship that involves a high level of trust that will later result in an increase of motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, in both leaders and followers (Northouse, 2010; Burns, 1998; Bass and Bass, 2009). In short, transformational leaders transform their followers through their inspirational nature and charismatic personalities. Bass and Riggio (2006:69) argue:

> *"Transformational leaders…are those who stimulate and inspire followers*
> *to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their*
> *own leadership capacity. Transformational leaders help followers grow and*

develop into leaders by responding to individual followers' needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organisation."

Transformational leaders provide the four "I's" (individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, idealised influence, and intellectual stimulation (Charry, 2012; Lamb, 2013; Bryman, 1992, Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Tichy and Devanna, 1990; Yukl, 1981, 1989, Bass and Riggio (2006)). Similarly, transformational leadership demonstrates how leaders meet the higher needs of their followers (Banks et al., 2016). Buil (2019) also echoes the similar views that transformational leadership has a positive impact on job performance and organisational behaviour which in turn leads to effective KS. In terms of the impact of transformational leadership on employee KS, both Ghani (2018) and Besieux (2018) argue that transformational leadership has a significant positive impact on employee engagement. Acting as a role model, the behaviours of transformational leaders mean that the leader has a moral duty and sets a good example for his subordinates through his actions.

Transformational leadership is often viewed as an effective leadership style to use in business. Transformational leaders show integrity, and they are inspiring, they have a vision of the future. They motivate people to achieve this vision (Lamb, 2013; Bryman, 1992, Burns, 1978; Bass, 2004).

The following figure shows the difference between Transactional leadership and Transformational leadership

Figure 3.4: Transactional vs Transformational leadership

What distinguishes **Transformational Leadership**...

Leaders acknowledge every follower's needs, provide support and empathy, and are considerate of individual talents, backgrounds and situations.	Leaders create appealing visions by showing optimism about followers' abilities. Leaders create a sense of purpose and encourage team spirit.	Leaders act as role models by adhering to high levels of ethical and moral conduct, thereby providing a sense of vision and mission. Followers trust and respect them.	Leaders challenge assumptions, take risks, and help followers think outside the box. They provide stimulation, creativity and innovation.
Individualized Consideration	**Inspirational Motivation**	**Idealized Influence**	**Intellectual Stimulation**

...from **Transactional Leadership**?

Leaders put emphasis on the relationship to followers, stressing hierarchy and a chain of command.	Leaders are reactive to actions taken by followers. Leaders set goals and expectations, and focus on efficiency.	Leaders employ a system of rewards and punishments based on followers' activities, and provide constructive feedback.	Leaders focus on established rules and procedures that ensure organizational growth, maturity and efficiency.

Source: Bass and Riggo (2006) & Judge and Riggo (2004)

Transactional and Transformational leadership styles are the two most widely referred to leadership styles. These have been investigated from all angles and in various organisational and cultural settings. Burns (1978) distinguished between transformational and transactional leaders suggesting that transactional leaders are those who exchange tangible rewards for followers' loyalty and work. In contrast, transformational leaders, are those who are involved with their followers and concentrate more on intrinsic needs that are higher order and who raise the consciousness of followers in relation to the significance of particular outcomes and the new ways that outcomes could be achieved. Transformational leaders tend to exhibit active types of behaviour including the provision to followers of a sense of purpose, whereas transactional leaders have a tendency to have approaches that are more passive. Transactional leaders adopt a

scaremongering approach through fear of consequences, rewards or punishments. In the case of the UAE, businesses have not reached the level of maturity to delegate or empower their employees; instead, the leadership style for the governance of employees is mostly transactional leadership, based upon strict contracts of employment. This is due, partly, to the heavy reliance upon expatriates over the last three decades where over ninety percent of the workforce is made up of foreign workers. Similarly, results from a research conducted by Bealer and Bhanugopan (2013), showed that there is no tendency amongst nationals of the UAE to show key, transformational leadership characteristics, such as a tendency to articulate visions that are compelling or a leaning towards discussion of important values and beliefs. There is, then, stronger evidence of transactional leadership behaviour within the UAE compared to leadership styles in western countries, where there is long tradition of democratic and participative management approaches. Whilst most authors are in agreement that the concept and practice of transformational and transactional leadership are different, many have the belief that transactional leadership is significantly supplemented by transformational leadership and this results in higher performance levels for individuals, groups and organisations (Howell and Avolio, 1993; Bass and Avolio, 2012; Lowe et al, 1996). Other authors, however, consider transactional leadership to be a subsection of transformational leadership (Weihrich et al., 2008).

3.10.3 Transformational leadership dimensions

The following figure shows the four dimensions of transformational leadership:

Figure 3.5 Four Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

Source: Bass and Riggio (2006)

Transformational leaders are known for their good communication skills and high levels of presence which often translate into better employee performance and productivity. Bass and Riggio (2006) have highlighted four features that transformational leaders exhibit in order to achieve change within organisations:

i)   *Idealised influence* – Leaders that are transformational tend to act in ways in which others are influenced by their personalities and charisma, and such leaders tend to be seen by followers as role models. Transformational leaders are risk takers and have conviction and core values and their actions are ethical. By having such idealised influence, leaders can build confidence in their leadership and a sense of trust amongst followers (Bass and Riggio, 2012);

ii)   *Individualised consideration* – Leaders with the quality of individualised consideration recognise the needs and desires of all followers or team members be they driven by financial incentives or as just change

facilitators. Through listening and watching carefully, leaders are able to identify what motivates a person and, by way of one-to-one instruction and mentoring, a transformational leader can tailor sessions of training (Weng et al., 2015). Through such activities, team members have a sense of fulfilment in their work and grow on a personal level.

iii)   *Inspirational motivation*– For transformational leaders, the 'inspirational motivation' term refers to an ability for building confidence, motivation and a sense of purpose in followers (Robertson and Barling, 2003). Transformational leaders convey a clear vision for the future, and expectations of organisations communicated with skills and inspiration to group members. Also, a transformational leader show commitment to the set goals. Continual optimism, positivity and eagerness are also essential assets for transformational leadership (Bass and Riggio, 2012); As Bass (2008) point out, leaders who are transformational ask of supporters that they have a greater degree of awareness of what is important, a willingness for self-development rather just living within the moment, a future orientation, and a willingness to go beyond self-interest so that the organisation, group or the whole of society can benefit. By way of transforming the ideals and self-concepts of people, transformational leaders endeavour to bring about change in the performance of followers and enhancement to the efficacy of the organisation as a whole (Saenz, 2011).

iv)   *Intellectual stimulation* – With a transformational leadership style, creativity and autonomy are considered valuable. Leaders support followers by

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engaging in decision making processes and inspiring the followers to be both imaginative and innovative for the finding of solutions. As such, a transformational leader challenges assumptions and encourages followers to offer creative ideas without fearing they will be criticised (Zhou et al., 2012). Transformational leaders offer visions that help their followers accomplish tasks by allowing them to appreciate how their work plugs into the overall goals of the organisation (Northouse, 2014).

Transformational leaders are aware that followers need to feel accepted, trusted and liked, respected and valued, in order to be loyal to leaders (Yukl, 2013), In contrast to transactional forms of leadership which focus on short terms goals, transformational leadership embodies values, emotions and ethics and focuses upon goals that are more long term (Northouse, 2007, 2014; Bass and Riggio, 2012).

In summary, Li and Zhao (2015) found that there is a positive correlation between transformational leadership at the organisational level and KS and creativity at the individual level. Moreover, Buil et al (2019) point out that transformational leadership has a positive impact on job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. In terms of the impact of transformational leadership on employee KS, both Ghani (2018) and Besieux (2015) found that transformational leadership has a significant positive impact on employee KS. In essence, transformational leadership represents the effective interaction between leaders and followers.

3.11 Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership, also known as passive/ avoidant leadership, is one in which a leader relinquishes a considerable amount of responsibility and power and avoids decision making (Yang, 2015). A Laissez-faire leader tends to delegate decision making to a group of followers, to run the business or company as they please. Laissez-faire leadership grants employees a high degree of autonomy, maintaining a hands-off approach to managing workers, providing them with the tools they need to do their job without being directly involved in decision-making processes, daily tasks, and responsibilities. Researchers have found that this is generally the leadership style that leads to the lowest productivity among group members (Yukl, 2013). In other words, leaders who adopt such a way do not tend to engage in group tasks and, instead, have a tendency to let members of a group undertake decision making without direct supervision. With followers responsible for making decisions themselves, leaders involve themselves only occasionally when they consider it necessary and may just provide answers to questions and materials. This type of leadership style can often be found in situations where employees have high levels of experience and training and do not require a great deal of supervision; as such, this leadership style is commonly found in media businesses, architecture practices and research departments. Laissez-faire behaviours can produce low satisfaction levels and a lack of organisational commitment (Bass 2008; Northouse, 2014; Bass and Riggio, 2012; Erkutlu, 2008). In short, laissez faire leadership style is a non-interventionist and non-interfering type of leader who prefers not to get involved in the day to day affairs/activities of the business or company and who leaves the decision-making to his subordinates. Laissez faire leaders take the

back seat and leave the driving to an individual or a team to set the directions, the goals and navigate their way through.

The key laissez faire leadership style attributes can be summarised as follows:

- Very little guidance from leaders
- Complete freedom for followers to make decisions
- Leaders provide the tools and resources needed
- Group members are expected to solve problems on their own
- Power is handed over to followers, yet leaders still take responsibility for the group's decisions and actions
- The team, rather than the leader or manager, decides on direction
- The leader or manager is often a nominal figure to whom the group looks for approval
- Individuals are left to get on with their tasks

(Bass and Riggio, 2012; Erkutlu, 2008; Yang, 2015).

Laissez faire leadership style, like any other, has its advantages and disadvantages. The following table sums up them up:

Table 3.5: Advantages and disadvantages of laissez faire leadership style

Advantages	Disadvantages
Laissez faire leadership style may be effective for motivated knowledge worker teams with high expertise and skills	Laissez faire leadership style may not be effective for groups lacking needed skills, experience, motivation, compliance with deadlines
Laissez faire leadership style may be effective for creative teams who value their sense of initiative and independence	Can result in poor performance and outcomes as followers may lack the skills or experience needed to complete tasks and absence of decision- makers, resulting in performance, low leader effectiveness, and low job satisfaction

Laissez faire leadership style may work well when leaders provide needed information and materials at start of project	Leader may appear uninvolved showing passivity and avoidance of engagement and contact with followers.
	Confusion in the group due to poorly defined roles. Since team members receive little to no guidance, they might not really be sure of which tasks to execute.

Source: Developed by the present researcher

In summary, leadership is a multidimensional concept which comes with a whole package of knowledge, problem-solving skills, vision, motivation, commitment and management skills needed to lead and drive followers and to solve organisational problems especially in today's fast-paced business climate, with its social and political uncertainty and instability. In the case of the UAE, there are external factors such as traditional and cultural values that combine with individual attributes, leader competencies, and experiences that affect leadership outcomes.

Leadership plays an important role in all walks of life, through higher levels of commitment showing adaptable and flexible leadership styles, as emphasized by the United Nations Publication, (2005:16). *A leadership style based on command and control is no longer suited for effective public sector management. Instead, leaders are increasingly judged by their ability to motivate and bring out the best in staff … the complexity of challenges in the public sector is requiring new leadership skills of senior civil servants.*" This view is echoed by Northouse (2012), that leadership operates within groups setting. Leadership can be fundamentally viewed as one individual who influences a group of others to accomplish common goals. This suggests that it is a participative and empowering process involving both leaders and followers. There is an interactive

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process as followers need leaders (Patel et al 2016; Northouse 2012; Bass and Riggio, 2012). The following table sets out leadership styles and their components:

Table 3.6 Leadership styles and their components

Leadership Styles	Components	Description
Transformational Leadership	Idealized influence attributes (IA)	Earn respect of others by your actions, followers keen to take on values and attributes of their leaders
	Idealized influence behaviours (IB)	Follower behaviour takes example from leaders own actions. Moral and ethical effects of decisions are considered
	Inspirational motivation (IM)	Motivate followers to envisage appealing prospects, leading them to eventually dream by themselves
	Intellectual stimulation (IS)	Encourage creativity and originality by probing ideas, restructuring difficulties and handling issues in innovative ways
	Individual consideration (IC)	Individual counselling and mentorship, leads to empowerment and development of individual abilities
Transactional Leadership	Contingent reward (CR)	Rewards and reprimands given are based upon performance. Leads to personal and collective accomplishment of anticipated performance
	Management-by-exception: active (MBEA)	Careful observation of deviations from benchmarks, errors or misdeeds, swiftly followed by remedial action
Passive/ avoidant Leadership	Management-by-exception: passive (MBEP)	Avoids action until significant problems occur. Does not believe in mending things until broken
	Laissez-faire (LF)	Abstains from important decision making, defers answering imperative

		questions, does not attend when required

Source Patel et al (2016)

To sum up, the theme that emerges from a review of the extensive and diverse conceptualisations of leadership highlighted in the literature suggests that each leadership theory has its strengths and flaws and there is no perfect leadership theory, no one-size fits all theory. Today's world expects leaders to be facilitators, motivators and a driving force, for people and organisations to perform better and to achieve the organisational mission objectives. The substance of leadership appears to hinge on the key characteristics provided by Northouse's (2012:6) view of leadership as a "*process whereby an individual motivates a group of individuals to achieve a common goal*". This definition raises a key question which remains unanswered: What are the leadership characteristics that enable an individual to influence others to unite to achieve a common goal? Similarly, Sinclair & Lips-Wiersma (2008: xviii) perceive leadership as "*a form of being (with ourselves and others): a way of thinking and acting that awakens and mobilizes people to find new, freer and more meaningful ways of seeing, working and living. This form of leadership is anchored to personal self-awareness and mindfulness to others."* This entails that leadership recognises that success and sustainability of the organisation is a collective ideal much greater than their own success. This view is supported by Shamir et al, (1993:579) who argue that "*motivating followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the team, the organisation, or the larger polity*" is of paramount importance. Transactional leaders tend stimulate economic, psychological, and political exchanges to advance each individual. In contrast, transformational leaders, engage followers to share a collective common purpose (Simola, Barling, & Turner, 2010).

Leader-follower relationships do not exist in a vacuum. Leaders are the products of their culture they are influenced and formed by their society. In the UAE, leaders act within the traditional values of respect for status and tribal spirit which constitute a challenge and are difficult to shift. Despite the progress and openness that the UAE has developed, the Great Man leadership style remains popular and deeply rooted. This can be explained by the fact that culture and leadership/ management are inseparable and intertwined (Mathebula 2017, Abi-Raad 2019).

3.12 Emergent variations of leadership

The leadership landscape has shifted and has been shaped by fresh insights whereby "new leadership" approaches have started to emerge in organisational research. Many consider this shift as a reflection of today's society, as diversity has become a dominant global feature involving leaders with diverse backgrounds and varied skill sets. Some suggest that the leadership styles new 'look' embodies essentially, a continuum rather than a shift. Stedman (2013) stresses in his book *Diversity: Leaders Not Labels: A New Plan for the 21st Century* in which he distances himself from stereotypical leadership labels, argues that, in order to most effectively reach their full potential and achieve their mission objectives, leaders must break away from being pigeonholed. Developing leaders rather than accepting labels is the best way to protect a diverse culture and society. To achieve organisational goals, leaders need to work differently, be adaptable, engage and operate outside the box. Understanding the local culture and adjusting and fitting in with the organisational and management styles of the host country, rather than trying to impose an alien leadership style, is the way forward. As Ward (2010:4) points out "*Leaders*

succeed only when they embody and express, for better or worse, values rooted in the social character of group, class, or nation."

As the traditional leadership styles have become more incongruous with the complex and challenging nature of the work environment, new ideas and types of leadership style have appeared as a form of negation of the conventional styles which do not reflect the real world. As a result, today's leadership debate appears to be a mosaic, a blend of the old and the modern perspectives of leadership. There are an array of new leadership styles and concepts such as 'human leadership', where human leaders focus on and believe in people. The following table provides a sample of the newly identified leadership styles:

Table 3.7: Newly identified leadership styles

Spiritual leadership	Profound leadership
Functional leadership	Entrepreneurial leadership
Human leadership	Strategic leadership
Visionary leadership	Situational leadership
Emergent leadership	Pacesetting leadership
Everyday leadership	Co-operative leadership
Dispersed leadership	Concurrent leadership
Devolved leadership	Co-ordinated leadership
Democratic leadership	Relational leadership
Collaborative leadership	Co-leadership
Collective leadership	Ethical leadership
Authentic leadership	Democratic leadership and shared leadership
Servant leadership	People-oriented leadership or Relations-oriented leadership
Task-Oriented leadership	Cross-Cultural leadership style

Bureaucratic Leadership	Team leadership
Distributive leadership	The Facilitation Leadership style (also known as the Participative or Democratic style

Source: Compiled by the present researcher

It can be extrapolated from the broad leadership literature that while there is a consensus among authors past and present about the multidimensional meanings of leadership, it is difficult to draw a clear conclusion making use of the current fragmented knowledge base from the leadership literature. The proliferation of research on leadership reveals the interest and appeal which the topic still generates as Day (2000:1) points out: *''Interest in leadership development appears to be at its zenith.''* However, Ward (2010:1) states that much of what is said "*about leadership is fallacious and paradoxical. Much of what is written and the manner in which leadership is presented fails to provide a satisfying explanation of what it is and how it works.*" To some extent, the understanding of leadership has evolved, but the knowledge base of leadership has not changed drastically over the last hundred years. In other words, the core characteristics and functions of leadership have remained largely the same. As Ward (2010:6) states "*The goals and requirements of strong, effective leadership are the same now as they were 2,500 years ago at the time of Sun Tzu and Confucius.*" One possible interpretation of this situation is that leadership is not entirely theory- driven, but is largely recognised and evaluated through practice, action and the decision-making process. Leadership traits cannot be applied uniformly to all leaders everywhere. Different leadership styles adapt and work in different environments and cultural settings.

It can be argued that the leadership literature has provided a wide range of views and insights albeit often overlapping and conflicting, consisting of two main

streams. Some studies focus on leaders' abilities, personality traits and influence. Others shift the balance of influence from leader's attributes to behavioural qualities such as commitment, empowerment and motivation, whereby leadership, according to Braun and Peus (2018) is viewed as a critical resource in promoting and ensuring balance, health, and well-being among followers. Similarly, Weiss, et al (2018) claim that lack of authentic leadership may have a negative impact on followers' well-being. In the same vein, Rao (2017:2) believes that leadership should be driven by values, principles and morals, suggesting values-based leadership is built upon integrity, transparency, ethical considerations, and a focus on "what is right." Nygaard, et al (2017:134) support this view and claim that values-based leadership has the potential to influence employees' ethical attitudes and behaviours: *"leadership by role model, 'the good example' or 'the good shepherd' (known as referent power), is the best way to support and promote ethical values… far better than forcing the effect."* Three decades earlier, Bass and Stogdill (1990:442) highlighted the importance and support authentic leaders have for followers: *"Authentic transformational leaders are concerned with the welfare of others, because they believe every individual has dignity and moral standing."*

These refreshing and thought-provoking insights about a rather overlooked and under-researched aspect of leadership are worth exploring through further research to determine the potential links between values-based leadership theories, well-being, and the emerging profound leadership theory which breaks away from the traditional leadership debate (Scott, Carr-Chellman, and Hammes, 2020). Thus, different strands of research have addressed leadership through different lenses. The theme that emerges from the literature

is that leadership consists of self-versus-collective interests (Bass and Stogdill (1990, Rao (2017). A leader is described as a facilitator and motivator of a group of people to achieve the organisational goals. Broadly speaking, the leadership debate projects a makeshift terrain and a fuzzy, fragmented research area where the boundary is not clear cut between the historical/ traditional leadership styles and the newly coined leadership styles (Avolio et al., 2009) such as servant, spiritual, strategic, distributed, democratic leadership. Many of the studies are descriptive in nature and their evidence is based on nuances rather than substance.

3.13 Difference between leadership and management

Leadership and management appear to be closely connected and are labels that some attach indiscriminately or interchangeably, yet these constructs are distinct. Drucker (2012:33) points out the difference in his widely quoted description that *"Management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things."* Leaders create a vision; managers help achieve targets. The vagueness surrounding the use of the terms leadership and management, stems from the fact that there is no clear set of standards for identifying one and the other. The broad literature states consensually that leadership entails the same sort of issues as managerial ones and, hence there is no clear-cut boundary. Some separate the two constructs such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), who claim leadership focuses upon the creation of a vision for influence and change, whereas management is a term relating to achieving actions, activities and primary tasks. Leadership, then, can be seen as a quality that leads to movement and change through the establishment of direction, and the coordination, motivation and inspiration of people. Whilst leadership and management can be considered as having

different activities, it can be argued that both are central to organisational success (Northouse, 2014). One way of looking at leadership and management is to view them as intertwining and complementary constructs; managers affect groups so that their goals can be achieved, and leaders are involved in management in the undertaking of plans, organisation and control (Sy et al., 2006, Kotter 1990)). This study takes the view that leaders and managers differ and overlap in their roles simultaneously. A leader aims to address the long-term strategies and goals of an organisation; in contrast a manager tends to focus upon the short-term planning and budgeting for a number of months or years ahead (Sy et al., 2006). The following table highlights the key differences between leaders and managers.

Table 3.8: Differences between the concepts of management and leadership

Management	Leadership
Planning and budgeting – establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen	Establishing direction - developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision
Organising and staffing - establishing some structure for accomplishing requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people and create systems to monitor implementation	Aligning people - communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies and accept their validity
Controlling and problem solving - monitoring results, plan in some detail, identifying deviations and then planning and organizing to solve these problems	Motivating inspiring and energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs
Produce a degree of predictability and order and has the potential of consistency Producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g. for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget)	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive)

Source: Kotter (1990)

Table 3.8 clearly demonstrates the leaders' and managers' roles which to some extent share common attributes, such as achieving goals through relationships and networks. However, managers tend to have a better grasp on operational targets and budgetary control, whereas leaders tend to be more able to bring about effective change (Sy et al., 2006). Leaders inspire and engage their followers in translating vision into reality. Leaders must possess the skills to lead

and guide a group of people to perform to their full potential in order to add value to the organisation. In contrast, a manager's role is to set, plan, coordinate and achieve organisational goals. However, managers should possess leadership skills and vice versa for as Bennis (2005, 27) argues *"failing organisations are usually over-managed and under-led."* Similarly, Mintzberg (1973, 67) points out that: *"Managers who don't lead are quite discouraging, but leaders who don't manage don't know what's going on. It's a phoney separation that people are making between the two."* Many managers also tend to be leaders, particularly when they carry out the leadership responsibilities of management, which include communication, motivation, providing inspiration and guidance, and encouraging employees to perform to the best of their abilities. In short, successful leaders must have management skills, and effective managers must have leadership skills. Leadership and management represent skills and characteristics that are complementary; both are necessary to lead and manage in today's workplace. *"There is a conventional wisdom that management and leadership go hand in hand, that every manager is ipso facto (or at least should be) a good leader, thus leadership in management has been taken up as a cause to be promoted, and leadership as a word has become a mantra chanted by all and sundry, with many voices proclaiming many different theories, many spoken as facts, particularly by those who are disciples of this management-leadership cause."* (*Ward 2010:1*)

3.14 Western leadership styles vs. the UAE style

The way leadership is perceived, conceptualised and practised differs widely in the West and East (Dickson et al., 2012). Moreover, the roles and styles played by leadership vary from one country to another and from one context to another. There has been extensive research to understand how leadership

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conceptualisations differ across cultures (Budhwar & Mellahi, 2016; Ramdani et al., 2014; House et al., 2002). In general, the common style of leadership prevailing in the Middle East is inspired and deeply influenced by tribalistic and Islamic values and beliefs that advocate and show strong loyalty to one's own tribe, linking leaders to the historical and cultural roots of the national Arab culture and character. Leadership and culture are entwined as Fairholm (1994:7) points out: *"Leadership is not so much a function of the individual leader as it is a function of culture. While leadership may be spontaneous at times, most often it is the result of specific, planned actions by individual leaders to create organisational cultures characterised by internal harmony around values and ideas the leader and follower share or come to share."*

Leadership in the Middle East is not free from history, culture, religion, and geography which form and shape it into a complex personality that influences both the actions and the decision-making processes taken. Leadership has been investigated from different perspectives and in different organisational settings, seeking to identify relationships between leadership and followers in a group. However, the majority of these studies are western oriented. As House (1995) points out, all commonly known leadership theories are based on research conducted in North America. Therefore, the empirical evidence is commonly generated from individualistic rather than collectivistic societies (Abi-Raad 2019; Mathebula 2017; House, 1995; Peterson, 2017; Den Hartog et al., 1999). Research on Arab leadership is under-researched simply because leadership is samey and static; it does not change hands. The Middle East is characterised by "power distance", where power between leaders and their followers is often distributed unequally, meaning once a leader has taken a decision the followers

are expected to implement faithfully (Peterson, 2017). Leaders in high-power distance cultures have more power than their low-power distance counterparts, such as the US and UK where team members expect to help set the agenda and have direct influence on the final decision (Peterson, 2017).

Leadership research has been dominated by studies into transactional and transformational styles of leadership viewed as a means through which leaders can motivate and inspire subordinates using charisma, deemed to be a key element of those using these styles of leadership. However, charisma and a strong presence are considered innate traits and will have little bearing if they are not accompanied by other skills and characteristics that are learned and developed. Transactional and transformational leadership styles have adapted and adopted to all kinds of organisational settings and cultures with varying degrees of success. However, leadership studies within the Middle Eastern context, particularly in the public sector, remain few and far between. A number of studies have tried to accommodate western leadership models and styles to organisational settings within well advanced countries, with focus being placed upon organisational and cultural differences; however, there is limited research aimed at investigating the impact of leadership styles in developing countries, in particular the Middle East. Leadership styles and models that work well in western countries are often challenging to implement in developing countries organisational settings. Western styles and models of leadership are often presented as a ready-to implement package. Evidence from various studies has shown, however, that styles of leadership styles are not force fit within an organisational setting but are rather a combination of homemade leadership attributes, which takes into account the various historical, political, social and

economic contexts of the Middle East (Abi-Raad 2019; Mathebula 2017; House, 1995; Peterson, 2017; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

Leadership in the UAE like most GCC countries is difficult to explain, let alone define. Its specificity and characteristics are blurred by the multifaceted role it plays nationally and internationally. It is imbued with Islamic and tribal values. Implementing an imported western leadership style is out of the question. Firstly, leaders must have knowledge and awareness of the synergies between modernity and tradition and a blend of cultural and Islamic values within the region. Whilst there has been a significant scale of change and modernisation and development of forms of governance, values that are Islamic and traditional are still conspicuous. Awareness and understanding of the identity, culture, political machinery and rapidly changing dynamics of the country is therefore needed to understand the concept of leadership in the UAE. Over the last three decades the UAE leaders have built strong leadership capacity and are continuously reinventing themselves, adapting, accommodating preserving their core Islamic values both as individual leaders and collective leadership development for the benefit of the nation (Abi-Raad, 2019; Mathebula, 2017; House, 1995; Peterson, 2017; Den Hartog et al.,1999). Therefore, any attempt to adopt or adapt a leadership style that has been modelled and practised in a western setting, known for their strong tradition of democracy, will be vastly inconsistent with the UAE in organisational and cultural terms and is deemed a mismatch. This view is consistent with Branine and Pollard's view (2010:1) who argue that *"one of the main reasons for the lack of progress in most Arab and Islamic countries is the mismatch between global integration and local responsiveness because of an excess toward diffusion of Western management*

and business practices with little understanding and, hence, the implementation of Islamic management principles by both local and international managers in Arab countries." However, in some cases, the management practiced in some Middle East countries appears to contradict the actual Islamic teachings such as the reward systems and working conditions of low skills expatriate workers.

The UAE leadership style is in harmony with local tradition, Islamic values and principle of "Shura" (Arabic term meaning 'consultation', social harmony and respect). This leadership style is demonstrated in consensus decision-making styles, respect for authority and age, and concern for the well-being of employees and society at large, and this is similar to most GCC countries. The top-down leadership style producing hierarchical organisational culture, has its strengths and weaknesses. However, studies conducted by Al-Khatib et al., (2001), Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) found that Arab leaders prefer a centralised, top down and paternalistic decision-making approach with strong tendencies towards basing decisions upon hunches or intuition and for subordinating efficiency to personal/human relationships. In today's global economic uncertainty, an organisational change management in UAE public-sector service organisations is imperative to remain sustainable. A combination of transactional and transformational leadership styles may lead to organisational commitment in organisations in the UAE (Abi-Raad 2019; Mathebula 2017; House, 1995; Peterson, 2017; Den Hartog et al., 1999).

3.15 Leadership in the UAE and the influence of Arab-Islamic culture.

Although the Middle East appears to show diverse leadership styles, in essence, there are all forms of tribal leadership driven by traditional and Islamic values.

Islamic moral principles have a direct bearing on the leadership and management of human resources (Gadelrab et al., 2020). Muslim leaders are generally motivated and inspired by the strict beliefs and guidelines from the Holy Qur'an and Sunnah. One of the most referred to examples of a charismatic style of leadership was that shown by the late Sheikh Zayed of the UAE, who through his vision and wisdom, transformed the UAE from a nomadic economy to one of the most advanced countries in the world. Branine & Pollard (2010) claim that the principles of religion are instilled in work values by different means throughout the world, and the local context exerts a significant impact on the application of religious approaches in the management of human resources. Work values studies related to managers in GCC countries found that there is harmony between local organisational practices and social values. In short, the leadership style in the UAE is in tune with Islamic values in terms of inclination towards integrity, consultation and team work.

Key differences in management and leadership styles between Middle Eastern and Western countries are evident and some are irreconcilable. The conclusion that can be drawn from this debate is that is that there are both similarities and differences. Western managers tend to use a variety of participative servant, democratic leadership styles, in addition to sharing information and good communication channels and feedback. In contrast, Middle Eastern managers seem to believe they need to be more directive, often paternalistic, adopting a command and control and top-down approach (Branine and Pollard, 2010; Anwar and Chaker, 2003; Sabri, 2007; Yaseen and Dajani, 2016). However, there has been a shift in the leadership styles adopted by several Middle eastern leaders

towards consultative and participative decision-making styles (As-Sadeq and Khoury, 2006; Branine and Pollard, 2010).

Table 3.9 Differences in Middle Eastern and Western Management

Management Dimensions	Middle Eastern Management	Western Management
Leadership	Highly authoritarian tone, rigid instructions. Too many management directives.	Less emphasis on leader's personality, considerable weight on leader's style and performance.
Organizational structures	Highly bureaucratic, over centralized, with power and authority at the top. Vague relationships. Ambiguous and unpredictable organization environments.	Less bureaucratic, more delegation of authority. Relatively decentralized structure.
Performance evaluation and control	Informal control mechanisms, routine checks on performance. Lack of vigorous performance evaluation systems.	Fairly advanced control systems focusing on cost reduction and organizational effectiveness.
Personnel policies	Heavy reliance on personal contacts and getting individuals from the "right social origin" to fill major positions.	Sound personnel management policies. Candidates' qualification are usually the basis for selection decisions.

Management Dimensions	Middle Eastern Management	Western Management
Communication	The tone depends on the communicants. Social position, power, and family influence are ever-present factors. Chain of command must be followed rigidly. People relate to each other tightly and specifically. Friendships are intense and binding.	Stress usually on equality and a minimization of difference. People relate to each other loosely and generally. Friendships not intense and binding.
Decision making	Ad hoc planning, decisions made at the highest level of management. Unwillingness to take high risk inherent in decision making.	Sophisticated planning techniques, modern tools of decision making, elaborate management information systems.

Source: Badawy (1980)

3.16 The role of leadership in the development of the UAE

The UAE landscape has witnessed a drastic change from Bedouin life in tents in the desert to skyscrapers and modern infrastructure. Economic, political, technological and social changes have transformed leaders in the UAE from tribal leaders to key players in the region and the world (Branine & Pollard, 2010; Rees, Althakhri, and Mamman, 2011; Mamman, 2007). The UAE has always played a leading role in adopting innovative concepts and has a proactive approach for continuous improvement in all sectors to create excellence in line with the UAE 2030 Vision. The Ruler of Dubai, His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum pointed out the importance of keeping up with scientific and knowledge development, during the Arab Social Media Influencers Awards (ASMIA) ceremony, January 2017: "*The profound changes the region has witnessed requires us to keep pace with the speed of global developments and changing knowledge trends. We need to intensify the work required to benefit from these breakthroughs and accelerate development in the region so that it can regain its position as a cradle of human civilisation.*"

Leadership skills development programmes have increased worldwide. Similarly, in the UAE, leadership is high on the agenda because the UAE is aware of the need to build its human capital and leadership-training capabilities to deal with current complex and challenging issues, particularly in the Middle East. As a result, the UAE government has launched the Educational Leadership Qualification (2018) which will be one of the main prerequisites for Educational Leadership Competence. The spirit of continuous improvement in all walks of life was the UAE's driving force, when in 2018, a model for Government Leadership was approved, which is based on three pillars: leadership spirit, future outlook,

and accomplishment and influence. The model highlights the criteria required for 21st century leaders, and was launched in 2018 by Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, UAE Vice President who stated that "*The UAE journey towards the future requires continuous development efforts that focus on UAE nationals, build their capabilities, enhance their skills, and equip them with the right tools to face the future challenges…We approved the UAE Model for Government Leadership as a new addition to the government efforts to prepare leaders and build capabilities of cadres and national competencies. We want to develop government work processes to be in line with our efforts in building future governments*" (Gulf News Agencies 2018) *ipsnews.net/wam/en/.../uae-cabinet-approves-uae-model-for-government-leadership.*

3.17 The relationship between leadership styles and knowledge-sharing

Findings of the study conducted by Politis (2001) indicate that the leadership styles that involve human interaction and encourage participative decision-making processes are positively related to the skills and traits that are essential for knowledge management. Leadership styles influence the dissemination and transfer of knowledge for sustainability of innovation in organisations. Knowledge-sharing refers to the process through which organisational behaviour, information and expertise are transferred from one organisational member to another (Pangil and Nasurddin, 2008). In the knowledge-sharing process, the goal is to enhance the human capital and to improve intra-institutional relations (Schwartz 2006). There are several advantages for supporting the knowledge-sharing process. For instance, Janus (2016) and Liu and DeFrank (2013) argue that knowledge-sharing helps preserve the corporate culture by imparting staff members with the knowledge of not only how the organisation should function

efficiently, but also by transmitting the strategies and mentality needed to maintain the organisational identity. In addition, committing to a knowledge-sharing mentality results in an increase in the staff's productivity and efficiency, as they understand better the strategies towards achieving the organisational goals (Janus, 2016). This further boosts the staff's tendency to trust and confide in their superiors, which elevates internal communication and allows staff members to take more informed decisions in their daily routine (Farrell, 2017). As such, by enhancing the knowledge-sharing, the process sharing and the decision-making process will not only be improved but also increase the staff's penchant to propose more innovative approaches to problems (Pangil and Nasurddin, 2013). Chen and Hsieh (2015) argue that these factors are beneficial in all organisations, yet particularly useful in public institutions, whose focus is not on profits, but rather on public service, a duty that could be upheld if the staff members are properly instructed on how to accomplish it, or if the institutional culture tacitly promotes these types of knowledge-sharing and exchange interactions.

However, Willem and Buelens (2007) argue that the process of knowledge-sharing in public institutions is challenging, due to particular organisational characteristics, such as lack of employee autonomy, the state's control of the activities and resources, together with the need to ensure public accountability. These characteristics are particularly relevant in the Middle Eastern context, where leaders also tend to employ a more 'command and control' leadership style that limits the dissemination of institutional knowledge, behaviour and expertise (Al-Shabbani 2015; Greaves 2012; Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2011). Moreover, recent studies have found a variety of leadership styles implemented in the UAE

that encourage and drive knowledge-sharing. However, while some styles, such as the transformational and transactional styles, especially in the private sector, promote knowledge-sharing (Bualshawarib 2014; Bradshaw et al. 2015; Mahdy 2016), the autocratic leadership style often impedes an exchange of institutional knowledge, yet remains prevalent in the country due to strong traditional values (Al-Shabbani, 2015; Bradshaw et al. 2015; Greaves, 2012; Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2011; Naeem and Azam, 2017). As such, effective knowledge-sharing processes that enhance organisational and individual productivity are a very ambitious, and often unsuccessful process in the Middle Eastern context (Bradshaw et al. 2015; Elwany and Mahrous, 2016; Kassab, 2016). At the same time, Seba et al. (2012) have found that leadership and a severed trust among staff members can severely affect the process of knowledge-sharing, and as such the institutional culture regarding the exchange of corporate knowledge needs to be implemented and emphasised by the managers.

Similarly, research outside the UAE has observed that there is positive correlation between leadership skills and approaches and improved knowledge-sharing processes. For instance, a leadership style that spreads a knowledge-centred culture, together with the establishment of a teamwork mentality, can help promote knowledge-sharing (Liu and DeFrank 2013). Effective leadership, together with the ability of sharing knowledge within the work space is a crucial step in ensuring productivity and enhancing performance, as the lack of information and expertise may result in the production of poor-quality products or in providing inadequate services (Carmeli et al. 2012; Liu and DeFrank, 2013). Carmeli et al. (2012) and Donate and Pablo (2015) further argue that positive leadership behaviour, coupled with knowledge-sharing, may also benefit

teamwork and the creation of a cohesive team that is not only productive, but also more likely to enhance internal procedures and to promote a beneficial organisational culture.

It is clearly evident from the literature that the concept of leadership styles and leadership theory is multidimensional, (Bass and Bass 2008; Yukl 2006) and leadership studies will continue to attract attention to gain a better understanding of the characteristics of leadership, because there still exist many under-researched areas within leadership to be explored and new studies to be conducted (Monahan, 2012; Ulrich, 2010; Dinh et al., 2014; Yukl, 2010). As Avery (2008, 5) states*: "understanding the evolution of leadership is challenging for many reasons."* Although the definitions of leadership are similar and overlapping, Yukl (1994, 4-5) argues that the definition of leadership is *"arbitrary and very subjective. Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no correct definition."* Most authors seem to agree that research into leadership theory has not reached a dead end yet, and leadership as a research area, still contains many gaps that need to be investigated. As Burns (1978, 29) stresses, *"Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth"* and Yukl (2006, 67) concludes that there are *"almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept."* In the same vein, Cronin (1993, 7) states that leadership is *"one of the most widely talked about subjects and at the same time one of the most elusive and puzzling."*

Despite the breadth of leadership literature, most of the studies tend to focus on leaders as individuals with the capabilities to lead. Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals

(Robbins and Judge, 2008). The literature also extensively highlights leadership as a driving force for organisational success (Avolio, et al 2009; Yukl, 2006).

3.18 Linking leadership styles and knowledge-sharing

This study examines the interaction between the dimensions of leadership styles and knowledge-sharing. It seeks to find out the extent to which leadership styles contribute and drive knowledge-sharing success or impede it. Leadership appears to be one of the key factors that have a direct impact on knowledge-sharing between employees. The extent to which knowledge-sharing successfully occurs between employees is a driving force for development and growth (Cabrera and Cabrera, 2005; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Polanyi, 1997; Tsoukas 2002; Tsoukas and Vladimirous, 2001). Knowledge-sharing is viewed as the process through which, information, knowledge and expertise are transferred, exchanged and disseminated amongst employees within an organisation (Pangil and Nasurddin, 2008). Organisational performance, productivity, sustainability and survival depend on the organisation's ability to acquire, generate and use knowledge efficiently (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Foss and Pedersen, 2002). Früauff et al (2013), Mueller (2014) and Bakker et al. (2006), among others, have argued that effective knowledge-sharing, can play an important role in driving organisational performance. According to Sharples et al., (2002), effective sharing of best practice and efficient utilisation of resources enhance the human capital and organisation's performance, and effective delivery of service depends upon the knowledge and expertise. The broad literature on knowledge-sharing tends to focus on the enablers and barriers of knowledge-sharing amongst employees within an organisation (Früauff et al, 2013; Mueller, 2014; Bakker et

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al. 2006). The need for knowledge-sharing cannot be overstated. It is crucial within the organisation in order to achieve sustainable competitive advantages. The benefit for integrating a knowledge-sharing culture is to promote and sustain the organisation ethos (Janus, 2016; Liu and DeFrank, 2013). As a result, knowledge-sharing has been examined from various perspectives. Knowledge-sharing amongst employees within an organisation is closely related to leadership (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Foss and Pedersen, 2002; Früauff et al 2013). In a study conducted by Seba, et al. (2012), four key drivers were found to enable and promote knowledge-sharing within an organisation:

    a. leadership

    b. organisational structure

    c. time allocation

    d. trust

Enhancing employees' KS and engagement in an organisation can effectively reduce loss of talent, and improve its competitiveness (Truss et al., 2013). Within the Middle Eastern setting, Seba, et al. (2012) found that in Arab cultures, leadership and trust, in addition to key elements such as recognition and respect, constitute important knowledge-sharing enablers. Moreover, one of the major challenges within the GCC countries is that it is difficult to promote knowledge-sharing due to the multi-national expatriate workforce which often leads to a more demanding and versatile nature of leadership style.

3.18 Leadership and change in the UAE public sector

To the outside world, the Gulf region presents a picture of instability and unrest. However, the UAE leadership has played a leading role in focusing on

development through innovative spirit to create a modern country through adaptive and pragmatic insights. Today the UAE, is the wonderland of the Middle East where the best and the most modern development projects coexist with traditional culture which the Emiratis are trying to uphold: family-life, spiritual and social traditions. In a world dominated by technological gadgets and social media platforms, UAE traditions and customs are still held in high regard in the Emirates (Casey 1989).

To keep pace with the development progress, the UAE public sector institutions, including GSEC, have undergone a major change over the last two decades to address their weaknesses in terms of infrastructure, processes, procedures and systems in response to government pressure and in order to meet public expectations of quality service delivery.

3.19 Public sector reforms in the UAE

The UAE has witnessed major development changes in all sectors and the public sector is no exception, as reforms continue to be on the top of the agenda in the governments' efforts to modernise public services, making it more citizen-centric and responsive to their growing needs.

The year 2018 was considered a landmark year for public sector reforms, as these are deemed necessary to achieve the goals set in the UAE vision and which aim to achieve excellence in all walks of life. The public sector reforms project a future vision of the economy not too reliant on oil revenue in view of the tumbling of oil prices. The UAE aims to diversify its economy by stimulating investments, creating jobs, spurring innovation and improving the overall quality of life for Emiratis.

Reforming the public sector at different levels of government has become a priority for political leaders to keep pace with the rapid development progress. Changing the public sector cultures and ethos to enable it to accommodate and embrace innovative and efficient organisational structure, together with other novel approaches such as e-government, has been on the public policy agenda of the UAE government. Efficiency, effectiveness, value for money, strategic planning, quality customer service, and total quality management are in the forefront in the UAE public sector. These ambitious goals are reflected in the 2021 UAE federal government's comprehensive strategy and other Emirates (states) governments' local strategies. The overall aim is continuous improvement to achieve excellence, as emphasised by the Prime Minister Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al-Maktoum in his first federal-government strategy statement (Government of UAE, 2009). This policy statement stressed that radical public-sector reforms are needed to modernise its delivery and guarantee service quality, cost effectiveness, high productivity levels, effective management of human resources and the empowerment of all public-sector agencies. The prime minister stated that, "*Our vision is that we become one of the best governments in providing quality services, nurturing creative minds, building national talent, innovating solutions and adopting international best practices*" (Grant et al., 2008). In order to achieve this aim, it needs to reform and enhance all government systems to meet quality service demands and people's expectations. A ministerial council for service was set up, responsible to the federal government to ensure the implementation of public-sector reform initiatives.

According to His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President and Prime Minister of UAE and Ruler of Dubai, *"We are fuelling a city*

transformation to happiness. Adopting a globally unique, science-based and methodical approach, we are measuring, impacting and sustaining happiness for the whole city." His Highness Sheikh Mohammed wrote an open letter to all Federal government employees reminding them of their core mission: providing world class services to the people of UAE with the goal of contributing to their happiness. *"His open letter is a testament to the strong commitment demonstrated by the UAE leadership towards making happiness a national policy goal." (*John Helliwell, World Happiness Report 2015)

Similar initiatives of public-sector reforms have been launched in other GCC countries in pursuit of new income-generating sources in order to reduce the GCC countries dependency on oil revenue. The recent massive drop in oil prices emphasised the need for economic stability and revenue diversification for both the public and private sectors in the UAE. Thus, continuous improvements have been made in the provision of service delivery to citizens and indeed in the conditions of work enjoyed by employees of public sector organisations (Rees and Althakhri, 2008). In the UAE, such reforms have taken the form of e-government initiatives introduced in an effort to secure sufficient strength within the public sector to cope with the demands of economic growth (Mansour, 2008). However, setting up and initiating public sector reforms has met a lot of resistance as tribal and cultural values are still preserved.

The main issues that confront the reforms are the cultural and social traditions that characterise the UAE administrative system, as is the case for most Arab countries. The main challenges consist of the pervasive traditions of the social, tribal and political patterns which need to be navigated through carefully. (Salem, 2009). The United Arab Emirates, however, seems to be leading the change in

modernising its public sector (Ayish 2005). The UAE has, amongst the GCC countries, successfully launched reform strategies integrated within the public sector. These are to be attributed to the nation's dynamic and judicious political leadership, its integration of administrative agility, and the constant supply of adequate resources.

3.19 Summary and gaps in the literature

The literature on knowledge-sharing is rather fragmented and mostly reflects what has been conducted in developed countries. The Middle East has implemented several knowledge-sharing initiatives over the years, but these remain limited. In the case of GSEC, the impact of leadership on KS remains under-researched. Knowledge-sharing strategies appear to have few practical implications, as they are too abstract and lack empirical data to support their findings. Many studies put forward claims about developing a KS model or a strategy which might work well in organisational settings with long traditions of democratic and participative leadership, but are often unrealistic and inapplicable in an environment which is deeply rooted in traditional and tribal values. Many of the suggested KS models are limited in scope as they are either suitable or specific to a particular organisational setting or simply too complex. There is a knowledge gap in terms of the applicability of the existing theoretical base in non-Western countries and in particular in the Arab world. KS measurement remains a grey area. A growing number of KS studies have proposed complex and unusable measurements.

The common theme that emerges from the leadership literature is that there is no single theory or approach that defines or explains what exactly leadership means.

According to Frampton (2013:1), CEO of Interbrand, *"In our globalized, hyper connected age, one question persists in boardrooms, corner offices, business schools, and conferences all over the world: 'What is leadership and how has it changed in the 21st century?' "* There is always debate over which leadership style is better or more appropriate in an organisational setting yet leaders tend to be adaptable and flexible practicing different styles in different situations. Dinh et al., (2014, 55-56) summarise the broad and extensive leadership research, portraying this field as lacking coherence in providing a common definition which impedes theory development leading to the lack of a strong theoretical base:

> *"It is important to recognise the reasons no unified theory of leadership currently exist. Leadership theory emphasises many outcomes, from how leaders are perceived to how leaders affect unit performance; it involves actions of group members (Day, 2000) as well as those of formal leaders; it has been applied to levels that include events, individuals, dyads, groups, organisations, and political systems; it has focused on immediate and delayed effects; and it often incorporates contextual differences."*

Enhancing employees' KS and engagement in an organisation can effectively reduce loss of talent, and improve its competitiveness (Truss et al., 2013). Transformational leaders' actions drive intellectual stimulation and KS for followers to solve problems, face challenges, and deal with obstacles in a creative way. Leaders should have the skills to attract and retain talent in their organisation as the business world is suffering from a shortage of talent and firms are struggling to attract and retain human capital (McKinsey & Company, 2001), yet employee retention is 20 times greater at companies with a focus on leadership role.

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Leadership is evolving. It drives strategy implementation, creating an organisational KS culture environment. Leadership delivers impact and success in strengthening the leadership skills most important to improve performance. It also enhances organisational agility and success in driving change and KS initiatives.

3.20 Conceptual framework

The following conceptual framework, designed by the present researcher for this study, demonstrates and links the various concepts and theories of the topic under discussion. It synthesises and captures all the elements that form part of the links between leadership and the KS theoretical knowledge base as substantiated by previous studies, and illustrates the different variables:

Figure 3.6 Conceptual Framework

Knowledge sharing drivers

Leadership styles

Transactional leadership style

Transformational leadership style

Laissez faire leadership style

Internal enablers

Organisational

Financial incentives
Leaders' trust
Organisational KS structure

Individual

Employee skills enhancement through training

Leadership

Employee empowerment through Recognition & Reward

A clear KS strategy processes

Effective communication channels

Leadership commitment and support for KS

External facilitators

Involve government support

Create organisational KS culture

Enhance KS resources of the organisation

Improve IT capabilities

Align HR function with KS strategy

Employee empowerment & recognition

Evaluate KS processes at GSEC & collaborate with private sector

Benefits of KS

- Leads to better knowledge sharing among employees
- Stimulates creative and innovative initiatives
- Enhances performance and quality service delivery
- Achieves organisational effectiveness
- Fulfils the requirements of the Government Excellence Programme
- Long-term success and sustainability of organisation
- Enhances internal decision making and increasing transparency
- Improved employee motivation and satisfaction

Source: Designed by the present researcher

The above conceptual framework was informed by the leadership and knowledge sharing literature in line with the objectives of this study. The conceptual framework addresses and fills a knowledge gap, by linking the literature findings of leadership styles and their influence on employee knowledge sharing to the empirical findings of this study. The conceptual framework highlights the extent to which the different leadership styles influence KS processes. The framework aims to make recommendations in order to inform policy and decision makers on how to effectively enhance leadership styles to promote a culture of KS within GSEC. It was designed to provide a clearer perspective on the debate regarding the role of leaders in stimulating KS. This framework synthesises previous research and links to the findings of this study. It captures all the elements that form part of the link between leadership styles as the driving force for enhancing KS within an organisation, as substantiated by previous studies. This study examined the dominant leadership styles within GSEC in the UAE and their impact on employee KS initiatives. It sought to demonstrate whether the leadership styles practised within GSEC have a direct bearing on driving or impeding employee KS.

The breadth and depth of the literature projects a fuzzy picture of conflictual views about leadership styles and knowledge sharing, focusing on describing theories, models and strategies (Davenport, 2001; Wang et al., 2014; Mueller 2014; Bass and Bass 2014; Kouzes and Posner 2007; Northouse 2014; Mullins, 2010; Yukl 2008; Avolio et al., 2009; Robbins and Judge 2008; Drucker 2012). Undoubtedly, some leadership and KS studies provide fresh insights (Da Costa Nogueira et al 2018; Anandaciua, et al 2018; Weaver, 2015). Other studies present generic, descriptive and often recycled ideas. Today's leaders face uncommon and rare

challenges such as the Covid 19 pandemic. Leaders must learn to think differently about their role and how to fulfil it, in order to address the complex issues. Knowledge creation and sharing are crucial for all organisations to gain and sustain competitiveness. Thus, the success of any organisation depends on the efficiency and effectiveness of managing the knowledge sharing within the organisation.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology and methods employed by this study. It describes how the data required were obtained and what type of data will be necessary to answer the research questions. It will also justify the data collection instrument used for this research quantitative survey. It discusses the various research philosophical assumptions, research approaches, strategies and methods. It will explain the motivation behind the methodological choices made in this study which are shaped by the literature review and linked to the research objectives and questions formulated by this study. In addition, this chapter will consider the type and nature of sampling and validity and reliability of the methods of analysis employed to address the aim and objectives of the research.

This chapter consists of the following key sections:

- Revisiting the research objectives and questions of this study
- The significance of conducting research, in particular within GSEC
- Research philosophy
- Research approach
- Qualitative vs. quantitative research approaches
- Research strategy
- Research design

- Sampling population and size

- Methods

- Ethical considerations

- Summary

4.2 Linking research methodology to research objectives and questions

The purpose of re-visiting the research objectives and questions of this study, is to demonstrate how the methodology and methods fit within the broad aim of this research. This study aims to identify the drivers that contribute to enhancing the implementation of a knowledge sharing strategy within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the United Arab Emirates. It seeks to find out the extent to which GSEC leadership styles drive or inhibit employee knowledge sharing and will analyse the potential challenges and enablers that can affect knowledge sharing processes. It aims also to raise awareness about the importance of reinforcing the culture of knowledge sharing in line with the UAE 2030 Vision to achieve excellence in every sector.

4.2.1 Research objectives

This study has set the following objectives in order to achieve the study aim:

1) To evaluate the current leadership styles and knowledge sharing practices at the General Secretariat of the Executive Council in the UAE

2) To identify the challenges and barriers hindering knowledge sharing at GSEC

3) To determine the enablers and drivers of knowledge sharing

4) To examine the impact of leadership styles on employee knowledge sharing

5) To analyse the extent to which western leadership styles and knowledge sharing models can be applied within GSEC

4.2.2 Research questions

This study has formulated the following research questions informed mainly by the literature:

1) What are the main leadership styles practised at GSEC?

2) What are the challenges and barriers impeding knowledge sharing at GSEC?

3) Is there a relationship between leadership styles and employee knowledge sharing?

4.3 The significance of conducting research

Broadly speaking, the term research seems familiar and straightforward to define, yet it implies different things to different people. There is no consensus in the literature about a holistic definition. As Hussey and Hussey (2013) point out, in spite of the significance of research activity, there is no agreed definition in the current literature on how the term should be defined and yet the 21st century is viewed as a research–driven age. There is a plethora of explanations and definitions of what the term research means. For instance, Saunders et al. (2012, 680), believe that research means *"the systematic collection and interpretation of information with a clear purpose, to find things out."* Similarly, Bryman (2012) points out that research is a systematic inquiry that helps a researcher to identify

the issues that are to be addressed, decide on the objectives and finally draw conclusions on the basis of the data and its analysis. Creswell (2012, 3) views research as *"a process of steps used to collect and analyse information to increase our understanding of a topic or issue."* For the purpose of this study, the mean reason for conducting research is to generate new knowledge, to build on and expand current knowledge. Sharp et al. (2002, 7) echo the same thought suggesting that research is: *"seeking through methodical processes to add to one's own body of knowledge and to that of others, by the discovery of nontrivial facts and insights."* Furthermore, research can be viewed as an investigation to address a problem. According to Sekaran (2003, 69) research entails: *"an organised, systemic, data based, critical, scientific inquiry or investigation into a specific problem, undertaken with the objective of finding answers or solutions to it."*

The importance of research in terms of business and management cannot be overlooked. As Coldwell and Herbst (2004) argue, research in business aims to find out things about business issues in a systematic way and its purpose is to advance knowledge and increase understanding by providing reliable data regarding procedures and policies that help managers to address business problems. Thus, in essence, leaders must understand and promote research to be able to make informed decisions. Cooper and Schindler (2006) indicate that business research is a systematic inquiry that provides information to guide managerial decisions, in fact, a process of planning, acquiring, analysing, and disseminating relevant data, information and insights to decision makers in ways that prepare the organisation to take appropriate actions that, in turn, enhance business performance. This is consistent with the mission objectives of GSEC. It

enables the organisation to identify potential solutions for enhancing knowledge sharing. In the case of this study more specifically, this research provides a basis for understanding what leadership style influences employee knowledge sharing within GSEC. Thus, this study seeks to determine the influencing factors and challenges that stimulate knowledge sharing. It contextualises its findings within the larger body of research.

In short, 'research' is a process of enquiry and a systematic and methodical investigation aimed to increase knowledge in this information age or acquire new skills of analysis in order to generate strategies to address a problem. Research sometimes just means finding out information about a topic or addressing an issue or answering a question.

4.4 Types of research

The word research is derived from the old French word 'cherchier' meaning to seek or search. A researcher seeks systematically for three reasons: for more explanations, for verifiable truth, and to make discoveries. The two key research types widely referred to in the methodology literature are pure /basic research and applied research.

4.4.1 Pure/basic research

Pure research asks fundamental questions in the area under investigation. It is also known as fundamental or theoretical research. It seeks to generate pure knowledge that may uncover issues, theories, laws or metaphors. In basic research, general theories, ideas and questions are explored and tested that may help explain why things operate as they do or why they are as they are. It aims to produce significant new facts and general theories. Research adds to the

existing body of knowledge, but it does not necessarily provide results for immediate, practical implications.

4.4.2 Applied research

Applied research is based on the concept of pure research. The purpose of applied research is to solve an immediate, practical problem. It has social or economic benefits and it addresses an issue in order to find results or solutions for real life problems. It employs and helps in developing the techniques that can be used for basic research. The following figure shows the similarities and differences between them:

Figure 4.1: Similarities and differences between basic and applied research
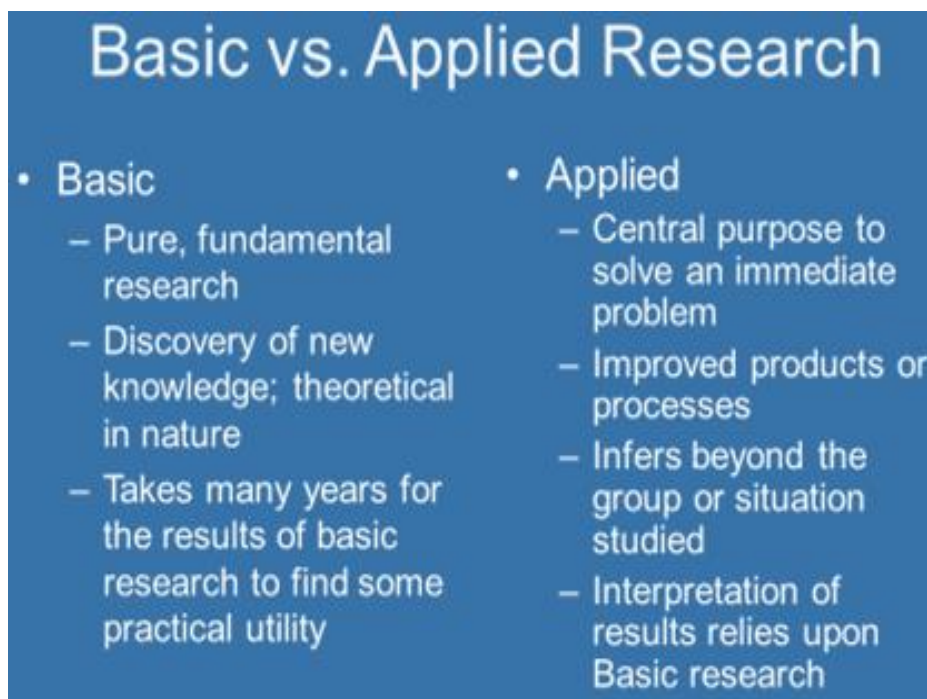
Source: http://www.uta.edu/faculty/jcramer/KINE5300/5300 - Spring 2005

As can be seen, the difference between basic and applied research is not clear cut as they share overlapping features. The first is scientific community driven, focusing on the rigour of the process. The second is policy or practice driven. It

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focuses on the outcome/implications of results. The two supplement each other as shown in the following table:

Table 4.1 Features of basic and applied research

Basic	Applied
1. Research is intrinsically satisfying and judgments are by other sociologists.	1. Research is part of a job and is judged by sponsors who are outside the discipline of sociology.
2. Research problems and subjects are selected with a great deal of freedom.	2. Research problems are "narrowly constrained" to the demands of employers or sponsors.
3. Research is judged by absolute norms of scientific rigor, and the highest standards of scholarship are sought.	3. The rigor and standards of scholarship depend on the uses of results. Research can be "quick and dirty" or may match high scientific standards.
4. The primary concern is with the internal logic and rigor of research design.	4. The primary concern is with the ability to generalize findings to areas of interest to sponsors.
5. The driving goal is to contribute to basic, theoretical knowledge.	5. The driving goal is to have practical payoffs or uses for results.
6. Success comes when results appear in a scholarly journal and have an impact on others in the scientific community.	6. Success comes when results are used by sponsors in decision making.

Source: Neuman, (2011)

4.4.3 Purpose of research

Broadly speaking, research can be divided into three different categories: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. Each serves a different end purpose and can be used singly or in combination. The three main genres of research suggested by the literature on methodology and methods are:

- to explore (exploratory research)

- to describe (descriptive research)

- to explain (explanatory research)

(Saunders and Lewis, 2012)

Kumar (2014) adds to this list correlational research, which is used to establish or discover the existence of a relationship, association or interdependence between two or more aspects of a phenomenon or a situation. Similarly, Hair et

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al. (2007) argue that exploratory research is used when the researcher has little knowledge or information of the research problem and wishes to clarify his/her understanding of a problem and gain insights about a topic of interest (Saunders et al., 2012). Hair et al. (2007, 419) assert that descriptive research is *"designed to obtain data that describe the characteristics of the topic of interest in the research."* The purpose of descriptive research, as Saunders et al. (2012, 669) point out, is *"to produce an accurate presentation of persons, events or situations."* Saunders and Lewis (2012, 113) define explanatory study as *"research that focuses on studying a situation or a problem in order to explain the relationships between variables."* They indicate that an explanatory study takes descriptive research a stage further by exploring factors and looking for an explanation behind a particular occurrence. Moreover, Punch (2006) argues that a descriptive study asks about what the case or situation is, while an explanatory study asks about why or how this is the case, *"to portray an accurate profile of persons, events, or situations"* (Robson, 2003, 59). The following table shows the key features of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research as suggested by Neuman (2011):

Table 4.2: Key features of three different types of research

	Exploratory Research	**Descriptive Research**	**Explanatory Research**
Degree of Problem Definition	Key variables not defined	Key variables are defined	Key variables and key relationships are defined
Possible Situations	"Quality of service is declining and we don't know why."	"What have been the trends in organisational downsizing over the past ten years?"	"Which of two training programs is more effective for reducing labour turnover?"
	"Would people be interested in our new product idea?"	"Did last year's product recall have an impact on our company's share price?"	"Can I predict the value of energy stocks if I know the current dividends and growth rates of dividends?"
	"How important is business process re-engineering as a strategy?"	"Has the average merger rate for financial institutions increased in the past decade?"	"Do buyers prefer our product in a new package?"

Source: Research Methods. http://isites.harvard.edu/fs/docs/icb.topic851950.files/ ResearchMethods_ omeNotes.pdf

4.4.4 Distinguishing between research methodology and methods

The terms methods and methodology are often inaccurately or interchangeably used. They are often mixed up or used randomly as one and the same when in fact they are not. Saunders et al. (2015) point out that sometimes confusion exists in the interpretation of the two terms 'research methodology' and 'research methods' due to numerous authors' frequent use of them indiscriminately. The method is just a part of the methodology; the two are distinct. One of the primary differences between them is that research methods are the instruments, techniques or tools such as surveys or interviews used for collecting data for a specific topic. In contrast, research methodology indicates the procedure or the plan of how research should be conducted. To put it concisely, methodology outlines the directions for how to get to your final destination in research. Methodology according to Crotty, (2013, 3) is *"the strategy, plan of action,*

process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of the methods to the desired outcomes."

Methodology is thought of as both the theoretical and procedural link that puts epistemology and method together (Mertens and Hess-Biber, 2013). *"Methods are no more than ways of acquiring data and methodology refers to the way in which methods are used"* (Della Porta and Keating, 2013, 28). Greene (2002, 260) makes a clear distinction between method and methodology:

> *"Most… methodologies have preferences for particular methods, but methods gain meaning only from the methodologies that shape and guide their use…. An interview does not inherently respect the agency of individual human life; it only does if guided by and implemented within a methodological framework that advances this stance. So, any discussions of mixing methods…must be discussions of mixing methodologies, and thus of complex epistemological and value-based issues that such an idea invokes."*

Daly (2003) states that methodology is the construction of all forms of knowledge and provides the tools whereby understanding is created. Greene et al. (2001, 30) indicate that *"methods are tools and their practice requires the evaluator to be conscious of the methodological perspectives they employ within their evaluation project that demands thoughtful mixed method planning."* In addition, methods are what researchers use to explore, define, understand and describe phenomena, and to analyse the relations among their elements. They are the ways of collecting evidence during data gathering (Kumar, 1999). Methods are also referred to *as "procedures, tools, techniques and associated skills that are*

needed to perform the specific tasks required by the methodology" (Hallebone and Priest, 2009, 27). Methods, according to Crotty (2013, 3), are *"the techniques or procedures used to gather and collect data related to some research question or hypothesis."* According to Pring (2000, 89): *"Without the explicit formulation of the philosophical background – with implications for verification, explanation, knowledge of reality –researchers may remain innocently unaware of the deeper meaning and commitments of what they say or how they conduct their research."*

In short, a methodology refers to the guidelines to follow for completing the research and achieving the aim of the study. Methodology is the strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods (Crotty, 1998, 3). Guba and Lincoln (1994, 108) explain that methodology asks the question: how can the inquirer go about finding out whatever they believe can be known? Thus, methodology is why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analysed.

4.5 The importance of philosophical assumptions in research

Philosophical and methodological assumptions are the foundation of research, but the methodology should always fit the topic under investigation. Methodological choices are important to the ontological and epistemological dimensions and, therefore, the methodology of a research project should follow the philosophical assumptions made at early stages. As Menacere (2016, 21) argues:

> *"Research is about selecting appropriate methods rather than relying heavily on the philosophical underpinning. Research methods should not be an 'either/or' blueprint but rather about using a holistic approach in*

order to gain a deeper understanding of the topic under consideration. Contributing to knowledge, which is the quintessence of any research, should be upheld."

Knowledge of research philosophies has been stressed by many researchers (Bristow and Saunders, 2015; Gay et al., 2008; Saunders et al. 2012; Bryman, and Bell, 2011; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012, amongst others). Jennings et al (2005, 145) argue that, *"Either explicitly or implicitly, researchers base their work on a series of philosophical assumptions regarding ontology, epistemology, and human nature, which have methodological consequences."* In many research studies, philosophical assumptions tend to be either overlooked or superficially treated as Wilson and Stutchbury (2009, 57) clearly assert: *"Philosophical ideas often remain largely hidden and, as such, research rigour can be strengthened by the researcher making transparent the philosophy that underpins the justification of their research methodology."*

According to Miles and Huberman (1984, 42) *"knowing what you want to find out leads inexorably to the question of how you will get that information."* Therefore, awareness of and a coherent reflection about the philosophical assumptions and researcher positionality forms a key part in methodological decision-making within research. This view is supported by Kincheloe and Berry (2004, 6) who stress that, *"assumptions shape the outcome of the research"* and choices made about research methodology *"profoundly affects"* what is found.

Moreover, Easterby-Smith et al. (2012, 27) suggest that there are three reasons why an understanding of research philosophical issues is important:

- A knowledge of philosophy can help to clarify research designs;

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- A knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which designs work or do not work;

- A knowledge of philosophy may help the researcher to identify or create designs that may be outside their past experiences.

Moreover, Saunders, et al. (2015) argue that in research philosophy, each researcher follows important views on how they perceive the world and these views and assumptions will greatly affect the research strategy and methodology a researcher chooses as part of their approach.

4.6 Ontology and epistemology

Research is based on assumptions about how reality is perceived and how best it can be understood and interpreted. The term epistemology originates from the Greek word epistêmê, meaning knowledge. In simple terms, epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge or how we come to know (Trochim, 2000). Epistemology is intimately related to ontology and methodology; ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology addresses how we come to know that reality, while methodology identifies the particular procedure used to attain knowledge of it.

Ontology refers to the philosophical study of the nature of being or the nature of reality while epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge, of how knowledge is gained from social entities. Clark et al., (2008) define epistemology as the area of philosophy that uncovers the answer to the question '*What does it mean to know?*' or *'How does a researcher acquire the sought-after knowledge?'* Furthermore, Crotty (1998, 8) agrees with the above view and argues that *"epistemology is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we*

know." Maynard (1994,10) points out that: *"Epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate."* Thus, epistemology seeks to find answers to two different questions: How do we know the world? What is the relationship between the researcher and the known?

Table 4.3: Branches of philosophy

Branches of philosophy	Definition
Ontology	Studies the nature of reality, existence or being
Epistemology	Studies the nature of knowledge and what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study

Source: (Saunders et al., 2015)

The question is whether social entities can be viewed objectively and that reality is external to social actors, or whether they are social constructions built up from the perceptions and interactions of social actors. These two conflicting positions are referred to in the literature as objectivism and constructionism. As Bryman (2008, 33) points out:

> *"Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors… Constructionism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors."*

The following table sums up the above terms and highlights the relationship between epistemology and ontology.

Table 4.4: Relationship between epistemology and ontology

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

Source: (Collis and Hussey, 2009:58)

Thus, epistemology and ontology are interrelated since claims about what exists in the world imply claims about how what exists may be known. Ontology is the reality that the researcher will be investigating whilst epistemology is the relationship between that reality and the researcher. On the one hand, reality is objective, absolute and the truth is single, while on the other, the world is made up of multiple realities and truths.

4.6.1 Research philosophy

Research philosophy is an overarching term which refers to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. Research philosophy appears in the literature under different labels, depending who the author is, with such terms as research paradigm, epistemology and ontology, and philosophical worldviews (Creswell, 2009). Terms are often used in identical ways, suggesting these are

just different ways of saying the same thing. This view is highlighted by Menacere (2016:17) who states that:

> *"Research philosophy, research paradigm and worldview are usually put under the same umbrella, suggesting these are just different labels signifying the same thing. Moreover, philosophy, paradigm, worldview, ontology and epistemology are presented as purely theoretical abstractions of complex intellectual interest but detached from the real world."*

There is ample evidence in the methodology and methods literature why an understanding of philosophical issues is important. Hughes (1994, 66) asks:

> *"…what is it about philosophy that gives it this seemingly vital role in human intellectual affairs? Is this simply a contingent fact of our intellectual history, or is there something distinctive about philosophy itself which gives it this authoritative place."*

Similarly, Holden and Lynch (2014: 13) state that

> *"A philosophical review can have a dual effect on the researcher: (1) it may open their mind to other possibilities, therefore, enriching their own research abilities, and (2) it can enhance their confidence in the appropriateness of their methodology to the research problem which, in turn, enhances confidence in their research results."*

Philosophy is a set of ideas, beliefs or values relating to a particular field or activity. Philosophy is concerned with investigating the intelligibility of concepts by means of rational argument relating to their presuppositions, implications and interrelationships (Patton, 2002). It is a paradigm that reflects the way a

researcher thinks about the development of knowledge, which in turn influences the way they conduct the research (Saunders et al., 2012). For Crotty (1998), worldview or philosophy refers to attitudes and beliefs about knowledge while Denicolo and Becker (2012) make no distinction between paradigm and worldview, considering a paradigm as a basic set of beliefs and assumptions while a worldview underpins the theories and methodology of a subject and thus guides actions. Guba and Lincoln (1994, 107-108) define a paradigm as: *"a set of basic beliefs … that deals with ultimate or first principles. It presents a worldview that defines for its holder, the nature of the 'world', the individual's place in it, and its parts."*

The term paradigm originated from the Greek word *paradeigma* which means *pattern* and it is thought that Kuhn (1962) was the first to coin the term to denote a conceptual framework shared by a community of scientists which provided them with a convenient model for examining problems and finding solutions. Kuhn (1962, 33) defines a paradigm as: *"the set of common beliefs and agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed."* Kuhn (1977) further explains the term paradigm in terms of a research culture with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that a community of researchers has in common regarding the nature and conduct of research. According to Lather (1986, 259) research paradigms inherently reflect our beliefs about the world we live in and want to live in.

The two most widely used research philosophies/paradigms in the social sciences are interpretivism and positivism (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Taylor and Bogdan (1984) support this by suggesting that

there are two major research paradigms which have dominated the social sciences. The positivist seeks to obtain knowledge based on facts or identify causes of social phenomena away from the subjective states of individuals. The second paradigm is described as phenomenology also known as interpretivism which aims to gain knowledge based on meaning and understanding of social phenomena from the actor's/participant's own perspective. An interpretivist examines how the world is experienced. What is important about reality is what people perceive it to be. In terms of paradigms, the research literature is vague as there is no single agreed paradigm (Breuer and Reichertz, 2001). There is also a variety of terms being used, often erratically, such as research philosophy, paradigm, epistemology and ontology, and philosophical worldviews (Creswell, 2009). The following table shows the characteristics of the main philosophies: positivism and interpretivism.

Table 4.5: The characteristics of positivism and interpretivism

	Positivism	Interpretivism
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanation	Must demonstrate causality	Aims to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progresses through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of whole situations
Generalisation through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction

Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2008:59)

4.7 The main research philosophies: positivism and interpretivism

Methodology and methods text books identify positivism and interpretivism as the main philosophies in conducting research in social science (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Positivism and interpretivism are discussed in the following sections.

4.7.1 Positivism

Positivism is a philosophy which is similar to naturalism and is often used for the study of observable social realities. The underpinnings of a positivist philosophy are deeply rooted in traditional scientific approaches to research whereby knowledge is considered objective and quantifiable. There is a plethora of definitions of positivism in the literature mostly overlapping or saying the same thing. According to Remenyi et al., (1998, 32) positivism is *"working with an observable social reality and the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists."* Saunders et al. (2009) argue that positivist researchers have the significant aim of generalising their findings to a broader population. Smith (1998, 33) provides an interesting view of positivism as believing that knowledge is based on facts and figures. *"Positivist approaches to the social sciences . . . assume things can be studied as hard facts and the relationship between these facts can be established as scientific laws. For positivists, such laws have the status of truth and social objects can be studied in much the same way as natural objects."* Positivism, according to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998, 7), *"bases knowledge solely on observable facts and rejects speculation about 'ultimate origins'."* In

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addition, Crotty (2003, 27) states that *"one thing is certain: positivism is linked to empirical science as closely as ever."* Moreover, Pring (2000, 36) argues that *"one aspect of the scientific paradigm, which educational research might emulate is the experimental design."*

The basic principle of positivism rests on the fact that reality is objective, and it exists outside the human behavioural influence. Accordingly, positivism is explained by Easterby-Smith et al. (2012, 57) as a paradigm based on the belief or the assumption that *"The social world exists externally, and its properties should be measured through objective methods and not through sensation, reflection or intuition."* This suggests that the position of the knower exists apart from the knowledge, which as McNiff and Whitehead, (2002, 17-18) point out is *"a free-standing unit with an existence of its own."*

Whereas a positivist seeks 'to explain', an interpretivist tries 'to understand' reality. Positivism seeks quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis. However, positivism, especially in the social sciences, is not regarded as an approach that will lead to interesting or profound insights into complex problems, especially in the field of business studies (Collis and Hussey, 2013).

4.7.2 Weaknesses of positivism

The deep conviction that in positivism everything can be measured, and that the researcher is an outsider and detached from the study, has been deemed by critics to be unproductive and only showing one side of the story, and that collecting statistics and numbers is not the answer to understanding meanings,

beliefs and experience. Collis and Hussey (2009:56) highlight a number of criticisms of positivism which include:

- It is impossible to separate people from the social context in which they exist.

- People cannot be understood without examining the perceptions they have of their own activities.

- Capturing complex phenomena in a single measure is misleading.

The above areas of criticisms are further reinforced by Connell and Nord (1996, 1) who argue that:

1) *"if reality is external and unknown to humans, then how do we accumulate knowledge regarding it? and*

2) *if we are accumulating knowledge about it, how do we know that we're doing it? From this perspective, any philosophical debate is moot because we do…not know how to discover a correct position on the existence of, let alone the nature of, reality."*

Similarly, Hughes and Sharrock (1997, 66) agree; they too are unable to provide any guideline to an appropriate philosophical stance, stating

"Since the nature of philosophy, and its relationship to other forms of knowledge, is itself a major matter of philosophical dispute, there is, of course, no real basis for us to advocate any one view on these matters as the unequivocally correct conception of the relationship between philosophy and social research."

4.7.3 Rationale for selecting positivism for this study

There is always debate over which method is better than another or more appropriate for conducting research. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses which actually varies depending upon the nature of the problem and research questions. The choice of a research method or combination of methods is related to the type of questions asked and to the nature of the problem the study seeks to address. As Brannen (2005, 7) argues: *"the researcher's choice of methods is said to be chiefly driven by the philosophical assumptions - ontological and epistemological - which frame the research or the researcher's frame of reference."* But as has been demonstrated, method, methodology, paradigm and epistemology are labels which have been used loosely and are defined in inconsistent and conflicting ways in the research literature.

The philosophical paradigm underpinning this study is positivism because this study aims to find out the answer to a question through numerical evidence. The justification for adopting the quantitative research approach is based on the purpose of the study, the nature of the problem and the research questions. Positivism is appropriate to address the problem at hand as this study examines the dominant leadership styles within GSEC in the UAE and their impact on employee knowledge sharing processes. It seeks to determine to the extent to which the leadership styles practised within GSEC stimulate or inhibit employee knowledge sharing practices. This research aims to determine the challenges and barriers impeding the implementation of a knowledge sharing strategy and also to find out how the current leadership drives and promotes knowledge sharing at GSEC. It analyses the weaknesses and strengths of the current leadership styles in managing knowledge sharing in the daily activities and operations.

This study aimed to discover if a causal relationship between a specific leadership style and the sharing of knowledge within GSEC exists, using questionnaires to gauge and measure common perceptions and ultimately present a model reflecting the current observations about leadership styles and their influence on knowledge sharing. The epistemology, which supports this perspective is therefore a positivist paradigm, as it follows the belief that the data collected will provide comprehensive statistical information and focuses upon the use of questionnaires to gather large-scale data.

As Menacere (2016, 26) argues, the rationale for selecting particular research methods is neither rule driven nor objective but *"The rationale for undertaking research is to produce a story that stands up to close scrutiny and presents convincing and reliable evidence that can make a difference."*

Saunders et al. (2007) believe that there is no one research philosophy better than another. Each research philosophy is better at doing different things and, therefore, a researcher should select the methodology and method which can help to achieve their research objectives. As always, which is 'better' depends on the nature of the problem and the research questions the study is trying to answer. As Saunders et al. (2007, 116) clearly state:

> *"It would be easy to fall into the trap of thinking that one research approach is 'better' than another. This would miss the point. They are `better' at doing different things. Of course, the practical reality is that research rarely falls into only one philosophical domain…Business and management research is often a mixture between positivist and interpretivist."*

This study focuses on measuring leadership styles practised at GSEC and their role in driving or inhibiting knowledge sharing processes. It involves the collection of data through questionnaire about how employees are motivated to exchange and share knowledge. The data can be used to understand the reasons or causes why knowledge sharing activities are currently not working as well as expected. The numerical data provide insights into the current state of knowledge initiatives launched by GSEC leadership.

Based on the above arguments and given the nature and objectives of this study, it is justifiable to suggest that the philosophy underpinning this study is positivism This paradigm is often utilised by business researchers to observe situations and reduce phenomena to their simplest factual essentials according to Remenyi et al., (2002). In similar previous studies, the positivist paradigm was used as the main methodology.

In summary, no research philosophy or method is a perfect fit for a particular study. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses. The researcher should not try to force fit, but should tailor fit the selected method in line with the nature of the research objectives and questions. GSEC in the UAE is operating in a rapidly changing social, economic and political environment and knowledge sharing is a key driver of organisational success. Implementing an effective knowledge sharing strategy is making slow progress due partly the complex and sensitive nature of GSEC as an organisation, where leadership styles are still influenced by traditional and cultural values especially in some departments. This research aims to determine the enablers and barriers impeding the integration of knowledge sharing initiatives and also to find out how the current leadership can

drive and promote more effective knowledge sharing at GSEC. The following table shows the philosophy and method selected by this study.

Table 4.6 Philosophy and method selected by this study

Methodology		
Philosophy	Positivism	positivism is associated with (1) empirical enquiry, (2) hypothesis testing, (3) the scientific method, and (4) use of numerals as units of analysis (Aliyu et al., 2014) is consistent with the purpose of my study.
Approach	Deductive	the deductive approach is compatible with hypothesis testing based on theory .
Method	Quantitative	▪ it is compatible with the objectives of the research that involves measurements and use of statistical tools ▪ it is compatible with the philosophy of positivism ▪ the study tests hypotheses hence the use of quantitative measures and statistical tools. ▪ the use of the quantitative method provides precise quantitative, numerical data ▪ the study made use of a large sample and the most suitable method in the selection of the sample, collection of data, and analysis of data is the quantitative method.
Strategy	Survey	Compatible with dealing with a large number of respondents

Source**: developed by the present researcher

4.8 Interpretivism

The interpretivist philosophy is concerned with the social world. Bryman and Bell (2007) clearly make the point that researchers taking an interpretivist position employ several methods for studying the social world so that that reality can be understood and explained. Indeed, Denzin and Lincoln (2008, 222) state that *"interpretivism believes that to understand the meaning of the world one must interpret it."* Such a paradigm views the world as being socially constructed and

subjective, with an observer being a part of that reality. Remenyi et al. (2002, 95) state that:

> *"Interpretivism is a theoretical point of view that advocates the study of direct experience taken at face value; and one which sees behaviour as determined by the phenomena of experience rather than by external, objective and physically described reality."*

Interpretivism, therefore, investigates the nature of social phenomena, with concern for all forms of experience and events with a desire to find answers to 'Why?', 'How?' and 'What?' questions (Dew, 2007; Saunders et al., 2007; Collis and Hussey, 2009). Numerous authors have stressed the importance of an interpretivist/ social constructionist/ phenomenological philosophy for research related to business and management (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Remenyi et al. (2002) stress the importance of interpretivist approaches to developing an understanding of emerging literature, as well as investigation of actual problems within the world. An interpretivist research philosophy is holistic, instead of reductionist and, in being so, facilitates investigation of complex circumstances. The context of the study is the focus of an interpretivist philosophy or paradigm, with reference being made to the use of qualitative research to highlight the subjective experience of the people under consideration (Denscombe, 2007; Rubin and Babbie, 2009). The context of a research study, then, is partly related to the research nature and the characteristics of the setting. Remenyi et al. (1998) consider that an interpretivist achieves similar results to a positivist and so the conclusion can be reached that, as an epistemology, an interpretivist philosophy supports the notion that a researcher needs to understand the differences between human roles as actors within a social world. Saunders et al. (2007, 74)

summarise the advantages and disadvantages of both philosophies in the following table:

Table 4.7: Advantages and disadvantages of positivism and interpretivism

	Positivism	**Interpretivism**
Advantages	• Economical collection of large amounts of data. • Clear theoretical focus for the research at the outset. • Greater opportunity for researcher to retain control of research process. • Easily comparable data	• Facilitates understanding of how and why. • Enables a researcher to be alive to changes which occur during the research process. • Good at understanding social processes.
Disadvantages	• Inflexible - direction often cannot be changed once data collection has started. • Weak at understanding social process. • Often does not discover the meaning people attach to social phenomena	• Data collection can be time consuming. • Data analysis is difficult. • Researcher has to live with the uncertainty. • Patterns may not emerge. • Generally perceived as less credible by non-researchers.

Source: (Saunders et al. 2012:74)

In conclusion, positivism believes that truth is single and exists concretely independent of the observer and that reality is separate from the individual who observes it. In contrast, interpretivism holds the belief that truth is a construct shaped or influenced by the observer and that reality is relative and not detached from the individual who observes it. In addition, positivism relies on experiments and empirical evidence to discover truth. Interpretivism relies on meaning obtained from interviews and subjective observation to describe perceived truth. Each philosophy has strengths and weaknesses as follows:

Table 4.8: Strengths and weaknesses of positivism and interpretivism

Philosophies	Strengths	Weaknesses
Positivism	1-May provide broad coverage of the range of a situation. Can be economical and fast. 2-Where statistics are aggregated from large samples, they can be of considerable relevance to policy decisions.	1-Methods employed tend to be rather artificial and inflexible. 2-Not very effective for understanding processes or the significance that people attach to actions. 3-Not very helpful in generating theories. 4-In having a focus on what is, or what has been recently, positivist approaches make it hard for policy makers to infer what actions and changes ought to take place in the future.
Interpretivism	1-Data-gathering methods seen as natural rather than artificial. 2-Ability to understand people's meaning. 3-Ability to adjust to new issues and ideas as they emerge. 4-Contribute to theory generation.	1-Collection can be tedious and require more resources. 2-Analysis and interpretation of data may be more difficult. 3-Harder to control the pace, progress and end-points of research process. 4-Policy makers may give low credibility to results emerging from qualitative approach.

Source: (Amaratunga et al., 2012, 20)

4.9 Inductive and deductive approaches

Successful research reasoning for gaining knowledge can be either inductive or deductive – the two main approaches employed within research methodology for the study of business (Saunders et al., 2009; Harrits, 2011). An inductive approach is concerned with the generation or building up of new theory and,

therefore, it is involved with clearly observing particular phenomena and then generalising about them to reach some form of conclusion about the matter under investigation (Saunders et al., 2009). The deductive approach, on the other hand, involves the development of existing theory through a process of precise examination of observations made in the course of an investigation, with the theory or generalisation applied to particular contexts or settings (Fieser and Dowden, 2006; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009)

4.9.1 Inductive and deductive approaches

It is important to consider the research approach so that the theoretical basis for the research design is explicit and the researcher can make an informed decision by identifying appropriate methods and employing a research design that can cope with inherent constraints. Deduction and induction offer two differing approaches that help in theorising for a clearer explanation and understanding of business phenomena, and facilitates enhanced prediction within that field (Sekaran, 2003). A deductive approach involves gathering facts that can confirm or reject the variable relationships that have been hypothesised following deduction from knowledge that already exists. For deductive research, then, hypotheses are formulated from existing theories and concepts and these are then tested by the use of empirical data. An inductive research approach, on the other hand, involves a process that starts from collected empirical data and leads to the development of models, concepts and theories (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Torchim, 2006).

Table 4.9: Key features of inductive and deductive approaches

Deductive	Inductive

Deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific	Inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories
Sometimes this is informally called a "top-down" approach	Informally, it is sometimes called a "bottom up" approach
Conclusion follows logically from premises (available facts)	Conclusion is likely based on premises
	Involves a degree of uncertainty

Source: (Adapted from Burney, 2008)

Rubin and Babbie (2009, 39-40) argue that, in influencing the research process, either inductive or deductive approaches can be used for theory stating that:

> *"An inductive approach is a research process based on inductive logic, in which the researcher begins with observations, seeks patterns in those observations, and generates tentative conclusions from those patterns. A deductive approach is a research process based on deductive logic, in which the research begins with a theory, then derives hypotheses, and ultimately collects observations to test the hypotheses."*

The term 'building theory' has also been used to describe inductive theory with it allowing the researcher to acquire a greater understanding of phenomena by collecting and analysing data. As such, a deductive approach is employed within this research.

Table 4.10: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches

Deductive approach	**Inductive approach**
Scientific principles	Gaining an understanding of the meaning humans attach to events

Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context
The need to explain the causal relationship among variables	The collection of qualitative data
The collection of quantitative data	A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as research progresses
The application of controls to ensure validity of data	A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process
The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition	Less concern with the need to generalise
A highly structured approach	
Researcher's independence from what is being researched	
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generate a conclusion	

Source: Saunders et al. (2009:127)

4.10 Research methods

Three main options are available to researchers to enable them to collect data, quantitative, qualitative or mixed research methods. The first involves the collection of data that are numerical or can be usefully quantified and can be employed for all research strategies, whereas qualitative data refer to all data that are non-numeric or that are not quantifiable, and the third involves combining qualitative and quantitative (Saunders et al., 2007). Punch (2005) argues that neither the qualitative approach nor the quantitative approach is considered superior to the other and the over-reliance on any one method is not appropriate as each method has its weaknesses and strengths.

Punch (2005) also indicates that the main differences between the quantitative and the qualitative research approaches lie in the nature of their data and the methods of collecting and analysing them. Selecting which one to use depends on the purposes and circumstances of the research more than on philosophical considerations. Robson (2011) points out that qualitative data generally support quantitative findings. However, Nunan (2006, 20) claims that the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is *"a philosophical one which is not always reflected in the actual conduct of empirical investigation."* He argues that the positivistic notion is that the basic function of quantitative research is *"to uncover facts and truths which are independent from the researcher"* and that *"qualitative researchers question the notion of an objective reality…"* The following briefly highlights the difference between quantitative and qualitative methods.

4.10.1 Quantitative method

Quantitative research is linked to the positivist philosophy. Conducting a quantitative study, researchers set out to adopt what is called the scientific method in their investigations. A quantitative research method *"involves data collection procedures that result in numerical data which are then analysed mainly by statistical methods"* (Dörnyie, 2007, 24). According to Kumar (2014, 14), the quantitative *approach "follows a rigid, structured and predetermined set of procedures to explore; [and] aims to quantify the extent of variation in a phenomenon."* In his attempt to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative approaches, Berg (2001:2) states that: *"The notion of quality is essential to the nature of things. On the other hand, quantity is elementally an amount of something."* Thus, qualitative research refers to the meanings, concepts,

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definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things (Berg, 2007). In contrast, quantitative research refers to counts and measures of things, by using numbers for example (Berg, 2007; Thomas, 2009).

Similarly, Ary et al. (2009) and Saunders et al. (2009), point out that the main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is the nature of data used and the results. In qualitative research, findings are not arrived at by statistical methods or other procedures of quantification. Dawson (2009, 14) suggests that large sample sizes often participate in the quantitative research and *"generate statistics through the use of large-scale survey research, using methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews."* As indicated by Dörnyie (2007), this method has several advantages: it is systematic, focused and tightly controlled; it has precise measurements, and it provides reliable data that can be generalised to other contexts. Quantitative research involves using methods that are value-free to compute the variables involved and to reach a conclusion (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). As a result of the abstract nature of the data from the quantitative research, it has been criticised by qualitative researchers as very simplistic and reductionist, as it averages out responses that are devoid of the human perspective, failing to get the meanings that participants attach to their circumstances.

The following table illustrates the strengths and weaknesses of quantitative methods as listed by Saunders et al. (2012)

Table 4.11 Strengths and weaknesses of quantitative methods.

Strengths	Weaknesses

Tests and validates already constructed theories.	The research questions may not be clear and easy to understand.
Can generalise a research finding when data is analysed against samples of sufficient size.	The researcher may miss out on key elements as the research is focused upon hypothesis testing rather than hypothesis creation.
Provides accurate numerical data.	Data analysed might be too general or complex to understand.
Research results are primarily independent of the researcher.	

Source: Saunders et al. (2012)

4.11 Justification for selecting quantitative method for this study

Many authors argue that there is no rule which obliges the researcher to choose one method for one study, and another for another study. Robson (2002) and Jankowicz (2000) argue that there is neither a magic formula nor a straightforward method to justify which method is better than another for a particular research. Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) state that selecting the most suitable methodology and methods is debatable among researchers as implementing different methods will provide different perspectives on what is being studied. Many authors, such as Jankowicz (2005) and Robson (2011) emphasise that researchers are under no obligation of choosing one method for one investigation and another for another investigation. According to Menacere (2016, 25):

> *"The selection of a method is fitness for purpose and this is largely*
>
> *contingent with the research aims, and the choice is always a*
>
> *compromise between a number of factors, including validity, reliability,*

and the access to data and resources. It should be accepted that each method has its particular strengths and weaknesses."

According to Bryman and Bell (2011) and Gray (2014), questionnaires are a well-known and widely used primary data gathering technique for collecting quantitative data. This study aims to make use of the quantitative survey method to obtain numerical data regarding GSEC key stakeholders' views regarding the leadership styles and their impact on knowledge sharing processes. Menacere (2016, 27) believes that *"Any purposeful use of method as an approach for generating and creating knowledge, should be justified by its advantages, benefits and whether it is fit for purpose."*

The data collection method chosen for this study is informed by the appropriate underpinning philosophy in line with the nature of the problem and objectives of the study. Since this study aims to explore the multifaceted nature of leadership styles and their impact on knowledge sharing processes, the quantitative approach is deemed appropriate based on the research objectives and questions. The rationale behind selecting a quantitative method, is because this study seeks to generate knowledge based on numerical evidence.

Both a qualitative research method and mixed methods were not considered for the study. A qualitative research method requires the interpreting of rich data and does not offer the researcher the opportunity to compare variables or group participants statistically; rather data in qualitative research studies rely on open-ended questions (Russell & Russell, 2012). Moreover, in qualitative studies, researchers interpret and code data to identify trends and themes. Mixed-methods research studies require researchers to combine quantitative and

qualitative approaches. In research development, results from one method help develop or inform results from the other method, such as when the researcher broadly construes the development to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989). The aim of this study is to investigate which leadership style drives or inhibits KS in GSEC in the UAE.

Figure 4.2.: Summary of data structure
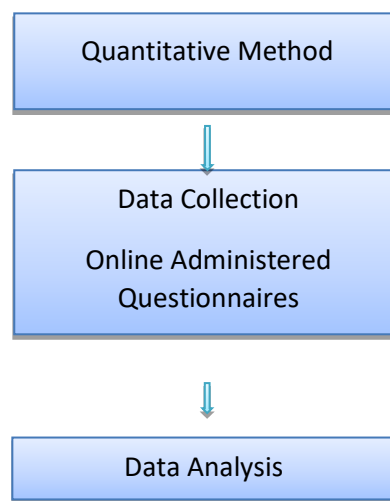
Source: Developed by the present researcher

4.12 Research strategy

The research strategy is the general plan of how the researcher intends to find an answer to the research question; it is the procedure for the achievement of an intermediary, specific research objective, e.g., sampling, the data collection or the data analysis (Saunders et al., 2009). A research strategy has been defined by Yin (2009, 26) as:

"A logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions."

The research strategy refers to the inclusive plan that a researcher follows for answering the research questions and the satisfaction of the aims and objectives (Creswell, 2009). The research objectives ought to be indicated by the research strategy, with it pointing out the need for the data collection, the required resources and an estimate of the restrictions and boundaries of the research along with an expression of how the researcher has considered the selection of the particular strategy (Creswell, 2009). Research strategy is not a one size fits all. Different research topics require different strategies. An effective research strategy contains clear objectives, research questions, data collection instruments highlighting the various constraints that affect the research in different ways such as access limitations, time limitations, location and money limitations, ethical issue constraints, etc. Although there are several strategies that can be adopted for collecting data, Churchill and Lacobucci (2009) argue that there is no research strategy which is superior or less inferior to any other strategy. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), the choice of research design is based on the research questions, objectives, time, the extent of the existing knowledge and other research.

The emphasis has to be on the adoption of suitable strategies for the particular research question and objectives, without them being mutually exclusive. Yin (2009) has arranged business and management research methods into five types of research strategies, as shown in the table below:

Table 4.12: Relevant situations for different research strategies

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

Source: Adapted from Yin (2009: 8)

4.13 Justification for selecting explanatory research

This current research is explanatory. It attempts to connect different ideas and to understand the different reasons, causes and their effects. Explanatory research, also known as causal research is conducted in order to identify the extent and nature of cause-and-effect relationships. Explanatory research can be conducted in order to assess impacts of specific changes on existing norms, various processes etc. Explanatory study focuses on analysing a situation or a specific problem to explain and find out the patterns of relationships between variables. (Dudovskiy, 2018; Zikmund, et al 2012; Bristow and Saunders, 2015). This study seeks to investigate the extent to which leadership styles stimulate or impede knowledge sharing within GSEC. It seeks to determine whether the leadership styles practised within GSEC have a direct bearing on employee knowledge sharing practices. Thus, the main aim of explanatory research is to identify any causal links between the factors or variables that pertain to the research problem (leadership styles vs employee knowledge sharing drivers). Explanatory research

is often conducted in order to address a problem that is under-researched. Quantitative research is used in this study for several reasons: quantitative data are easier to compare, with objective data collection being less ambiguous. Also, when there is a lot of data to analyse, it is much easier to analyse quantitative data when compared to analysis of qualitative data.

4.13.1 Criteria for selecting explanatory research for this study

Explanatory research is often used to investigate a topic which is not clearly determined. It allows the researcher to probe and get to grips with the different aspects of the topic under consideration. Explanatory research also allows the researcher to have an in-depth view of the topic under consideration (Bristow and Saunders (2015). The extent to which cause-and-effect relationships exist, can be confirmed only if specific causal evidence exists. Causal evidence has three important components (Dudovskiy 2018, Zikmund, et al 2012):

1. Temporal sequence. The cause must occur before the effect. For example, it would not be appropriate to credit the increase in sales to rebranding efforts if the increase had started before the rebranding.

2. Concomitant variation. The variation must be systematic between the two variables. For example, if a company does not change its employee training and development practices, then changes in customer satisfaction cannot be caused by employee training and development.

3. Nonspurious association. Any co-variation between a cause and an effect must be true and not simply due to other variables. In other words, there should be no 'third' factor that relates to cause as well as effect.

The below compares the main characteristics of causal research with exploratory and descriptive research designs:

Table 4.13 Comparing research designs

EXPLORATORY	DESCRIPTIVE	EXPLANATORY
❖Become familiar with the basic facts, setting and concerns.	❖Provide a detailed, highly accurate picture.	❖Test a theory's predictions or principle.
❖Create a general mental picture of conditions.	❖Locate new data that contradict past data.	❖Elaborate and enrich a theory's explanation.
❖Formulate and focus questions for future research.	❖Create a set of categories or classify types.	❖Extend a theory to new issues or topics.
❖Generate new ideas, conjectures, or hypotheses.	❖Clarify a sequence of steps or stages.	❖Support or refute an explanation or prediction.
❖Determine the feasibility of conducting research.	❖Documents a causal process or mechanism.	❖Link issues or topics with a general principle.
❖Develop techniques for measuring and locating future data.	❖Report on the background or context of a situation.	❖Determine which of several explanations is best.

Source: Voon Ying Sim (2012)

4.14 Data collection methods

There are various methods for collecting data. Each data collection method has advantages and disadvantages and is suitable for a particular study to achieve the objectives. The researcher chooses from various data collection methods in order to explore, define, understand and describe phenomena and to analyse relationships amongst various aspects of them (Cohen et al., 2007; Cerit, 2009). Yin (2009) suggested six main sources of evidence, and their weaknesses and strengths, that can be employed within an approach involving a case study:

Table 4.14: Data Collection Methods

Method	Use when	Advantages	Disadvantages
Document Review	Program documents or literature are available and can provide insight into the program or the evaluation	• Data already exist • Does not interrupt the program • Little or no burden on others • Can provide historical or comparison data • Introduces little bias	• Time consuming • Data limited to what exists and is available • Data may be incomplete • Requires clearly defining the data you're seeking
Observation	You want to learn how the program actually operates—its processes and activities	• Allows you to learn about the program as it is occurring • Can reveal unanticipated information of value • Flexible in the course of collecting data	• Time consuming • Having an observer can alter events • Difficult to observe multiple processes simultaneously • Can be difficult to interpret observed behaviors
Survey	You want information directly from a defined group of people to get a general idea of a situation, to generalize about a population, or to get a total count of a particular characteristic	• Many standardized instruments available • Can be anonymous • Allows a large sample • Standardized responses easy to analyze • Able to obtain a large amount of data quickly • Relatively low cost • Convenient for respondents	• Sample may not be representative • May have low return rate • Wording can bias responses • Closed-ended or brief responses may not provide the "whole story" • Not suited for all people—e.g., those with low reading level
Interview	You want to understand impressions and experiences in more detail and be able to expand or clarify responses	• Often better response rate than surveys • Allows flexibility in questions/probes • Allows more in-depth information to be gathered	• Time consuming • Requires skilled interviewer • Less anonymity for respondent • Qualitative data more difficult to analyze
Focus Group	You want to collect in-depth information from a group of people about their experiences and perceptions related to a specific issue.	• Collect multiple peoples' input in one session • Allows in-depth discussion • Group interaction can produce greater insight • Can be conducted in short time frame • Can be relatively inexpensive compared to interviews	• Requires skilled facilitator • Limited number of questions can be asked • Group setting may inhibit or influence opinions • Data can be difficult to analyze • Not appropriate for all topics or populations

Source (2018): Data collection methods table
https://www.google.co.uk/search?q=Data+collection+methods+table

So that the questions can be answered, and the objectives of the research achieved, data were collected using questionnaire survey dissemination amongst GSEC employees. Data collection methods are those instruments and mechanisms that are used to acquire data, such as questionnaires, interviews and direct observation, and some are qualitative techniques and others quantitative (Saunders et al., 2012). If a method comprising procedures and

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techniques for the collection and analysis of data involves generation of data that are numerical, then it is said to be quantitative. The development of the questionnaire survey was partly informed by the extensive literature review that had a focus upon leadership and knowledge sharing. The existing literature helped in the formulation of questions aimed at achievement of the objectives of the research.

4.15 Quantitative phase

4.15.1 Questionnaire

The survey strategy is commonly used within management and business research, rather than the experimental type of studies that tend to dominate within psychology, for example. Remenyi et al. (1998) state that it is often the case that the primary source of quantitative data within research for management is a survey that involves the collection of data from a significantly sizeable population. Sarandakos (1998, 223) for instance, argues that *"Surveys are the most commonly used method of data collection in the social sciences, especially in sociology; so common, that they quite often are considered to be the research method of social sciences."* Surveys can be used to describe, explain and/or test hypotheses and they are conventionally associated with interviews and questionnaires within the social sciences; however, as Bryman (2008) indicates, structured observation, in-depth interviewing and the analysis of the content acquired can also be undertaken. Surveys are often used to measure the frequency of behaviour, beliefs and attitudes and they can be either analytical or descriptive. An analytical survey is one that investigates relationships that could exist between numerous variables, whereas descriptive surveys are intended for use in the identification and measurement of the frequency of occurrence of a

specific population (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The descriptive survey is relevant for this current research study as it addresses the objectives and research questions, in particular questions of a 'What?' nature (Yin, 2003)

In general, surveys are popular as they are an economical way to collect large quantities of data from a large population by using a written technique (questionnaire) and/or an oral technique (interview). If a survey strategy is to be devised, there is a need to know important variables for understanding a situation. As Yin (2009) points out, a main reason for using the survey research strategy within a research study such as this one is that it is an efficient and cost-effective way to collect a large amount of data from a large population sample. As such, in order to answer the research questions, a questionnaire is thought to be a suitable method through which a standardised data set can be acquired; with the participants easily understanding regular questions, quantitative instruments can then be used for the analysis of the data collected (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). The questionnaire in this research study facilitates collection of data from a very broad range of respondents, involving GSEC employees. With a questionnaire that is well constructed, the survey can be administered with ease and the appropriate strategy for the research enables the researcher to have control over the process and helps in the identification of possible causes for the relationships that may exist between variables (Janckowicz, 1995; Yin, 2009).

4.15.2 Justification for using questionnaire in this research

The rationale for using questionnaire as a data collection instrument is closely related to the purpose of the study, the nature of the problem and the research

questions. Many authors, such as Jankowiz (2000) and Robinson (2002), emphasise that there is no straightforward rule which forces the researcher to choose one method for one investigation and another for another investigation.

Reasons for using a questionnaire in this study include:

1) As an insider researcher (a senior member of staff at GSEC) the researcher wanted to avoid bias

2) To allow each GSEC respondent the opportunity to provide anonymous feedback on their experience regarding leadership styles and their impact on employee knowledge sharing.

3) To access data from a large number of respondents from different GSEC departments.

4) Questionnaires allow for the exploration of patterns and trends which help to describe what is happening in the GSEC work place and provide a measure of respondents' opinions, attitudes, about leadership styles and their impact on employee knowledge sharing.

Dubois (2016) sums up clearly the advantages of questionnaires:

1) Cost-effective

2) Practical

3) Speedy results

4) Scalability

5) Not necessary to be a scientist

6) Scientific analysis and predictions

7) User anonymity

8) No pressure

9) Covers all aspects of the topic

Thus, for the purpose of this study, the use of quantitative research survey was aimed at gauging the perspectives of GSEC key stakeholders regarding the impact of leadership styles on knowledge sharing processes. To ensure that an appropriate questionnaire is adopted for application to the research context in question, it is recommended that consideration is given to all the potential data collection techniques before commencing (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Saunders et al., 2012). The motivation behind selecting a positivist, deductive and quantitative approach is because this method aims at explaining relationships. It attempts at identifying causes which influence outcomes (Creswell, 2009, 7). Positivism aims to formulate laws, thus establishing a basis for prediction and generalisation. Selecting a data collection instrument is not rule driven; the rationale for selecting a particular research method is to produce a story that stands up to close scrutiny and presents convincing and reliable evidence that can make a difference (Menacere 2016).

4.15.3 Types of questionnaires

The researcher carried out the survey in order to examine the enablers and challenges of leadership styles on knowledge sharing processes to answer the research questions. Advanced analytical methods and procedures have been devised to process data acquired in surveys (Haimon, 1998). A survey can be a very valuable tool for the measurement of the characteristics of a population by describing those characteristics and formulating models for their analysis. In considering the value of the survey as a research approach, Gilbert (2008, 95)

states that *"sociologists also regard surveys as an invaluable source of data about attitudes, values, personal experiences and behaviour."* Bristow and Saunders (2015) acknowledge how beneficial surveys can be to research, either by face-to-face interviews, questionnaires sent through the post, or telephone interviews. As Jankowicz (2005) stresses, data that are acquired related to the beliefs, views and feelings of people can be employed in adding weight to an argument or be just an end in itself. The method described above, and its advantages and disadvantages, will be explained below.

4.15.4 Mailed questionnaires

When using the technique of mailed questionnaires, it is usual for the posted questionnaires and covering letters to be accompanied by an envelope with prepaid postage so as to encourage the participant to complete the questionnaire. Self-administered postal questionnaires are considered to be the most commonly used methods, with it having only a limited degree of interference and taking up less time from the researcher when compared to questionnaires that are personally administered and face-to-face interviews (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). Mailed questionnaires can also be advantageous because of the following factors:

1) Accessibility. Respondents can be included despite being widely distributed.

2) Cost effectiveness. There is no need for trained interviewers and the method is cost effective because of the way in which data is processed and analysed. It is clear that mailing questionnaires to a widely distributed population sample is likely to be cheaper than using other forms of data collection (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003).

3) It is possible to collect large amounts of data. As Babbie (2004) has highlighted, a mailed questionnaire facilitates the collection of a large volume of data from a relatively large number of respondents within a short period of time,

4) The degree of error from bias is reduced. As a research measure, the mailed questionnaire can be stable, consistent and uniform as personal matters and variable skills amongst interviewers do not come into play (Remenyi et al., 2002).

5) Respondents have a degree of anonymity. Sekaran (2003) has highlighted that participants can feel comfortable at the relative anonymity and option to respond whenever it suits them. Without personalisation, a participant is more likely to respond with a more honest and open opinion when faced with a question that is controversial and/or sensitive.

There are, however, several disadvantages to using a mailed questionnaire:

1) Questions have to be simple and have to be explained with simple printed definitions and instructions.

2) There is often a low response rate.

3) There is a lack of control over the completion of how, and by whom, the questionnaire is completed.

4.15.5 Personally-administered questionnaires

A personally-administered questionnaire is thought to be a suitable tool for data collection when conducting a local survey that aims to focus on groups of people in the workplace or at home; such an approach has been considered by Collis and Hussey (2003) and Sekaran (2003) to have a number of advantages, as follows:

Table 4.15: Advantages of personally-administered questionnaires

Advantages	The researcher can clarify any confusion
	The researcher can remove bias
	A high response rate is possible with the researcher personally collecting responses without having to rely on completed forms arriving through the postal service
	The administration of questionnaires to large numbers of participants is quicker and cheaper
	More open and frank responses can be encouraged if the participant has the topics and themes of the research explained to them by a researcher face-to-face.
	During handover, the questionnaire may be checked to see that it has been completed satisfactorily.
	Less skill is required to administer a questionnaire than to conduct an interview

Source: Adapted from Collis and Hussey (2003) and Sekaran (2003)

However, there are certain disadvantages to questionnaires that have been personally-administered, as follows:

Table 4.16: Disadvantages of personally-administered questionnaires

Disadvantages	There can be high costs associated with this method, especially if the participants are located far apart
	Respondents can be hesitant if sensitive issues are raised

Source: Collis and Hussey (2003) and Sekaran (2003)

4.15.6 The design, distribution and administration of the questionnaire

It is essential to have an appropriate design for the questionnaire so that it helps to acquire the data that are necessary for addressing the objectives and research

questions of the study. So, in the careful formulation of questionnaire questions, a researcher should give consideration to the following points:

a) The questionnaire should be clear, with each item having a particular role.

b) Within all of the scales included, all the questions should aim to test a particular variable.

c) Before an item is included in the questionnaire, the way in which responses are to be analysed should be decided, with consideration given to the statistical techniques to be employed and the presentation and/or publishing of the data.

So that the validity of responses can be ensured, all questions in the survey have to be checked so that the language and wording relate to the perceptions and attitudes of the participants. Saunders et al. (2003) suggested the guidelines below to help fashion appropriate questionnaire wording:

1) Familiar vocabulary, terms and concepts should be used so that the questions are straightforward and clear.

2) So that the respondent can choose answers, simple scales should be used.

3) Attempts should be made to avoid the use of questions that encourage a particular response, so that bias can be reduced.

4) To avoid misunderstandings and to encourage participants to complete the questionnaire, questions should be kept direct and concise.

5) Attempts should be made to avoid the use of emotive language within leading questions; Kumar (1999, 120) defined a leading question as *"one which, by its contents, structure or wording, leads a respondent to answer in a certain direction."*

6) Ambiguous wording should be avoided.

7) Questions that are negative and confusing should be avoided.

The researcher of this study has followed these guidelines to enable the most appropriate research instrument to be designed.

4.15.7 The sequence and flow of the questions

If there is a proper sequence to the questions, respondents can have a subconscious sense of being prepared to answer them. A 'funnelled' approach from the general to more particular questions, and from easy questions to more difficult ones, has been recommended by Sekaran (2003). Several principles were followed in constructing the questionnaire as can be seen below:

1. Questions were made to have relevance for participants.

2. The use of open questions was kept to a minimum.

3. Hesitation was avoided through careful construction of initial questions.

4. The initial questions were broad before more particular focused questioning came later on in a form that was determined by the initial participant responses.

5. Similar topics were grouped together to give a logical flow to the questionnaire; the first section was related to the collection of demographic data, whilst the second section (with four sub-sections) related to questions that directly addressed the research questions of the study.

6. The questions at the start were purposefully made simple and an emphasis was placed on making the participant feel that their views were valued, rather than them having a sense that they were being examined in some way.

4.15.8 Types of questions

Sekaran (2003) indicates that there are particular advantages and disadvantages in using open or closed questions as a survey instrument. Open questions are considered better in exploratory studies as the researcher is not able to specify the response categories before undertaking the survey (Remenyi et al., 2002). It is easy to ask open questions and respondents are more likely to feel free to offer their opinions as they see fit. A disadvantage of open questions, however, is that they can increase the duration, discourage participation and lead to several responses being incomplete and unusable. It can be difficult to analyse much of the data acquired from open questions, with some of it being useless or irrelevant (Remenyi et al., 2002; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). On the other hand, closed questions have answers that are yes/no or a choice from several alternatives. It is difficult to design a clear questionnaire that is able to accommodate all the possible responses; however closed questions can enable a questionnaire to be completed quickly. Respondents can feel frustrated if the range of options provided for a response to a closed question does not accommodate an accurate reflection of their opinions and beliefs (Vaus, 2001; Denscombe, 2003). However, analysis of answers can be easier when there is a limited range of possible responses; closed questions lend themselves to the collection of particular types of data. As comparison is made easier when the responses are standardised, and a large number of questions can be asked quickly by the researcher, it was decided that the questionnaire for this research study would mainly employ closed questions.

4.15.9 Scaling process

Sekaran (2003, 185) defines scale as:

"a tool or mechanism by which individuals are distinguished as to how

they differ from one another in the variables of interest to our study. The

scale or a tool could be a broad one in the sense that it would only broadly

categorise individuals on certain variables, or it could be a fine-tuned tool

that would differentiate individuals on the variables with varying degrees

of sophistication."

Information about gender was gathered in this research using dichotomous questioning providing two alternatives. Information about age, qualifications and leadership styles was gathered using multiple choice questions that had a range of options for the participant to choose from. Evidence can be gathered using ordinal scales that had numerically ordered categories. A specialist statistical software package (SPSS) is needed for the analysis of responses, and the researcher used SPSS to undertake the statistical analysis of statements made to gauge the perceptions and views that GSEC employees have about the impact of leadership styles on knowledge sharing processes.

4.16 Sampling population and the sampling techniques

The research population is the group of things, elements or people that a researcher studies, and the research sample is a segment of all the potential cases from that research population (Sekaran, 2003; Saunders et al., 2009). Indeed, Robson (2002:260) states that: *"A sample is a selection from the population,"* and Saunders et al. (2000:150) consider sampling techniques as providing *"a range of methods that enable you to reduce the amount of data you need to collect by considering only data from a sub-group rather than all possible cases or elements."* So, the sample is a subset of the entire group of cases and whilst certain types of research work may involve collection of data from an entire

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population, it is not necessarily the case that such voluminous data is more useful than that gleaned from a representative sample (Robson, 2002a; Sekaran, 2003; Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009), also suggest that a researcher ought to use a research sample in the following circumstances:

Table 4.17: Research sample use

A	The cost of collecting from the whole population may be prohibitive
B	Results may be required by a researcher in a hurry and there may be a tight deadline to the study, for example
C	The researcher may only have permission to collect data from a representative sample, or collection from an entire population may be impractical

Source: Saunders et al. (2012)

Sampling, can be both non-probability and probability techniques, with the former having a known non-zero probability for each element of the research population. Typically, probability techniques include sampling of both random and stratified types. Non-random selection is employed within non-probability sampling, such as quota sampling and snowball sampling and, so that there is an acceptable degree of quality, there needs to be strict adherence to sound principles for sampling (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Each technique has, depending on the circumstances, its own advantages and disadvantages. The most significant advantages relate to the lowering of cost, human resourcing needs or time saving, whilst the disadvantages of a technique may relate to there being the discovery of only weak predictions or estimates that can lead to estimation error (Kumar, 2008). Random sampling has been adopted for this research as it is considered more representative as each unit of the population has an equal chance of being included within the research sample. Gray (2014) identifies two main approaches

or procedures of sampling: probability sampling (which involves selecting random samples of subjects from a given population that represents the total number of possible elements as part of the study) and non-probability sampling (where the selection of participants in a study is non-random).

Figure 4.3: Common sampling techniques and types
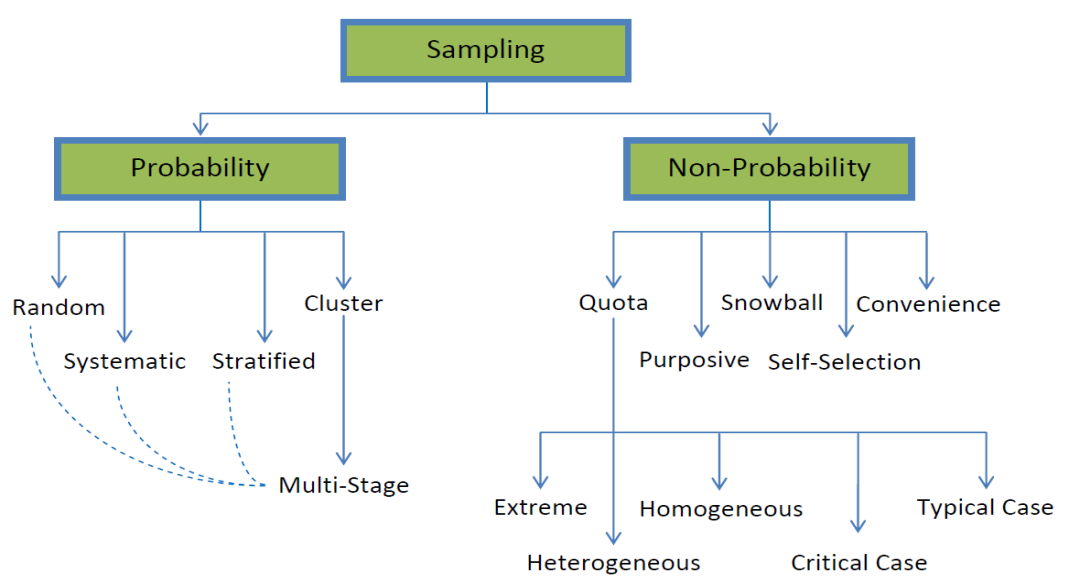
According to Greener (2011, 51) *"The sampling method chosen for a project is appropriate to the goals of the research."* The targeted study population was GSEC key stakeholders regarding the impact of leadership styles on knowledge sharing and exchange of learning experiences.

4.16.1 Sampling technique for the questionnaires

The use of use a simple random sampling technique that gives all units of the population an equal probability of being selected is deemed appropriate (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). It was considered inappropriate to use other techniques, such as quota, cluster or stratified sampling, as resources and time were limited. Therefore, the maximisation of participation was a key factor for the researcher in the use of the questionnaire surveys (Collis and Hussey, 2003;

Saunders et al., 2012). As Saunders et al. (2012) point out, it was considered that mailed questionnaires had a tendency to have lower rates of response than personally administered questionnaires. If people are contacted who do not wish to be involved, or if chosen respondents are ineligible for some reason, then there can be a depleted number of suitable responses and the study can become more biased (Vaus, 2001). In terms of size of sample, Kervin (1992, 241) considered that: *"The larger the sample size, the lower error in the data that the author collects."* GSEC as a public sector organisation which is the setting for this research, has approximately 3000 employees. The size of the sample is 600 and 396 is the number of questionnaires valid for SPSS analysis, determined by using the following Yamane's formula (Israel, 1992).

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2} \quad = \quad 396$$

Where:

n: Sample size   N: Population e: Sampling error (usually 0.05 acceptable error)

The following table shows the details of the sample size of this study, which are as follows:

Table 4.18 Sample size of the study

Numbers of questionnaires distributed	Numbers of questionnaires incomplete	Numbers of questionnaires valid for SPSS analysis	Response Rate
300	64	206	66 %

4.16.2 Pilot study

4.16.2.1 Designing the scale

The exercise of designing the scale has the purpose of developing an effective questionnaire with the objectives of the research being addressed. The following

points were taken into consideration:

a. Ordering the questions in a descending order of usefulness and importance, the order having been agreed following focus group and piloting.

b. Grouping together questions with similar content, within areas and by question type, when constructing the scale, grouped under a subject with the title.

c. Taking advantage of cognitive ties that may be made from the questions by respondents in helping the decision over their order.

4.16.3 Pilot questionnaire test

It is considered beneficial to conduct a pilot test so that the weaknesses of the instrument may be identified. Consequently, the researcher distributed a number of questionnaires to test them out. Undertaking a pilot study prior to the launch of the actual full survey can help in the assessment of validity and reliability. Indeed, a pilot study has been defined in the work of Saunders et al. (2007, 606) as:

> *"a small-scale study to test a questionnaire or interview checklist or observation schedule, to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected."*

Yin (2008, 79) stated that: *"the pilot case study helps investigators to refine their data collection plans with respect to both the content of the data and the procedures to be followed."* Oppenheim (2000) considers that the pilot study function is to enable useful findings to be gleaned and to enable procedures and questions to be tested, and the research methods to be checked over and refined.

According to Sekaran (2003), the pilot sample should have understandable questions and involve people who are representative of participants who would ultimately be chosen for the full survey.

4.16.4 Piloting the questionnaire of this study

Following a review of the leadership and knowledge sharing literature, a structured questionnaire was designed, informed essentially by the broad themes in the literature in order to identify the critical factors influencing the adoption and implementation of knowledge sharing and whether leadership styles have a direct impact on employee knowledge sharing in the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC).

4.16.5 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire was developed based upon related literature and modified by reviewing previously validated questionnaires. The questionnaire contains brief and clear instructions and was arranged to facilitate ease of response. Respondents were advised by letter about the nature of the research, the researcher's background, and why the research is being carried out. They were assured of privacy and confidentiality and were offered the opportunity to withdraw. In addition, they were informed that they could fill in the questionnaire in either English or Arabic, and it would take about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The original questionnaire was developed in English so a translation of the questionnaire into Arabic was necessary because most of the respondents speak Arabic as their first language. For the translation, the researcher took into consideration the accuracy, fluency, and facility of language used. This stage involving the translation of the questionnaire was both important and necessary

to maintain the validity of the data, as ineffective translation could result in lost or misconstrued meanings between languages. The back-translation method was adopted to avoid any miscommunication and misinterpretation. In the first phase, a professional translator translated the English version of the questionnaire into Arabic. In the second phase, a professional translator, rendered the Arabic version back into English. The initial English version was then compared with the second. Furthermore, to improve the reliability of the translation further, another person who is bilingual in English and Arabic checked the cross-linguistic comparability of the English and the Arabic versions.

A five-point 'Likert' scale was the main instrument in the questionnaire to explore participants' agreement or disagreement with the statements. Clear, concise instructions were provided for all sections. The arrangement and length followed the suggestions of Saunders et al., (2009) who state that a longer and more detailed survey/questionnaire could be used when the population was specialised in the topic. As was suggested by Bryman and Bell (2011), the shorter and most straightforward questions were placed at the beginning of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured with a variety of response opportunities, and was arranged as follows:

Part One – Background information about the participants. This required answers to demographic questions and very general organisational background in a tick-list or short answer format.

Part Two – Factors related to leadership style. This offered agree/disagree level, in which rating was done on a scale of 1-5, with 1 = Strongly Disagree, and 5 = Strongly Agree.

Part Three – Barriers related to knowledge sharing. This was a list of statements exploring the presence or absence of factors that hinder knowledge sharing. As in part two, there was an agree/disagree 5-point scale. In all cases, a rating of 3 indicated a neutral position.

4.16.6 Pilot survey testing

A reasonable size for a pilot test sample suggested by the literature varies between 25 to 100 subjects (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). A response rate of 93.75% was achieved from the questionnaires, as shown in Table 4.19. Cronbach's Alpha was used for establishing the instrument reliability by the internal consistency of its questions. The 30 responses met the study inclusion criteria. Dunn-Ranking (2004: 118) consider that *"the Alpha reliability approach for establishing reliability is based on the assumption that item variance is error variance, with the sum of the error variance substituted for true error variance."*

Table 4.19: Response rate of questionnaire in pilot study:

No. of Distributed Questionnaires	Incomplete Questionnaires	Valid Questionnaires	Response Rate
32	2	30	93.75

- A sample of 32 respondents participated in the pilot study's main instrument (questionnaire). Out of 32 questionnaires, 30 were valid for data analysis. The respondents generally agreed that the questionnaire was clear. The pilot study data was then analysed using SPSS to test that the scales used for the measurement of study variables were appropriate. As noted by Zikmund et

al., (2010), the statistical tests related first to the number of variables, then to the question type and then to the measurement scale (Zikmund et al., 2010).

- The Cronbach's Alpha in relation to the pilot test was above the recommended 0.70 level for reliability at 0.803 (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, the overall reliability co-efficient is more than 0.70, which implies that there is good internal consistency of scale.

4.16.7 Feedback from the pilot test

It was generally agreed by the respondents that the questionnaire was clear. Ultimately, only minor clarifications were needed related to some of the terminology that has been since made clearer. The researcher acquired a greater appreciation of the topic from the pilot testing of the questionnaire, with most participants only taking between a quarter and half an hour to complete it.

4.17 Data instrument validity and reliability

Consideration needs to be given to the reliability and validity of the instruments used in the survey. Identification of consistency in assessing score results, forms the basis of reliability, and it can be illustrated easily through undertaking a retest of a group of participants to check if there has been a change in the answers given (test-retest criteria).

Reliability is a scale to which a measure is consistent and stable in the result of a test or scale (Field, 2005). Reliability is defined in different ways. For instance, according to Black and Champion (1976, 232-4) reliability is the *"Ability to measure consistently"* while Lehner (1979, 130) defines reliability as *"reproductibility of the measurements…stability."* A reliable test would be one where participants have the similar scores; a high correlation of about 1 being a

first test score that shows reliability. Instrument reliability can also be shown by the use of internal consistency measurements, Cronbach's Alpha being a commonly used example. If the Cronbach's Alpha reveals a high level of correlation, then the instrument may be thought of as a reliable one.

In general, the validation of survey instruments involves the demonstration, based on statistical analysis, that the information that has been accumulated has been obtaining evidence with inferences that are appropriate for the population (Creswell, 2009). The researcher can assess survey tool validity by checking its construct, criterion and content; previous literature related to instrument validation can inform an assessment or an appropriate panel of experts can determine instrument validity by face validity (Creswell, 2005). If an instrument has been used previously for the collection of data, it should be easy to show that it is reliable and valid, so long as references are readily available to establish reliability, content, construct and face validity. As Creswell (2009) notes, using an instrument that has proven reliability and validity is preferable to using one without such supporting proof.

In this research, validity was ensured through different stages:

- Survey questions were informed by the aims and objectives to ensure all research areas were covered
- The supervisors made sure that the research process and outcomes matched the aims and objectives of the study research
- The questionnaire was divided into different sections, to give it a user-friendly layout to prevent any confusion.

4.18 Generalisability of the research

Research generalisability is a term which refers to the extent to which the results that are obtained are relevant to other circumstances, with generalisations possible to a larger group (Saunders et al., 2009). In other words, generalisability describes the extent to which research findings can be applied to settings other than that in which they were originally tested, in this case measuring the impact of leadership styles on knowledge sharing practices at GSEC. This study is useful for informing practice in settings which are similar in activity and circumstances. Thus, the set of findings about the impact of leadership styles on knowledge sharing activities within GSEC as a public sector organisation may be applied to other settings or countries with similar conditions and organisational culture.

4.19 Ethical considerations

Ethics is a term which refers to the moral code and regulations that researchers need to follow during research (Dawson, 2009). When conducting any research, it is crucial to consider the ethical implications of the research. Ethics play an important role for getting access to people and organisations for gathering data for the study (Saunders et al., 2009c). In addition, being ethical is a core requirement of an evaluation to determine whether the study should go ahead (Kumar, 2005b). According to Punch (2006), it is important to determine the ethical dimensions of any research prior to conducting it. This study received ethical approval and adhered to the ethical research procedures of the ethical guidelines of the Research Ethics Committee [REC] of LJMU (Young, 2006). The procedures followed in this research can be summarised as follows:

- Participants were given the option of participating or not participating in the research

- Participants have the right to withdraw from the research at any point

- Written or verbal consent is sought prior to involvement in the research

- All participants were made fully aware of the requirements for involvement in the research

- All participants were informed of the nature of the research

4.20 Summary of the chapter

Details of the methods employed for the achievement of the study objectives have been discussed and justified within this chapter. Attention was paid within the first section to the philosophical stance taken with the theoretical issues encountered highlighted. This was followed by justification for the approach chosen by the researcher for the investigation of the research problem. The second section provided an overview of the methods employed within the study for the purposes of collecting quantitative data, with explanations of how the exploratory pilot study was conducted. Also considered within this chapter was the need for reliability, and the statistical analysis of the internal reliability, along with consideration for the validity and replicability of the study and ethical matters for the process of research and the gathering of data.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and interprets the results of the study which examines the main leadership styles applied within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and their impact on employee knowledge sharing. It seeks to find out whether the leadership styles practised within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council drive or impede knowledge sharing among employees. The following chapter provides a descriptive analysis of the questionnaire data, and is divided into six sections. In the first section, a preliminary consideration of the data is presented showing the response rate and the process of data screening and cleaning. The second section highlights the demographic profiles of the respondents. The third section provides a preliminary reliability assessment of the main constructs in the present study. The fourth section presents the findings from the descriptive analysis of the data obtained on the study's major observed constructs. The fifth section provides comparisons between the participants in the research sample, based on their demographic characteristics and their attitudes towards the current research variables. Finally, the sixth section offers a chapter summary.

5.2 Consideration of the data

5.2.1 Sampling population and response rate

The collection of quantitative data was conducted from December 2018 to April 2019 and the questionnaire survey was sent out via email to a total of 500

participants that had been chosen by random sampling. The various participants were all employees in the public sector, GSEC, who had different levels of experience and education and were working at various pay grades. During the collection of the data, there was the following of due process such as the sending of at least two reminders to those who had not responded after two weeks. Participants were free to complete the form whenever and wherever they wished.

The primary tool of data analysis for this study is the social science statistical package known as SPSS (Version 25); it was used for assessment of descriptive statistics and the exploratory factor analysis. As the programs for SPSS process quantitative data, all of the responses of the participants were put into it in accordance to the response value in numerical terms. Prior to entry of the data in the spreadsheet of SPSS, rows and columns were created through the coding of the questions (variables/items). As such, any case information may be identified over the data editor. Within the SPSS name column, the items of the questionnaire were given numerical codes as well as a variable abbreviation. Likewise, with the column for the label, question items were given a format that was abbreviated. The column value section was taken from a value of '99' to indicate that that information had not been provided. A 5-point Likert scale was used: '5' indicated 'Strongly Agree' and '1' indicated 'Strongly Disagree'. Lastly, there was cleaning of the data through tests of descriptive statistics in order to gauge that each of the question responses was in accordance with the entry in the column section in order to have confirmation of correct entry of figures. The response rate was as follows:

Table 5.1: Response rate of the questionnaire

Questionnaire survey	Total
Target population	500
Returned	302
Usable	292
Response rate	58.40%

5.2.2 Screening and cleaning of data

Prior to the analysis of the data, several steps are needed to ensure that further analysis is appropriate. Firstly, data screening was undertaken. Hair et al. (2010) consider that it is essential to undertake the screening and cleaning of data, particularly if there is an intention to employ multivariate analysis. In order to do the data cleaning, there is initial application of two kinds of analysis, i.e., outliers and missing data. Further, the study gave confirmation of the data through screening of the linearity, reliability and normality of the data prior to inferring any results.

5.2.2.1 Missing data

There is often the occurrence of missing data if there is a failure of a participant to answer at least one of the questions within a questionnaire (Hair et al. 2010). There are a number of reasons why missing data occurs; however, within social science research, the reasons that are most common are that participants miss out a question accidently and/or the questionnaires are of considerable length. It was noted by Hair et al. (2010) that the missing data problem affects statistical analyses of original datasets in two kinds of way, through reduction of statistical technique power to indicate any dataset relationships, and through generation of

bias in the parameter estimation process. There was a total of 10 responses that were marked as being incomplete from the 302 responses. In accordance with recommendations made by Hair et al. (2010), those questionnaires with missing data were disqualified from further analysis; this, in practice, only related to a small proportion of the total number of responses, i.e., 3.3 %. This missing data removal procedure has been described by Malhotra et al. (2013) by the term 'case-wise deletion'. So, in total, it was considered that 292 of the questionnaires were considered complete and suitable for analysing further; for the purposes of this study, that is a number deemed to be acceptable.

5.2.2.2 Outliers

Following the treatment for the missing values, consideration of outliers (multivariate and univariate) is a logical next step to follow. Outliers are the cases which seem to have extreme and/or odd scores when compared to other observations in the dataset. Amongst the numerous causes of outliers are sampling techniques that are erroneous, data entry errors, missing values within the calculation and extreme responses upon multi-pointed scales (Hair et al. 2010). Hair et al. (2010) consider outliers to be observations that have unique characteristic combinations that are identifiable as having distinct differences when compared to other observations. They classified outliers as being one of four types: i) errors of procedure because of coding error or mistakes in entering data; ii) observations that happen due to extraordinary events; iii) extraordinary observations that the researcher cannot explain; and iv) those observations coming under the ordinary value range for each variable.

For the study purposes here, there was detection of outliers through multivariate and univariate perspectives. There was identification of univariate outliers from the z-score value within the questionnaire dataset. It was suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) that if the z-score value is greater than ± 3.29, then the data can be seen as being a univariate outlier and will, therefore, be disqualified from further analyses. Further, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested that standardised score extremeness depends upon sample size (N); when N is very large, there is an expectation that few scores that are standardised will be greater than 3.29. Based upon z-score, within the dataset, none of the items were discovered to be univariate outliers, i.e. z-score of greater than ± 3.29.

Following this, there was detection of multivariate outliers through calculation of Mahalanobis distance. Hair et al. (2006) describe Mahalanobis distance (D^2) as a representation of distance of each case from the multidimensional distribution mean. Employment of D^2 for testing of multivariate outliers led to a few such outliers; these were also found to be near to the thresholds and the decision was made that it was unnecessary to delete those responses given that they were not considered to be extreme.

5.2.3 Reliability and normality

Measurement instrument reliability is in reference to the degree to which stable, accurate and consistent responses are yielded over time. When there is consistency in results, the conclusion may be drawn that chance has not affected those results (Field, 2009; Saunders et al. 2012). A test for internal consistency was undertaken at an early phase of the analysis of data so that it could be ensured that there were acceptable scores for Cronbach's alpha for all of the

constructs prior to the application of any further techniques for statistical analysis (factor analysis). So, for assessment of internal consistency for all the items of measurement within the survey (all of the scale measures), there was performance of the test for Cronbach's alpha through the running of the data through use of SPSS (Version 25). The scores for Cronbach's alpha are indicated in the results in Table 5.2 and show all of the individual constructs lie within a range from 0.897 - 0.989 with an overall score of 0.902. As such, all of the constructs were over the level that has been recommended of 0.7 (Sekaran, 2003; Field, 2009; Hair et al. 2010). As such, it may be stated that no question of internal consistency was shown at this early stage in the analysis of the data.

Table 5.2 Reliability

Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Overall	0.902	53
II	0.986	7
IM	0.956	5
IS	0.954	5
IC	0.897	4
CR	0.967	4
MEA	0.937	4
MEP	0.814	4
LF	0.976	4
KS	0.989	8
KC	0.979	8

Furthermore, a test for normality was employed for ensuring there was a normal distribution to the data. Statistically, the term normality is in reference to the distribution of the data; this assumption is fundamental when measuring variable variation. When data is being analysed, normality tests are not always necessary; however, it is considered better if it is found that there is a normal distribution to the variables in question (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The particular sample involved in this study is 292 in size and, therefore, normally only minimally affects the results. True normality may be seen as a mythical concept (Elliott and Woodward, 2007). However, researchers may look visually to see if there is normality through the use of normal plots (Field, 2009) or by conducting significance tests, i.e., making comparison of the distribution of the sample with one that is normal (Field, 2009). It has been argued by Trowler (2014), however, that it is preferable to observe shapes within the plots of the data distribution rather than employing formal tests of inference such as kurtosis and skewness, especially if there is a large sample over 200. Nonetheless, within this study, normality has been assessed by observing the histogram that is bell-shaped and this showed that there is an approximately normal distribution to the data (see Figures 5.1 to 5.53). It is, however, important to remember that tests for normality have sensitivity to the size of the sample (Field, 2009). So, since the present study has a sample size of 292, which is sufficiently large, as noted by (Pallant, 2007), slight variation of the assumption of normality is unlikely to cause any significant problems.

There are ten core constructs within the questionnaire measured through fifty-three various items (statements) with use of a 5-point Likert scale. For each of the statements, the participants were asked to provide their view. Coding of the

responses was as follows: a number 1 indicated that there was strong disagreement with what was stated in the statement, moving through the scales to a number 5 that indicate there was strong agreement. The number 2.5 was selected as the scale midpoint so that a distinction could be made between the disagreement and the agreement of the respondents of the following constructs.

- Idealised influence (II)

- Inspirational motivation (IM)

- Intellectual stimulation (IS)

- Individualised consideration (IC)

- Contingent rewards (CR)

- Management by exception (active) (MEA)

- Management by exception (passive) (MEP)

- Laissez-faire (LF)

- Knowledge Sharing (KS)

- Knowledge Collecting (KC)

Out of the total of 500 questionnaires that were distributed, 302 of them were returned and seen as valid for the quantitative analysis to follow. Of the 302, 10 of them were considered unusable due to there being missing demographic data, too many responses that were missing or because participants had placed the same answers upon all of the items of the Likert scale. So, it was considered that 292 of the questionnaires returned had validity for consideration in the later data analyses; as such, the rate of response from the original sample was high at 58.4%. The section that follows has the aim of providing general background with regard to the respondents involved in the survey, with details related to the

demographic profiles of the 5 groups with respect to four kinds of characteristic, i.e., education level, gender, age group and number of years of experience.

5.3 Demographic Data

5.3.1 The demographic characteristics of the respondents

The demographic data relating to gender, age, educational level, and experience are summarised in Table 5.3.

- From this, it is seen that the gender breakdown of the respondents was 51.7% male and 48.3% female.

- Table 5.3 also indicates that participation in the survey was highest among respondents aged 41 to 50 years of age (47.6%), and lowest among respondents 21 to 30 years (15.8%). It shows that the remainder of participants are 31 to 40 years of age (36.6%).

- In terms of educational level, 51% (n=149) participants have a bachelor degree, and 49% have attained higher qualifications, either Masters or PhD (36 % & 13% respectively). The implication is that the majority of the respondents are well educated. This result is understandable as most employees are well educated in general.

- Finally, the last aspect of demographic data is the years of experience. It shows that over 75% of respondents have over 10 years of service.

Table 5.3: The demographic data of the respondents to the questionnaire

Demographic Data	Categories	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative %
Gender	Male	151	51.7	52%
	Female	141	48.3	100%
Age	21 - 30 Years	46	15.8	16%
	31 - 40 Years	107	36.6	52%

	41 - 50 Years	139	47.6	100%
Educational level	Bachelor	149	51.0	51%
	Masters	105	36.0	87%
	Ph.D. or equivalent	38	13.0	100%
Years of Experience	1 – 5 or less	38	13.0	13%
	6 - 10 Years	32	11.0	24%
	11 – 15 Years	80	27.4	51%
	16 – 20 Years	128	43.8	95%
	21 or more	14	4.8	100%

5.4 Statistical analyses

Within this study, different analytical techniques were employed in order to analyse the collected data, i.e., means, frequencies and descriptive analyses. Such statistical approaches enable proper analysis of the demographic data of the participant groups and, thus, help in the generation of conclusions that are simple and meaningful. Moreover, parametric tests were suitably employed within this study. Pearson's correlation and the t-test of the independent sample were used for the parametric test. All of the testing was done using the software SPSS (Version 25) for the coding and analysing of the data that were gathered through the use of the questionnaires. Based upon the questions of the survey, the analyses performed are presented below.

5.4.1 Leadership Styles

In order to assess the significant differences between males and females regarding the study's constructs, a series of t-tests were performed to compare the average mean scores between the two groups based on their responses to

the interval scale questions in the questionnaire presented in Table 5.4. The t-test calculations were based on the average scale scores of each interval scale used in this study, and SPSS 25 was used to compute average scores for item in each of the ten study constructs (53 individual observable variables).

Table 5.4 Leadership styles constructs - Average Descriptive, *t-test* Results and Pearson Correlation

CONSTRUCTS	Male (N:151)		Female (N:141)		t	df	p	r	r²
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD					
II	3.6547	1.1691	3.65	1.173	15.602	291	0.000	0.055	0.003
IM	3.7311	1.4019	3.726	1.424	15.037	291	0.000	-0.006	0.000
IS	3.5205	1.3737	3.535	1.378	12.978	291	0.000	0.028	0.001
IC	3.899	1.0809	3.938	1.082	24.462	291	0.000	-0.036	0.001
CR	4.3328	0.5561	4.342	0.564	51.27	291	0.000	0.093	0.008
MEA	3.6705	1.2311	3.743	1.208	16.381	291	0.000	0.047	0.002
MEP	3.4851	1.2382	3.5	1.245	13.022	291	0.000	0.023	0.001
LF	4.0215	1.1212	4.099	1.074	26.627	291	0.000	-0.023	0.001

5.4.1.1 Idealised influence (II)

Seven items were used to measure the Idealised influence (II) construct in this study. Regarding II, male participants (N=151) were associated with the mean = 3.654 (SD = 1.169). In comparison the female group (N = 141) was associated with a numerically higher mean of 3.65 (SD = 1.17) as presented in Table 5.4. In more precise terms, the mean scores were 3.568; 3.589; 3.592; 3.606; 3.579;

3.582 and 3.565 respectively as presented in Table 5.5, all above the midpoint of 2.5 on the five-point Likert scale, The average mean score was 3.58 while the average standard deviation was 1.187, indicating low dispersion among respondents' scores around the average mean, which indicated the participants are in agreement with the measures of the scale. Specifically, these results mean that the majority of the respondents consider idealised influence as a major factor when selecting among leadership styles.

In order to assess the significant differences between males and females in regard to the II construct, a sample t-test was performed to compare the average mean scores between the two groups based on their responses to the interval scale questions in the questionnaire. Furthermore, as depicted in figures 5.1-5.7, the distribution of the participants was sufficiently normal for the purpose of conducting a t-test i.e., skew < 3.0 and kurtosis < 8.0 (Kline, 2011). To test the hypothesis that both male and female participants were associated with a statistically significant different mean in regards to their attitude to II, a sample t-test was performed.

The analysis of the t-test statistics presented in Table 5.4 reveals that male and female groups do not differ significantly in terms of their attitudes towards all Likert-scale variables ($p < 0.05$). With respect to II, the t-test revealed that there was an insignificant statistical difference between males' (Mavg = 3. 654, SD = 1.169) and females' (Mavg = 3.650, SE = 1.173) average mean scores t (291) = 15.602, $p < 0.05$; these results indicated that both groups, on average, considered II to be a major factor when choosing among the leadership styles.

Pearson Correlation is used to undertake and trace the association amongst variables and as a result, the Pearson Coefficient Correlation test is presented in detail in Table 5.5. Furthermore, when attempting to interpret the size of effect results, researchers suggest different guidelines. The following were found to be widely used in describing what constitutes a large or small effect size: r = 0.1 indicates a small effect where 1% (r^2 = 0.01) of the variance is explained by it, r = 0.3 is a medium effect and accounts for 9% (r^2 = 0.09) of the total variance occurring, and r = 0.5 (r^2 = 0.25) represents a large effect accounting for 25% of the total variance (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2007). When analysed against the other collapsed seven statements within the Idealised influence construct of the questionnaire, the Pearson Correlation indicated small effect correlation with the other statements. This indicates that, whilst respondents answered favourably by agreeing, that they believed that Idealised influence was a major factor, the respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with the other statements. It is also shown that effect size had a minimum effect r = 0.055 on the variation between the two groups, explaining 0.3% of the total variance of respondents' scores on the II scale (see Table 5.4).

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r^2
Q5.1II Acts in ways that build my respect	3.568	1.178	1.068	15.503	0.000	0.022	0.000

Q5.2II Instils pride in being associated with him/ her	3.589	1.179	1.089	15.781	0.000	0.07	0.000
Q5.3II Talks about his/ her important values and beliefs	3.592	1.182	1.092	15.795	0.000	0.032	0.000
Q5.4II Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	3.606	1.169	1.106	16.169	0.000	0.044	0.000
Q5.5II Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	3.579	1.186	1.079	15.545	0.000	0.043	0.000
Q5.6II Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission	3.582	1.206	1.082	15.338	0.000	0.085	0.010
Q5.7II Displays a sense of power and confidence	3.565	1.207	1.065	15.082	0.000	0.087	0.010

Table 5.5 Idealised influence (II) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

Figure 5.1: Idealised influence (II): Acts in ways that build my respect

Idealised influence (II)
Acts in ways that build my respect
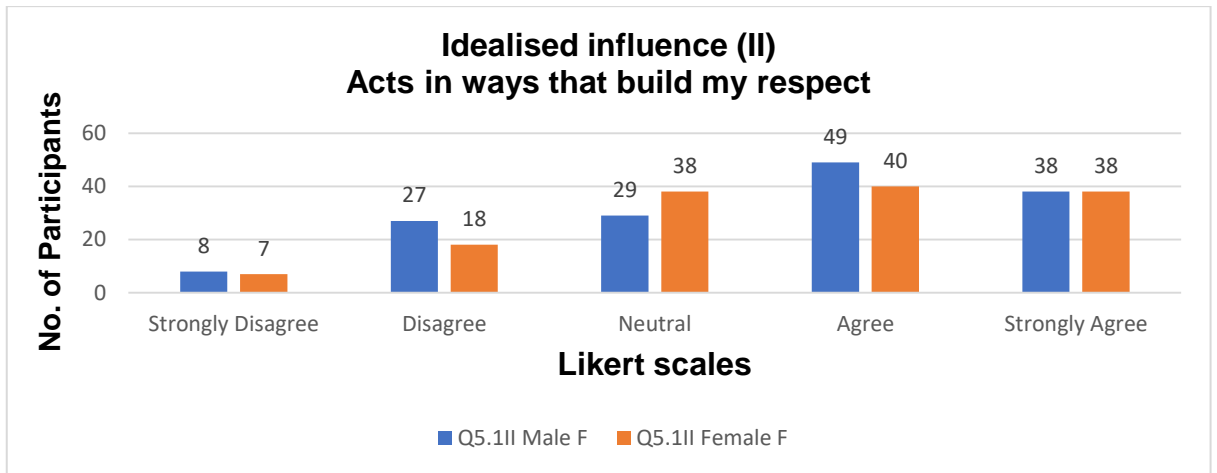
Figure 5.2: Idealised influence (II): Instils pride in being associated with him/her

Idealised influence (II)
Instils pride in being associated with him/ her
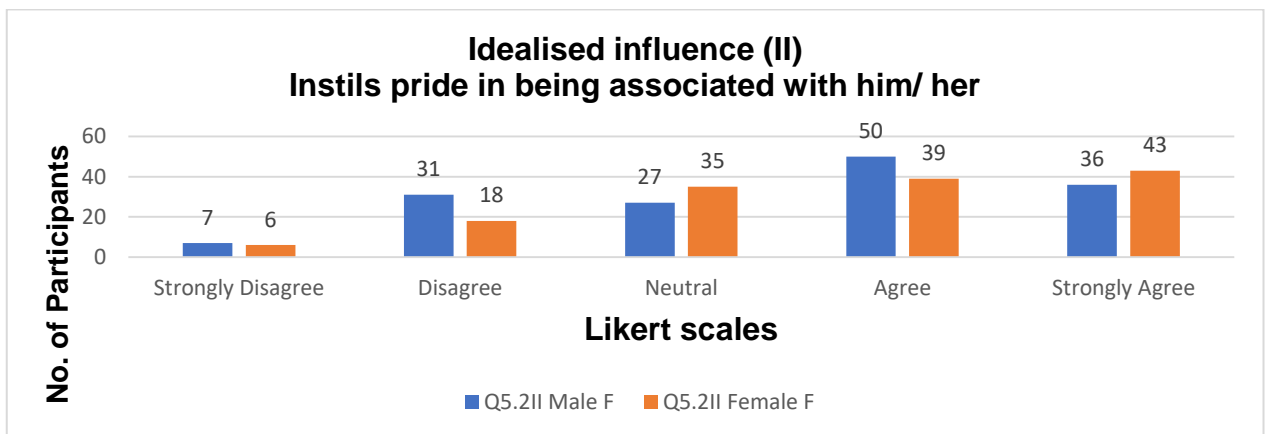
Figure 5.3: Idealised influence (II): Talks about his/ her important values and beliefs

Idealised influence (II)
Talks about his/ her important values and beliefs
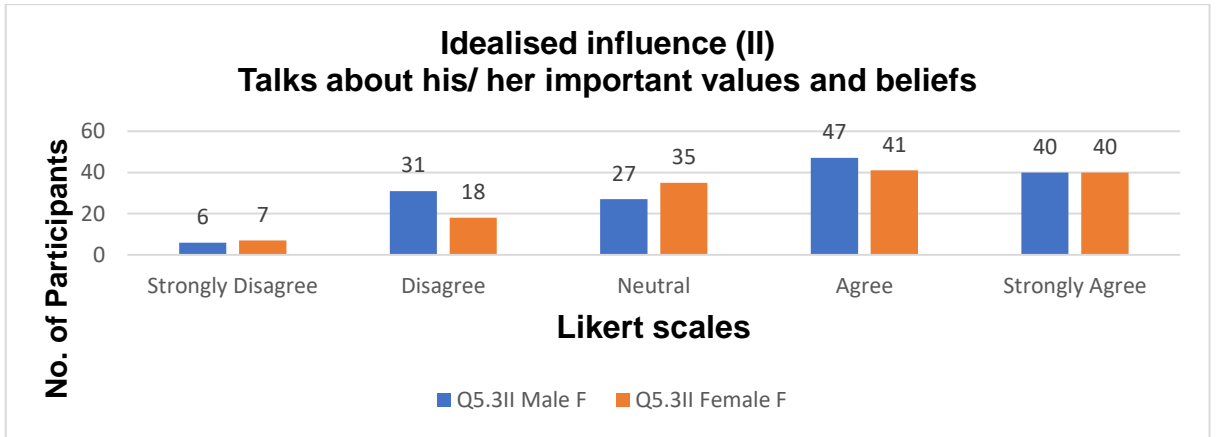
Figure 5.4: Idealised influence (II): Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group
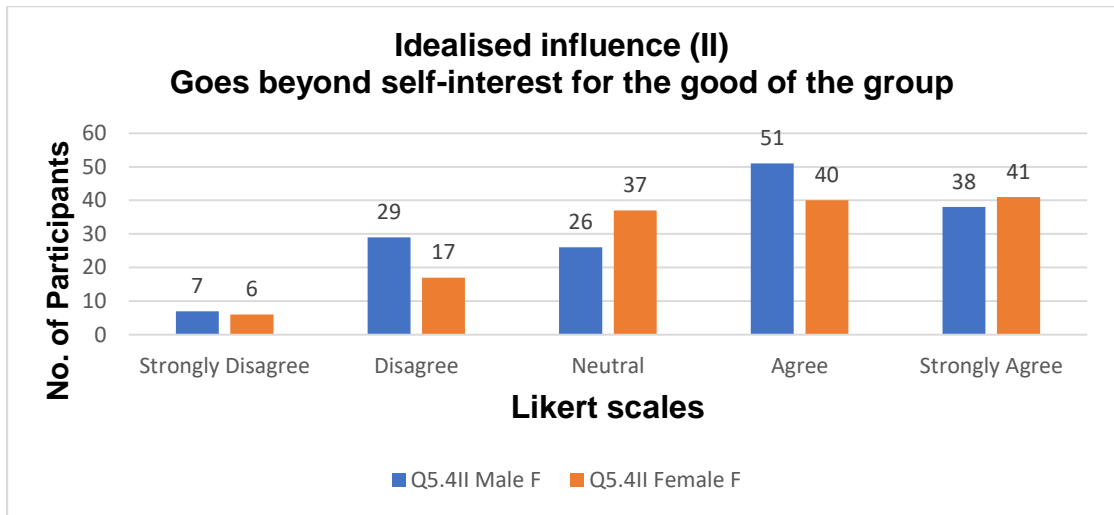
Idealised influence (II)
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group

Figure 5.5: Idealised influence (II): Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions

Idealised influence (II)
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
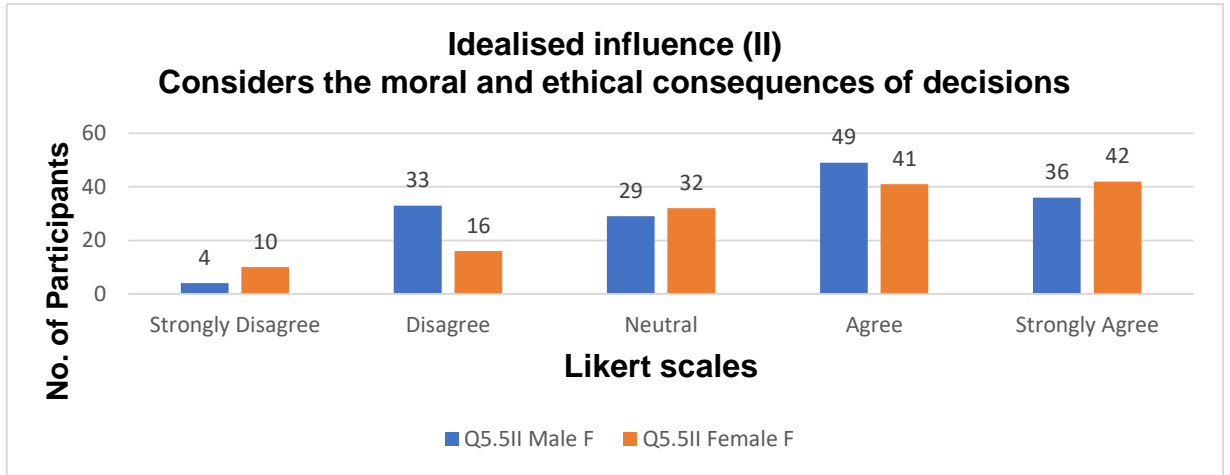
Figure 5.6: Idealised influence (II): Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission

Idealised influence (II)
Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission
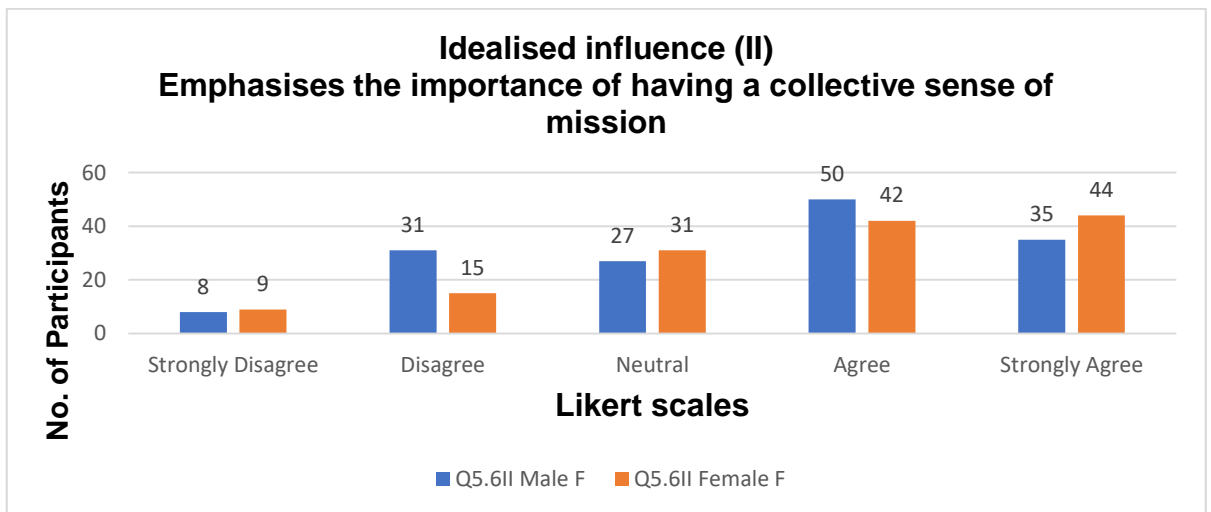
Figure 5.7: Idealised influence (II): Displays a sense of power and confidence
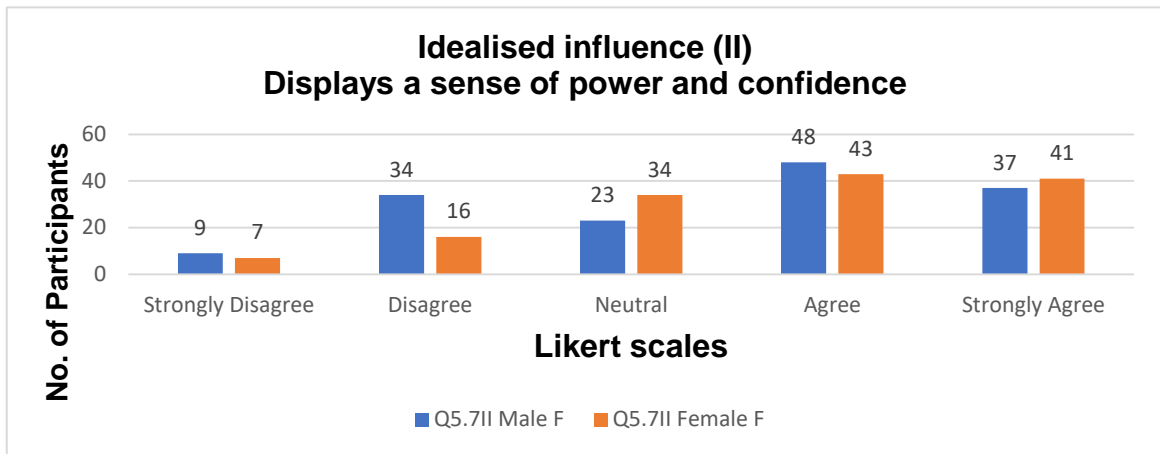
5.4.1.2 Inspirational motivation (IM)

For this study, five items were employed for measuring the construct Inspirational motivation (IM); there was an average mean score of 3.733 and male participants (N=151) had an association with an IM mean of 3.731 (SD of 1.402) which compared to female participants (N=141) who had an association to a mean that was numerically higher at 3.781 (SD of 1.424) as shown in Table 5.4. More precisely, the value of the mean scores lay at, respectively, 3.781, 3.685, 3.863, 3.651 and 3.685, as shown in Table 5.6. All were above the midpoint value of 2.5 upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst the average SD had a value of 1.403, which was an indication of low dispersion of the scores of the respondents around the mean average; this indicated that participants were in agreement with the measures of the scale. More specifically, those results mean that most respondents consider that IM is a core factor in selecting the leadership styles. So that the significant differences that may exist between females and males with regard to the IM construct can be assessed, a sample t-test was undertaken for

comparison of the average of the mean scores for the 2 groups based upon the responses given to the questionnaire questions using an interval scale. Furthermore, as shown in Figures 5.8 to 5.11, the distributions for the participants could be seen as sufficiently normal for the purposes of undertaking the t-test, i.e. kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). In order for the hypothesis to be tested that both female and male participants had association with different means of statistical significance with respect to attitude towards IM, there was performance of a sample t-test.

Analyses of the statistics for the t-test as shown in Table 5.4 show that female and male groups within the UAE were alike in a significant way in respect to attitudes on all of the variables on the Likert scale ($p < 0.05$). In regard to IM, the t-test showed insignificant statistical difference to exist between male (SD = 1.402; Mavg = 3.7311) and females (SD = 1.424; Mavg = 3.726) with average mean scores (t) of 291 = 15.037, with $p < 0.05$. The results gave an indication that both of the groups could be seen, on average, as having considered IM as a significant influence when selecting from amongst the leadership styles.

The Pearson correlation coefficient is employed to find whether or not an association among variables exists; the test is shown within Table 5.6. Moreover, when attempts are made to interpret the results of effect size, different guidelines have been suggested by researchers. When analysis is done against all other five collapsed IM statements in the questionnaire, the Pearson correlation coefficient showed minimum effect correlation in respect to the other statements showing that whilst participants answered in a favourable way by agreeing that

they believed the impact of IM, they either agreed or strongly agreed with respect to the other statements. There is also an indication that the size of effect had minimal effect with r = -0.006 in respect to variation between the 2 kinds of group; this explained the 0 % for total respondent score variance upon the IM scale, as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.6: Inspirational motivation (IM) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r^2
Q5.8IM Talks optimistically about the future	3.781	1.37	1.281	15.979	0.000	0.015	0.000
Q5.9IM Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	3.685	1.428	1.185	14.184	0.000	0.012	0.000
Q5.10IM Articulates a compelling vision of the future	3.863	1.383	1.363	16.842	0.000	-0.013	0.000
Q5.11IM Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	3.651	1.41	1.151	13.947	0.000	-0.013	0.000
Q5.12IM Develops a team attitude and spirit among members of staff	3.685	1.423	1.185	14.232	0.000	-0.022	0.000

Figure 5.8: Inspirational motivation (IM): Talks optimistically about the future

Inspirational motivation (IM)
Talks optimistically about the future
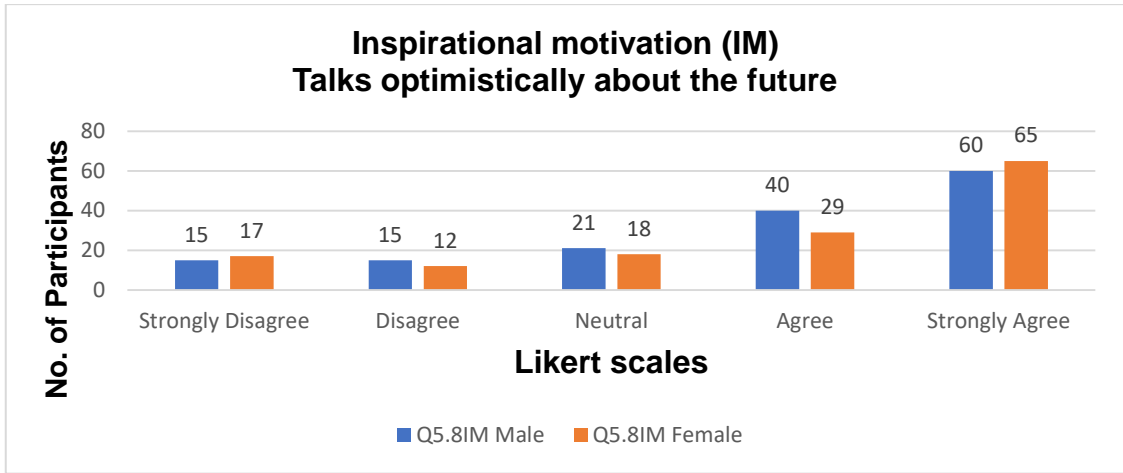
Figure 5.9: Inspirational motivation (IM): Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished

Inspirational motivation (IM)
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished
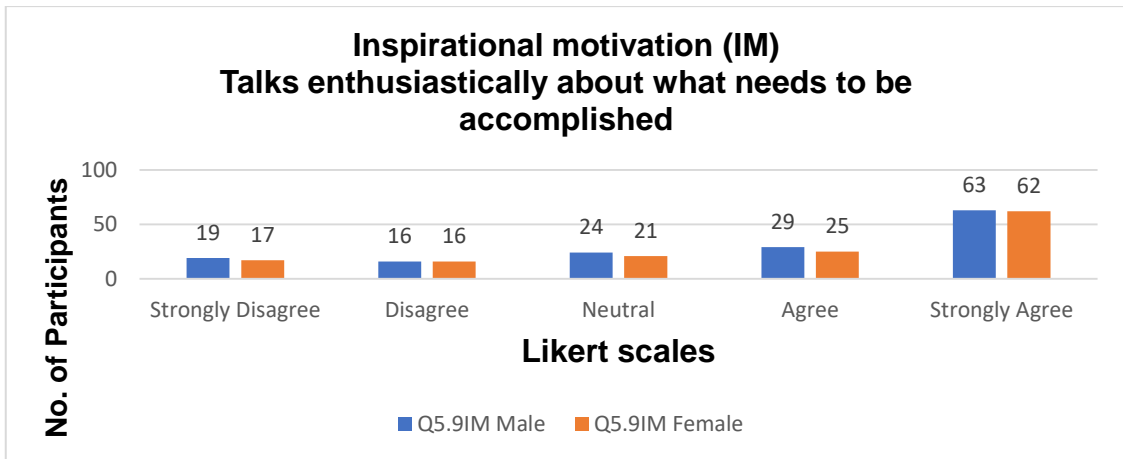
Figure 5.10: Inspirational motivation (IM): Articulates a compelling vision of the future

Inspirational motivation (IM)
Articulates a compelling vision of the future

Figure (bar chart) with x-axis "Likert scales" and y-axis "No. of Participants":

- Strongly Disagree: Male 16, Female 14
- Disagree: Male 14, Female 12
- Neutral: Male 20, Female 23
- Agree: Male 23, Female 25
- Strongly Agree: Male 78, Female 67

Legend: Q5.10IM Male, Q5.10IM Female
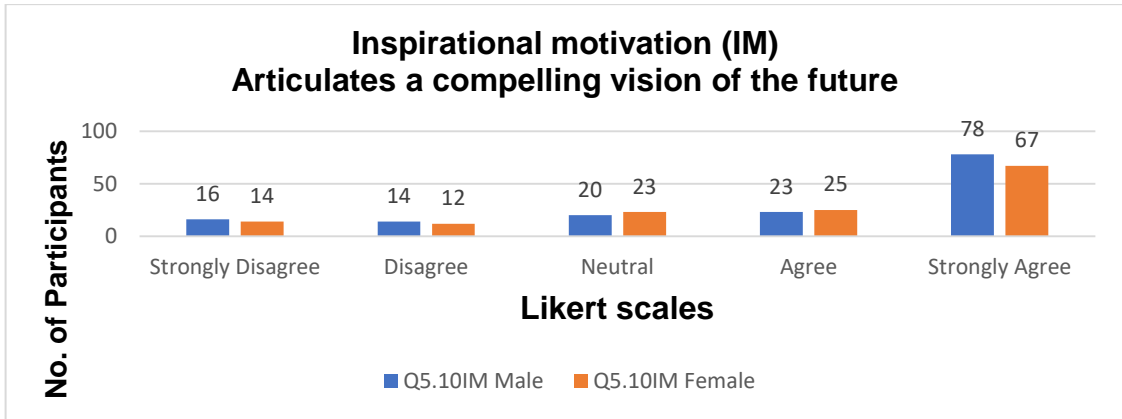
Figure 5.11: Inspirational motivation (IM): Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved

Inspirational motivation (IM)
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved

Figure (bar chart) with x-axis "Likert scales" and y-axis "No. of Participants":

- Strongly Disagree: Male 16, Female 18
- Disagree: Male 19, Female 17
- Neutral: Male 23, Female 23
- Agree: Male 34, Female 24
- Strongly Agree: Male 59, Female 59

Legend: Q5.11IM Male, Q5.11IM Female
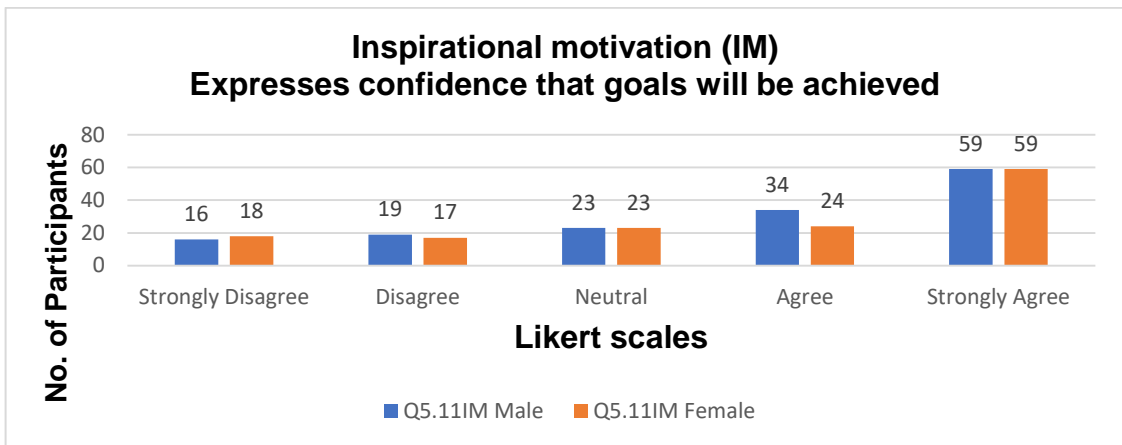
Figure 5.12: Inspirational motivation (IM): Develops a team attitude and spirit among members of staff

Inspirational motivation (IM)
Develops a team attitude and spirit among members of staff
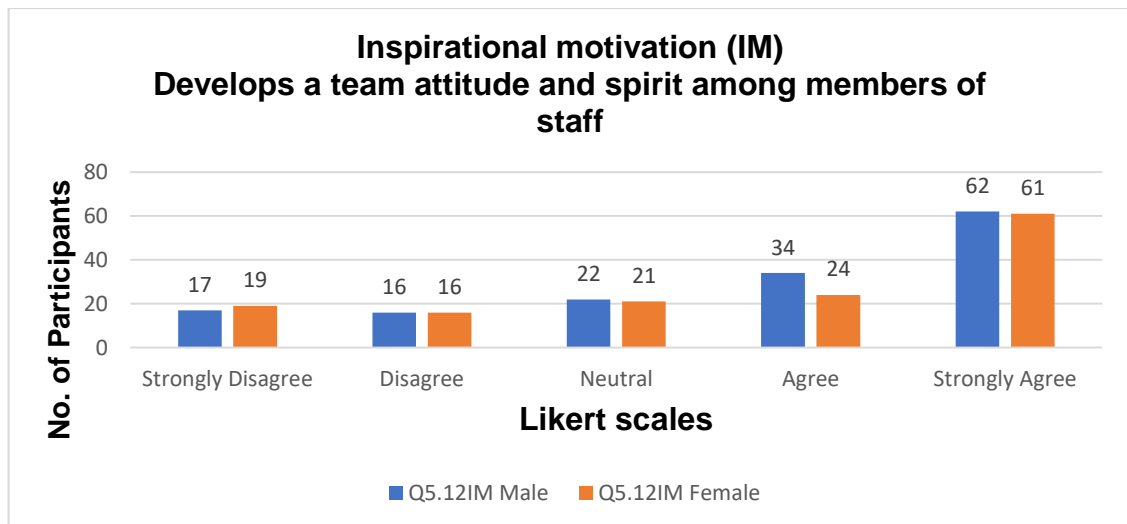
5.4.1.3 Intellectual stimulation (IS)

For the purpose of this study, five items were employed for measuring the Intellectual Stimulation (IS) construct; the mean score average had a value of 3.497. Whilst female participants (N=141) were associated to a numerical higher mean of 3.535, with a SD of 1.378, male participants (N=151) had an associated IS mean of 3.52, with a SD of 1.374 (see Table 5.4). More precisely, the scores of the means were, respectively, 3.503, 3.486, 3.493, 3.49 and 3.514, as shown in Table 5.7, and all of the values were over the midpoint value of 2.5 upon the 5-point Likert scale. The average SD was 1.31 which indicated that there was a low level of dispersion amongst the scores of the participants around the mean average; this, in turn, indicated that respondents were in agreement with respect to the measures of the scale. To be specific, those results mean that most respondents consider that intellectual stimulation is a critical factor in considering suitable leadership styles.

So that significant differences between females and males with regard to the IS construct can be assessed, a sample t-test was undertaken in order to compare average scores of means between those two groups founded upon responses to the questionnaire questions with interval scales. Similarly, as shown in the Figures 5.13 to 5.17, distributions for participants had sufficient normality for a t-test to be conducted, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). For the hypothesis to be tested, that both female and male respondents had association with a different statistically significant mean with respect to attitudes to IS, a sample t-test was conducted.

The t-test statistical analysis shown in Table 5.4 indicates that the female and the male groups were significantly alike with respect to attitudes towards all variables on the Likert-scale ($p < 0.05$). With regard to IS, it was revealed by the t-test that the statistical difference was insignificant between the male participants (SD + 1.374; Mavg = 3.5205) and the females (SD=1.378; Mavg = 3.535), with mean scores of an average t (291) of 12.978, with $p < 0.05$. Those results showed that, on average, both groups considered that IS was a major factor when selecting from leadership styles.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was run to identify any association among variables; the test results are presented in detail within Table 5.7. Moreover, when attempting the interpretation of effect size results, different guidelines have been suggested by researchers. If analysis is conducted against the other 5 collapsed IS statements in the survey, it was shown by the Pearson correlation coefficient that there was small effect correlation to those other statements. This shows that, while participants favourably answered through agreeing that they believed IS is key, they were either in agreement or strong agreement with those other

statements. Also, it also reveals that size of effect had minimal effect, r of 0.028, for the variation that existed between the 2 groups, which explained 0.1% of total variance for the scores of the respondents upon the IS scale; this is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.7: Intellectual stimulation (IS) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r^2
Q5.13IS Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	3.503	1.307	1.003	13.12	0.000	0.042	0.002
Q5.14IS Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	3.486	1.315	0.986	12.82	0.000	0.018	0.000
Q5.15IS Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	3.493	1.315	0.993	12.908	0.000	-0.013	0.000
Q5.16IS Seeks different perspectives when solving problems	3.49	1.323	0.99	12.788	0.000	0.041	0.002
Q5.17IS Encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before	3.514	1.307	1.014	13.255	0.000	0.05	0.003

Figure 5.13: Intellectual stimulation (IS): Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate

Intellectual stimulation (IS)
Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate

No. of Participants / *Likert scales*

Q5.13IS Male / Q5.13IS Female
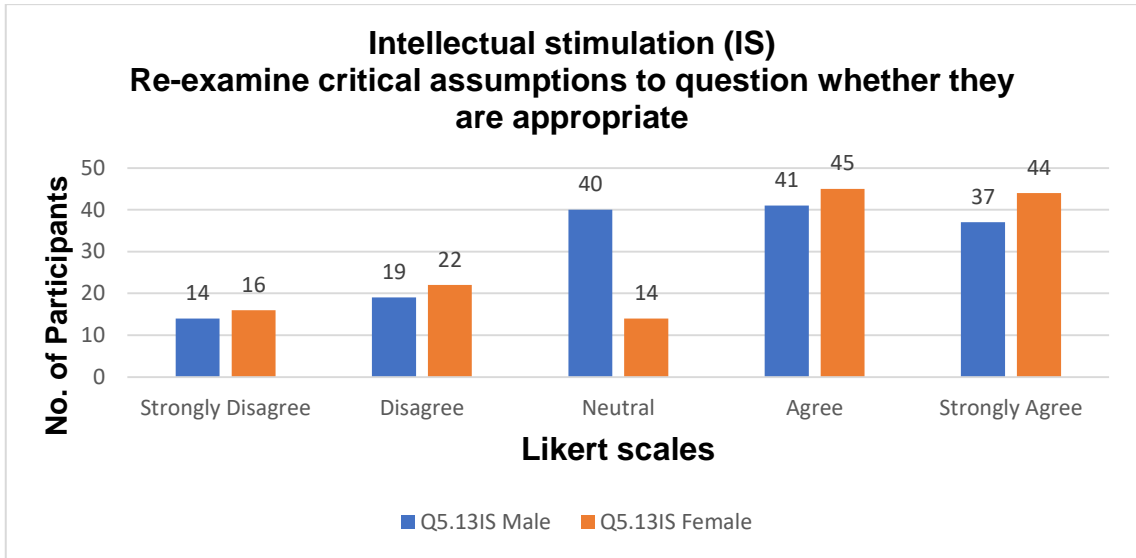
Figure 5.14: Intellectual stimulation (IS): Gets me to look at problems from many different angles

Intellectual stimulation (IS)
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles

No. of Participants / *Likert scales*

Q5.14IS Male / Q5.14IS Female

Figure 5.15: Intellectual stimulation (IS): Seeks different perspectives when solving problems

Figure 5.16: Intellectual stimulation (IS): Encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before
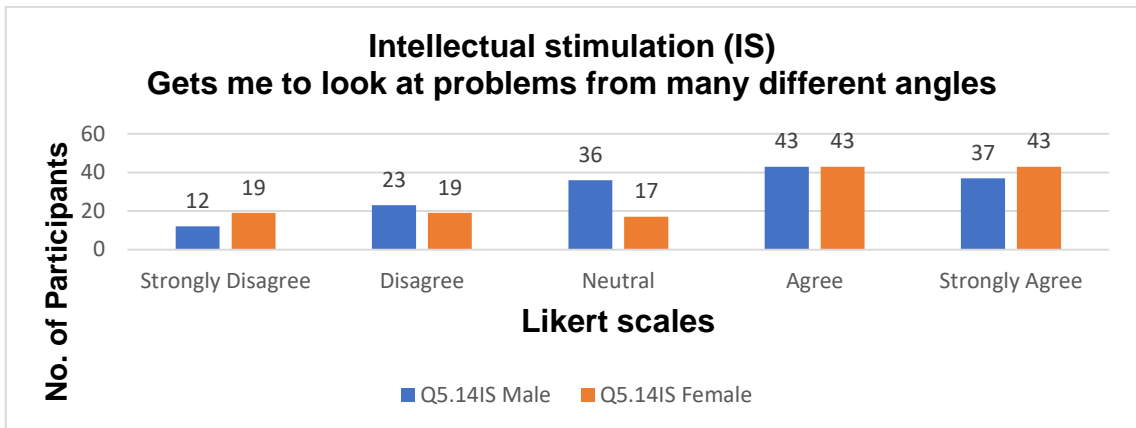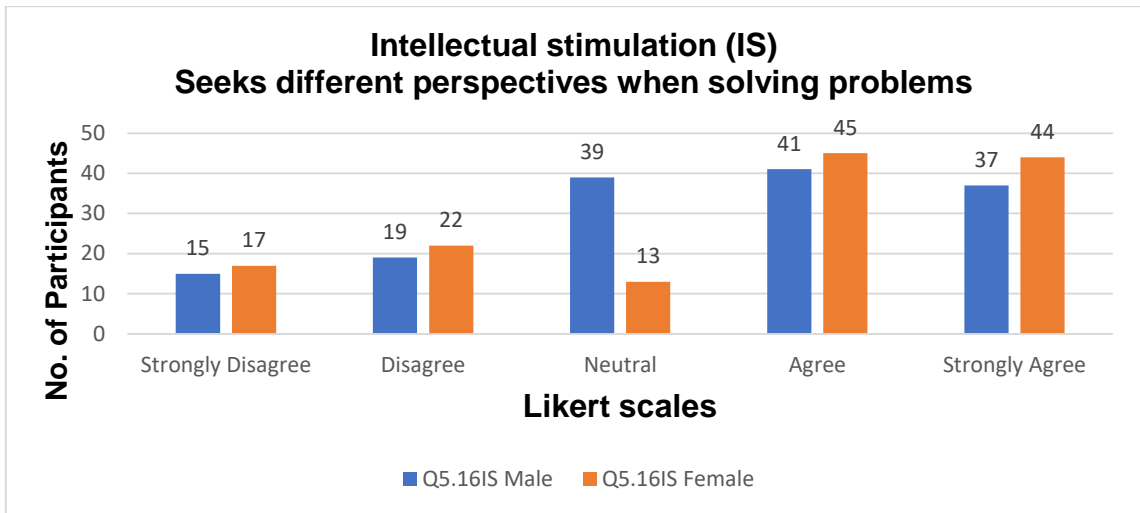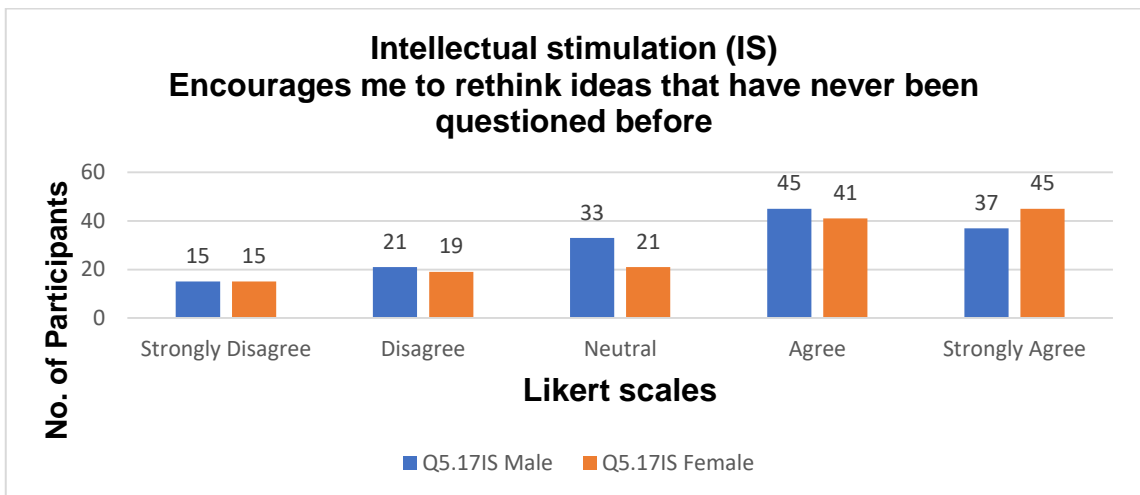

Figure 5.17: Intellectual stimulation (IS): Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

Intellectual stimulation (IS)
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

■ Q5.15IS Male   ■ Q5.15IS Female
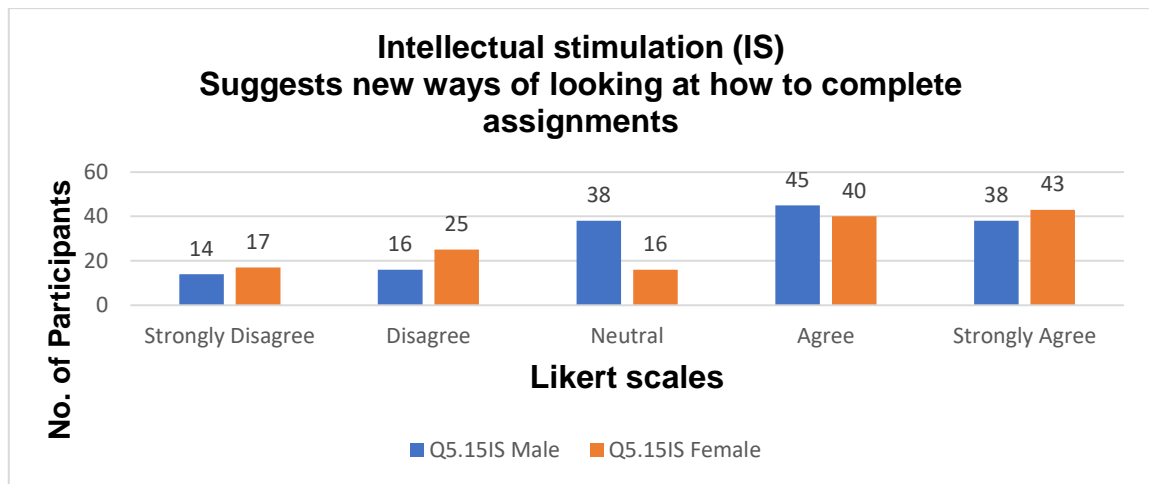
5.4.1.4 Individualised consideration (IC)

To measure the construct Individualised Consideration (IC) for this study, 4 items were utilised. The mean average score value was 3.977; the female participants (N = 141) associated with a numerical higher mean of 3.938, with a SD of 1.082 and the male group (N=151) was associated to an IC mean of 3.899, with a SD of 1.081 (see Table 5.4). More precisely, the mean scores had, respectively, values of 3.962, 3.986, 3.696 and 3.99 (see Table 5.8), i.e., above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, with average SD with a value of 1.032 which indicated low dispersion of the scores of respondents about the average mean thereby indicating participant agreement on the measures of the scale. To be specific, the results mean that most respondents did consider that IC was a major factor for choosing styles of leadership.

So significant differences could be assessed between females and males with regard to the construct (IC), a sample t-test was undertaken for comparing average scores of the mean between the participant groups based upon responses to those interval scale questionnaire questions. Moreover, the

distributions for the participants were considered normal enough for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). (See Figures 5.18 to 5.21). In order for the hypothesis to be tested that both female and male participants had association with different means of statistical significance with regard to attitude towards IC, there was the undertaking of a sample t-test.

Scrutiny of the statistics for the t-test shown in Table 5.4 shows that female and male groups were not significantly different in respect to attitudes over all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to IC, it was shown by the t-test that the statistical difference between females (SD = 1.082; Mavg = 3.938) and males (SD= 1.081; Mavg = 3.899) was insignificant with average scores for mean t (291) of 24.462, with $p < 0.05$. Those results showed that both of the groups did, on average, consider IC as a major factor in choosing from leadership styles.

Pearson's correlation coefficient is implemented in undertaking and tracing association among variables; the test results are presented within Table 5.8. When analysis is undertaken against the other four collapsed statements in the questionnaire IC construct, it was indicated by the Pearson's correlation coefficient that there was small effect correlation to those other statements. The indication, therefore, is that whilst there was favourable answering by respondents through agreement that there was a belief with respect to IC, respondents were either in agreement or strong agreement with those other statements. Also, there is indication that size effect was at a minimum level, r of

-0.036 for the variation existing between the 2 groups, which explained 0.1% of

respondent score total variance upon the IC scale; this is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.8: Individualised consideration (IC) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r^2
Q5.18IC Spends time training and coaching	3.962	1.05	1.462	23.807	0.00	-0.057	0.00
Q5.19IC Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	3.986	1.035	1.486	24.53	0.00	-0.027	0.00
Q5.20IC Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations to others	3.969	1.04	1.469	24.141	0.00	-0.037	0.00
Q5.21IC Helps me to develop my strengths	3.99	1.003	1.469	25.371	0.00	-0.024	0.00

Figure 5.18: Individualised consideration (IC): Spends time training and coaching

Individualised consideration (IC)
Spends time training and coaching
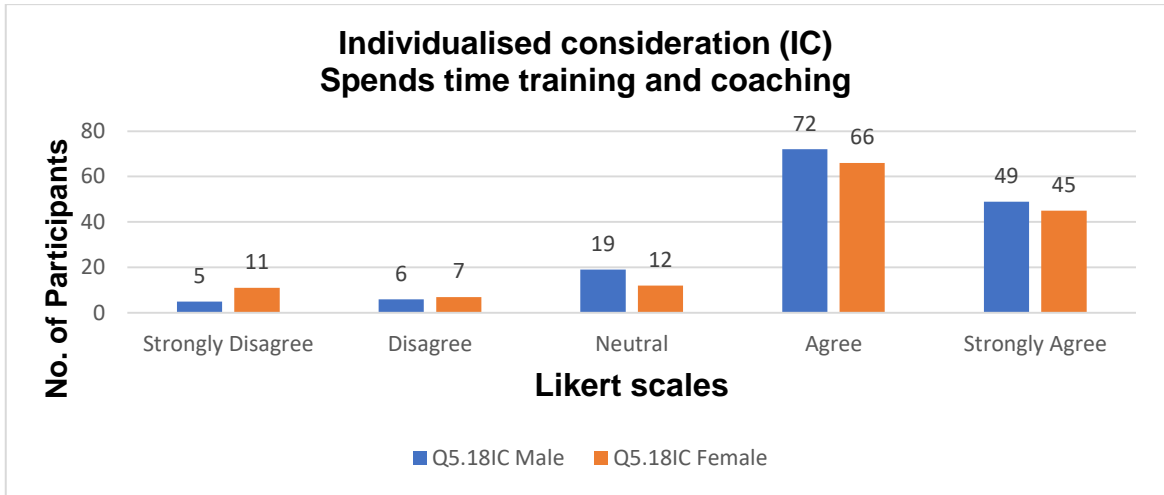
Figure 5.19: Individualised consideration (IC): Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group

Individualised consideration (IC)
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group
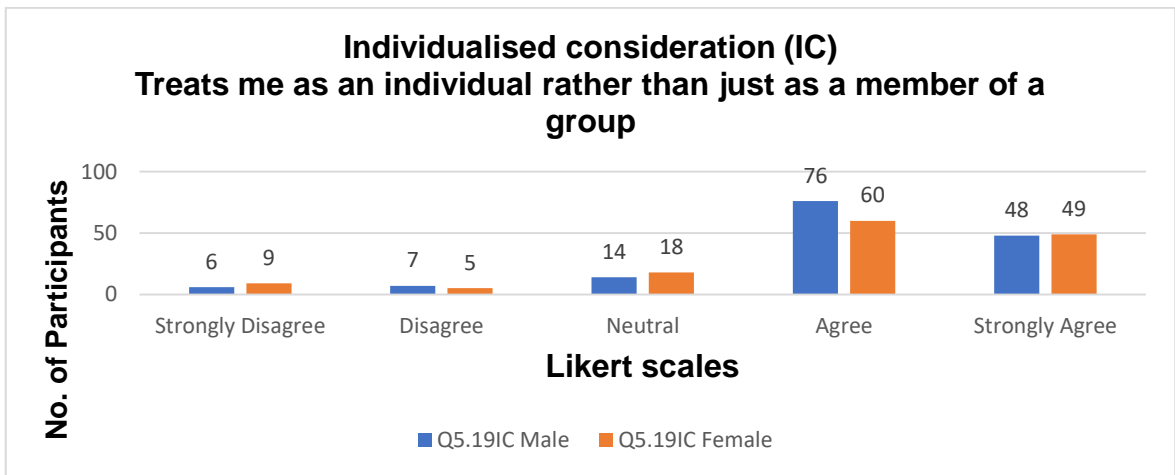
Figure 5.20: Individualised consideration (IC): Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations to others
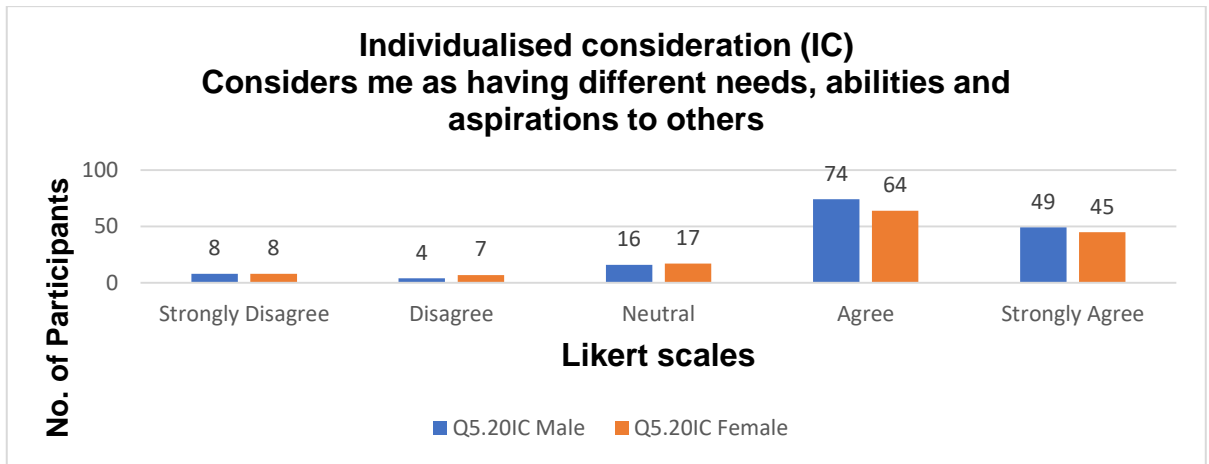
Figure 5.21: Individualised consideration (IC): Helps me to develop my strengths
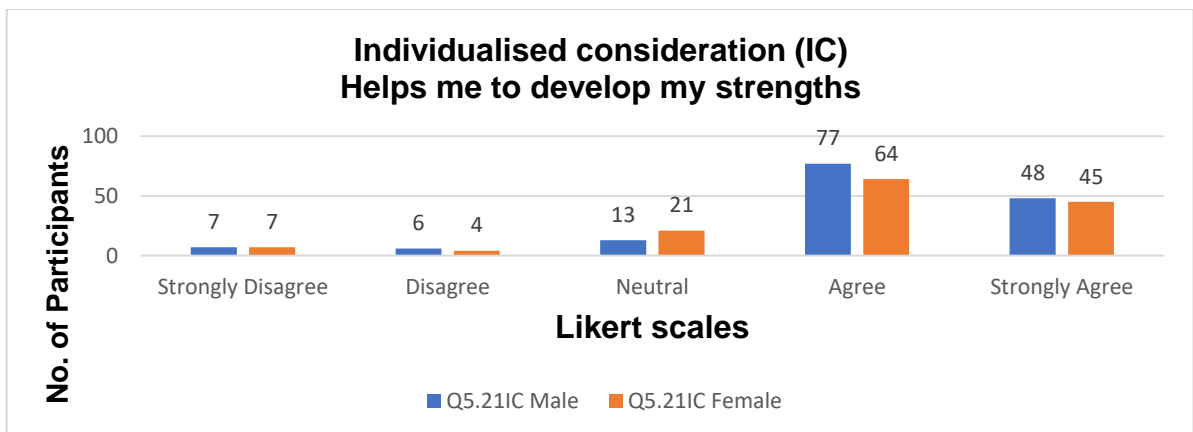
5.4.1.5 Contingent Rewards (CR)

In order to measure the study construct for contingent rewards (CR), four items were utilised. The mean score average was 4.285, whilst the females (N=141) had association to a higher numerical mean of 4.342, with SD at 0.564, compared to the male participant group (N=151) which had association with a CR mean of

4.333, with SD at 0.556 (see Table 5.4). More precisely, mean scores had the values, respectively, of 4.274, 4.281, 4.284 and 4.301, which are over the 2.5 midpoint on the 5-point Likert scale, with average SD of 0.596 which indicated low dispersion amongst the scores of the respondents about the mean average, in itself indicating participant agreement upon the measures of the scale (see Table 5.9). Those results, in particular, mean that most respondents consider that CR is an important element in selecting a leadership style.

To undertake an assessment of significant differences between females and males with regard to the construct of CR, a sample t-test was undertaken in order to compare average scores for the mean between the 2 participant groups based upon responses related to questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as shown in Figures 5.22 to 5.25, participant distributions had enough normality for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). To test the hypothesis that both female and male participants had association with different means in statistically significant ways with regard to attitude with respect to CR, a sample t-test was conducted.

Analyses of the statistics of the t-test, as shown in Table 5.4, show that the female and male groups do not differ significantly with respect to attitudes over all of the Likert-scale variables, with p at < 0.05. With regard to CR, the t-test showed an insignificant difference in statistical terms between females (SD of 1.173; Mavg of 3.650) and males (SD of 1.169; Mavg of 3.654) with average scores of mean t (291) at 51.270, with p at < 0.05. Those results showed that, on average, both groups considered that CR was a major factor in selecting leadership styles.

Pearson's Correlation was utilised for undertaking and tracing association among variables; see Table 5.9 for details. If analysed in comparison to those other four collapsed CR statements in the questionnaire, the Pearson's correlation coefficient showed there to be correlation of small effect with those other statements. This gives an indication that, whilst agreement was seen through favourable answers of respondents, they were, with regard to belief of CR, in agreement or strong agreement with those other statements. It was also revealed that size of effect was minimal, with r at 0.093, upon variation between the 2 groups, with 0.8% of total variance of the respondent CR scale scores, as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.9: Contingent rewards (CR) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r^2
Q5.22CR Treats me respectfully.	4.274	0.626	1.774	48.415	0.000	0.103	0.010
Q5.23CR Mainly focuses on addressing mistakes, complaints and failures.	4.281	0.606	1.781	50.191	0.000	0.084	0.010

Q5.24CR Takes into consideration the moral and ethical aspects of decisions.	4.284	0.584	1.784	52.165	0.000	0.081	0.010
Q5.25CR Follows up all mistakes.	4.301	0.567	1.801	54.31	0.000	0.103	0.010

Figure 5.22: Contingent rewards (CR): Treats me respectfully
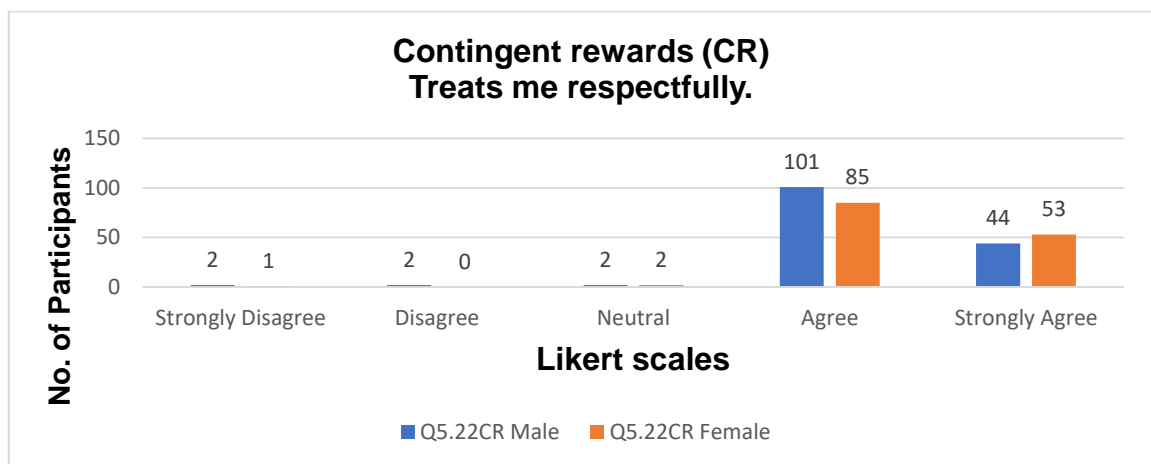
Figure 5.23: Contingent rewards (CR): Mainly focuses on addressing mistakes, complaints and failures

Contingent rewards (CR)
Mainly focuses on addressing mistakes, complaints and failures.
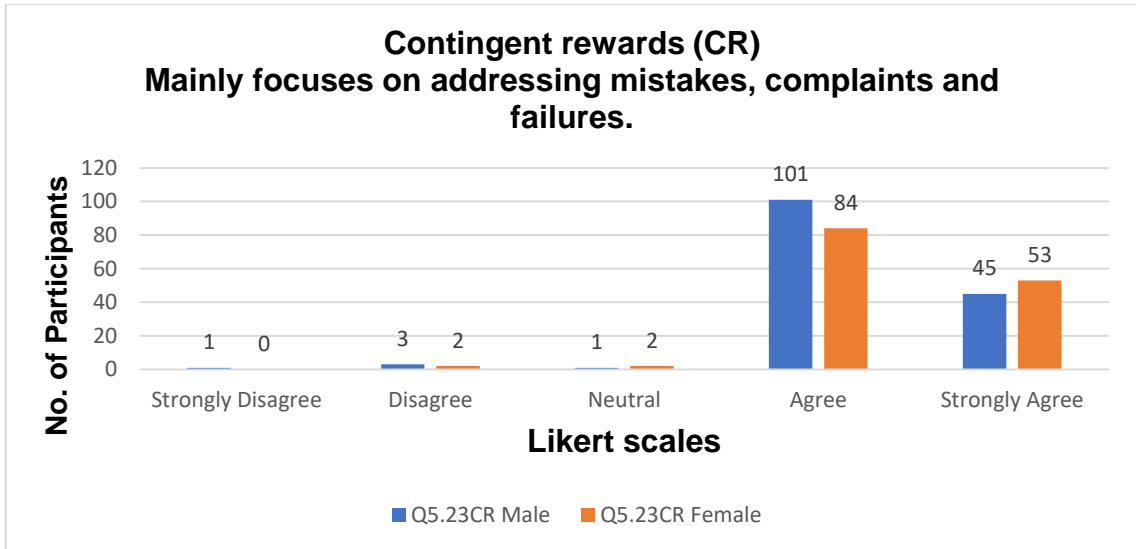
Figure 5.24: Contingent rewards (CR): Takes into consideration the moral and ethical aspects of decisions

Contingent rewards (CR)
Takes into consideration the moral and ethical aspects of decisions.
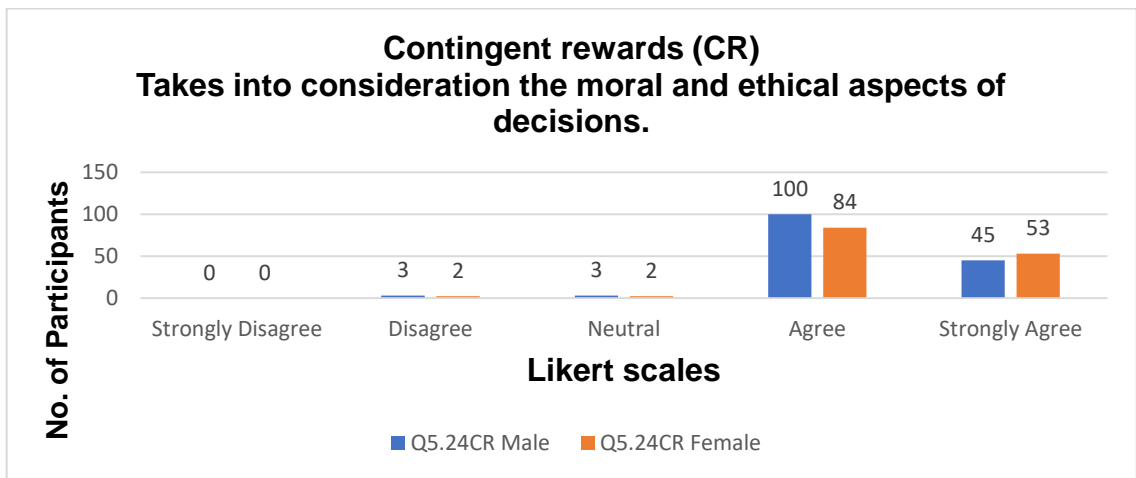
Figure 5.25: Contingent rewards (CR): Follows up all mistakes

Contingent rewards (CR)
Follows up all mistakes.
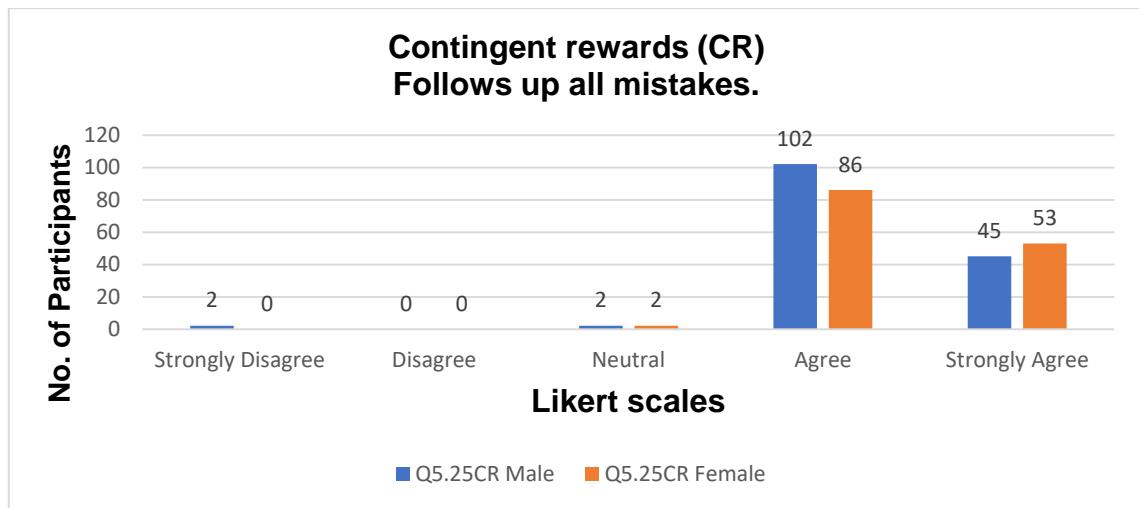
5.4.1.6 Management by Exception (active) (MEA)

In order to measure the study construct Management by Exception (active) (MEA), four items were utilised. The average score of the mean was 3.682, whist the female participant group (N=141) had association to a mean that was numerically higher at 3.743, with SD at 1.208, and the male group (N=151) had association with a mean of 3.6705, with SD at 1.231 (see Table 5.4). In more detail, the scores of the mean were, respectively, 3.873, 3.661, 3.644 and 3.551 as shown in Table 5.10. All of the values lay above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst average SD was at a value of 1.241 that indicated low dispersion amongst the scores of the respondents about the mean average indicating participant agreement towards the measures of the scale. More specifically, those results mean that most respondents considered MEA to be a major factor in deciding on favourable leadership styles.

So that significant differences between females and males could be assessed with regard to the construct of MEA, a sample t-test was conducted for comparison of the mean average scores between the 2 groups based upon

responses to questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as portrayed in Figures 5.26 to 5.29, participant distributions had enough normality for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). So that the hypothesis could be tested that both female and male participants had association with different means of statistical significance with regard to attitude related to MEA, a sample t-test was undertaken.

Analysis of the statistics of the t-test, as shown in Table 5.4, shows that the female and male groups do not differ significantly with respect to attitudes over all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to MEA, the t-test showed there was insignificant difference in statistical terms between females (SD = 1.208; Mavg = 3.743) and males (SD = 1.2311; Mavg = 3.6705), with the average scores of the mean t (291) at 16.381, with $p < 0.05$. Those results showed that both of the groups did, on average, consider that MEA was a significant aspect when selecting from leadership styles.

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for undertaking and tracing association among variables; the results are presented in detail in Table 5.10. With analysis against the other 4 collapsed statements in the questionnaire MEA, Pearson's correlation coefficient showed correlation of small effect in relation to the other statements. This shows that, although respondents had favourable answers through agreeing, there was a belief, in relation to MEA, of either agreement or strong agreement with those other statements amongst respondents. The results also showed that the size of effect was minimal with r

= 0.047 upon variation among the groups; this explained 0.2% of total respondent

score variance for the scale for MEA; this can be seen in Table 5.4.

Table 5.10: Management by exception (active) (MEA): Descriptive and *t-test* results

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r²
Q5.26MEA Demonstrates his/her power and confidence.	3.873	1.161	1.373	20.211	0.00	0.035	0.00
Q5.27MEA Expresses with force their vision of the future.	3.661	1.246	1.161	15.928	0.00	0.043	0.00
Q5.28MEA Guides me to meet standards.	3.644	1.253	1.144	15.598	0.00	0.034	0.00
Q5.29MEA Always making decisions.	3.551	1.303	1.051	13.786	0.00	0.075	0.01

Figure 5.26: Management by exception (active) (MEA): Demonstrates his/her power and confidence

Management by exception (active) (MEA)
Demonstrates his/her power and confidence.
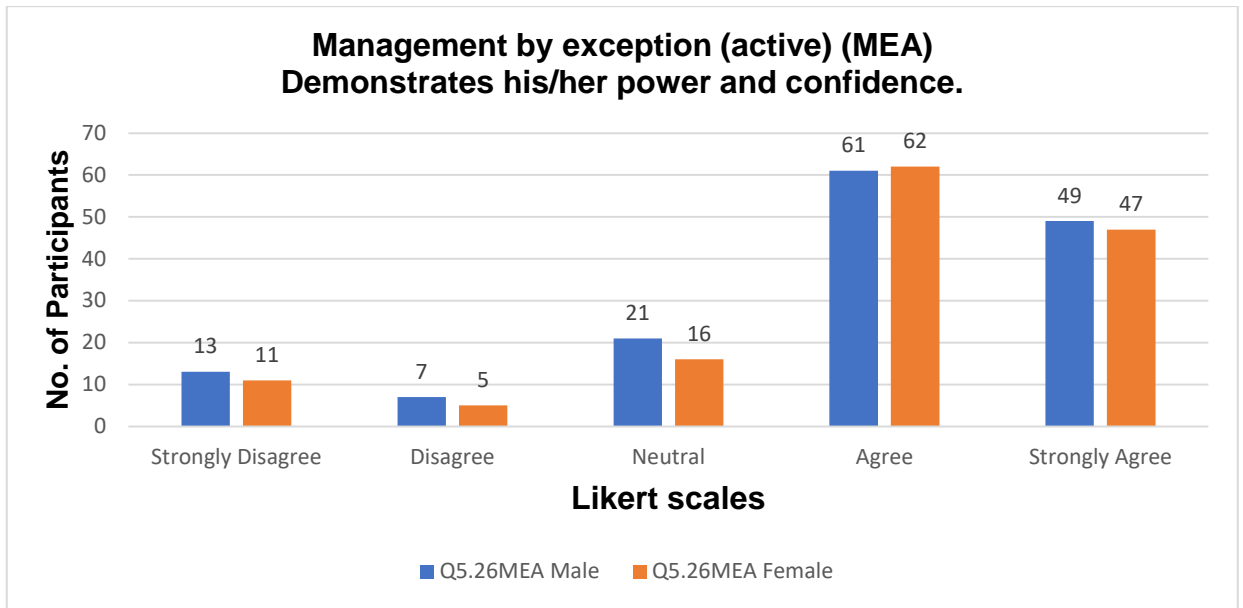
Figure 5.27: Management by exception (active) (MEA): Expresses with force their vision of the future

Management by exception (active) (MEA)
Expresses with force their vision of the future.
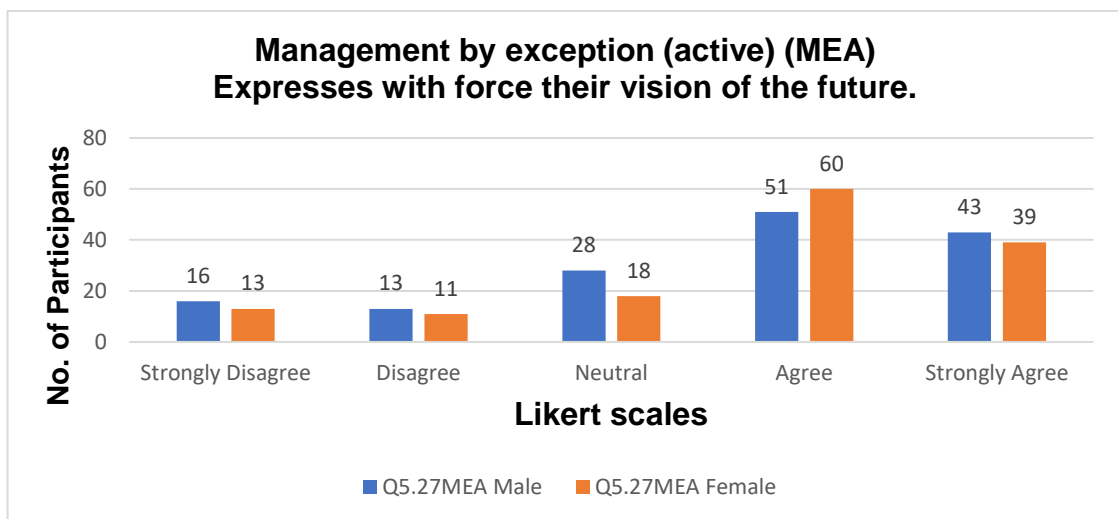
Figure 5.28: Management by exception (active) (MEA): Guides me to meet standards.
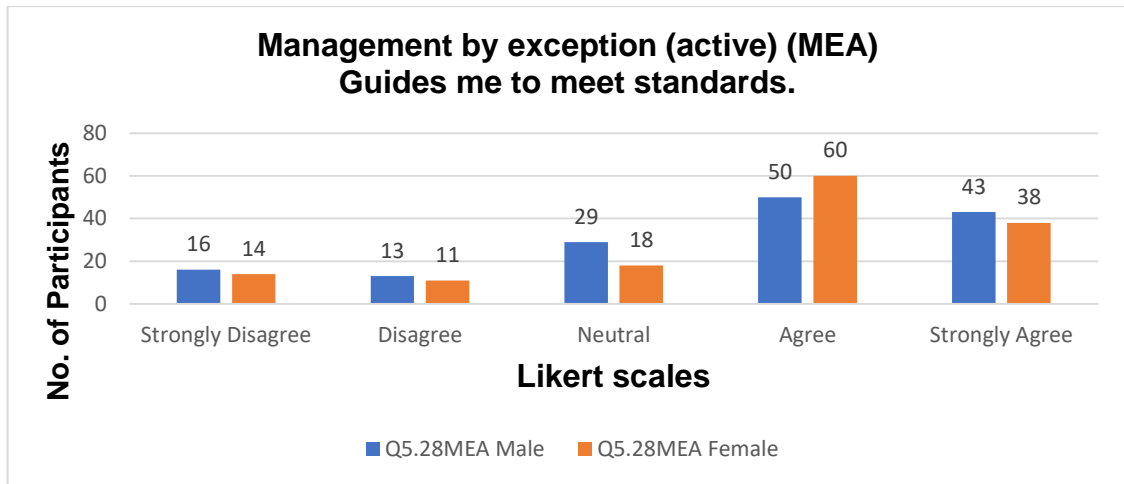
Figure 5.29: Management by exception (active) (MEA): Always making decisions.
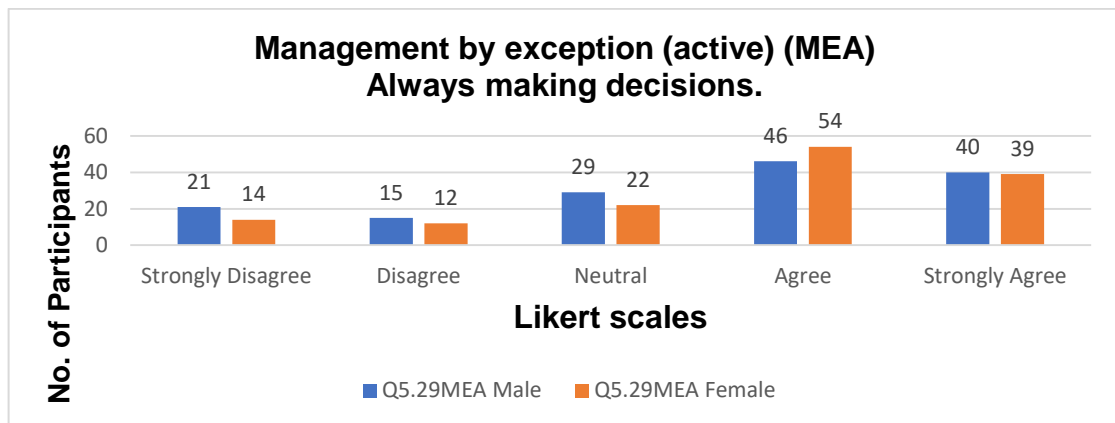
5.4.1.7 Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP)

In order to measure the study construct management by exception (passive) (MEP), four items were utilised. The average score of the mean = 3.469, whilst male participants (N=151) had association with the mean 3.485 with SD at 1.238; in comparison, female participants (N=141) had association with a mean that was numerically higher at 3.5, with SD at 1.245, as shown in Table 5.4. More precisely, mean scores had values, respectively of 3.476, 3.462, 3.483 and 3.565

as shown in Table 5.11. All of the values lay above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst average SD had a value of 1.272, which showed low dispersion amongst the scores of respondents about the mean average; this showed that participants were in agreement with the measures of the scale. To be specific, those results mean that most respondents consider that MEP is a major factor for the selection of leadership styles.

So that significant differences between females and males could be assessed with regard to the construct for MEP, a sample t-test was conducted for comparison of the average scores of means between those two groups, based upon responses related to questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as portrayed in Figures 5.30 to 5.33, the distributions for the participants were normal enough for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 9.0 and skew < 2.0 (Schmider, Ziegler, Danay, Beyer and Buhner, 2010). To test the hypothesis that both female and male participants had association with different means that were of statistical significance in respect to attitudes to MEP, a sample t-test was undertaken.

Analyses of the statistics of the t-test, as shown within Table 5.4, show that the female and male groups do not differ significantly in respect to attitudes related to all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to MEP, it was shown by the t-test that an insignificant statistical difference existed between the males (SD of 1.238; Mavg = 3. 485) and females (SD of 1.245; Mavg = 3.5) with average scores of mean t (291) at 13.022, with $p < 0.05$. Those results showed that both

of the groups considered, on average, that MEP was a core factor in choosing amongst leadership styles.

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for undertaking and tracing associations among variables; the results of testing are shown in detail within Table 5.11. Analysis was completed against the other four collapsed statements in the questionnaire MEP, and Pearson's correlation showed the correlation had small effect with those other statements. This shows that although agreeing, as there were favourable answers from respondents, they were also of the belief that, in respect to MEP, they were either in agreement or strong agreement with those other statements. Also, it shows that size of effect was minimal with $r = 0.023$ for variation between the 2 groups; this explained 0.1% of respondent score total variance for the scale of MEP; this can be seen in Table 5.4.

Table 5.11: Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r²
Q5.30MEP Takes into consideration my different needs, abilities, and aspirations from that of others.	3.476	1.272	0.976	13.112	0.00	0.048	0.00
Q5.30MEP Supports me to develop my strengths.	3.462	1.274	0.962	12.904	0.00	-0.017	0.00
Q5.30MEP Always answering in responding to compelling questions	3.483	1.269	0.983	13.231	0.00	0.032	0.00
Q5.30MEP Stresses a collective sense of mission.	3.455	1.271	0.955	12.842	0.00	0.031	0.00

Figure 5.30: Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP): Takes into consideration my different needs, abilities, and aspirations from that of others.
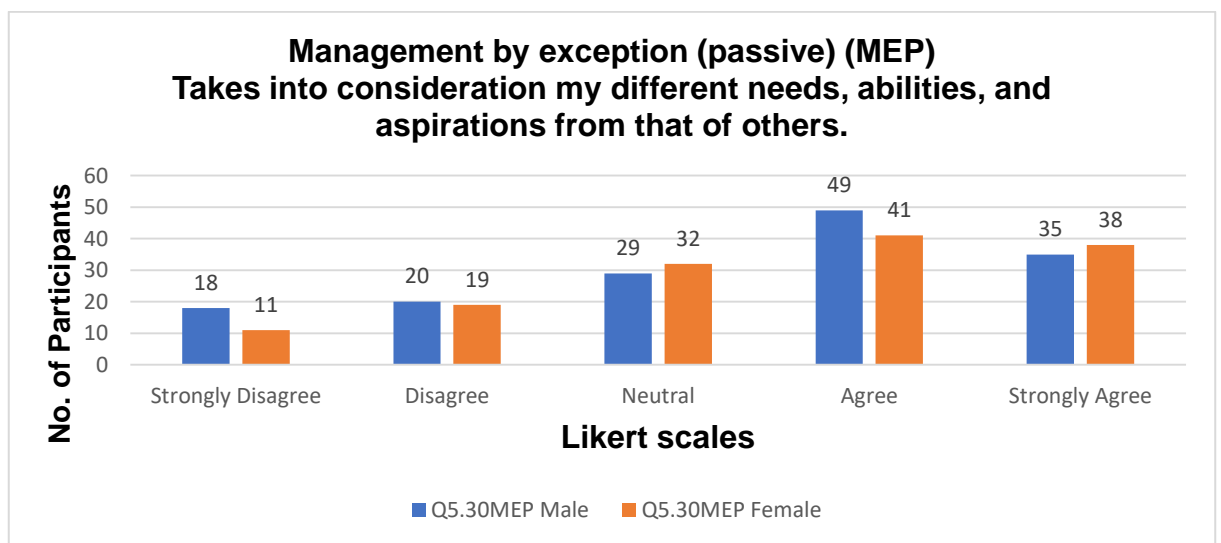
Figure 5.31: Management by exception (passive) (MEP): Supports me to develop my strengths.

Management by exception (passive) (MEP)
Supports me to develop my strengths.

Strongly Disagree: Male 19, Female 12
Disagree: Male 15, Female 21
Neutral: Male 31, Female 32
Agree: Male 46, Female 45
Strongly Agree: Male 40, Female 31

No. of Participants / Likert scales

Q5.31MEP Male   Q5.31MEP Female
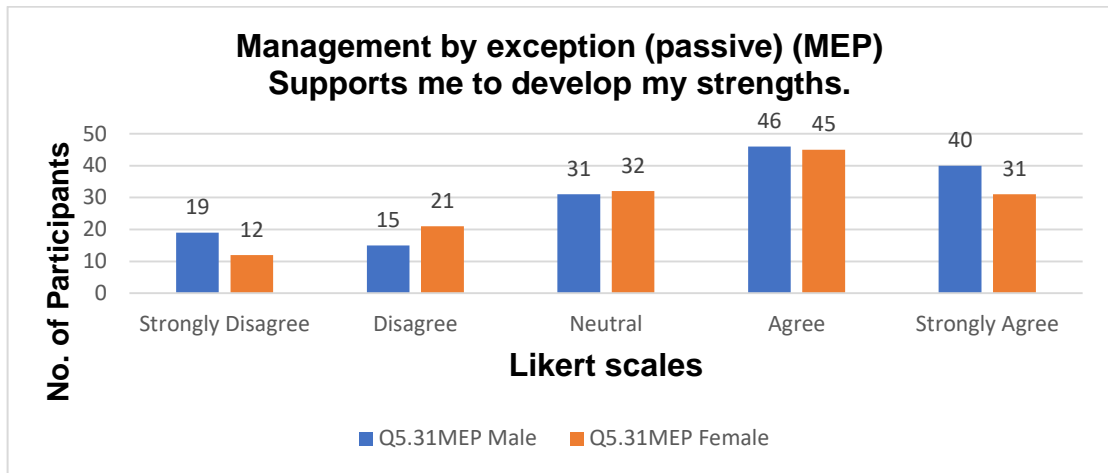
Figure 5.32: Management by Exception (Passive (MEP): Always answering in responding to compelling questions

Management by exception (passive) (MEP)
Always answering in responding to compelling questions

Strongly Disagree: Male 16, Female 14
Disagree: Male 20, Female 15
Neutral: Male 32, Female 32
Agree: Male 47, Female 43
Strongly Agree: Male 36, Female 37

No. of Participants / Likert scales

Q5.32MEP Male   Q5.32MEP Female
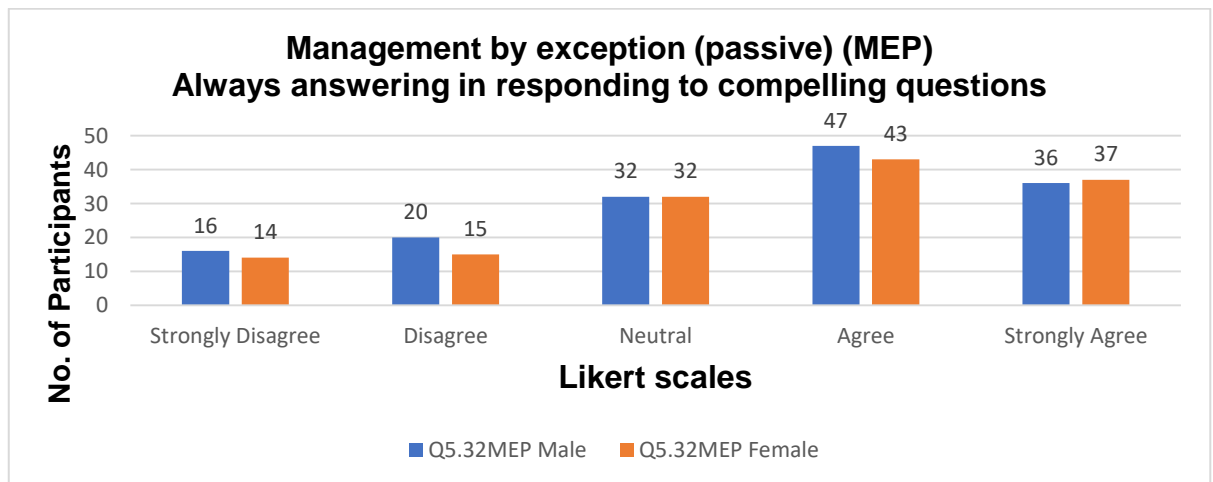
Figure 5.33: Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP): Stresses a collective sense of mission.
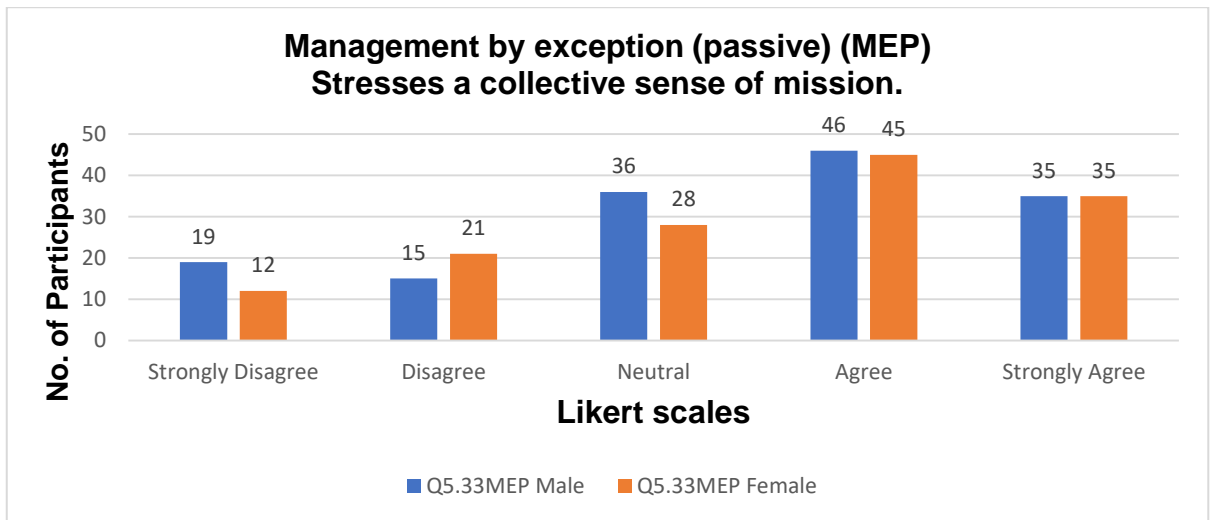
5.4.1.8 Laissez-faire (LF)

In order to measure the study construct Laissez-faire (LF), four items were utilised. The average mean score was 4.124, whilst the male group (N=151) had association with the mean 4.0215, with SD at 1.212 in comparison to the female group (N=141) which associated with a mean that was higher numerically at 4.099, with SD at 1.074, as shown in Table 5.4. More precisely, the mean scores were, respectively at values of 4.147, 4.113, 4.134 and 4.103 as can be seen in Table 5.12. All of the values were above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst average SD was at a value of 1.042, which indicated low dispersion amongst the scores of respondents about the average of the means; this showed that participants agreed about the measures of the scale. To be specific, those results mean that most respondents considered LF as a major factor for choosing leadership styles.

For assessment of significant differences between females and males with regard to the construct for LF, there was the performance of a sample t-test for comparison of the average scores of mean between the 2 groups that was based upon responses to the questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as portrayed within Figures 5.34 to 5.37, the distributions of the participants had enough normality for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). For testing of the hypothesis that both female and male participants had association with different means of statistical significance with respect to attitudes on LF, a sample t-test was undertaken.

Analyses of the statistics of the t-test shown in Table 5.4 shows that female and male groups do not differ significantly in respect to attitudes for all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to LF, the t-test showed statistical difference was insignificant between the male group (SD = 1.169; Mavg = 3. 654) and female group (SD = 1.173; Mavg = 3.650) with average scores of mean t (291) at 26.628, with $p < 0.05$. Those results gave an indication that both of the groups considered, on average, that LF was a factor that was major when selecting amongst leadership styles.

Pearson's correlation was used for undertaking and tracing association among variables; the results of testing are presented in detail in Table 5.12. The analysis was performed against the other four collapsed LF statements in the questionnaire. Pearson's correlation showed a correlation of small effect with those other statements. This showed that, whilst the participants were answering favourably through their agreement that there was a belief in LF, respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with those other statements. Also, it showed that size of effect was minimal with $r = -0.023$ upon the variation between those 2

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groups; this explained 0.1% of the respondent score total variance upon the scale

of the LF. This can be seen in Table 5.4.

Table 5.12: Laissez-faire (LF) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r²
Q5.34LF Acknowledges when I meet expectations.	4.147	1.04	1.647	27.069	0.00	-0.025	0.00
Q5.35LF Demonstrates his/her trust that objectives will be attained.	4.113	1.034	1.613	26.651	0.00	-0.033	0.00
Q5.36LF Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	4.134	1.055	1.634	26.463	0.00	-0.012	0.00
Q5.37LF Encourages me to complete assignments in different way.	4.103	1.04	1.603	26.327	0.00	-0.023	0.00

Figure 5.34: Laissez-faire (LF): Acknowledges when I meet expectations.

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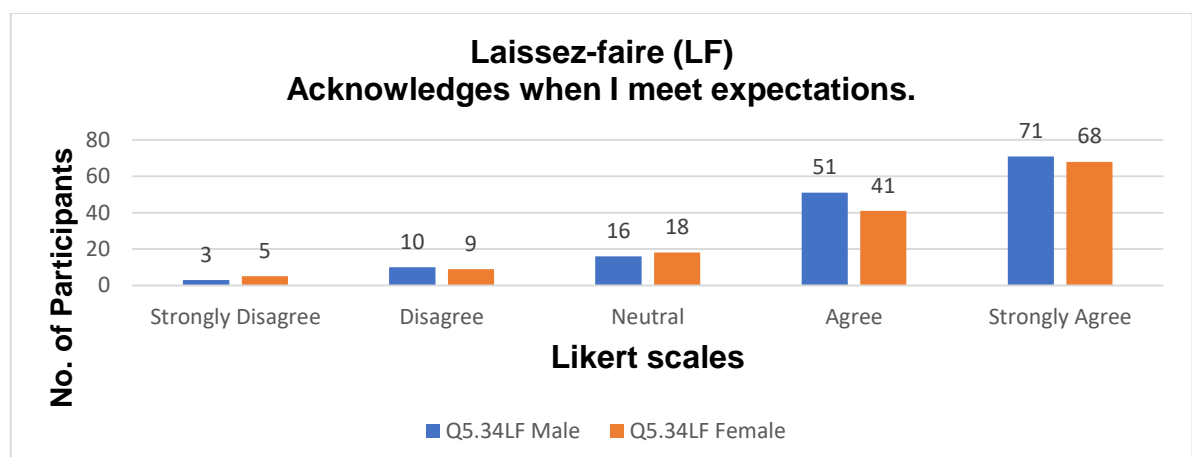
Figure 5.35: Laissez-faire (LF): Demonstrates his/her trust that objectives will be attained.

Laissez-faire (LF)
Demonstrates his/her trust that objectives will be attained.
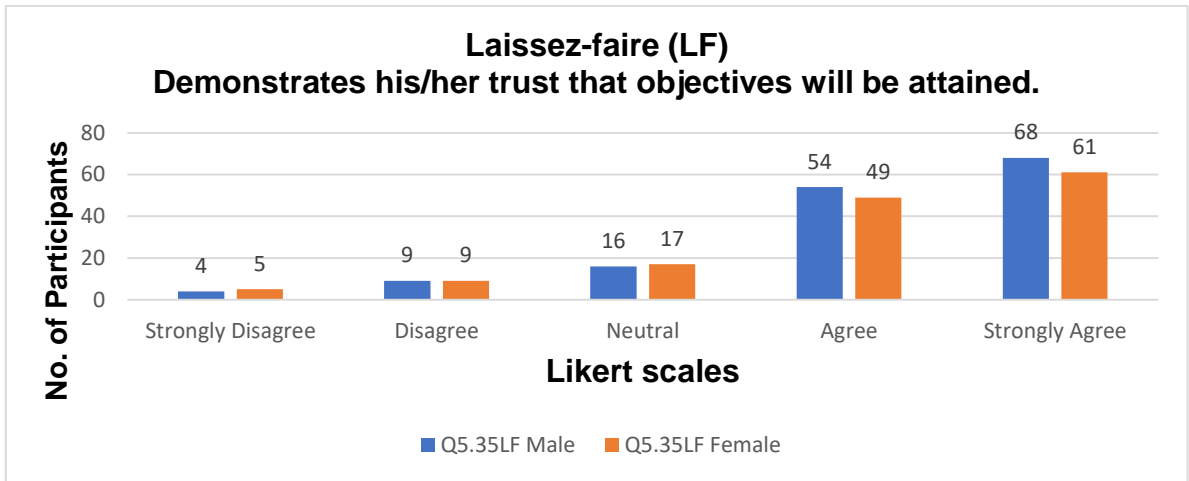
Figure 5.36: Laissez-faire (LF): Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.

Laissez-faire (LF)
Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.
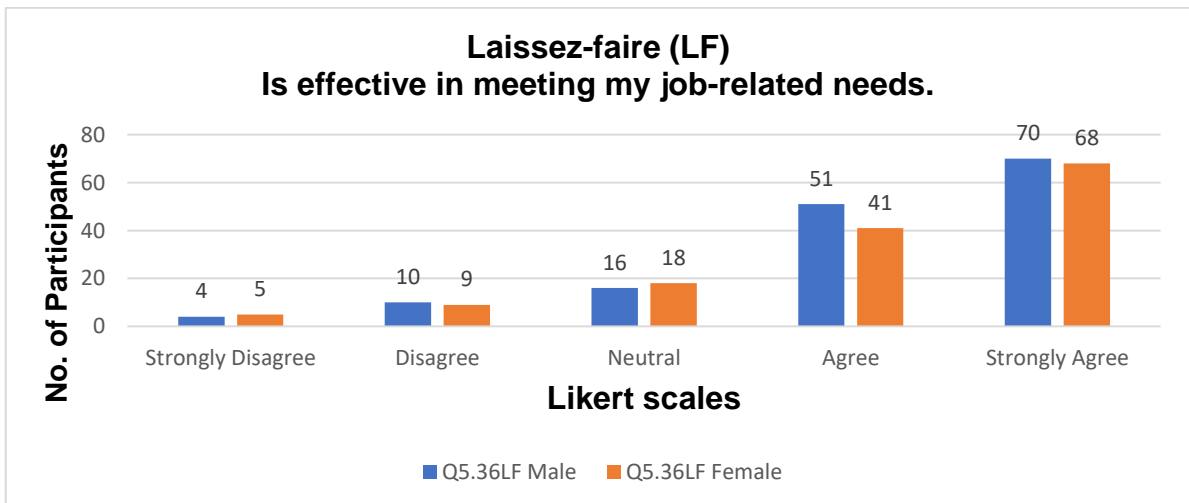
Figure 5.37: Laissez-faire (LF): Encourages me to complete assignments in different way.

Laissez-faire (LF)
Encourages me to complete assignments in different way.

No. of Participants (y-axis: 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80)

- Strongly Disagree: Male 4, Female 5
- Disagree: Male 10, Female 9
- Neutral: Male 16, Female 17
- Agree: Male 54, Female 49
- Strongly Agree: Male 67, Female 61

Likert scales

■ Q5.37LF Male ■ Q5.37LF Female
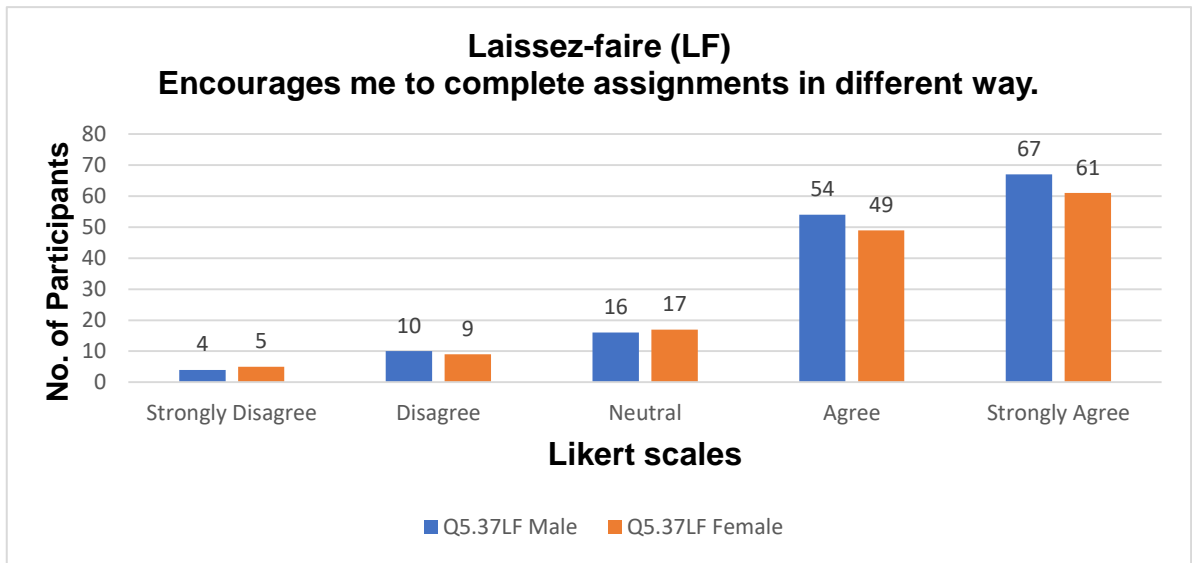
5.4.2 Knowledge Sharing

In order to assess the significant differences between males and females regarding the study's constructs, a series of t-tests were performed to compare the average mean scores between the two groups based on their responses to the interval scale questions in the questionnaire presented in Table 5.13. The t-test calculations were based on the average scale scores of each interval scale used in this study, and SPSS 25 was used to compute average scores for items in each of the ten study constructs (53 individual observable variables).

Table 5.13 Knowledge Sharing constructs- Average Descriptive, *t-test* Results and Pearson Correlation.

CONSTRUCTS	Male (N:151)		Female (N:141)		t	df	p	r	r²
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD					
KS	4.031	1.195	3.517	1.062	13.566	291	0.00	-0.01	0.000
KC	3.533	1.292	3.047	1.141	21.851	291	0.00	-0.01	0.000

5.4.2.1 Knowledge Sharing (KS)

In order to measure the study construct Knowledge Sharing (KS), eight items were utilised. The mean score average had a value of 4.04, with the female participants (N=141) associated to a numerically lower mean of 3.517, with a SD of 1.062, and the male group (N=151) associated to a mean of 4.031, with a SD of 1.195 (see Table 5.13). More precisely, the scores of the means were, respectively, 4.065, 4.082, 4.082, 4.083, 3.997, 4.017, 4.014 and 3.983 as shown in Table 5.14. All of the values lay above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst average SD was at the level of 1.202, which indicated that there was low dispersion amongst the scores of the respondents about the average mean; this showed that there was participant agreement with regard to the measures of the scale. To be specific, those results mean that most respondents had the belief that KS was a major factor in considering the aspect of leadership style.

So that significant differences between females and males could be assessed with regard to the construct of KS, a sample t-test was undertaken for comparison of the average scores of mean between those two groups based upon responses related to the questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as portrayed within Figures 5.38 to 5.45, the distributions for the participants had enough normality for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew <

3.0 (Kline, 2011). For testing the hypothesis that both female and male participants had association with different means that were of statistical significance with regard to attitudes towards KS, a sample t-test was undertaken.

Analyses of the statistics of t-testing, as shown within Table 5.13, shows that female and male groups do not differ significantly with respect to attitudes on all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to KS, it was shown by the t-test that a statistical difference that was insignificant existed between the male group (SD = 1.195; Mavg = 4.031) and female group (SD = 1.062; Mavg = 3.52) with the average scores of mean t (291) at 21.850, with $p < 0.05$. Those results showed that both of the groups considered, on average, that KS was a major factor when selecting Knowledge Sharing.

Pearson's correlation was utilised for undertaking and tracing association among variables; the results of testing are present in detail in Table 5.14. When analysis was completed against the other eight collapsed statements in the questionnaire, Pearson's correlation showed correlation of small effect in relation to those other statements. This shows that, whilst through agreeing, respondents had answered favourably with regard to belief related to KS, they were in agreement or strong agreement with those other statements. It is indicated also that the effect size was minimal with $r = -0.01$ upon the variation existing between those 2 groups; this explained 0% of the respondent score total variance in relation to the scale for KS.

Table 5.14: Knowledge Sharing (KS) - Descriptive and *t-test* results and Pearson Correlation

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r²
Q6.1KS Knowledge sharing with colleagues is considered normal outside of my department	4.065	1.192	1.565	22.428	0.000	-0.013	0.000
Q6.2KS Knowledge sharing among colleagues is considered normal in my department	4.082	1.19	1.582	22.721	0.000	-0.015	0.000
Q6.3KS When I have learned something new, I tell colleagues outside of my department about it	4.082	1.19	1.582	22.721	0.000	-0.015	0.000
Q6.4KS When they have learned something new, my colleagues within my department tell me about it	4.082	1.19	1.582	22.721	0.000	-0.015	0.000
Q6.5KS I share information with my colleagues in the organisation	3.997	1.194	1.497	21.415	0.000	-0.003	0.000
Q6.6KS I share information about	4.017	1.22	1.517	21.255	0.000	-0.014	0.000

administrative issues with my colleagues in the organisation							
Q6.7KS When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues in my department about it	4.014	1.218	1.514	21.231	0.000	-0.022	0.000
Q6.8KS When they have learned something new, colleagues outside of my department tell me about it	3.983	1.218	1.483	20.311	0.000	-0.014	0.000

Figure 5.38: Knowledge Sharing (KS): Knowledge sharing with colleagues is considered normal outside of my department
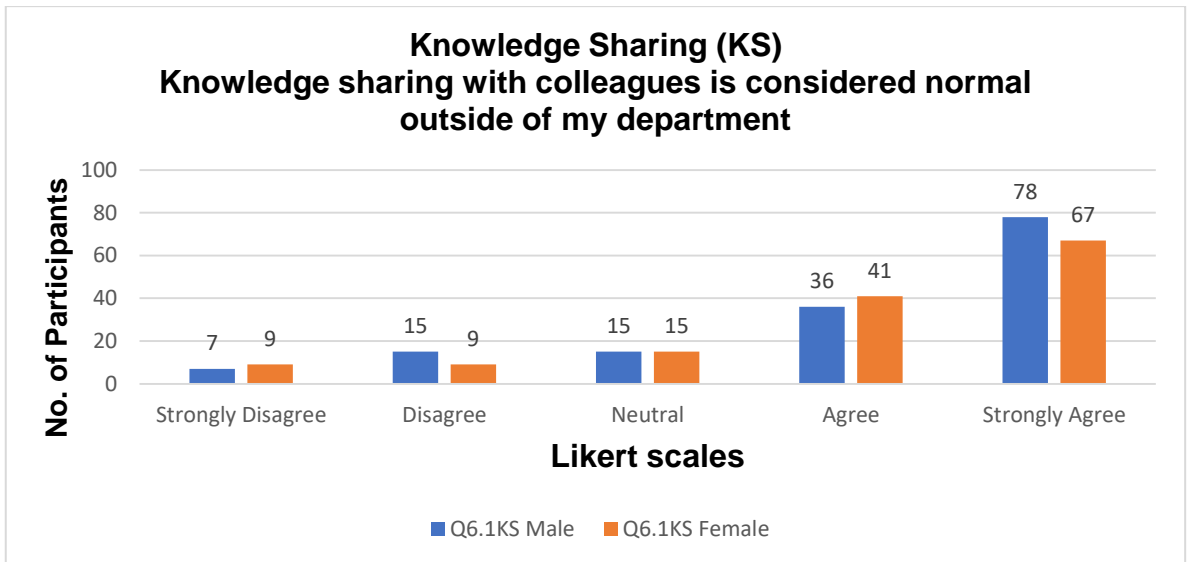
Figure 5.39: Knowledge Sharing (KS): Knowledge sharing among colleagues is considered normal in my department
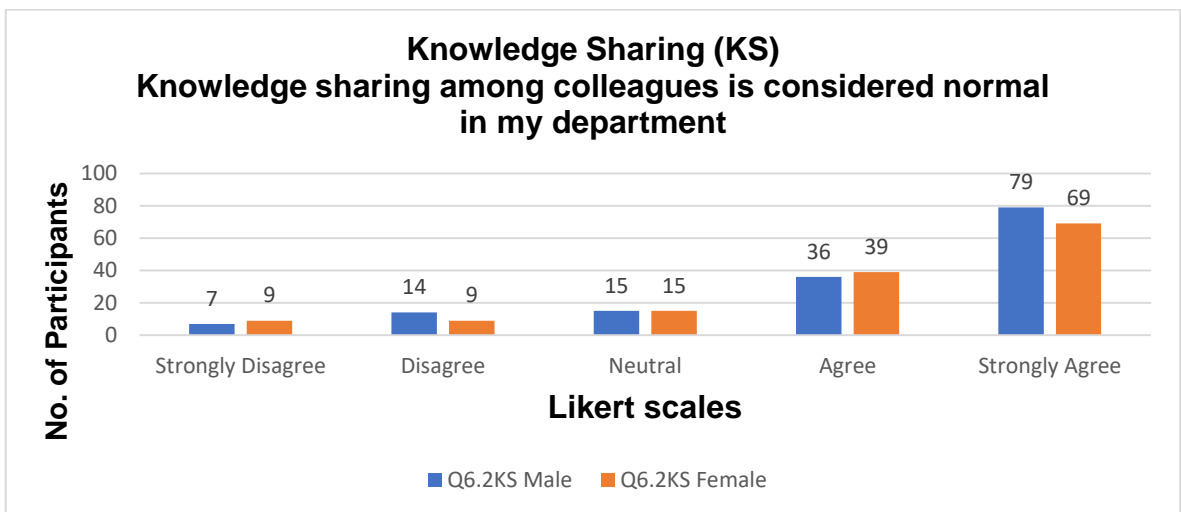
Figure 5.40: Knowledge Sharing (KS): When I have learned something new, I tell colleagues outside of my department about it
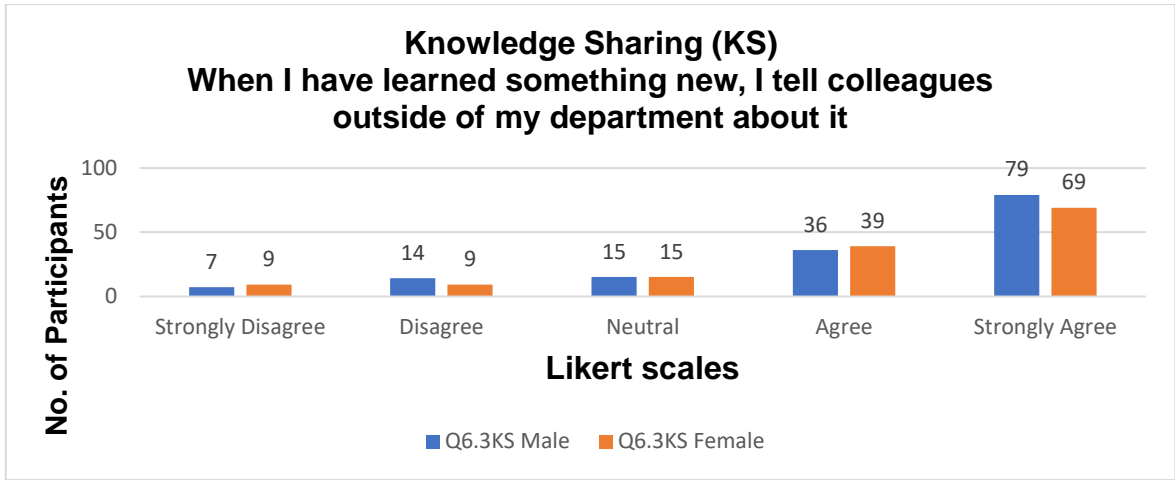
Figure 5.41: Knowledge Sharing (KS): When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues in my department about it
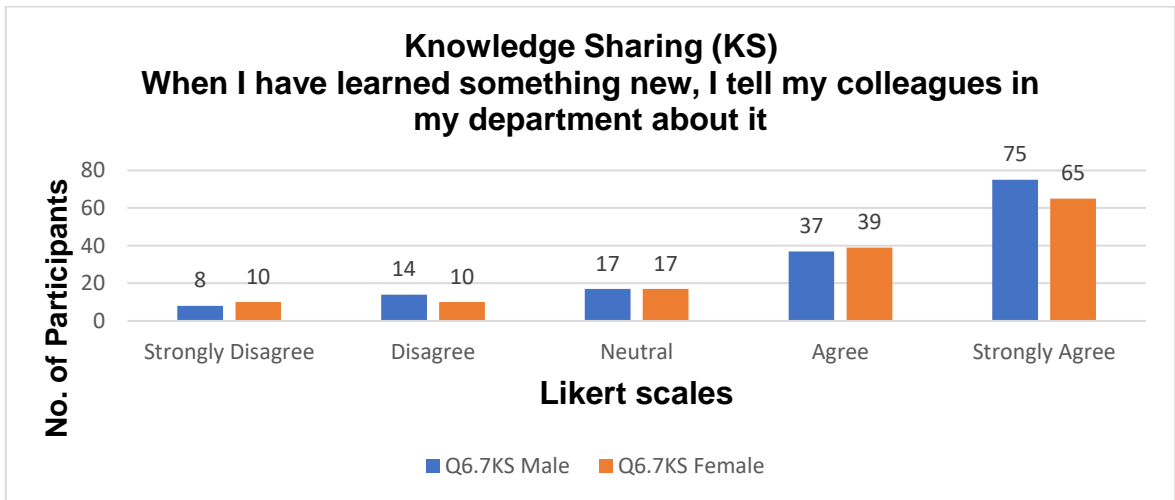
Figure 5.42: Knowledge Sharing (KS): When they have learned something new, my colleagues within my department tell me about it
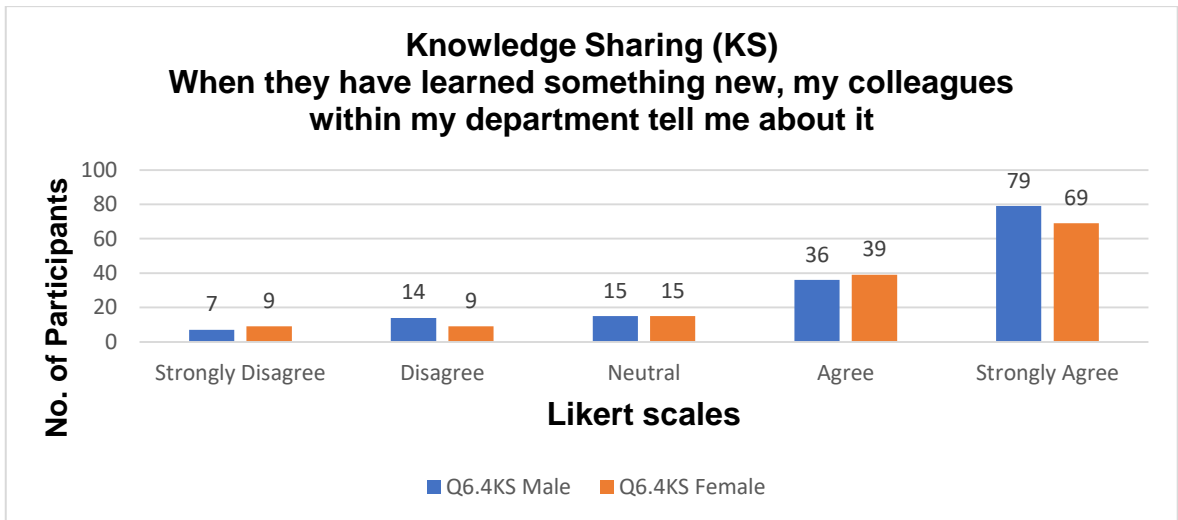
Figure 5.43: Knowledge Sharing (KS): I share information with my colleagues in the organisation
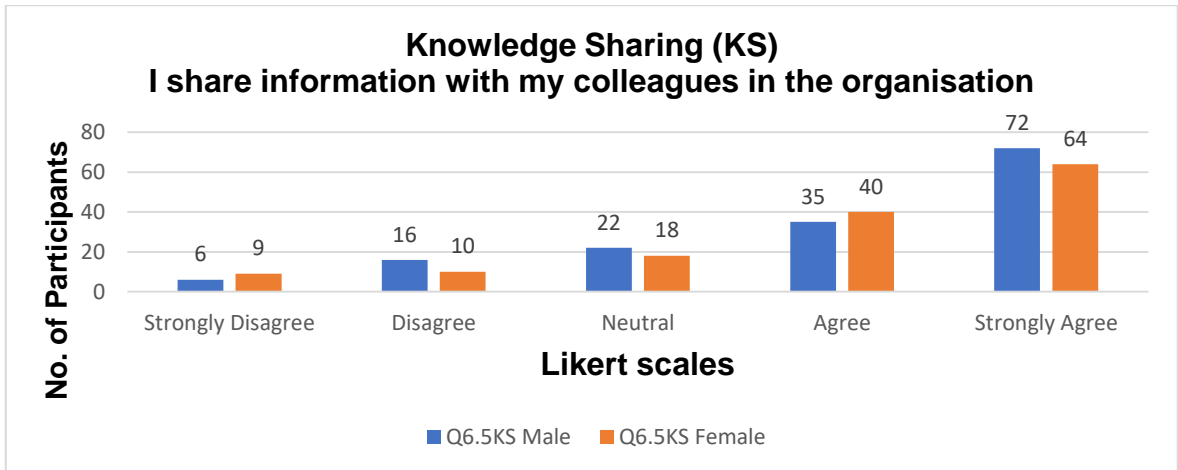
Figure 5.44: Knowledge Sharing (KS): I share information about administrative issues with my colleagues in the organisation

Knowledge Sharing (KS)
I share information about administrative issues with my colleagues in the organisation
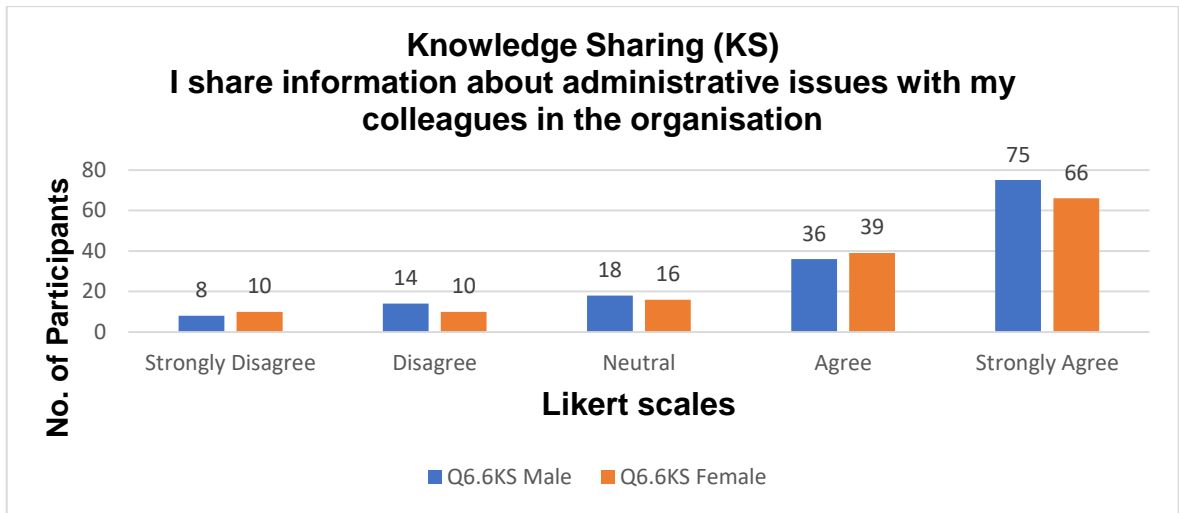
Figure 5.45: Knowledge Sharing (KS): When they have learned something new, colleagues outside of my department tell me about it

Knowledge Sharing (KS)
When they have learned something new, colleagues outside of my department tell me about it
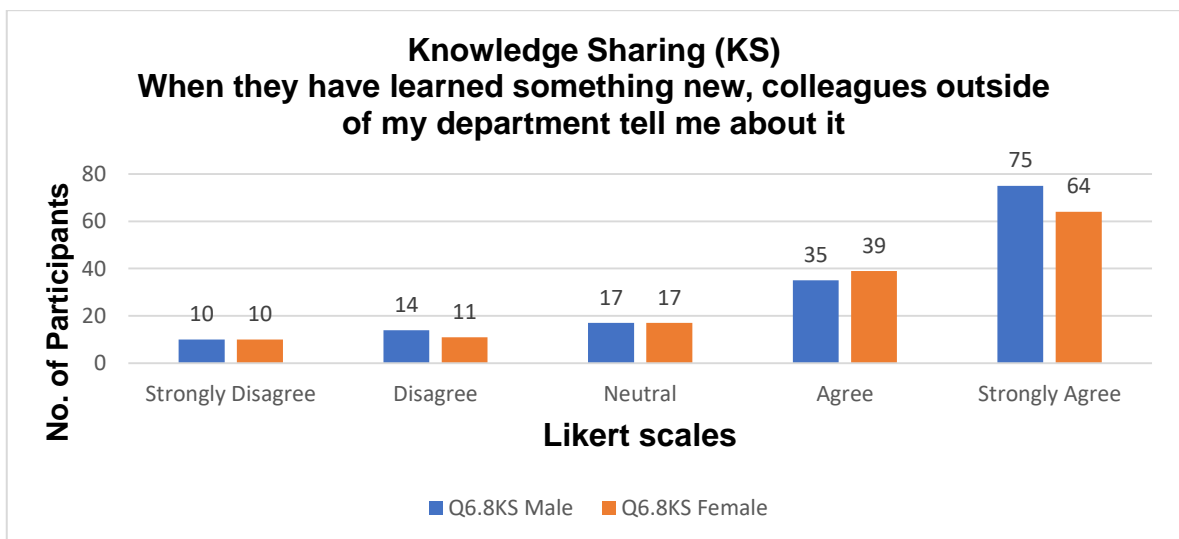
5.4.2.2 Knowledge Collecting (KC)

In order to measure the study construct knowledge collecting (KC), eight items were utilised. The average score of the mean was 3.505. Meanwhile, the male group (N=151) had association to a mean of 3.5331 and SD of 1.292, whilst the

association comparison for the female participants (N=141) had association to a mean that was numerically lower at 3.047, with SD at 1.141, as shown in Table 5.13. More precisely, mean scores were, respectively, 3.527, 3.534, 3.49, 3.503, 3.497, 3.517, 3.486 and 3.483, as shown in Table 5.15. All of the values lay above the 2.5 midpoint of the 5-point Likert scale, whilst the average SD was at a value of 1.266 which showed low dispersion amongst the scores of the respondents about the mean average; this showed there was agreement of the participants in respect to the measures of the scale. To be specific, those results mean that most respondents consider that KC is a major factor in choosing Knowledge Sharing.

Thus, significant differences can be assessed between females and males with regard to the construct of KC. A sample t-test was undertaken in order to make comparison of the mean score average for the 2 groups based upon responses given to the questionnaire interval scale questions. Moreover, as portrayed in Figures 5.46 to 5.53, the distributions for the participants had enough normality for the purposes of undertaking a t-test, i.e., kurtosis < 8.0 and skew < 3.0 (Kline, 2011). For testing the hypothesis that both female and male participants had association with different means of statistical significance with regard to attitudes on KC, a sample t-test was undertaken.

Analyses of the statistics from the t-test shown in Table 5.14 shows that female and male groups do not differ significantly with respect to attitudes on all of the Likert-scale variables, with $p < 0.05$. With regard to KC, the t-test showed insignificant difference in statistical terms between males (SD of 1.292; Mavg of 3.5331) and female participants (SD of 1.141; Mavg of 3.047), with average

scores of mean t (291) at 13.566, with p < 0.05. Those results showed that, on average, both participant groups considered that KC was a major factor when selecting amongst Knowledge Sharing.

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for undertaking and tracing association among the variables; the results of the test are shown in Table 5.15. Moreover, if attempting the interpretation of results of effect size, different guidelines are suggested by researchers. Analysis was performed against the other eight collapsed KC statements within the questionnaire, and Pearson's correlation coefficient showed correlation of small effect in relation to other statements. This shows that, whilst agreement showed favourable answering by respondents, in respect to KC, there was either agreement or strong agreement of respondents to other statements. Also, it shows that size of effect was minimal with r of - 0.01 in the variation lying between the 2 groups, which explained 0% of respondent score total variance for the KC scale, as can be seen in Table 5.13.

Table 5.15: Knowledge Collecting (KC): Descriptive and *t-test* results

	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p-value	r	r²
Q6.9KC I share information I have with colleagues within my	3.527	1.258	1.027	13.952	0.000	0.009	0.000

department when they ask for it							
Q610KC Colleagues in my organisation share information with me	3.534	1.266	1.034	13.956	0.000	-0.018	0.000
Q6.11KC Colleagues within my department share knowledge with me, when I ask them about it	3.49	1.278	0.99	13.238	0.000	-0.006	0.000
Q6.12KC Colleagues within my department tell me what their skills are, when I ask them about it	3.503	1.261	1.003	13.594	0.000	-0.016	0.000
Q6.13KC I share my skills with colleagues outside of my department, when they ask me to	3.497	1.27	0.997	13.414	0.000	-0.011	0.000
Q6.14KC I share my skills with colleagues within my department, when they ask for it.	3.517	1.267	1.017	13.721	0.000	-0.016	0.000
Q6.15KC I share information I have with colleagues outside of my department, when they ask me to	3.486	1.259	0.986	13.391	0.000	-0.019	0.000
Q6.16KC Colleagues in my organisation share information about administrative issues with me	3.483	1.267	0.983	13.259	0.000	-0.017	0.000

Figure 5.46: Knowledge Collecting (KC): I share information I have with colleagues within my department when they ask for it
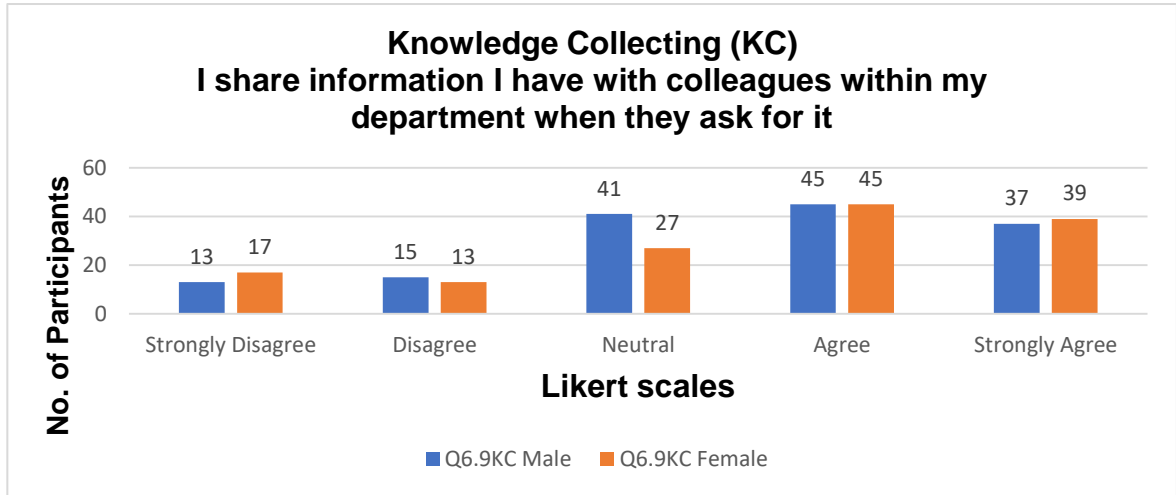
Figure 5.47: Knowledge Collecting (KC): Colleagues in my organisation share information with me
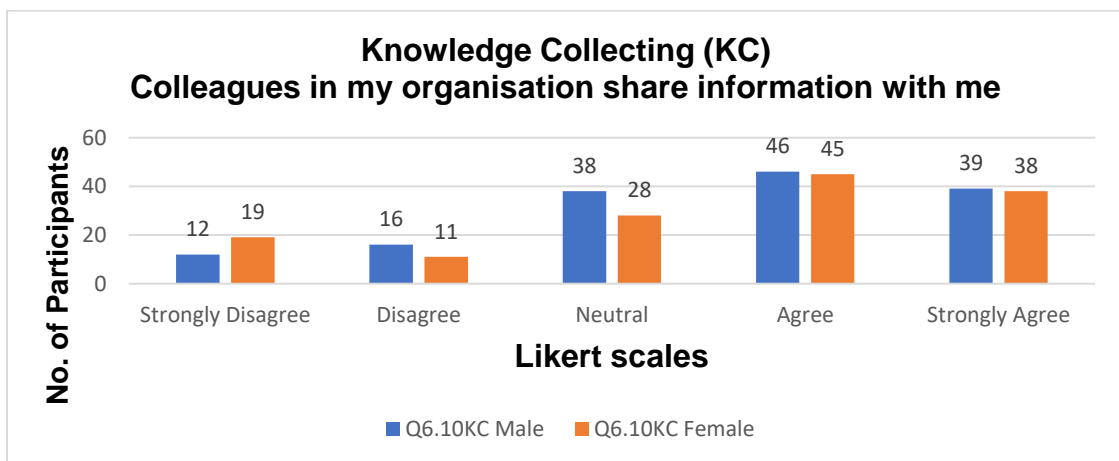
Figure 5.48: Knowledge Collecting (KC): Colleagues within my department share knowledge with me, when I ask them about it

Knowledge Collecting (KC)
Colleagues within my department share knowledge with me, when I ask them about it
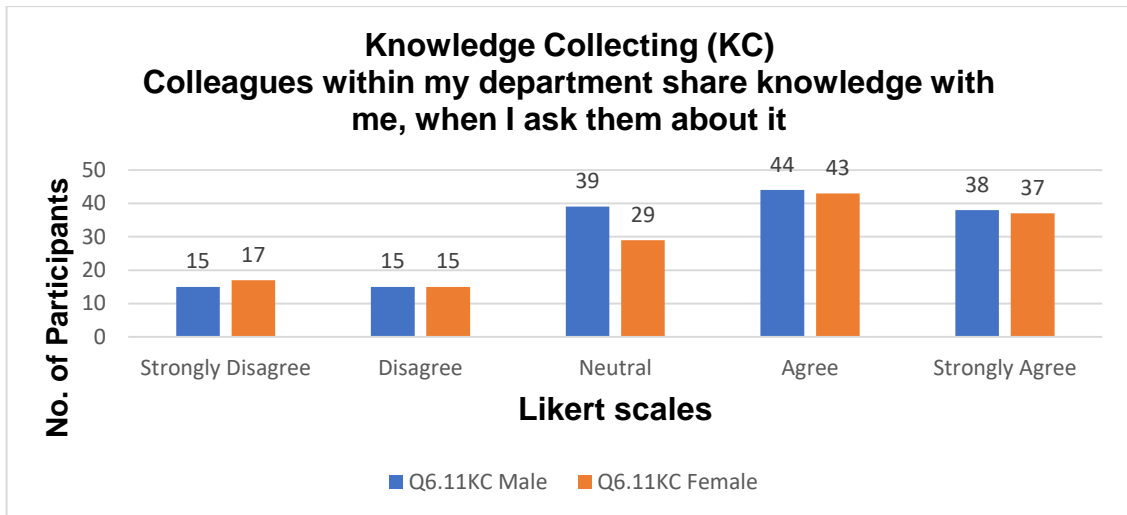
Figure 5.49: Knowledge Collecting (KC): Colleagues within my department tell me what their skills are, when I ask them about it

Knowledge Collecting (KC)
Colleagues within my department tell me what their skills are, when I ask them about it
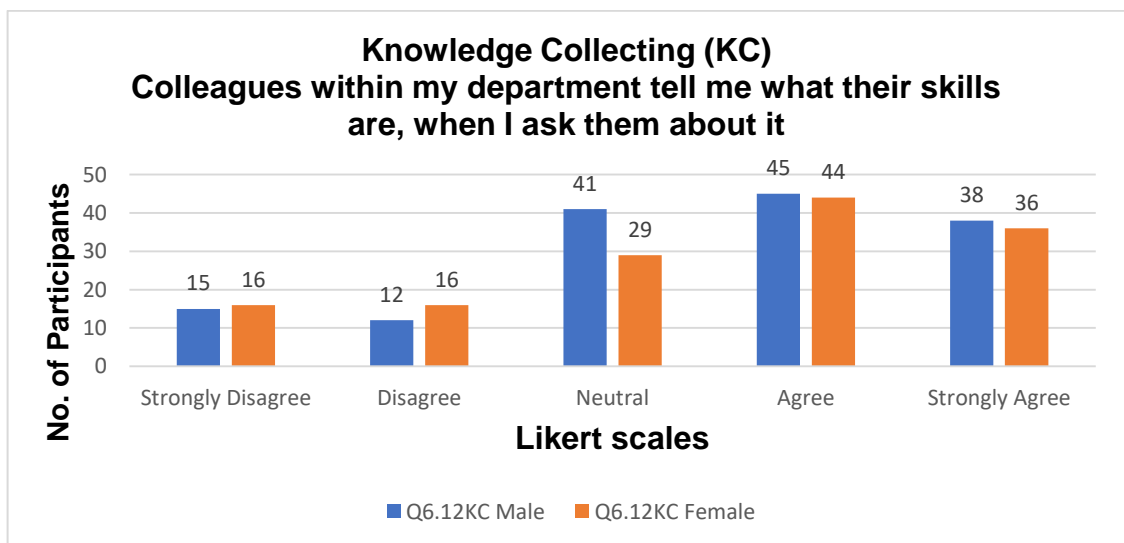
Figure 5.50: Knowledge Collecting (KC): I share my skills with colleagues outside of my department when they ask me to
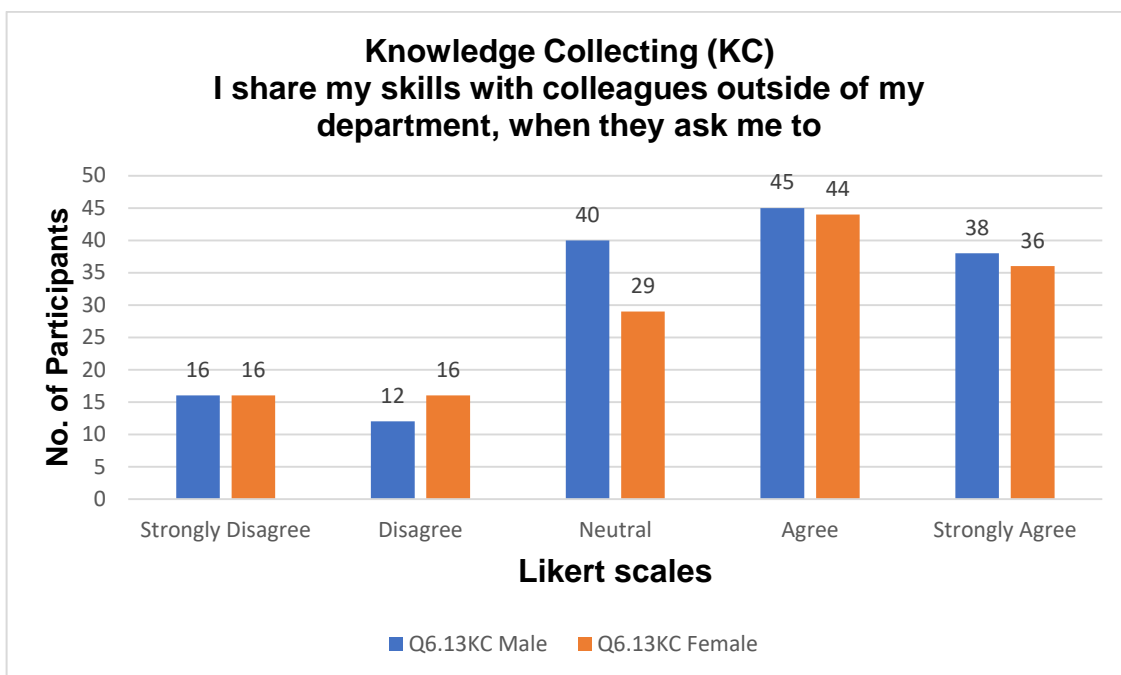
Figure 5.51: Knowledge Collecting (KC): I share information I have with colleagues within my department when they ask for it

Figure 5.51: Knowledge Collecting (KC): I share information I have with colleagues outside of my department when they ask for it
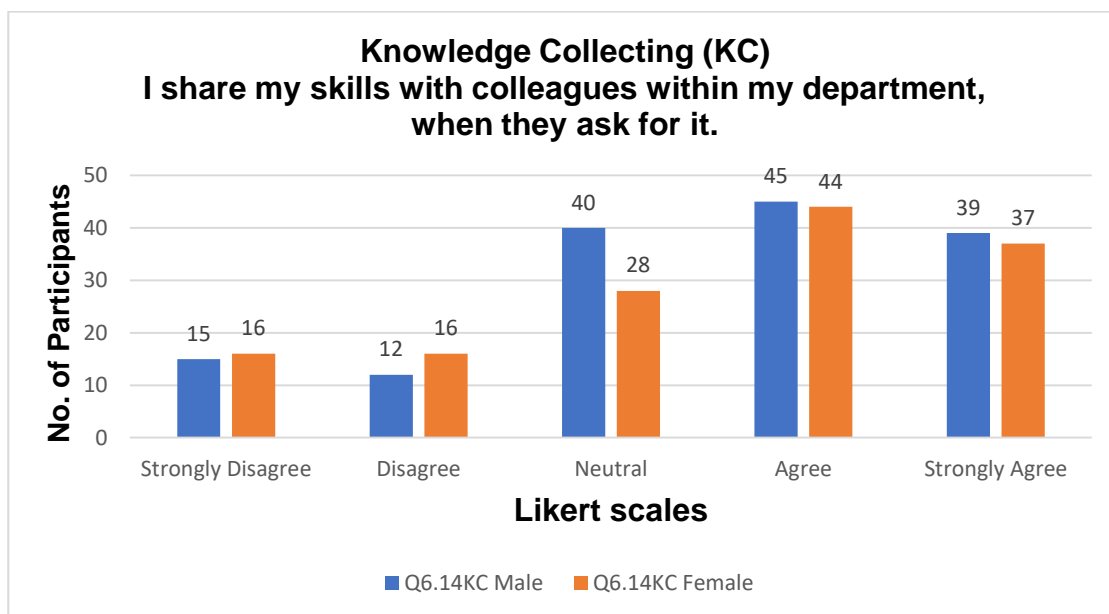
Knowledge Collecting (KC)
I share information I have with colleagues outside of my department, when they ask me to
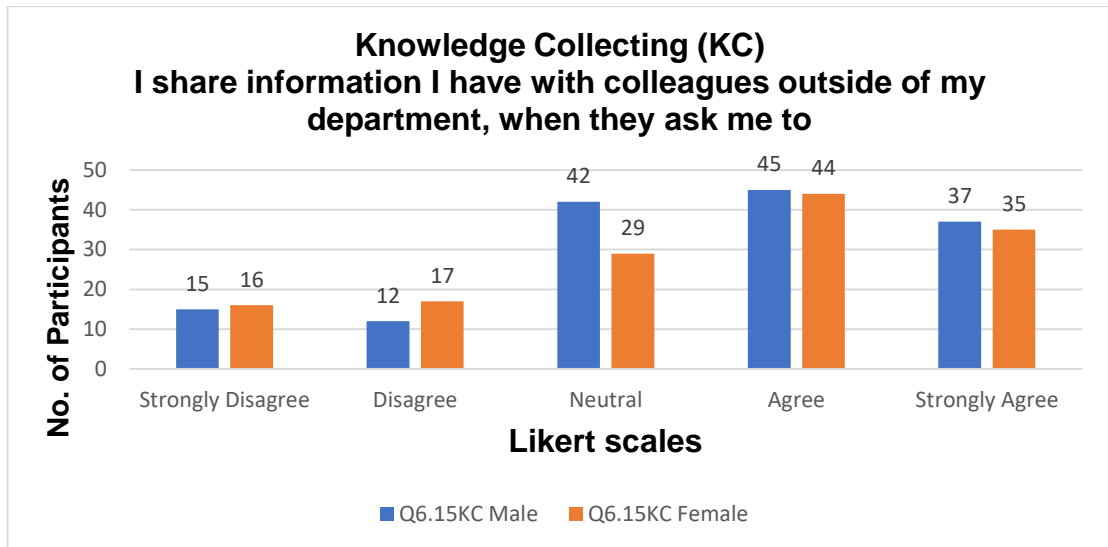
Figure 5.52: Knowledge Collecting (KC): Colleagues in my organisation share information about administrative issues with me

Knowledge Collecting (KC)
Colleagues in my organisation share information about administrative issues with me
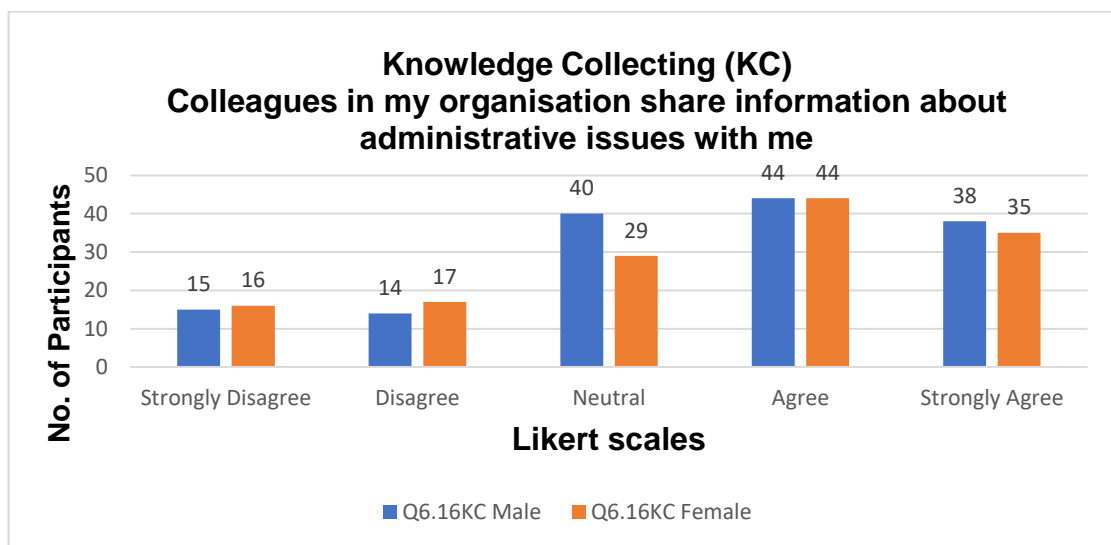
5.5 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

5.5.1 Test of the adequacy of the sampling and the sphericity of the data

EFA is a factor loading method where groups are used for the extraction of primary latent factors. The technique is utilised to see what the data offer and it

involves the grouping of variables on a specific factor number or a single factor (Hair et al., 2006). The primary use of factor analysis is for the reduction of a large set of scale items or variables to a more manageable, smaller number (Pallant, 2007).

EFA was applied to this study for confirmation of the validity of the constructs examined. Before conducting the EFA, there was an examination of factorability of all items that were related. There was use of numerous criteria that are well-recognised for correlation factorability. The sampling adequacy measure, KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) had a value of 0.762, i.e., over the 0.7 recommended value, and the Bartlett's sphericity test has a significant value of x^2 (1081) of 23776.152, and confirmed the significance value as (p = 0.000). This concludes that an acceptable level of correlation amongst the variables in the data set exists, thus making the data appropriate for subsequent EFA.

Table 5.16: KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.762
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	23776.152
	df	1081
	Sig.	.000

A test for reliability was also undertaken through the use of Cronbach's alpha in order to measure internal item consistency within the instrument of the survey; the testing was undertaken on all dependent and independent variables. The Cronbach's alpha result demonstrated a 0.902 alpha and over (see Table 5.2); this value is acceptable for the normal statistical test context wherein general

guidelines state that alpha values over 0.7 are an indication of good reliability (Field, 2009). There was then determination of an appropriate EFA approach which involved establishment of the method of factor extraction, the criteria for factor retention, the method of factor rotation and interpretation of the factor loadings that resulted.

First of all, there was selection of the precise method of factor extraction, in order for the minimum factor number to be established that would be able to represent association amongst the variable set in the optimum way (Pallant, 2007). Amongst the various methods of extraction, the most common is the method of principal component extraction, and this is a default approach taken in the SPSS programme; it was utilised for the extraction of the minimal variable set to account for maximum data variance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Second, with respect to the criteria for factor retention, numerous approaches towards determining the number of factors exist, to help best portray underlying relationships between variables in a study, including the test for Cattell's scree and Kaiser's criterion. The Kaiser's criterion approach, which is also known as a rule for eigenvalue greater than one, has become the most commonly utilised one. According to Field (2009) and Pallant (2007), as eigenvalues have reference to the degree to which a factor explains total variance, a significant variation amount is denoted by an eigenvalue that is one or over. Cattell's scree test, however, involves the plotting of eigenvalues and then checking of where changes to the plot curve go towards being horizontal. Hair et al. (2006) note that the scree test comes from plotting latent roots against factor number in extraction order, and the cut-off point is evaluated by using the resulting curve shape (Hair et al., 2006). Within this study,

the tests of Cattell's scree plot and Kaiser's criterion were used for establishing the number of factors retained for the further analyses. Third, since researchers have discovered that factor analysis output can be difficult to interpret, it is recommended that resulting factors are rotated so that results can be produced in a form that is simpler (Hair et al., 2006).

Furthermore, rotation is considered important for selection for the improvement of the scientific utility and the interpretability of the solution; its use maximises the high correlations between variables and factors as well as minimising the low correlations (Hair et al., 2006). Generally, methods of rotation fall into two broad categorisations: oblique methods, including Direct Oblimin and Promax; and orthogonal methods, including Equamax, Quartimax and Varimax. For this study, there is application of the orthogonal technique of Varimax, the kind used most commonly within rotation for the maximisation of variance. Varimax rotation has the goal, as Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest, of maximising the factor loading variance through making low loadings lower and high loadings higher for each of the factors. To align with the advice of Hair et al. (2006), factor loadings were seen as practically significant if they had values greater than +/- 0.50.

As noted above, for this research, there has been careful adoption of suitable methods and the following of available procedures for SPSS factor analysis. The section that follows discusses the process for factor extraction, factor retention and factor rotation, with the results for factor analyses undertaken for all of the 53 items measuring leaderships styles and knowledge sharing factors having a bearing on their selection/implementation within a public sector organisation in the UAE.

5.5.2 Factor analysis results: factor extraction, and factor rotation

The term 'factor extraction' is in reference to the removal of common variance shared amongst a variable set (Kieffer, 2004). Currently, there are numerous techniques available that can be used for common variance extraction, such as principal factor analysis and principal component analysis; the analysis results generated may differ based upon the particular extraction method used. From the various techniques that are available, principal factor analysis and principal component analysis are those methods of extraction that are used most widely in EFA (Hair et al., 2006). Whilst a number of researchers consider there to be negligible difference between those methods of extraction, others contend that there is a substantial enough difference to merit close consideration (Kieffer, 2004). Within the social sciences, principal component analysis or PCA is the strategy that is most commonly utilised for factor extraction (Alexander and Colgate, 2000; Henson et al., 2004). PCA has, thus, been applied for factor extraction in this study.

Following the running of the PCA, there was achievement of a 10-factor solution that was based upon eigenvalues that were more than 1. The results are shown in Table 5.17 along with total variance explained. As Table 5.17 shows, there was emergence of a 10-factor solution when the Kaiser's criterion rule of eigenvalue greater than one was applied. In addition, it was clear that those 10 factors gave an explanation for 87.47% of variance within the dataset, and factor 1 contributed 23.09% on its own, with the remaining 9 factors having contributions that ranged from a level of 12.57% for factor 2 to a level of just 3.69% for factor 10. Since conflicting results may often be generated by different methods of retention,

examination of more than one method of factor retention is, generally, considered important (Kieffer, 2004). The Cattell's scree test was plotted, so that the result of the Kaiser's criterion could be confirmed (See Figure 5.54). From the scree plot it is clear that 10 factors lay above the plot line curve, thereby proving that the 10-factor solution that resulted from the earlier rule of eigenvalue greater than one, had accuracy.

Figure 5.53: Scree Plot
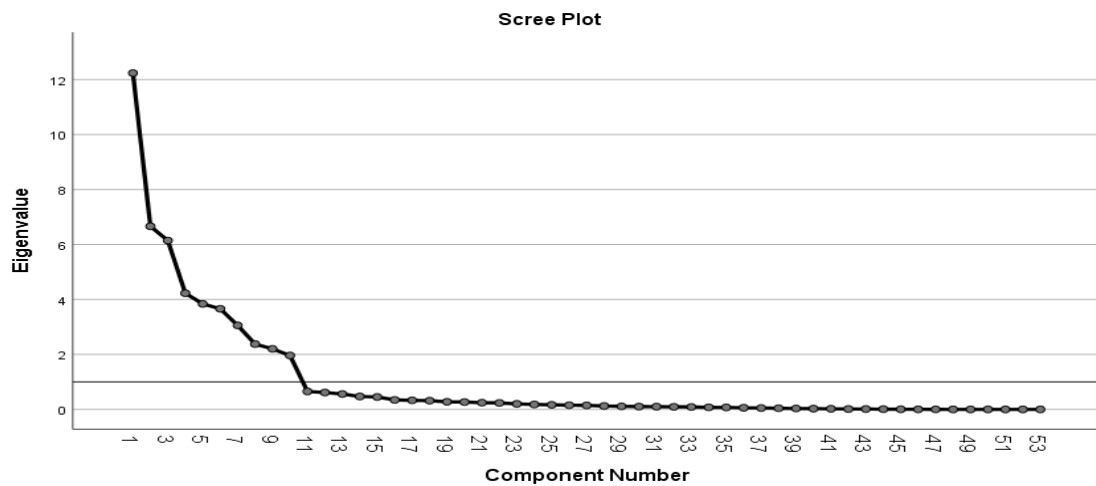
Table 5.17: Explanation for the total variance

	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.237	23.088	23.088	12.237	23.088	23.088	7.468	14.090	14.090
2	6.662	12.569	35.657	6.662	12.569	35.657	7.150	13.490	27.580
3	6.144	11.592	47.249	6.144	11.592	47.249	6.478	12.224	39.803
4	4.226	7.973	55.222	4.226	7.973	55.222	4.321	8.152	47.956

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5	3.837	7.240	62.462	3.837	7.240	62.462	4.317	8.146	56.102
6	3.661	6.907	69.369	3.661	6.907	69.369	3.777	7.127	63.229
7	3.056	5.766	75.135	3.056	5.766	75.135	3.716	7.011	70.240
8	2.375	4.481	79.617	2.375	4.481	79.617	3.398	6.412	76.652
9	2.202	4.154	83.771	2.202	4.154	83.771	3.100	5.849	82.501
10	1.961	3.699	87.470	1.961	3.699	87.470	2.633	4.969	87.470
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

Following the factor extraction, there is a need to know the degree to which variables load upon them. So, rotation has importance for improvement to the scientific utility and interpretability for the solution. Rotation is employed in the maximisation of high correlations between variables and factors and minimisation of low ones. Likewise, as Kieffer (2004) explained, usually there is a need for factors to be rotated in order for a better solution to be formulated that can be interpreted more easily, i.e., with a 'simple structure' that is better. Various techniques may be utilised in the development of factors from variables; however, the rotation method is considered a very helpful one (Field, 2009). Literature on EFA/PCA has defined rotation as the performance of arithmetic for obtaining new sets of factor loadings (Yamamoto and Jennrich, 2013). For researchers, two major kinds of rotation strategy are available: oblique rotation and orthogonal rotation (Kieffer, 2004; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2006). The most commonly employed method is, however, varimax rotation of techniques of the orthogonal kind. As it is not natural for factors, in lots of situations, to be orthogonal in relation to each other, there has been development of several oblique rotation methods (Yamamoto and Jennrich, 2013). However, since different extraction methods present similar results from a good set of data, then also different rotation

methods also have a tendency to show similar results when the correlation patterns within data are fairly clear (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

There are numerous advantages in the employment of orthogonal rotation strategies, especially Varimax. Firstly, factors have perfect non-correlation with respect to each other and they are, inherently, easier to interpret. Secondly, factor structure matrix and factor pattern matrix have equivalence and so just one association matrix is needed for estimation (Kieffer, 2004). As such, there is a more parsimonious solution with the estimation of fewer parameters and so, in theory, the solution has greater replicability. Nonetheless, the orthogonal rotation for factor solutions could lead to oversimplification of relationships between factors and variables and could represent those relationships in ways that do not always have accuracy (Kieffer, 2004). However, the use of Varimax orthogonal techniques is most common for rotation, especially within social science types of study (Alexander and Colgate, 2000). Alam and Noor (2009) conducted a study that was similar that also employed this method for investigation of factors that had an effect upon adoption of IT within the public sector in Malaysia. The researcher, therefore, took the decision to employ the technique of Varimax rotation within this study. Kaiser (1974) developed the technique of Varimax rotation; the technique produced factors with large structure/pattern coefficients from a small variable number and extremely low structure/pattern coefficients in respect to the other variable group (Kieffer, 2004). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) consider that maximisation of factor loading variance is a Varimax rotation goal through making low loadings lower and higher loadings higher for each of the factors. It was suggested by Hair et al. (2010) that if factor loadings have a value

of +0.50 or more, then they can be considered as being very significant and, therefore, are suitable for use in further analyses.

In this study, 53 items had factor loadings of more than 0.70. However, as certain components had cross loadings or only had one item loaded, problematic items/variables were identified and excluded, resulting in 10 final factors and 53 items (with stronger correlation) that were subject to further analysis. The results are shown in Table 5.18 below (along with Cronbach's alpha and % of variance explained for each factor).

Table 5.18 Factor Loadings

Items	Component									
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10
	KS	KC	II	IS	IM	LF	CR	MEA	IC	MEP
Q6.1	.925									
Q6.2	.923									
Q6.4	.923									
Q6.3	.923									
Q6.7	.911									
Q6.6	.905									
Q6.8	.883									
Q6.5	.824									
Q6.12		.942								
Q6.13		.940								
Q6.15		.937								

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Q6.16		.936							
Q6.14		.934							
Q6.11		.809							
Q6.10		.804							
Q6.9		.774							
Q5.2			.976						
Q5.3			.967						
Q5.4			.964						
Q5.1			.959						
Q5.6			.958						
Q5.7			.944						
Q5.5			.944						
Q5.13				.953					
Q5.16				.950					
Q5.15				.915					
Q5.17				.877					
Q5.14				.860					
Q5.12					.961				
Q5.11					.945				
Q5.9					.912				
Q5.8					.886				
Q5.10					.858				
Q5.37					.947				
Q5.35					.945				

Q5.34						.933				
Q5.36						.930				
Q5.23							.973			
Q5.24							.969			
Q5.22							.960			
Q5.25							.893			
Q5.28								.945		
Q5.27								.938		
Q5.29								.925		
Q5.26								.737		
Q5.19									.917	
Q5.20									.906	
Q5.18									.808	
Q5.21									.725	
Q5.31										.828
Q5.30										.812
Q5.33										.751
Q5.32										.739
Cronbach's alpha	0.989	0.979	0.986	0.954	0.956	0.976	0.967	0.937	0.897	0.814
% of variance	23.09	12.57	11.59	7.97	7.24	6.91	5.77	4.48	4.15	3.67

Based on the items that have been grouped into 10 confirmed constructs, each of them was named and labelled as follows:

- Factor 1: Knowledge Sharing (KS)

- Factor 2: Knowledge Collecting (KC)

- Factor 3: Idealised influence (II)

- Factor 4: Intellectual stimulation (IS)

- Factor 5: Inspirational motivation (IM)

- Factor 6: Laissez-faire (LF)

- Factor 7: Contingent rewards (CR)

- Factor 8: Management by exception (active) (MEA)

- Factor 9: Individualised consideration (IC)

- Factor 10: Management by exception (passive) (MEP)

5.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has presented the findings of this study which examined the main leadership styles practised within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and their impact on employee knowledge sharing. Initially, data was screened through pointing out missing data and data outliers in order to prepare for further analysis. Accuracy of data was assessed through normality and reliability tests to infer accurate results portrayed

by the data. The demographic data and statistical analysis i.e., t-test and Pearson correlation were presented subsequently in section 5.3 and 5.4. In section 5.5 explanatory factor analysis was run for constructs loading to identify the groups or clusters of variables. An exploratory factor analysis technique was used to show the relationship of items/variables to factors. In this section, factors were extracted with the help of eigenvalues and scree plot. Applying the Varimax of orthogonal technique in principal component analysis, factors were rotated which showed maximum variance of factor loading. The finding showed significant results in which 10 factors were extracted. The key findings that emerged from the quantitative survey showed that respondents agree about the importance and benefits of developing a culture of knowledge sharing but some of the participants are sceptical and have given their perceptions of their experience about GSEC as a sensitive and complex organisation where leadership styles may not change to full scale knowledge sharing.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The following chapter aims to discuss and interpret the main findings obtained from the survey data that were collected to achieve the study objectives which focused on finding out whether the dominant leadership styles within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) have a direct influence on employee knowledge sharing. The following discussion explains the findings and links these to previous similar studies from the broad literature. The aim is to identify gaps that exist in the knowledge of the topic.

Moreover, the discussion of the study findings constitutes the basis from which conclusions and appropriate recommendations will be drawn in the next chapter. The rationale for selecting quantitative data stemmed from the nature of the problem and the research questions which this study aims to address by focusing on the drivers and challenges of implementing a knowledge sharing (KS) strategy within GSEC. The data were collected in the UAE within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) which is in the public sector.

The questionnaire covered the following constructs informed by the literature. It consisted of ten key constructs measured through fifty-three various items (statements) with use of a 5-point Likert scale. For each of the statements, the participants were asked to provide their view on:

- Idealised influence (II)

- Inspirational motivation (IM)

- Intellectual stimulation (IS)

- Individualised consideration (IC)

- Contingent rewards (CR)

- Management by exception (active) (MEA)

- Management by exception (passive) (MEP)

- Laissez-faire (LF)

- Knowledge Sharing (KS)

- Knowledge Collecting (KC)

6.2 Discussion of findings

The aim of the survey was to gauge management and employees' perceptions and beliefs regarding the influence of leadership styles on knowledge sharing across GSEC departments in order to complement the findings from the literature review. The findings of this study aim to build on prior studies regarding the correlation between employee KS and leadership styles within a Middle Eastern public sector organisation. This chapter considers the results in detail with regard to each individual predictor linking to the research questions. Leadership styles and their influence on KS processes at GSEC are discussed as follows:

6.2.1 Transformational Leadership:

This style of leadership involves the leader's personal commitment and charisma to drive followers to accomplish the organisational vision and objectives through high performance. According to Bass and Riggio (2012) transformational leaders

have the skills and capacity to change and transform followers to act as a unit to enhance the organisational performance and growth. Transformational leaders inspire and persuade followers to perform beyond the call of duty through stimulating high levels of motivation and recognition. Transformational leaders demonstrate moral values, they are receptive and respectful of followers, and as Yukl (2010) points out, transformational leadership emphasises moral values so that attention is given to moral issues. They encourage employees to act beyond their personal interest in favour of the organisation and create a family work environment for employees to enable them to be more effective.

This type of leadership consists of four dimensions, or as Breevaart, et al (2014) put it, transformational leadership is characterized by the four I's:

•   Idealised influence (II)

•   Inspirational motivation (IM)

•   Intellectual stimulation (IS)

•   Individualised consideration (IC)

6.2.2 Idealised influence (II)

Participants were asked about the leadership attributes that drive KS initiatives. These results show that the majority of the respondents consider idealised influence as a major factor when selecting among leadership styles. It was found that Idealised influence (IdIn) had a positive relationship to the KS and knowledge creation of employees within GSEC. This in turn leads to respect and trust amongst the members of an organisation. Leaders that exhibit this kind of behaviour show they are confident in the vision of the organisation, instil commitment in the followers and share risks with them; such aspects give

encouragement to members, leading to them being more creative, innovative and hardworking (Weaver, 2015; Northouse 2014; Bass and Bass 2014; Betroci, 2009; Bass and Riggio, 2012). The current study findings show that staff members within the GSEC in the UAE recognise the idealised influence possessed by their leaders as they see that they hold the faith, trust and respect of staff. This view is supported by Da Costa Nogueira et al (2018); Anandaciua, et al (2018) Weaver, (2015), and Alzawahreh (2011) who argue that, to inspire, demonstrate a sense of purpose, and drive staff to enhance performance and create a change of culture where KS becomes the norm, idealised influence is the driving force within the workplace.

The study findings are consistent with the broad literature claims that leaders who have idealised influence are able to drive change and enhance the organisational culture of KS processes for better performance and increased economic growth (Vaccaro et al., 2012). Moreover, employees engage more in KS and innovative practices when there are effective communication channels and training programmes, and the creation of new projects and the adoption of updated information technology when leaders trust and recognise their employees' skills, which in turn gives them confidence and pride to be working for the organisation. In short, this study found that the IdIN impacts upon employee KS within GSEC in the UAE. A positive influence that was significant at a $p<0.05$ level was shown by the causal path that lay between the constructs. As such, any increase in the idealised influence kind of behaviour would have a positive impact upon employees KS initiatives within the GSEC in the UAE. In such a work environment, followers fulfil their roles and do their jobs above and beyond the

call of duty (Madhurima, and Agrata, 2018). In this way leaders affect the motivation of employees in a positive manner.

6.2.3 Inspirational motivation (IM)

Regarding Inspirational motivation (IM), five items were employed for measuring the construct. Participants seem to agree that IM plays a major role in the selection of leadership styles, although differences may exist between females and males with regard to the IM construct. As the t-test results showed insignificant statistical difference exists between male (SD = 1.402; Mavg = 3.7311) and females (SD = 1.424; Mavg = 3.726) with average mean scores (t) of 291 = 15.037, with $p < 0.05$. These results gave an indication that both groups could be seen, on average, as having considered IM as a significant influence when selecting from amongst the leadership styles.

This view is supported in the literature by Avolio (2014) who argues that transformational leadership styles involve motivation of others. This echoes the view held by this study, then, that motivation is a determining factor to this style of leadership. Webb (2007) reinforces this view suggesting leaders' attributes to enhance the motivation is likely to improve performance. In the same line of thinking, Barbuto (2005: 31) claims that *"Intrinsic/internal motivation embodies the person and his or her emotions, encompassing fun, trust, and self-worth, all of which are derived from internal influences. These qualities are similar to those needed for transformational behaviours."*

Similarly, it can be argued that transformational leaders have the necessary attributes to motivate and stimulate subordinates' beliefs to be more aligned with the mission objectives of the organisation. The broad literature suggests that the subordinates' intrinsic motivation is enhanced as the success of the organisation is perceived as being their own; this in turn will drive knowledge sharing amongst employees (Madhurima, and Agrata, 2018; Weaver, 2015; Northouse 2014; Bass and Bass 2014). Furthermore, followers are motivated by charismatic/transformational leaders' skills and experience, which enables better KS and problem-solving capacity which leads to better performance. The transformational leadership role aims to fulfil the followers' needs by putting emphasis upon processes of followers' engagement and involvement in the workplace. Transformational leaders drive followers to go beyond the pursuit of their self-interest and contribute towards the achievement of organisational goals. This leadership style is marked by four distinguishing features, namely, "idealized influence," "inspirational motivation," "intellectual stimulation," and "individualized consideration" (Bass, 2004; Madhurima, and Agrata 2018).

6.2.4 Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

For the purpose of this study, five items were employed for measuring the Intellectual Stimulation (IS) construct; results revealed that the majority of respondents consider that intellectual stimulation is a critical factor in considering suitable leadership styles. However, there are significant differences between females and males with regard to the IS construct. Intellectual stimulation is related to the leaders' behaviour which has a direct bearing on the followers' minds. The leader's attribute to inspire and encourage followers to learn, train and develop, stimulates them to acquire experiences and knowledge for their own

benefit and that of the organisation. Leaders embolden their followers to be creative, take the initiative, and express their ideas so they can feel confident and empowered because they feel that their ideas will be heard and taken on board by leaders (Bass and Avolio, 2004). Thus, leaders act as drivers and motivators to train followers to achieve the organisation vision and objectives, which in turn, enables followers to gain recognition and rewards. It was found that communication and regular personal meetings between leaders and followers develops trust and creates a healthy working environment. This dimension of leadership pays more attention to followers and provides them with a sense of being valued and a feeling that learning, training and developing provide them with an opportunity to enhance their career path, which reinforces the leader's image and trust with followers.

The results of this study showed that, on average, both groups considered that IS was a major factor when selecting from leadership styles. This shows that, while participants favourably answered by agreeing that they believed IS, is an important dimension in a leader, they were either in agreement or strong agreement with those other statements. In short, the Intellectual Stimulation dimension (IS) provides followers with the freedom to think, innovate and create fresh ideas about addressing issues faced on a daily basis in their work and enhances their problem-solving skills (Bass and Avolio, 2004). IS also encourages followers to question and challenge the status quo using a high level of confidence and expertise.

6.2.5 Individual Consideration (IC)

Individual Consideration (IC) is described as the transformational leaders' ability to show genuine interest in the needs and frame of mind of followers.

Transformational leaders pay personal attention to each follower. Transformational leaders' Individualised Consideration (IC) attribute is the driving force that brings out the best in their followers, and in turn enables the followers to develop their leadership skills. Wu, and Lee, (2017), point out that Individual Consideration (IC) is closely linked to transformational leader's behaviours which provide followers with social and emotional support, which enhances their skills and capabilities. Through personal relationship and interaction with followers, the transformational leader understands their different needs and pays attention to their personal feelings and wellbeing. This study's results showed that most respondents considered that IC was a key factor for choosing styles of leadership. Respondents with respect to IC were either in agreement or strong agreement.

Individual Consideration (IC) represents the transformational leader's awareness of each follower's needs, acting as a mentor and a role model to the follower. The transformational leader is receptive and caring of each follower's personal circumstances and background. When a leader shows individualized consideration, they are also aware of the followers' individual skills and value added to the organisation and support them in enhancing these key skills. As a result, transformational leaders inspire, empower, and drive followers to surpass normal levels of performance. Transformational leaders create a vision for their followers and guide the change through inspiration and motivation. They are excellent role models and their followers emulate many of their actions. They also inspire through activating follower self-efficacy so that followers believe that they can go beyond expectations (Towler 2019).

6.3 Transformational leadership and knowledge sharing

Results suggest most respondents believe that KS was a major factor in considering aspects of leadership style. This study's findings clearly showed that transformational leadership style is a significant enabler and driver of knowledge sharing practices i.e., knowledge creation, sharing and its application within GSEC. Eight items were utilised in the study construct Knowledge Sharing (KS). The mean score average had a value of 4.04, with the female participants (N=141) associated with a numerically lower mean of 3.517, with a SD of 1.062, and the male group (N=151) associated with a mean of 4.031, with a SD of 1.195. This is consistent with the literature which demonstrated that KS is a key driver and a major contributor in the competitiveness and success of an organisation (Fullwood et al. 2013). Thus, it can be concluded that the findings of this study show that there is positive correlation between knowledge sharing and transformational leadership at GSEC. The literature suggests that the organisational brand will become more visible through creating, sharing, and reusing knowledge ((Lee et al., 2010; Nguyen and Mohamed, 2011). It is claimed by the literature that transformational leaders nurture employees' KS by encouraging their participation and ideas as an essential factor for the organisational growth and performance (Eisenbeib and Boerner, 2010). Such leaders can create a collective team spirit, interaction and the sharing of dimensions of leadership which have a direct influence in developing mind-sets such as commitment, trust, cohesion and motivation, which increase individual and organisational performance (Patel et al., 2016). Organisations that encourage and cultivate transformational leadership are more constructive and successful, entice and retain higher performing employees, stimulate

inventiveness and innovation, build effective teams, and are strategically placed to react well to fluctuations in the economic climate (Avolio 2011; Patel et al 2016).

6.4 Transactional leadership

The transactional leadership style is characterised by rewards and punishment in stimulating and influencing followers. Transactional leaders' main priority is to achieve targets using a wide range of incentives to motivate employees to perform to the best of their ability. Transactional leadership style is organisation, performance, evaluation and rewards, and is task- and outcome-driven (Northouse, 2016; Avolio, 2011; Patel et al., 2016). In contrast, transformational leadership focuses on motivating and engaging followers to believe in a vision of the future. The term "transactional" refers to the exchange strategy used by the transactional leader to influence followers. It is 'give and take' system, 'rewards for performance'. According to Bass (2004), a transactional leader therefore uses a carrot and stick approach to achieve the organisation goals. Transactional leaders aim to achieve a short term vision. They deal with the issues as they arise and generally are not forward looking, making sure everything runs smoothly on a daily basis. According to Bass and Riggio (2006: 69), "Transactional leaders are those who lead through social exchange." Yukl (2006:33) described contingent reward as "clarification of the work required obtaining rewards and the use of incentives and contingent rewards to influence behaviour." In short, transactional leadership may be described as reactive whereas transformational leadership is proactive. The transactional leader's key characteristics are directive, supervising and controlling, and action-driven.

Bass and Riggio, (2012) Bass, (2008) outlined the dimensions of transactional leadership as follows:

- Contingent reward, the process of setting expectations and rewarding workers for meeting them. The transactional leader accomplishes goals by rewarding employees who meet expectations, Bass, (1990). A leader sets tasks be completed, and a predetermined reward is given to followers upon completion of that task (Northouse, 2016).
- Passive management by exception, where a manager neither engages with followers nor interferes with the workers' tasks or the nature of job being done unless an issue arises
- Active management by exception, in which managers anticipate problems, monitor progress and issue corrective measures. Management by exception implies that the leader only provides feedback, in a negative manner, as a corrective measure (Northouse, 2016). Management by exception suggests that the leader closely monitors followers and provides negative feedback when they make mistakes, or generally ignores them until they make a mistake and only then provides negative feedback (Northouse, 2016).

6.4.1 Contingent Rewards (CR)

For the purpose of this study, in order to measure the study construct for Contingent Rewards (CR), four items were utilised. The mean score average was 4.285, whilst the females (N=141) had association with a higher numerical mean of 4.342, with SD at 0.564, compared to the male participant group (N=151) which had association with a CR mean of 4.333, with SD at 0.556. The results, in

particular, mean that most respondents consider that CR is an important element in selecting a leadership style. Female and male groups within GSEC do not differ significantly with respect to their attitudes to CR. Respondents suggested that GSEC leaders generally adopt a transactional leadership style as they prefer the status quo. They are not looking to change the current organisational and cultural structure, and they set the tasks and ensure that things are running and operating in a routine trouble free manner. GSEC leaders pay attention to followers' work in order to find flaws and deviations. Followers are rewarded if they successfully carry out the assigned tasks. The relationship between leader and follower is built around transaction and the trade-off between the leader and subordinate. GSEC transactional leaders use the system of reward and punishment in traditional ways according to organisational cultural standards. Followers seem to accept the current system.

6.4.2 Management by exception (active) (MEA)

In order to measure the study construct Management by exception (active) (MEA), four items were utilised. The average score of the mean was 3.682, whist the female participant group (N=141) had association with a mean that was numerically higher at 3.743, with SD at 1.208, and the male group (N=151) had association with a mean of 3.6705, with SD at 1.231. These results indicate that most respondents considered MEA to be a major factor in deciding on favourable leadership styles. Both males and females did, on average, consider that MEA was a significant aspect when selecting from leadership styles. This type of Management-By-Exception (Active) (MBE-A), the second dimension of transactional leadership, emphasises the fact that leaders show pro-active behaviours to anticipate mishaps or errors and nip them in the bud before they

become complex. Active management-by-exception is when leaders monitor and follow closely followers' performance, anticipating any deviations from the norm, and taking corrective measure (Bass and Avolio, 1993). According to Bass and Riggio (2006), active management-by-exception may be effective and even required in some situations, such as when safety or security is of paramount importance. For Adam (2015), the term management by exception (active) is in reference to the kinds of leaders who observe supporter tasks actively and ensure that quantities and qualities are being met. Leaders who are transactional tend to watch subordinate jobs actively, monitoring them based on policies and rules, taking action that is corrective so that faults can be avoided.

Many GSEC leaders are operating within a traditional and tribal organisational culture; they are not likely to change the current organisational culture. They act with the authority and positions of responsibility working in a very complex organisation, GSEC, and they feel responsible for maintaining routine by managing individual performance and facilitating group performance.

6.4.3 Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP)

In order to measure the study construct management by exception (passive) (MEP), four items were utilised. The average score of the mean = 3.469, whilst male participants (N=151) had association with the mean 3.485 with SD at 1.238; in comparison, female participants (N=141) had association with a mean that was numerically higher at 3.5, with SD at 1.245. More precisely, mean scores had values, respectively of 3.476, 3.462, 3.483 and 3.565. All of the values lay above the 2.5 midpoint upon the 5-point Likert scale, whilst average SD had a value of

1.272, which showed low dispersion amongst the scores of respondents about the mean average; this showed that participants were in agreement with the measures of the scale. These results mean that most respondents consider that MEP is a major factor for the selection of leadership styles. Thus, the third dimension of transactional leadership, Management by Exception (Passive) (MEP), is a leadership style where leaders show up and become visible when issues emerge in the workplace. Adam (2015) points out that management by exception (passive) refers to those leaders who only get involved if a problem occurs. MEP is when problems are brought to the leaders' attention, and they react and take action (Bass, 1998). A leader who is transactional, then, is someone who would tend to find it very difficult to drive or stimulate followers to perform in ways that are beyond expectations nor would they tend to develop strong emotional ties with followers. Such a leader only takes action if an error has happened; transactional leaders intervene when performance is not matching expectations or there is a failure to meet standards and, in such instances, the response of the transactional leader may be the administering of punishment. One of the flaws of transactional leadership style is that employees may feel disappointed and not motivated that a manager only seems to notice them and talk to them if something has gone wrong. A sound worker, who has been meeting targets every year, for example, may feel there is a lack of appreciation or lack of recognition for their efforts. Such an approach would mean the manager practices by way of management by exception of the passive kind. Webb (2007), however, stated that both passive and active kinds of management by exception have a negative correlation with KS. Bass and Avolio (2004) consider active kinds of management by exception as being neither an ineffective

nor effective type of transactional leadership. Avolio and Bass (2004:98) argue "in this regard, passive management-by exception is similar to laissez-faire leadership styles – or no leadership."

6.4.4. Laissez-Faire (LF)

Laissez-Faire (LF) leadership style represents a leader who does not engage with followers and avoids making decisions, and fails to take action and stays away from situations in which problems or challenges are likely to arise. It is the avoidance or lack of leadership style where a laissez faire leader's behaviour shirks their responsibilities, not making necessary decisions, failing to follow up on issues, delaying actions, and not making use of authority (Bass, 1998). According to Bass (2004), laissez-faire leaders have no confidence in their own ability to supervise; they bury themselves in paperwork, delegate too much responsibility to employees, set no clear goals, and do not help their group to make decisions. Leaders who adopt a laissez faire leadership style, do not provide feedback to their followers and do not use rewards systems to satisfy the needs of their followers. The employees under laissez-faire leadership style are left on their own to work as they see fit. Basically, laissez-faire leaders are passive and inactive; they do not make necessary decisions, fail to follow up on issues, delay actions and do not make use of authority. In a sense, it is a lack of any kind of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003; Northouse 2016).

For the purpose of this study and in order to measure the study construct Laissez-faire (LF), four items were utilised. The average mean score was 4.124, whilst the male group (N=151) had association with the mean 4.0215, with SD at 1.212 in comparison to the female group (N=141) which associated with a mean that

was higher numerically at 4.099, with SD at 1.074, as shown in Table 5.4. More precisely, the mean scores were, respectively at values of 4.147, 4.113, 4.134 and 4.103. The participants agreed that there was a belief in LF, and respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with those other statements. Also, it showed that size of effect was minimal with r = -0.023 upon the variation between those two groups; this explained 0.1% of the respondent score total variance upon the scale of the LF.

In GSEC, a laissez-faire style of leadership tends to be perceived as having a negative impact on KS, as followers are given little direction or incentive by the leader. However, Cherry (2010) takes an opposite view and suggests that leaders with the laissez-faire style can be effective if group members have high levels of skill and motivation and can work unsupervised. Thus, the laissez-faire style may be effective in situations where the jobs of employees involve creativity and high responsibility levels and where the staff are guided by personal aspirations. This view is supported by the belief that employees are experienced, knowledgeable about their jobs and therefore they should be left alone to do as they see fit and do not need anyone breathing down their necks. Laissez-faire leadership style may be said to be the opposite of the active leadership styles of transformational and transactional leadership styles. A study conducted by Erkutlu (2008) found that the laissez-faire kind of leadership style may produce low levels of satisfaction and commitment within an organisation. The current study findings indicate that the laissez-faire style of leadership correlated with followers who seem satisfied with the low level of leadership visibility.

GSEC, as a sensitive and complex organisation, is still run in a traditional way where openness and innovative ideas to drive KS is still work in progress. The organisation has evolved but traditions passed down from generation to generation make change difficult to occur. However, recent events suggest that GSEC is shifting their thinking and makes KS accepted and sought after. This is clearly due to growing pressure for the Federal Government to improve, deliver and achieve excellence in the quality of public services in line with the UAE 2030 Vision.

6.5 Transactional leadership and KS

The main theme that emerges from the literature is that transactional leadership plays a major role in driving the organisational knowledge sharing based on the transactional leadership main drivers:

1. Rewards and punishments can act as motivators for enhancing employee performance

2. Individuals perform best when the chain of command is clear and well-defined

3. Following leaders' instructions and obeying commands is the primary goal for followers

4. Employees are closely monitored to ensure expectations are met.

The above transactional leadership drivers create a work environment where knowledge sharing in an organisation is likely to succeed. In today's turbulent economic climate, knowledge sharing is critical in organisations (Foss & Pederson, 2002) in order to gain competitive advantage. These study findings

demonstrate that the transactional style of leadership is in tune with GSEC employees' KS perception. There seems to be more of a positive response from employees towards a system of work if the tasks are clearly defined and the performance expectations and targets are spelled out unambiguously. Moreover, respondents appeared to favour their performance and KS being related to reward and recognition. It seems, therefore, that transactional leadership style within GSEC is useful in enhancing the performance of employees and stimulating KS amongst employees and this in turn helps operational and strategic goals to be delivered effectively at GSEC in line with the federal government vision 2030. The literature appears to be coherent. Alam, Abdullah, Ishak, and Zain (2009) argue that there is a significant correlation between knowledge sharing and the contingent reward system. This view is supported by Yao, Kam, and Chan (2007) who claim that lack of rewards, incentives, and recognition have been found to be a major obstacle. This finding is consistent with the literature which indicates that Transactional leaders are reactive not proactive. They intervene when problems arise, whereas transformational leaders are more likely to address issues before they get out of hand. Management by exception is, "when leaders transact with followers by focusing on mistakes, delaying decisions, or avoiding intervening until something has gone wrong, or rewards focused on recognising the work accomplished" (Howell & Avolio 1993: 892).

6.6 Summary of the findings

The conclusion that can be drawn from the above discussion suggests that all three of the leadership styles seem to have their particular weaknesses and strengths, though in regard to this study, it can be stated that transformational

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and transactional leadership styles appear to have greater suitability in the context of GSEC than that of the laissez-faire style of leadership. Findings show argued that GSEC, as a complex organisation, is led by a wide range of leadership styles. There is neither a standardised leadership style, nor a clear-cut difference between GSEC leaders. There are varying degrees of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire practices of leadership in GSEC depending on each department. There are many different contexts within which leadership can apply, and the style of leadership itself is not a consistent and a static form of behaviour. Leadership is a behaviour that is profoundly influenced by the culture and setting of an organisation and this no more so than in the UAE which consists of a blend of traditional values of respect for status and tribal spirit which are difficult to challenge or shift. This has led to a perpetuation of traditional leadership roles and expectations.

The findings suggest that different leadership styles influence employees' knowledge-sharing initiatives in different ways. According to Wu and Lee (2017), leadership skills and awareness enhance the followers, which in turn stimulates their knowledge sharing within the work environment. It can be argued that the four main dimensions of transformational leadership may be employed by GSEC managers to boost the followers` willingness to make extra efforts and engage in knowledge sharing initiatives in the organisation. GSEC leaders realise that their behaviours impact directly on knowledge creation and sharing in the organisation. In short, leaders embolden their followers to be creative, take initiative, and express their ideas, then they can feel confident and empowered because they feel that their ideas will be supported by leaders (Bass and Avolio, 2004).

This finding is consistent with the literature which indicates that transactional leaders are reactive not proactive which may not stimulate and drive KS in a dynamic way. In contrast, the study findings suggest that transactional and transformational leadership styles have a positive association with knowledge sharing practices (Nguyen, 2009). The current study findings indicate that the laissez-faire style of leadership correlated with followers who seem satisfied with the low level of leadership visibility.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to interpret the findings attained from the collected quantitative data using questionnaires in line with the research objectives. It will link the study findings to the literature review to demonstrate where and how this study fits within the overall leadership styles and its influence on the knowledge sharing (KS) debate. It is worth recapping at this stage that this study aimed to identify the drivers and enablers of employee knowledge sharing (KS) within GSEC in the UAE and whether leadership styles have a direct bearing on stimulating and driving employee knowledge sharing at GSEC. This study sought to determine the challenges that impede knowledge creation and knowledge sharing that could potentially enhance GSEC employee performance. GSEC is operating in a complex and dynamic work environment; to achieve success GSEC needs to enhance KS driven by effective leadership styles to achieve the UAE 2030 Vision. For this reason, developing leadership skills and a knowledge sharing culture has become a priority for many organisations globally since it first emerged in the human resource management narrative. The pertinence and merit of effective leadership skills that drive and motivate employees to maximise performance through knowledge creation and knowledge sharing cannot be overstressed. The ability of leadership to drive KS is a key success factor to counter economic volatility and the shortage of skilled workforce in the UAE. The study limitations are highlighted within this chapter, along with the discussion of the contribution

to knowledge and the identification of potential future research areas.

7.2 Positioning this study within the leadership and KS literature.

The topic of leadership generates much interest and conflicting views from diverse stakeholders such as academics, politicians and business experts. The common theme that emerges from the literature is that there is no single theory or approach that defines or explains leadership. The concept of leadership is described in literature by many definitions, many of which are confusing (Yukl, 2008). For some leadership is an 'umbrella term', implying a range of meanings often overlapping with power, influence etc. The meaning of leadership is understood differently in a large body of literature (Mullins, 2010). In its generic sense, leadership is understood to mean the ability to influence a group toward achieving a vision or set of goals (Northouse 2016; Robbins & Judge 2008). Leadership has been extensively researched and investigated from various perspectives, different settings and through different lenses, as can be demonstrated by the prolific research publications. However, there are still several grey areas and questions which remain unanswered because the majority of studies tend to focus on highlighting leaders' characteristics and attributes and investigating the main leadership models, theories and styles to find out which leadership style is most suitable for different organisational settings. The majority of studies on leadership styles seem to be regularly adapted in many parts of the world, without taking into account the employee mind-set and cultural and organisational differences. The literature also suggests that the relationship between leadership styles and KS is complex. However, there is a consensus among authors that there is a positive correlation between

leadership styles and KS. Leadership is viewed as a blend of individual behaviours and traits of leaders in addition to patterns of interactions, and the relationships of roles among leaders. Leaders are of many different types and leadership is multifaceted and a complex combination of abilities and traits.

The main theme that emerged from the broad literature is that many studies about leadership are similar and often repetitive in content and form. Although leadership theories have evolved over the years, the majority of current studies merely discuss the same models, theories and styles to find out the impact of leadership effectiveness in different organisational settings. Thus, it can be argued that the leadership debate has reached a conceptual impasse as it has rarely managed to move beyond the descriptive stage.

Leadership theories can be divided into two main streams. Traditional leadership theories tend to focus on identifying the traits and attributes of the individual leader demonstrates. These theories claim that great leaders are born not made. The assumption is that leaders are born to lead, they have innate qualities necessary to lead people. Although, leadership theories and views have later shifted their views to focus on situational and contingency leadership, the Great Man leadership style still prevails in many corners of the globe. Regarding transformational and transactional leadership, the main argument is that leadership styles of the individual leader must be adaptable, and their style matched to the specific situation or mind-sets of the employees.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the depth and breadth of the debate on leadership, is that although many are views are useful, and provide fresh and insightful perspectives, there is limited consensus on the way leadership

definitions, theories and styles are interpreted. Although research on leadership has come a long over the last decades, there has been little change to the leadership conceptual base. In general, the main leadership dimensions have remained the same. The leadership theoretical base presents fragmented and often overlapping changes in the way leadership is interpreted and defined but this new leadership debate is less about substance.

It can be argued that a universal model of leadership style or a paradigm style of leadership that fits everywhere is unrealistic. A particular style of leadership that is suitable for a certain organisation is not necessarily appropriate for another. A leadership style is often the result of the personal values, beliefs, experience and cultural identity that have shaped it. At the level of the organisation, the style of leadership has been influenced strongly by the culture of that organisation; leadership within the public sector organisations, such as GSEC, requires different styles compared to that within private companies. The UAE presents a blend of traditional values of respect for status and tribal spirit which are difficult to challenge or shift. This has led to a preservation of traditional gender roles and expectations. The conclusion that can be drawn from the debate on leadership is that there is a lack of conclusive empirical evidence that has been put forward that defines leadership and what makes a good leader. There is still a need to raise the leadership debate to a new level. Moreover, it seems that the debate on leadership is confined to extensive research on transactional and transformational styles, despite the emergence recently of new labels of leadership styles such as human, ethical, emotional, adaptive, servant leadership etc. From the theory of the 'Great Man' through to the adaptive style of leadership, there has been a tendency for research to concentrate upon those in powerful

positions and leaders that are considered as heroes. However, Useem (2001) points out, researchers ought not to seek a perfect leadership definition but rather seek a strong notion of what the attributes are of sound leadership. As such, rather than being a panacea that has magical skills, a definition of leadership ought to demonstrate the skills and talents demonstrated in achieving the mission objectives of an organisation. According to Useem (2001:2) "Leadership is at its best when its vision is strategic, the voice persuasive and the results tangible. In the study of leadership, an exact definition is not essential but guiding concepts are needed."

Although the command-and-control leadership style is considered rather obsolete and ineffective in today's complex environment, it is still common in many Middle Eastern countries. The style often leads to resentment and discontent amongst employees who have feelings of disempowerment. However, this traditional style of leadership many be appropriate in some specific circumstances and in some organisations, as it is wanted or expected by followers. It has been argued by critical theorists that leadership "is and must be socially critical, it does not reside in an individual but in the relationship between individuals, and it is oriented towards social vision and change, not simply organisational goals" (Foster, 1989: 46 cited in Gunter, 2001).

To conclude, leadership is not robotic; it must have a human touch, must engage and stay close to the employees and work environment, be flexible, adaptable and ready to address the issues as they arise. These attributes are particularly important when the public sector is undergoing transition, restructuring and extensive reform as is currently the case with the GSEC. The broad literature stresses that employees working under leaders who are receptive and build a

strong trust and who engage employees in the decision-making processes feel more prepared and at ease in sharing their knowledge and expertise in their organisation without fear or suspicion (Tse and Mitchell, 2010). This is the case in several GSEC departments where employees feel that their leaders have confidence in them, trust in their capabilities, care about their work and appreciate their efforts to create knowledge and welcome fresh ideas. As such, they will be more willing to give their opinions and are more likely to share knowledge (Lee et al., 2010).

To implement successfully a KS strategy, there is a need to move away from the principle of carry on regardless, or business as usual by addressing the current barriers and establishing new perspectives and ideas, working in ways that are often at odds with the existing practices embedded within the organisational culture. Leadership styles have a direct bearing on the choice, motivation, and the ability of knowledge sharing. Leaders can drive knowledge sharing and knowledge exchange using clear communication channels and providing the atmosphere and incentives and rewards to the employees. Leaders' skills and experience in finding ways of working without resorting to power explicitly is very significant. It can often be a waste of valuable time and energy to try and achieve change through a show of strength. A study conducted by Singh (2008), found that there is a strong positive relationship between knowledge management, team work and delegating responsibilities by styles of leadership. Moreover, much of the literature stresses that knowledge sharing is a key driver that enhances employees' performance in an organisation (Lee, 2001; Verdu-Jover, 2008; Yang, 2007a). In turn, leadership style is viewed as an influencing factor in boosting the knowledge sharing culture. (Berg, Dean, Gottschalk, & Karlsen,

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2008). As expressed by Lance Secretan in Industry Week in 1998: "Leadership is not so much about technique and a method as it is about opening the heart. Leadership is about inspiration - of oneself and of others. Great leadership is about human experiences, not processes. Leadership is not a formula or a program, it is a human activity that comes from the heart and considers the hearts of others. It is an attitude, not a routine."

7.3 Linking findings to the study research questions

This study focuses on investigating whether leadership styles at GSEC has a direct impact on employee KS. The following table sums up the key findings in line with the research questions set by this study:

Table 7.1 Linking findings to the study research questions

	Research Questions	Findings
1	*What are the main leadership styles practised at GSEC?*	The findings of this study indicate that GSEC, considered as one the biggest public organisations in the UAE, has multilayers of leadership hierarchy. Findings suggest that leadership styles at GSEC are not one size fits all i.e., they are neither uniform nor standardised across all departments. More often than not, GSEC exhibits a blend of leadership styles which work in harmony to operate such an important and sensitive organisation. Thus, leadership styles in this vast organisation vary from one GSEC department to another. Traditional Follow me - Command and Control leadership styles - still exist but transactional and transformational leadership styles are practised by some leaders according to respondents. Although KS has been explored in developed economies from different perspectives and contextualised within diverse organisational settings, it

		remains under-researched and less appealing in developing countries, particularly those with strong social and cultural traditions and values. This is notably the case in the UAE.
2	*What are the challenges and barriers impeding knowledge sharing at GSEC?*	GSEC in the UAE is operating in a rapidly changing social, economic and political environment. KS is a key driver of organisational success and growth. The effort to implement a KS strategy at GSEC is experiencing slow progress due partly to its complex and sensitive nature which has proved challenging to coordinate between various departments. GSEC is an organisation where leadership styles are still influenced by traditional and cultural values especially in some departments due to resistance to change by some senior leaders. Findings showed that the level of understanding and awareness about the importance of KS in driving the organisational performance is rather low. Findings showed some unwillingness of employees to participate in knowledge exchange. Findings showed that there is no clear strategy or agenda within GSEC to sustain the organisation's knowledge. Many participants suggested that GSEC employees are not sufficiently informed and trained about the relevance of KS, and as a result experienced employee knowledge is wasted contributing to the fact that some departments are not performing to their full potential. Traditional leadership styles and practices at GSEC still exist, and there is resistance to change. Findings showed a mix of traditional and modern leadership styles and practices that distinguish the organisational

		culture of the United Arab Emirates and GSEC in particular. Religious faith in the United Arab Emirates plays a major role in all walks of life. Findings suggest that adopting a western style leadership in GSEC the UAE may not be suitable because western countries have a long tradition of leadership change and may not operate successfully due to the cultural and traditional discrepancies. Leadership training and KS programmes do not exist in many departments, while training has become a tick box exercise in other departments which has affected the level of motivation to share knowledge. Lack of employee recognition and involvement and empowerment often impedes the spread of KS culture and leads employees to knowledge hoarding. There is no consistent and reliable measurement of the potential of individuals in terms of promotions and incentives. There is no clear reward system which drives employees to engage in KS There is inadequate training and awareness of the importance of KS There is excessive employee turnover from public to private organisations for better incentives and salary There is a lack of coordination between different departments There is a lack of evaluating facilities, infrastructure, IT and HR duties The drivers and enablers of KS stem mainly from

		involving and improving the employees' reward system and work enthusiasm, increasing their emotional attachment to GSEC
3	*Is there a relationship between leadership styles and employee knowledge sharing?*	Findings indicated that leadership attributes such as interpersonal influence, leaders' skills in solving problems, communication skills that energise the subordinates and provide a vision of the future, goals, and purpose, contribute greatly to KS. Leaders' actions drive intellectual stimulation for followers to solve problems, face challenges, and deal with obstacles in a creative way. Leaders have the skills to manage the individual. Leaders seek to know each individual and develop their knowledge and be ready to share it. It was found that leaders' role and skills that drive KS are: • Attract and retain talent to enhance KS • Drive strategy execution, creating organisational KS culture. • Leadership demonstrates engagement and involvement in strengthening KS to improve performance. • Increase organisational agility and KS in delivering change. The respondents indicated that a transformational leadership style exists in some GSEC departments which is conducive to and enables KS initiatives among employees, but more often than not a traditional leadership style impacts negatively on KS practices. Findings showed that there is a close relationship between the behaviour of leaders and employee KS. It was found that KS amongst employees is driven by leaders who are receptive and approachable using a

		clear reward system which drives employees to engage in KS
4	*What are the enablers and drivers of KS amongst employees?*	In the dynamic economic development environment of today's UAE, knowledge has become one of the important assets of an organisation. The process of generating, capturing, organising, sharing and analysing knowledge in a way that is easily accessible to employees is crucial to organisations' survival and sustainability. Thus, effective knowledge implementation is becoming more pertinent than ever for sustaining competitive advantage The study findings revealed that there are a number of drivers that correlated significantly and contribute to creating a culture of sharing knowledge amongst employees at GSEC. These drivers can be summed up as follows: • A review of the current KS status in terms of knowledge creation, knowledge infrastructure, knowledge processing, sharing and storing capabilities • Identify and assess the current key knowledge workers within the organisation and measure against the future needs and talent shortfall of the organisation • Management commitment and support to drive KS initiatives • Forecast future skills and knowledge needed to recruit staff with specialised knowledge and expertise • Reward and recognise knowledge holders' expertise input and their role in transferring and encouraging knowledge sharing and cross fertilisation within the organisation

		• Empower employees to create, take initiative, and problem solve
		• Prepare KS strategy through effective training KS programme
		• Assess the critical knowledge needs and prioritise business requirements
		• Promote teamwork spirit and collaboration and KS
		• Enhance communication among employees
		• Suppress negative behaviour towards knowledge management and sharing
		• Ensure leadership supports the KS activities and are fully aware of the KS boosters - inspirational motivation, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, management by exception, contingent rewards.
		The current study findings are consistent with previous studies such as Salavati & Reshadat (2014), Marhraoui and El Manouar (2017).

As can be seen, the above table captures all the elements that form part of the link between leadership styles and their impact on knowledge sharing processes as substantiated by previous studies and supported by the findings of the present study. This study examined the dominant leadership styles within GSEC in the UAE and their impact on employee KS practices. It sought to determine whether the leadership styles practised within GSEC have a direct bearing on driving or impeding employee KS initiatives. The gist of the above suggests that there has been extensive research undertaken on leadership theories and styles providing insights that have proved beneficial to both decision-makers and researchers though much of the literature suggests theories are recurrent, duplicated with

anecdotal practical evidence. Moreover, leadership styles or theories that may work well in some parts of the world, may not do so in other parts. For example, there are considerable differences between the cultures of the Middle East and the west. Leadership styles are deeply influenced by cultural background. The current leadership research contextualised in the Middle East is steeped in prescriptive, rather than analytical, empirical research.

As this current study has shown, there can be considerable constraints from the clash between the cultural background of a leader and the claims made for new styles of leadership such as the transformational and transactional leadership styles. Leaders play a vital role in managing the organisational knowledge sharing and the financial rewards and recognition from transactional leadership encourage knowledge sharing in organisation. The leadership styles, transformational and transactional, can drive KS in organisation

7.4 Linking key findings to the research objectives of the study

The broad theme that emerged from the literature review is that transformational and transactional leadership styles have a better chance in driving KS and building trust and loyalty amongst followers. For instance, leaders who are transformational encourage and inspire followers into supporting mission objectives and organisational visions and such a leadership style encourages the followers to take responsibility, have some control over their work and be more willing to have a sense of team-working (Waite, 2008).

Findings indicated that GSEC is a pyramid of multiple levels of hierarchy, with a tradition of top-down chain of command-and-control style of leadership. The

respondents indicated that a transformational leadership style is common in some departments, but leadership styles differ from one department to another according to the leaders' attributes and experience. Results showed that a ready-made and imported leadership style and the use of pre-fabricated instruments for data collection when examining leadership styles have shown some limitations. They may not work if applied to the setting of the GCC countries, in particular the UAE. The majority of studies on leadership are western oriented so they often fail to take into account the vast cultural, political and organisational differences from the GCC region. The leadership styles suggested in these studies assume a stable work environment and ignore political and organisational structure and cultural influencing factors and are not suitable for specific contexts such as GSEC in the UAE. Findings confirm that a single leadership style that fits everywhere is unrealistic.

The study findings revealed that, in general, the leadership of the GSEC is perceived by employees as doing a good job. However, this sentiment is not shared by everyone. Moreover, the study findings showed that leadership styles in the GSEC and the practices of leadership are predominantly in the hands of powerful leaders who have traditional ways of thinking and working. Leaders in GSEC hold strong Islamic values and their behaviours are seen as being of the transactional and transformational style of leadership. Some participants criticised the leadership of the GSEC. However, although its adoption of traditional approaches to leadership were perceived as being inadequate to address the new challenges that the UAE faces, the UAE's progressive economic development and its citizens' high standards of living demonstrate a level of skilful and competent leadership.

This study found that a style of leadership works better if it is 'home grown' within the organisation, rather than attempting to import a western model. This study believes that leadership roles or positions in the GSEC in the future should be nurtured and developed through schemes for succession and systems for management of talent in order to ensure that the right leaders are in the right place.

The study findings revealed that within the GSEC, despite some inclination for a transformational leadership style, there is still a reliance on a top-down style of management and the culture and tradition means that there is little democratic debate over transition. GSEC has to adopt leadership styles that are distributed rather than centralised upon one leader without compromising the cultural and traditional values of the UAE.

Current studies stress that leadership styles play a key motivating role in promoting KS and thus driving organisational success in public and private organisations. The results showed that KS processes in GSEC are not adequate. However, there are various organisational strengths that exist in GSEC that can help stimulate employee KS. It is worth stressing that if the vision and mission objectives of UAE 2030 are to be fully achieved, there is a need for a policy of total transparency with a commitment to giving all employees a good working environment and clear schemes for reward so as to motivate and inspire them to create and share knowledge. The following table links the findings to the study's research objectives:

Table 7.2 Linking findings to the study research objectives

Research objectives	Findings
1) To evaluate the current leadership styles and knowledge sharing practices at GSEC	The findings of this study confirm that leadership styles at GSEC are diverse. Findings indicate that GSEC is a complex and multifaceted organisation which appears to be a pyramid of multiple levels of hierarchy, with a traditional top-down chain of command-and-control style of leadership. This is consistent, in many ways with UAE society which is characterised by strong traditional cultural and tribal values which are dominant in all walks of life and this is clearly reflected in GSEC where modern and traditional leadership styles co-exist side by side. Leadership styles at GSEC are varied according to the department and the individual leader. Some respondents indicated that the transformational leadership style does exist at GSEC, which consists of leaders who encourage, inspire and drive employees to innovate and create knowledge, to deliver change that will enhance performance and sustain the future success of the organisation. This is accomplished by setting an example at the executive level through a strong sense of corporate culture, employee ownership and independence in the workplace. Thus, GSEC leaders' attributes and experiences and styles are not uniform.
2) To identify the challenges and barriers hindering knowledge sharing at GSEC.	Findings suggest that there is lack of a broadly enabling environment which does not create the right conditions for KS. In other words, there is a lack of knowledge sharing culture, trust and motivation. Findings revealed that GSEC's specific organisational structure and cultural influencing factors can obstruct KS (such as 'Wasta', Arabic for connections, traditional management styles, bureaucracy)

| | Many leaders tend to only play a marginal role in any of the activities or initiatives for KS. As such, KS initiatives are driven by lower-level managers, and lack the dynamic leadership commitment.

While some leaders may be aware of KS initiatives and policies, their role remains limited to approving goals and resources. It is a minimalistic approach, which does not have the driving force behind it to achieve significant changes to the overall KS framework of the organisation.

Results revealed that KS processes are management driven – there is little team spirit or employee empowerment.

Findings showed the presence of resistance to change by senior employees.

Findings revealed that there is no clear strategy and vision within GSEC for KS.

Findings suggested that there is little synergy and coordination between the different GSEC key stakeholders.

There are challenges and difficulties when applying knowledge management, pertaining to the role of culture. Culture acts as a critical determinant of the willingness and ease of adoption of KS initiatives. The heavy reliance on expatriates to carry out all tasks and do all jobs has become a hindrance to KS amongst Emiratis.

There is little senior management commitment and a lack of making knowledge useable. |
|---|---|

	There is little employee encouragement or motivation to share knowledge as there is no clear rewards and recognition system.
3) To determine the enablers and drivers of knowledge sharing	- Proactive leadership support and commitment for creating a KS environment - Identify key knowledge holders - Devise clear organisational rewards and incentives for knowledge workers to share their experience and knowledge - Create an organisational KS culture with a solid KS system infrastructure and quality - Well-organised and interactive communication - Clear KS policy incentives - Long-term KS strategic planning - Develop a transparent work structure - Create a strong trust and minimise distrust - Align knowledge sharing (KS) goals with organisational mission objectives - Focus on enhancing employee motivation - Encourage employee empowerment and participation in decision making - Develop an effective employee training and development programme - Set the short- and long-term departmental targets by engaging knowledge workers and management in understanding the rationale for KS. - Enhance the current communication channels with knowledge workers and clearly explain the importance and benefits of KS - Learn about knowledge workers' mind-sets and how knowledge could be shared to allow employees to be more creative and productive - Organise an open debate about resistance against KS, finding out about the need for KS, promote a KS culture, and build a trust between

	the leadership and knowledge workers and provide a transparent scheme of incentives for knowledge workers to share their knowledge.
4) To examine the impact of leadership styles on employee knowledge sharing	Leadership plays a vital role in creating a KS environment

Findings showed that there is a close relationship between the leadership role and KS development. It was found that KS initiatives are driven by leaders who are receptive and approachable.

Leadership skills and attributes generate inspirational motivation, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration and contingent rewards

Leaders' positive and dynamic behaviours lead to the strengthening of team work and KS amongst employee which in turns lead to improve performance.

Leaders enable organisational agility and KS in delivering change

GSEC leadership needs to have a clear diagnosis of the organisation's knowledge needs and future priorities, and plan to strengthen its KS capacity through an explicit strategy for change. The organisation's leadership must allocate adequate financial and human resources to implement and sustain the KS initiatives. |
| 5) To analyse the extent to which western leadership styles and knowledge sharing models can be applied within GSEC | Findings revealed that 'imported' western leadership styles and KS models which fit and work well in a stable and well-established organisational setting, may be incompatible in the UAE due to glaring differences in political and organisational structure and cultural and traditional influencing values.

Leadership styles and KS models are often not exportable because they are too specific and they have |

	not been tested within a different organisational and cultural setting such as the UAE. Western KS models are team driven whereas in the UAE decision making is top down; there is little team engagement or empowerment. The research findings suggest that it is likely that a leadership style and a knowledge sharing model that are designed abroad will not be fit for purpose. A leadership style and a knowledge sharing model ought to emerge from within the UAE so that it is in harmony with the native development strategies and the particular economic, political and social context.

Developed by the present researcher

7.5 Recommendations

This study explored the styles of leadership in the GSEC and the extent to which these have an impact on employee KS. Respondents provided mixed where some suggested that a traditional and follow me leadership style exists in some GSEC departments while others indicated that transformational and transactional leadership styles exist. This study takes the view that leadership styles at GSEC are neither completely autocratic nor entirely transformational. The leadership landscape is progressively shifting from the traditional style where leaders are remote and elevated, to leaders that are open, servant, adaptive and distributed. That shift in style of leadership has been spurred on by several key motivating factors. Firstly, the economic boom in the Middle East has completely transformed the region from nomadic tribal states to affluent modern societies. Secondly, the Arab Spring has posed serious threats to the ruling class. Change is happening so fast that the old-fashioned leadership are unable to cope alone.

Thirdly, the advent of information technology and social media have changed people's perceptions regarding what 21st century leadership should be, expecting a role that is much broader than in the past.

Based on the quantitative findings, the following recommendations will be made to the GSEC leadership:

- Evaluate the current GSEC leadership styles, KS processes and creative capabilities of the workforce in order to identify the gaps and weaknesses to determine the future needs of the organisation.

- Develop a shared vision of KS across GSEC departments which engages practitioners, GSEC leaders and nationally with government and other UAE organisations to explore best practice to benefit leadership and the development of KS and idea creation initiatives.

- Consider the potential role of other providers in knowledge management training and knowledge sharing initiatives including other public sector leadership academies, the private sector, and other institutions to benefit GSEC.

- Review and adjust periodically the criteria for identifying, attracting, developing, and retaining the GSEC workforce to recruit the leadership expertise and talent pool for future plans.

- Create an organisational culture that promotes knowledge sharing and innovation development through employee feedback processes.

- Provide regular coaching, mentoring, and feedback and discussions that focus on driving employee sharing and knowledge sharing for boosting career development so that the employee feels valued and recognised.

- Outline a transparent and effective KS strategy tailored for GSEC, taking into account its specificity and characteristics, that is continuously reviewed and updated and involves the participation and contribution of leadership and employees in key decisions and allows for sharing knowledge experiences.

- Ensure promotion of better coordination amongst key departments for the sharing of good leadership practice.

- Promote transformational leadership approaches as they are appropriate to a variety of circumstances.

- Provide incentives such as benefits, recognition and praise in a way that is personalised so that performance can be sustained.

- Train leaders on how to build leadership trust so that a working environment that is friendly can be created.

7.6 Contribution to knowledge

The findings of this study are consistent with similar studies within the broad literature about exploring the influence of leadership styles on employee KS practices and activities in various sectors. In view of the dearth of academic research conducted within the UAE context, particularly within GSEC, this study makes a contribution to knowledge in several ways. It has provided a platform for further in-depth research into the leadership styles and the challenges and drivers of implementing KS processes by expanding the literature which will benefit future academic research. Much of the literature on leadership and KS processes has been conducted within western countries' settings. This area of interest remains under-researched in the UAE. Moreover, the current literature on the influence of leadership styles on employee KS initiatives is rather fragmented and descriptive;

this study contributes towards enriching this topic which is under researched in the Middle East. Therefore, the findings will enable management to formulate a KS strategy.

This study makes also a practical contribution to knowledge as the key findings of this research build on the existing body of knowledge concerning the development of leadership skills and employee KS in the UAE. It also provides fresh insights about the enablers and challenges of KS within a public organisational setting.

7.7 Contribution to practice

This research is expected to benefit GSEC decision makers and policy makers in raising awareness of how current leadership styles impact upon employee KS. In addition, the findings will help identify the weaknesses of the current leadership styles to enable skills in leadership to be developed and utilised in fostering an organisational culture based on KS. The implications of the study findings are likely to impact upon the coaching and mentoring of employees in ways that drive KS and enhance the role of leadership in an organisation that aims at achieving greater effectiveness. The findings will help formulate a future innovation agenda by effectively exploiting current data from surveys. This study makes recommendations based on the data on how to develop a KS strategy with consideration of contribution to policy. The findings of the study aimed at empirically supporting GSEC leadership to put KS on the top of their agenda. Finally, the results of the study will contribute to finding a solution through raising awareness about effectively improving GSEC leadership skills and putting forward a KS vision.

7.8 Contribution to theory

This study has provided a platform for further in-depth research into the leadership styles and the challenges and drivers of implementing KS processes by expanding the literature which will benefit future academic research. Much of the literature on leadership and KS processes has been conducted within developed countries' settings. This area of research remains under-researched in the UAE, particularly in the public sector.

7.9 Limitations of the study

It is commonly acknowledged that no research is perfect and limitations are part of research and this study is no exception. The scope and strength of the research outcomes has been constrained by several factors. This research was confined to investigating the drivers and enablers of employee knowledge sharing (KS) and the role leadership styles play in developing a KS culture within the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (GSEC) in line with the 2030 Vision in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The limitations of this study can be summed up as follows:

7.9.1 Generalisability

The sample study has been restricted to GSEC in the UAE making the findings of the present study limited to similar organisations and companies operating in the GCC countries. The findings, although very useful, may not be generalisable to other business sectors in the UAE due to the complex and sensitive organisational environment and context within GSEC. In addition, the target population of the questionnaire sample could have been greater. At the time of data collection, GSEC was undergoing major organisational restructuring where

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several departments were merged and others were simply terminated. Although the response rate from the questionnaire was good, the research would have provided more meaningful data had a larger number of respondents taking part. The data collated may therefore only provide a limited insight into the influence of leadership styles practised at GSEC on driving KS initiatives.

7.9.2 Quality of the data

The respondents were asked to answer the questions based on their experiences, involvement and expectations of dealing with GSEC leadership styles and the creation and sharing of knowledge. The quality of the data obtained from such an approach might be open to bias, although all necessary precautions were taken to enhance reliability and accuracy of the data and minimise bias. Completely unbiased research is not always possible. The data reported in this study may thus need to be treated with some caution as it might be subjective in parts.

7.9.3 The present researcher as an insider researcher

As a member of staff at GSEC, the researcher is not entirely neutral of the study. The study findings may have been different if the identity of the researcher was unknown. Although the researcher ensured anonymity through the online survey, the researcher believes that the study findings may have been different if employees felt that they could be more open and critical of their experience of leadership styles practised at GSEC. Thus, bias may be inevitable despite the effort by the researcher to minimise it.

Time limitations had a negative impact upon the study. Time constraints were a

restrictive factor as the researcher had to navigate between personal and professional responsibilities, family duties and research commitment which led to further pressure and impacted on the quality of the research. With greater time available it would have been possible to collect and analyse larger sets of data.

Another potential limitation could be attributed to the fact that this study adopted a theoretical leadership and a quantitative survey instrument that were developed in the Western context to define the leaders' leadership styles and employee KS. Therefore, it is suggested to investigate and develop more locally relevant understanding of leadership and KS that arises through more qualitative inductive, open-ended and exploratory modes of enquiry. A more expanded scope of the data would potentially provide deeper and broader insights into GSEC leadership styles and their impact on employee KS to enhance organisational performance.

7.10 Suggestions for future research

This research examined relationships between the leaders' behaviours at GSEC and the drivers of KS through the laissez-faire, transactional and transformational styles of leadership adopting a mono-method quantitative data collection. Research in the future could investigate the relationship between leadership styles and their role in stimulating KS using mixed methods, both quantitative and qualitative sets of data. Some relevant suggestions regarding leadership styles and employee KS are provided as follows:

1. This study has critically reviewed the broad literature related to leadership styles and their impact on employee KS and has provided a useful platform to build on for further research studies. Further research is necessary to

understand the importance of employee KS within a sensitive sector such as GSEC in the UAE

2. A comparative study could be conducted with the private sector to identify the development of best practice of KS enablers and drivers. Such extensive research is likely to reveal interesting insights.

3. Research could be conducted using a broad population sample involving other sectors for identifying the sources of the problems facing leadership styles and KS initiatives.

4. Future research should examine the grey area of leadership styles and KS measurement tools and their success rates.

5. In-depth research needs to be conducted in order to find out how GSEC leaders can be trained to enhance KS and knowledge creation leadership skills.

6. Research on KS and the role played by leadership styles in boosting KS is under-researched in the UAE. It would be interesting to introduce a knowledge management department or section within GSEC. It would also be beneficial to evaluate the success rate of a clear KS strategy, determining what works well and what does not.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire

Section 1: Participants demographic information

Please tick one box for each question that is appropriate to you to allow the assessment of answers and views.

1. What is your gender?
□ Male   □ Female

2. What is your age group?
18 – 21 - 30 Years □ 31 - 40 Years □ 41 - 50 Years □

3. What is your highest qualification?
Bachelor □ Masters □ Ph.D. or equivalent □

4. How long have you been working at the GSEC?
1 – 5 or less □ 6 - 10 Years □ 11 – 15 Years □ 16 – 20 Years □ 21 or more □

Section two: leadership style

Please answer the following statements in the following table.

The leadership in my organisation

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Idealised influence (II)					
1	Acts in ways that build my respect					
2	Instils pride in being associated with him/ her					
3	Talks about his/ her important values and beliefs					
4	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group					
5	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
6	Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
7	Displays a sense of power and confidence					
	Inspirational motivation (IM)					
8	Talks optimistically about the future					
9	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
10	Articulates a compelling vision of the future					
11	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved					

12	Develops a team attitude and spirit among members of staff					
Intellectual stimulation (IS)						
13	Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
14	Gets me to look at problems from many different angles					
15	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
16	Seeks different perspectives when solving problems					
17	Encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before					
Individualised consideration (IC)						
18	Spends time training and coaching					
19	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group					
20	Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations to others					
21	Helps me to develop my strengths					
Contingent rewards (CR)						
22	Treats me respectfully.					
23	Mainly focuses on addressing mistakes, complaints and failures.					
24	Takes into consideration the moral and ethical aspects of decisions.					
25	Follows up all mistakes.					
Management by exception (active) (MEA)						
26	Demonstrates his/her power and confidence.					
27	Expresses with force their vision of the future.					
28	Guides me to meet standards.					
29	Always making decisions.					
Management by exception (passive) (MEP)						
30	Takes into consideration my different needs, abilities, and aspirations from that of others.					
31	Supports me to develop my strengths.					
32	Always answering in responding to compelling questions					
33	Stresses a collective sense of mission.					
Laissez-faire (LF)						
34	Acknowledges when I meet expectations.					
35	Demonstrates his/her trust that objectives will be attained.					
36	Is effective in meeting my job-related needs.					
37	Encourages me to complete assignments in different way.					

Section three: knowledge sharing

In my organisation

No.	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	knowledge sharing					
1	Knowledge sharing with colleagues is considered normal outside of my department					
2	Knowledge sharing among colleagues is considered normal in my department					
3	When I have learned something new, I tell colleagues outside of my department about it					
4	When they have learned something new, my colleagues within my department tell me about it					
5	I share information with my colleagues in the organisation					
6	I share information about administrative issues with my colleagues in the organisation					
7	When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues in my department about it					
8	When they have learned something new, colleagues outside of my department tell me about it					
	Knowledge collecting					
9	I share information I have with colleagues within my department when they ask for it					
10	Colleagues in my organisation share information with me					
11	Colleagues within my department share knowledge with me, when I ask them about it					
12	Colleagues within my department tell me what their skills are, when I ask them about it					
13	I share my skills with colleagues outside of my department, when they ask me to					
14	I share my skills with colleagues within my department, when they ask for it.					
15	I share information I have with colleagues outside of my department, when they ask me to					
16	Colleagues in my organisation share information about administrative issues with me					