The Impact of Leadership Styles Upon Employee Commitment: A case study of the Abu Dhabi Police in the UAE

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Abstract

This study examined the extent to which leadership styles affect the organisational commitment of the employees at Abu Dhabi Police in the UAE. The aim was to find out whether there is a significant correlation between preferred leadership styles and organisational commitment. It sought to assess the current leadership styles and practices in order to identify patterns and trends that have a direct impact on employee commitment within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP), as leadership styles drive employee commitment which in turn leads to better organisational performance.

The leadership literature has both depth and breadth. It is a highly researched topic area, which has been approached from many perspectives involving different organisational settings. Much of the leadership debate focused on 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. The conclusion that can be drawn from the broad and long leadership debate is that it has advanced the understanding of leadership and its associated training, as well as generating useful insights, all of which is positive, but the term 'leadership' remains a source of personal interpretation. Today, the leadership topic is big business. Leadership gurus/business celebrities compete to sell leadership wisdom and courses for transforming people into effective leaders. Agencies, academic courses, etc. all claim leadership expertise on how to nurture and develop leaders by providing ready-made packages, tool-kits and guidelines for forward-thinking people who aspire to be leaders.

Based on the purpose of the study, the nature of the problem and the research questions, this study adopted quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. This allows the researcher to address the multidimensional nature of leadership and employee commitment by investigating the perspectives of the key stakeholders at ADP. Interviews were conducted to obtain qualitative data in the form of words and meaning to address issues that may not have been covered by the survey. The quantitative survey allowed for statistical analysis and numerical evidence about leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment at ADP.

The study findings revealed that there is a predominance of attributes of transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership at ADP. Findings showed that the leadership style is a strong driver of employee commitment. Employees are more committed if the organisation meets their expectations and needs. The findings also showed that the current levels of commitment at ADP are adequate; there is a sense of loyalty at every level. Findings from interviews with key ADP stakeholders revealed that levels of commitment are high but leaders must do more to address the particular needs of employees to secure higher performance. Interviewees stated that the ADP has a strong organisational structure which provides confidence and commitment for employees. However, in order to achieve its mission objectives, there is a need for a transparent policy committed to providing each employee with a sound working environment, complete with clear reward schemes which inspire and motivate employees to achieve a high level of performance.

The findings have practical implications as they will benefit the ADP leadership, initially in understanding the drivers and challenges of employee commitment. The findings will also help formulate a future strategy to enhance employee commitment by effectively exploiting this study data. Finally, this study has expanded the existing literature and provides a platform for further research on the impact of leadership styles on employee commitment in the UAE.

Declaration

This is to declare that this thesis is my original work. I am solely responsible for the whole work. All the verbatim extracts have been highlighted and the sources have been specifically acknowledged in the thesis. I also declare that this thesis has not been submitted to any other institution within a degree programme and any mistakes in this thesis are of my sole responsibility.

Signed:

Mohamed Al-Mansoori

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List of Abbreviations

ADP   Abu Dhabi Police

DV   Dependent variable

ANOVA   Analysis of Variance

UAE   United Arab Emirates

MLQ   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

MOE   Ministry of Economy

GCC   Gulf Cooperative Council

NMC   National Media Council

IB   Idealised Behaviours

IM   Inspirational Motivation

IC   Individual Consideration

IA   Idealized Attributes

TS   Transactional Leadership

CR   Contingent Reward

TF   Transformational Leadership

LF   Laissez-faire Leadership

MBEA   Management-by-exception: Active

MBEP   Management-by-exception: Passive

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the study

This study aims to examine the current leadership styles at Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) and their impact on employee commitment. It will also assess the different types of commitment of employees, focusing mainly on normative commitment, affective commitment and continuance commitment at the General Directorate of Abu Dhabi Police. Widespread change has been taking place across the Middle East, with people not only protesting for better living conditions but also for transparent decision-making and leadership accountability (Aina and Verma, 2016; Yukl, 2013; Sabri et al. 2011; Branine, 2004, Branine, and Pollard, 2010, Saeed et al 2014). Clearly leadership has become an important topic, and one that is likely to become more important as institutions and organisations aim to enhance their leadership skills (Joseph and Winston, 2005; Northouse, 2014). Yet, Branine and Pollard (2010) argue that the type of management that is practised in Arab countries has very little to do with the cultural values and norms of Islam that are supposed to dominate all aspects of society in these countries.

1.2 An overview of the literature

Leadership as a research area has been extensively debated and investigated in academic literature over the last five decades, and continues to generate interest from politicians, business experts and academics. In today's world dominated by economic and political instability and shortage of influential leaders, leadership is

in high demand and short supply. As a result, leadership has been at the forefront of the political and business agenda as a growing number of agencies and academic institutions are advertising courses for developing leadership skills. The term leadership is a multi-dimensional and challenging concept to define concisely and precisely.

This study was motivated by two main considerations. The first was the increasing need and importance of developing leadership skills and boosting employee commitment at ADP. The study of leadership has never been more pertinent in the light of today's volatile situation in the Gulf region. The second was concerned with the benefits of providing ADP with the leadership skills fit for the 21st century.

Although leadership styles and organisational commitment as a topic area has been extensively researched (Alyn, 2010), gaps still remain for further theoretical and empirical study, particularly in the Middle East. Many studies within the fields of organisational behaviour and organisational psychology have demonstrated that the failure or success of an organisation largely depends upon the style of leadership, which directly affects the level of employees' commitment (Bass and Bass, 2008; Lussier and Achua, 2013).

Throughout its long history, the topic of leadership has never been free from inconsistent views at times and insightful at others. Leadership has preoccupied theorists and experts and the leadership debate has brought about a split of views, specifically into those who claim that leaders are born, suggesting that leadership attributes are innate, and those who believe that leaders are made, believing that

leadership attributes are developed and learnt. As highlighted earlier, the leadership debate has brought about a split of views, specifically into those who claim that leadership is innate and those who believe that leadership is a skill that can be learnt and developed. 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)?'* Avolio et al. (2009) point out that preliminary evidence suggests 30% of leadership style is genetic. The other 70% depends on life context, including your home life and those around you at work.

There is a plethora of definitions of the term leadership but although they are formulated differently, most definitions share a common theme and have a common denominator which is that of leading and showing a group of individuals the way to achieving their targets. Kouzes and Posner (2007:24) argue that *"Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow".* Therefore, leadership can be broadly viewed as the relationship between an individual and a group built around some common interest, wherein the group behaves in a manner directed or determined by the leader (Avolio et al., 2009; Shastri, et al, 2010). Leadership involves the process of influence (Vroom and Ago 2007), therefore leaders can influence the behaviour of their followers through the use of different styles, or approaches, to managing others (Keskes, 2014). Thus, theories and styles of leadership reveal different facets and behaviours of leaders. In essence, they demonstrate that there are different ways in which leaders use power and influence to get things done in order to achieve

their goals. However, the literature suggests that there is no one size fits all leadership style. Effective leadership is a blend of a wide range of abilities and approaches.

Marshall (2011) points out that organisations are comprised of both leaders and followers who are motivated and inspired by various factors. Therefore, understanding the factors that enhance the employees' commitment is the main challenge facing leaders of modern organisations. Bass (1997) attempts to understand the leadership concepts and followership and how their relationship could affect organisational commitment. In addition, Meyer et al., (2004) refer to employees' commitment as an important notion that helps leaders to motivate their employees to have some degree of commitment in which the best of those workers consider themselves as part of the organisation. The vision and goals of employees are similar to the organisation itself, so they are committed to help the organisation to achieve these goals (Meyer and Allen, 1997). However, Meyer and Herscovitch (2009) stress that high commitment exists when employees feel responsible for achieving the organisation's goals.

Despite the proliferation of scholarly research on the topic of leadership over the last few decades, resulting in the development of diverse and often conflicting leadership arguments, leadership is still under-researched in the Middle East. This study builds on previous leadership research by investigating to what extent leadership styles have a direct bearing on employee commitment within the Abu-Dhabi police Department. The expectations at ADP for higher organisational performance and excellent employee commitment have focused attention on the

critical role of leadership to achieve the government 2030 vision for excellence in everything. Almost everyone at ADP is aware that it cannot attain excellence without effective leadership. Employees' commitment and engagement is driven by leaders creating the right working environment where trust, respect, recognition and dialogue prevail. This study argues that employee-centred leadership leads to more employee commitment.

1.3 Research Problem

The extensive literature suggests that the level of organisational commitment is important to achieve organisational performance. However, in the case of ADP, there is poor communication between leaders and followers which might minimise the level of employee commitment. Moreover, some departments are underperforming and fail to achieve their full potential due to lack of employee commitment. In addition, the lack of a clear strategy for training programmes at leadership level and for employees has contributed to decreases in levels of motivation and retention. There is lack of research at ADP regarding the relationship between leadership styles and followers' commitment and this study aims to address that. It also aims to make recommendations to help maximise employees' commitment within ADP.

Times are changing and organisations are following suit. In recent years, ADP has been transformed for the better with regard to the structuring of work methods and processes. ADP now needs to move away from the traditional hierarchical system to developing flatter, leaner structures that support a more empowered, team-driven workforce. It follows that the leadership style needs also to change to

keep with the pace of change within the UAE. The majority of leaders at ADP recognise the need for progress and appreciate the benefits it brings, but somehow resist change. Building on the already extensive body of research that has been conducted to investigate the nature and style of leadership, the current study explores the various theories of leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment.

1.4 The aim and objectives of the study

This study aims to investigate the relationship between various styles of leadership and employee commitment to find out which is best fit for purpose at ADP. It will also examine the different types of commitment of employees, focusing mainly on normative commitment, affective commitment and continuance commitment at the General Directorate of ADP. In order to achieve the aim of this study, the following objectives have been set:

1. To critically review the literature on leadership styles and organisational commitment.
2. To assess the perceptions of employees about leadership styles amongst employees at ADP.
3. To examine the relationship between different styles of leadership and the dimensions of employee commitment.
4. To make recommendations based on the findings of this study on how to improve employee commitment at ADP.

1.5   Research Questions

1. What are the perceptions of employees about leadership styles at ADP?

2. What are the challenges of employee commitment at ADP?

3. To what extent do styles of leadership influence the commitment of employees?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study is significant in a number of ways: firstly, the study will examine the correlation between styles of leadership and the commitment of ADP staff as there is an urgent need to address the root causes of the falling level of commitment within the organisation. It is important, therefore, in that the results of the study can help raise awareness of the police force of the variables that influence employee commitment levels. Secondly, the study's findings will make a valuable contribution to the knowledge that has been acquired from other studies of employee commitment and leadership, and may help other individuals who might wish to undertake further studies and be useful for different organisations that face similar issues. Thirdly, the study will also contribute to increase the amount of research related to styles of leadership and commitment within organisations through its examination of three important styles of leadership and their impact upon organisational commitment. It is considered that the study will be valuable in that it adds to the literature on leadership styles and commitment, particularly as there has been little research in the setting of the UAE.

1.7 Proposed methodology

The study will be based on the collection of both primary and secondary data. Initially a literature review and the nature of the problem will inform the development of a research strategy which will serve as a guideline for the empirical work in which primary data will be obtained. The research process will occur through the literature review, data collection and data analysis. In the data collection phase, both quantitative and qualitative data will be gathered, which provides synergy to research, as noted by Remenyi et al. (1998) Saunders et al 2012), who advocate that ultimately it is more useful to see these two approaches - quantitative and qualitative - as complementary rather than two opposite extremes, and that a balanced approach is more realistic. Moreover, in line with the intention to understand the entire context of leadership practices, an interpretivist approach is useful in providing the means to understand practices, thus allowing for the different meanings that managers give to the theoretical framework to be achieved. The research will be divided into two stages: an exploratory study conducted through an interview exercise used to generate issues of importance to the main study. From the literature review and the outcomes of the interview exercise, a questionnaire will be developed to be administered to personnel within the ADP, seeking to identify the commitment associated with the effective implementation of leadership and how it can help the ADP to meet its targets, what benefits may be derived from leadership and how the organisational culture would impact upon commitment.

1.8 Structure of this study

The aim of this research is to provide an investigation into the impact of the styles of leadership upon commitment of employees within the ADP. As such, this research consists of seven chapters.

Chapter One outlines the research study and introduces the thesis in terms of its objectives, the research questions, a brief discussion on the concept of leadership and the role that it plays in the organisation of today and its impact upon employee commitment. The nature of the problem that is addressed by this study is highlighted, along with the important implications for leadership.

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

Chapter Three provides a critical literature review regarding the concept of leadership, leadership styles and characteristics, leadership paradigms and the theories of commitment and its definitions. It also provides an examination of the relationship factors affecting commitment and leadership within a particular set of circumstances, so that a fuller picture can be provided of the processes related to both. This chapter has also the objective of focusing on styles of leadership and commitment of employees within police organisations.

Chapter Four provides a discussion of appropriate methodologies for a study of this nature and outlines the methods that have been used for the data collection

and analysis for carrying out this research. Within the context of the ADP, 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 provides a description and analysis of the primary data that has been collected. There will be a schematic analysis of the findings from the questionnaires and interviews and a comparison of the data. 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 of the impact of the leadership styles upon commitment.

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 commitment.

Chapter Seven presents the conclusion, with major 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.

1.9 Summary

This chapter has provided the reader with an overview of the problem that ADP is facing concerning leadership styles and commitment. The chapter also set the aim, objectives and formulated the research questions. It discussed the proposed methodology for the study along with how this study has the potential to contribute to existing knowledge in the public sector and in particular ADP. The next chapter will discuss the background of the UAE and Abu Dhabi to develop an understanding of the context of the study.

Chapter Two

Background to the Abu Dhabi Police

2.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to provide an overview of the socio-economic and political background information regarding the United Arab Emirates (UAE) which has a direct bearing on the type of leadership styles and its impact on employee commitment at ADP. It contextualises the topic of the study under consideration which deals with the relevance of determining the leadership styles that influence employee commitment within a relevant organisational setting, namely the Abu Dhabi Police Department. This chapter also provides general background information about the ADP department including its history and structure and outlining the role it currently plays in helping in the maintenance of law and order for the Abu Dhabi region.

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has developed rapidly in recent decades and along with such rapid development, the elite Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) department has also undergone significant change (AD Police, 2014a). With its responsibility for maintenance of law and order within Abu Dhabi, the capital city of the UAE, much of the credit for the ADP adapting to societal change lies with appropriate leadership; this leadership has kept a constant focus on the maintenance of an environment that enables state development goals to be successfully achieved (AD Police, 2014b). The relatively recent boom times for the economy and rapid

population growth, however, have had an impact on everywhere in the UAE and a particular impact upon Abu Dhabi; as such, police department responsibilities have increased greatly. The ADP was created in 1957 and the sacrifices and loyalty of its officers have facilitated regional development (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2011). The development and implementation of new technologies and methods have played a key role, along with the progressive thinking and support. The organisation has developed to such a degree that a secure and safe environment has been provided to Abu Dhabi national and non-national residents alike for many years (AD Police, 2014c). Furthermore, the ADP department has continually functioned effectively through maintaining friendly connections to other emirates and countries within the Middle East (Rees and Althakri, 2008).

2.2 General study background

This study examines the impact that leadership styles have upon employee commitment through the use of ADP as a case study. The underlying issue is whether or not the style of leadership at the ADP is appropriate for these times. Given the volatility of the political situation within the Middle East, any perceived need to meaningfully change the style of leadership ought to be introduced as soon as is practically possible. Security was considered to be an essential responsibility of federal government when the UAE became established in 1971, so that strength and unity, progress and prosperity could be promoted for the state. The unification of the seven emirates of the UAE, in terms of its land area and the people living there, was helped by the security service unification. The establishment of the ADP was an initial priority for the federal authorities, and full integration of the police and security services remains a target of vital importance

for the state (Ministry of Interior, 2013). The ADP has responsibility for establishing and implementing rules and regulations so that Ministry obligations and duties can be fulfilled efficiently for all the different areas of security. Recent years have witnessed large scale development within the UAE which has led to a growth in the duties and responsibilities of the police force and this, in turn, has led to the need for development of new methods and capabilities. As a whole, there is a need for modern policing systems to be established that enable crime to be fought capably and effectively so that security and stability can be provided for all UAE citizens and residents (Ministry of Interior, 2013). Stability and security are believed to be the keystone for UAE society to enable progress and development to be achieved.

Although numerous attempts have been made at developing the knowledge and skills of ADP employees, it is notable that leaders at various levels of the ADP hierarchy are unaware of any training schemes to drive the vision and strategies of ADP forward or to achieve the development of the culture of the organisation. If there was better understanding of the impact that leadership has upon employee commitment, managers could develop an improved mission and action plan to improve management skills and leadership and enhance the quality of decision-making. With abilities enhanced for achievement of key performance targets, further ongoing development of effective skills for leadership could be established. There has been a reliance amongst managers upon their interpersonal skills and experience within the organisation in the development of relationships to employees. Within the ADP, however, there has been a recent decision to establish a training programme with the aim of developing leaders within the

various departments of the organisation (Ministry of Interior, 2013). Research is currently being done into the issue at the ADP and development of official programmes of training is ongoing. A number of staff have been sponsored to research leadership with, for example, visits to other countries to understand how other similar organisations are addressing the issue. One recent example was an exchange programme undertaken with the Singapore National Police force.

2.3   Background to the UAE - geography and population

The federation for the region was named as the Trucial States and with the withdrawal of the colonial British administration, the UAE was founded in 1971. The federal state was established on the 2nd December of that year and now the UAE has seven sovereign emirates, i.e. the federal capital Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Dubai, Fujairah Sharjah, Umm Al-Qaiwain and Ras Al- Khaimah.

Figure 2.1   Administrative and political map of the United Arab Emirates

Source: Political and Administrative Map of UAE. Google images

Economically, the UAE operates with oil as its main revenue and is an active member of a number of organisations for the interests of energy and oil producers such as the International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA), the Organisation of Arab Producing and Exporting Countries (OAPEC) and the Oil Producing and Exporting Countries (OPEC).

Prior to oil being discovered, the population in the region had been made up of pearl diving and fishing communities. In recent decades, however, the UAE has had a huge amount of investment and a number of extraordinary changes in political, economic and social terms have led, in particular, to massive industrial activities geared towards the exportation of products from its oil industry. With such a focus on exporting refined and crude oil and petrochemicals, and a 13.2% annual growth rate of GDP, the open economy of the UAE has experienced one of the quickest growth rates of all national economies of the world. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) has stated that it is critical for the UAE to take further steps for liberalisation of its economy with the pursuance of structural reform; steps being encouraged include enhancement of national labour force employability over the long term by way of vocational education programmes and technical training, and the lifting of the barriers against foreign investment that lie beyond the duty-free zones (Rees et al., 2007). The total population of the UAE is composed of many foreign workers. Indeed, 60% of the population hail from Southeast and South Asia with the remainder including a considerable number of Arabian peoples, i.e. Egyptians, Yemenis, Jordanians, Omanis and Palestinians. There are many Indians, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis, Afghans, West Europeans, Filipinos and Iranians also in the UAE. In fact, only 20% of the population are UAE citizens. A case study of a contracting company of Fitch (2013) states that the

UAE foreign workforce is composed of 45% Indians, 20% Pakistanis, 20% Arabs (originating from Lebanon, Syria, Jordan and Egypt) and 15% Bangladeshis. The official language of the UAE is Arabic; however, a number of other languages are spoken in the country including English, which is widely understood and spoken, Persian, Urdu and Hindi.

2.4   The UAE Vision 2021

The Prime Minister and Vice-President of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai, H.H. Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, launched the UAE Vision 2021 at the close of a meeting of the Cabinet in 2010. The vision has the aim of making the country one of the best in the world by the time of the Union's Golden Jubilee. So that the vision could be translated into a reality, more than three hundred officials from ninety local government and federal entities developed the National Agenda of the UAE, with 6 national priorities mapped to represent primary sectors of focus for governmental action within the years to come. The six priority sectors identified were healthcare, education, police and security, economy, infrastructure and government services, and housing (UAE VISION 2021).

2.5   The Abu Dhabi Police force: An overview

The ADP department was founded in 1957 and signified the start of a new period in respect to the management of law and order. Prior to then, the region had utilised traditional approaches and methods with regard to self-security. However, from 1957, there was a clear move towards the formation of a modern police force through the direct initiative of the late H.H Sheikh Shaikh Bin Sultan Al Nahyan who was the ruler of Abu Dhabi at that time (AD Police, 2014a). Over the last

couple of decades, advances in methods and techniques of policing across the world have influenced the region and further steps have been taken for the improvement and modernisation of the ADP department. Equivalent to other organisations of policing, the ADP department has seen improvements to its working environments and the implementation of systems for recognition and reward of employees (Elbanna, 2013). Such a focus upon organisational improvement with the utilisation of practical experience and the accessing of modern technologies has meant that the ADP department has a reputation within the Middle East for ensuring safety of the citizenry and the facilitation of the different state efforts at social and economic development (Alittihad newspaper, 2013); such a reputation has also extended to international recognition, accolades and awards for the ADP department. A new approach has been adopted by the ADP with the formation of a partnership with the community which seeks to build relationships between the department and the general public that enables law and order to be maintained smoothly and effectively (AD Police, 2014a). Huge efforts have been made by the police department to create and build up the capabilities of the institution and foster a culture within the organisation that both encourages excellence and recognises it in staff performance (Rees and Althakri, 2008). The ADP system for monitoring performance helps in decision-making with regard to the steps that ought to be taken to overcome problematic situations, as well as measuring departmental progress made towards the achievement of strategic objectives. Furthermore, the ADP department also has an approach established for setting up of a mechanism of external accountability for the measurement of departmental effectiveness and the compliance to different regulations and laws (Absal and Reporter, 2008).

2.6 The five-year plan for strategic development

In 2003, the ADP commenced the development of strategic policies for improvement so that the department could better itself in becoming a contemporary force for policing that was able to competently address modern challenges stemming from the characteristics of the population and new forms of criminality (AD Police, 2014b). As such, there was a significant development of the General Command of the ADP between the years of 2003 and 2008 because of the new five-year strategic plan. The phrase '*Together towards a Safer Community'* was adopted as the departmental logo and techniques were developed for cooperative working between numerous bodies so that safety and stability within society could be maintained. The plan sought to counter criminality and bring down its rate so that Emirati residents had confidence and trust in the work of the department (AD Police, 2014). Elbanna (2013) was of the view, that since 2002, there had been significant use of strategic planning within all of the practices of governance in the UAE. For strategic development and advancement of the ADP, a 7-point plan was created that had a number of points, as follows:

a) A focus upon maintaining stability, the control of crime and the enhancement of a sense of security and safety in society;

b) Creation of confidence and the maintenance of harmony amongst the numerous communities in the area;

c) Improvement to the performance and service quality of the numerous departments;

d) Improvement to the standards of policing services;

e) Development of the skills and competencies of members of staff at the ADP department;

f) Maintenance of honesty, integrity and an ethical approach;

g) Maintenance of key resources such as technology and infrastructure to enable the service to be effective.

In order to implement the new strategy, there were three key methodical characteristics. Firstly, the dependability of the system was increased through the effective handling of work issues and increases in accountability through activities such as efforts at countering the rate of crime, enhancing community safety and conducted patrols. Next, a focus was maintained on police work at the local level, with decisions made locally and the available resources being used efficiently and optimally. The third aspect was the provision of support from the General Headquarters for local policing whilst, simultaneously, using integrated methods of working that raised standards, developed procedures, improved strategies and encouraged initiatives for the monitoring of performance (Rees and Althakri, 2008).

2.7 The new organisational structure and associated job description

The establishment of the General ADP Headquarters heralded a major step in the modernisation of the police department. The organisational structure, organisational culture and the various officer roles at the ADP Headquarters were developed in such a manner that modern challenges could be effectively addressed by the department. Also, several new general department branches and sections were established by the ADP so that the organisation was able to be

in compliance with policy and to enable a modern, contemporary force for policing could be developed (Zayed, 2014). Regulations were enforced by the ADP that were dynamic and that could ensure the organisation was continuously developing and able to achieve efficiency improvements throughout. As well as using proven techniques and tools to enhance the functioning of the police force, encouragement was given for creative thinking and the development of new initiatives (Elbanna, 2013).

To enable implementation of the directions from the 5-year strategic plan, and to accord with the Administrative Resolution No. 40, of 2004, the organisational structure was changed and reformed and given the new name of the 'General Headquarters of ADP' and several new departments were created (AD Police, 2014d). These investments in time and resources have developed the organisational structure and infrastructure of the ADP to align with the rapid transformations and development of the UAE, in general. In recent decades shifts in technology and culture and society and the economy, in general, have occurred as the establishment of numerous new industries and the rapid growth in GDP in the UAE welcomes many new immigrants to the country from various parts of the world. The restructuring and streamlining of the ADP organisational structure has enabled resources to be allocated in a more efficient and effective manner whilst maintaining more focus upon the departmental strategic goals and the pre-defined roles and tasks of the various ADP units (Rees and Althakri, 2008). The restructure meant that departmental power was more decentralised and the ADP had the flexibility it needed for its specialised units to perform in a way that was more effective and with greater autonomy. Within the new system, when required,

the ADP Commander could delegate some of his responsibilities and powers to specific General Headquarters police teams that, usually, consisted of senior police directors (AD Police, 2014e).

Moreover, the reformed system gave the senior directors that leeway for delegation of executive responsibilities to more local directors who they considered were able to handle the particular tasks in question. Also, within the new system, integrated police units could be formed at various locations around the country that could undertake tasks of up to 80% of departmental responsibilities. Power and authority is given to local police commanders to enable the effective carrying out of services and tasks, whilst the 20% of responsibilities remaining, such as specific, critical, professional and technical work and particular crime investigations, remained under the control of the ADP Headquarters (AD Police, 2014b).

Following the organisational restructure at the ADP, the General Directorate for Headquarter Affairs was established and six general departments: Police Operations; Installations Protection; Security and Borders Affairs; Finance and Services; Central Operations; and Human Resources.

Figure 2.2   Organisational structure of the Abu Dhabi Police
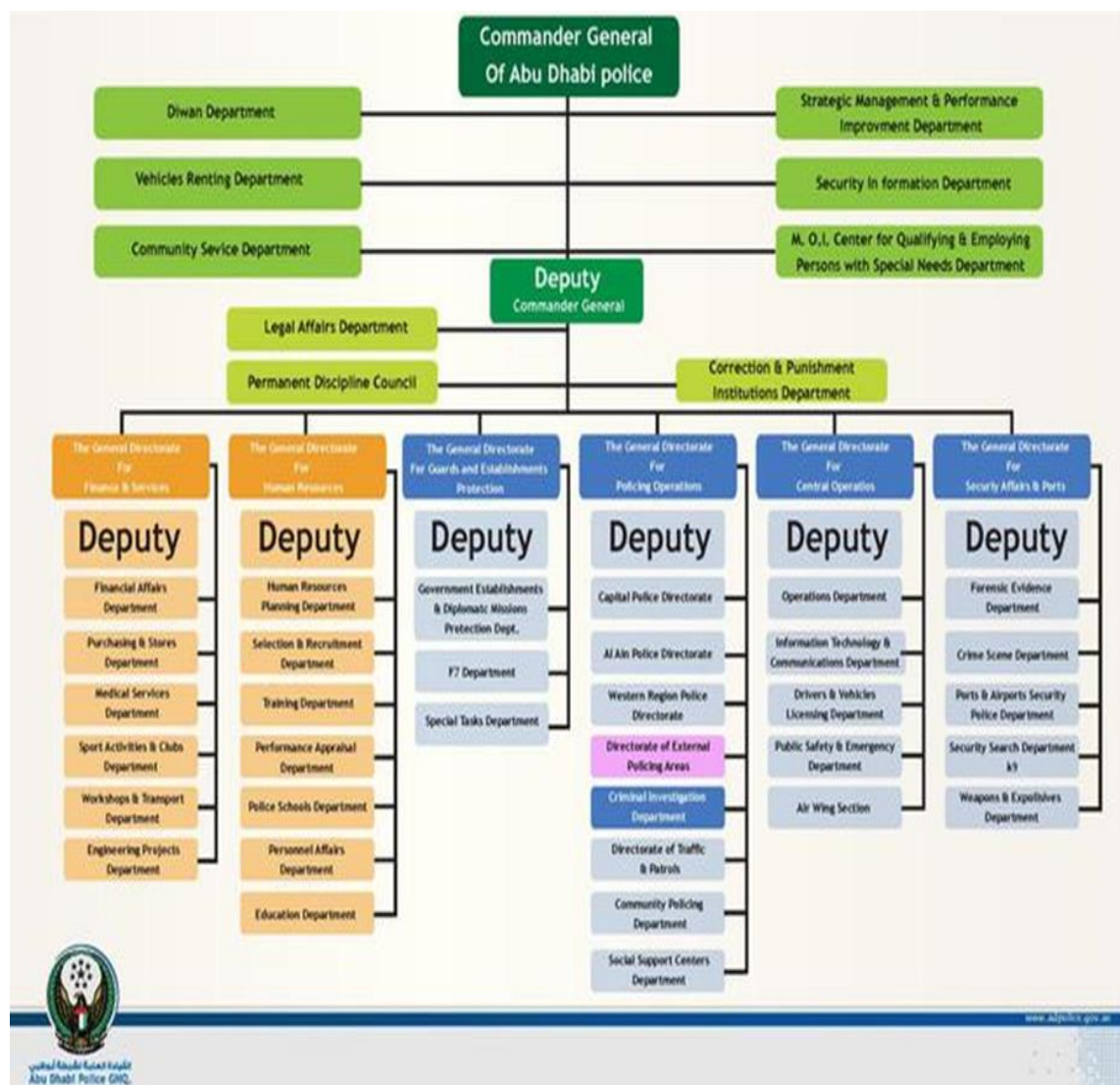
(Source: www.ADP, 2013)

2.8   Integrating a new strategy with the work of the Abu Dhabi Police

HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed stressed that UAE leadership makes extensive efforts and gives wise directives which result in achieving the happiness of the people and provide whatever is necessary to ease their burdens in conjunction with the elevation of decent standards of living levels, and the achievement of security and prosperity to all. HH said that this was ascertained by different indicators and local

and international reports which put the UAE people at the forefront of the world's happiest peoples.

Unlike other countries within the Middle East, the stable nature of the UAE political environment has been a significant factor in the success in developing the ADP department. The stability has enabled various modern policing practices to be formulated and implemented successfully (Absal and Reporter, 2008). A leading UAE agency, the Central Executive Council of Abu Dhabi, has had a clear intention of making the UAE into a world-class modern country able to match international standards in its agencies and public services. The UAE Executive Council undertook the drafting of a development plan with phases and measures for enhancing various manners of working, and optimising the utilisation of the resources and technologies used by the numerous public sector departments.

The Executive Council undertakes the development of a strategic plan every 5 years to apply to the following five years of operations. The strategic plan focuses upon areas considered important for advancing the state towards a more modern one; the development of the ADP department being one such area of focus (AD Police, 2014c). The strategic plan for the years 2013 to 2017 for now includes provisions for ADP development with a focus that mainly falls upon refinement of the manner in which performance of the numerous departments are measured; it is considered that performance monitoring can assist greatly in further enhancing the levels of service and standards at the ADP to bring the organisation up to the same level of operations as the best police departments in the world (Barnard, 2007).

Table 2.1 Strategic Plan for the Abu Dhabi Police General Headquarters

Vision	Endeavours to provide high standard policing services to sustain safety, and security for all citizens, expatriates and visitors.	
Mission	Striving to create a safe, stable and crime free society, and to make a positive contribution to the execution of justice in order to establish an environment of confidence between the public and the police.	
Values	Honesty and integrity	Recognising achievements
	Effective communication	Excellence

Source: www. Strategy. ADP, 2013

Lt. General H.H Sheik Saif Bin Zayed Alnahyan, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior, officially launched the AD Police plan for 2016-2020 which entered into force last year with the support of H.H Sheik Khalifa Bin Zayed Alnahyan, President of the State, and H.H Sheik Mohammed Bin Rashid Almaktoum, Vice President and Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai. These changes are intended to address the rapid global and national changes, and help Abu Dhabi take its place as one of the world's most developed capital cities.

Figure 2.3 Abu Dhabi Police GHQ Strategy
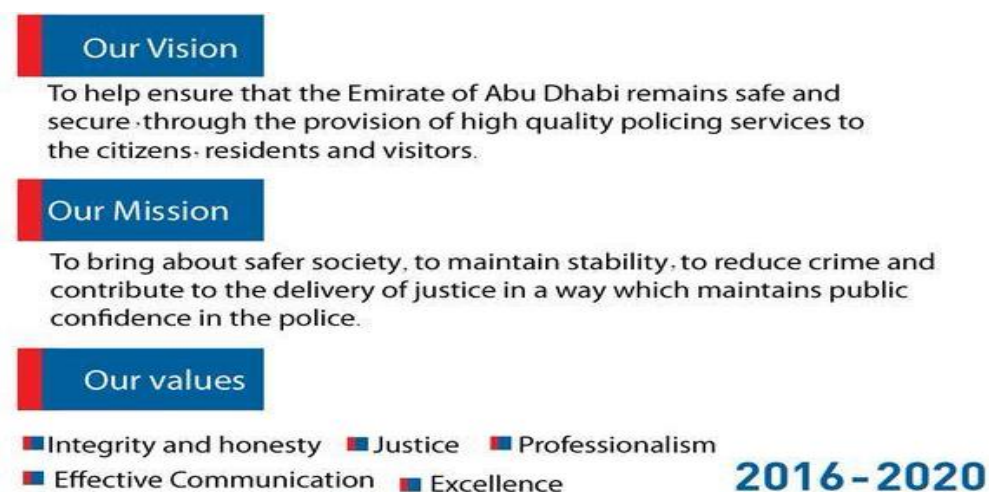
Source: www. Strategy. ADP, 2017

The GHQ of Abu Dhabi police regularly update their annual plan in line with the requirements of the general secretariat of the executive council and the achievements of Abu Dhabi government's outputs; which include the continuous changes in the population structure and the urban expansion. The ADP's Customer Service Charter outlines the force's values and expectations regarding the service it offers to the citizens of Abu Dhabi:

Figure 2.4 ADP's Customers' Service Charter

Customers' Service Charter

Abu Dhabi police is keen on offering its customers excellent and high quality services that would attain their satisfaction and exceed their expectations.

Our employees' values

To concentrate on customers:
To treat customers with dignity, respect and fairness, and seek to develop and strengthen the relationship with them.

Credibility and empowerment:
To treat others with clarity and transparency, and seek to continuously develop our capabilities to respond better to the needs of customers.

Cooperation and team work:
We constantly seek to support our colleagues and help adopt and create a work environment that would promote team work.

Continuous improvement:
We encourage and support exploring opportunities necessary to enhance customer's experience.

What to expect from us

Kindness:
We will treat you with respect, kindness, friendliness and a smile. And we will tackle with privacy any of the problems relevant to our services.

Information:
We will provide our services through a helpful and knowledgeable team that would protect your privacy, understand your needs, and is capable of responding to your queries.

Response:
We will work to answer all your queries, and provide you with the requirements of each service, completion time, facilitate the process of communicating with us, and we will cater to your comments and observations.

Credibility:
We will focus on providing you with quality services in an effective, and transparent way. We will also strive to realize your expectations.

Ease of service:
We will provide you with timely services through channels that best suit you, and we will reduce the number of steps required to complete a service in order to offer you a quick and seamless service.

Quality:
We will provide you with special and high quality services that would enhance individuals' quality of life.

Your commitment to us
- Appreciate efforts of our staff at your service and treat them with mutual respect and appreciation.
- Provide all the supporting documents required to help us serve you faster.
- Inform us immediately of any errors committed by our staff or yourselves while serving you.
- Inform us immediately of any changes in personal information relevant to the service provision.
- Welcome and respond to the queries of customer service staff to provide you with a quality service.

Dear customers...
"We are keen to provide you with prompt and high quality services. We are also committed to deal with the public in line with Abu Dhabi Police GHQ's strategy, best practices, protection of human rights and the establishment of justice.

Major General/ Mohammed Khalfan Al Rumaithi,
Commander-in-Chief of Abu Dhabi Police.
For more information please contact us on
☎ 8003333 | ✉ contactus@adpolice.gov.ae | 🇫🇴🇦🇪 adpolicehq
Working hours: 7:30 - 2:30 Sunday-Thursday

القيادة العامة لشرطة أبوظبي
Abu Dhabi Police GHQ.

Source: www. Strategy. ADP, 2017

2.9 Summary

 It can be concluded from the above background information that, along with the rapid development of the GCC region within recent decades, there have also been major changes to the system of policing. There has been a long history of policing in the area from its basic origins to the transformation to a contemporary, modern police force that is now considered one of the best in the world. Within the ADP, there is a constant endeavour towards development of standards and capabilities; however, for continued maintenance of its status as a modern organisation, that meets the expectations of the government and citizens and ensures public safety, it is essential that the department utilises knowledge of modern techniques for management and existing best practice.

Consequently, ADP is very keen in implementing the leadership styles that might enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of its employees. Leadership and the ability to deliver quality standards go hand-in-hand in the achievement of excellence. This is due to leaders influence on their employees work and efforts. However, there are underlying assumptions of leadership style and its impact on the employees. As a government organisation, it has a typical authoritarian leadership style. Yet, this style has begun empowering employees to do their work confidently, especially those who work outdoors or with the public (Ministry of interior, 2010). ADP has based its strategy on highlighting the priorities, objectives and targeted time to improve the quality of its functions and roles in the society through good communication with both the employees and the society. Moreover, most priorities are designed to meet customer expectations, hence building potentials, capabilities and qualifications of every member to make the maximum

use of each individual effort in performing tasks efficiently. In addition, the aim is to improve the performance of ADP by focusing on the human component as a successful key to overcome obstacles. This can be achieved by involving and empowering the employees in order to facilitate the workflow through decision making and providing the appropriate environment for this development.

Chapter Three

Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to critically review, compare and contrast the literature relevant to leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment focusing on Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) as an organisational setting, in line with the research objectives of this study. This literature review provides a critical evaluation and a summary of previous works on leadership styles and employee commitment. It explores whether the broad literature on leadership is producing the same rhetoric and the same views or has provided fresh ideas regarding leadership styles. This study seeks to find out whether there is any correlation between leadership styles and employee commitment and to what extent this impacts on employee commitment at Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). In other words, does leadership style greatly influence and affect the working attitudes and commitment of employees? Leadership has been viewed as the driving force which enables organisations to be sustainable and gain competitive advantage. Leadership helps to optimise the performance efficiency and to achieve organisational goals (Avolio, and Gardner 2005; Mumford and Gold, 2004; Northouse, 2014). Northouse (2014) suggests that leadership styles provide useful insights and practical approaches on how to develop team work, enhance group decision-making, start initiatives and improve commitment of employees. Thus, leadership style plays a major role in boosting employee commitment within the organisation.

Despite the fact that the term leadership has been omnipresent throughout history, it remains complex and speculative. According to Vroom and Jago (2007:1) *'The term leadership is ubiquitous in common discourse. Political candidates proclaim it, organisations seek it, and the media discusses it ad nauseam'.* Although, the meaning of leadership can be said to be a matter of personal opinion, there is a consensus that leadership is viewed in terms of the position, personality, responsibility and influence. Vroom and Jago (2007:1) go on to argue that '*Virtually all definitions of leadership share the view that leadership involves the process of influence.'*

There is a need for the development of better leadership skills and leadership theories have been developed from an interesting and diverse range of perspectives and have, over time, been influenced by many of different aspects of politics and world affairs. Bass and Stogdill (1990) consider that leadership theories have tried to offer explanation for the various factors that have a bearing on emerging leadership, its nature and the consequences. Various models have demonstrated the way numerous variables, that are believed to be involved, interplay. Reality is replicated or reconstructed, and the use of models and identification of trends can help political and social scientists define the significant research problems; from this, with improved prediction, leadership can be developed, applied and controlled in a better way (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Outcalt et al. 2001, argue that whilst several, scholarly leadership models and theories have been put forward, there have, so far, obfuscated the facts; as such,

a great deal of effort is required to gain useful information from them. As Bennis and Nanus (1985:4) point out:

> *Literally thousands of empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted in the last seventy-five years alone, but no clear and unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders, and perhaps more important, what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders.*

Although leadership styles and organisational commitment as a topic area has been researched at length (Alyn, 2010; Zaccaro, 2014; Sternberg, 2007; Daly, et al. 2015; Northouse 2013), it still generates plenty of interest and is still pertinent today particularly in the context of the Middle East, where the traditional Great man theory is still prevalent in some countries.

3.2 Defining the leadership concept

Since ancient times, leadership has been practised in some form or other. Etymologically the term 'leadership' stems from 'lead' which is an Anglo-Saxon word meaning 'path'. The leader is therefore viewed as *'the one who shows the way and paves the path.'* In simple terms, leadership may be defined as the process of providing the path that others follow. Semantically, 'leadership' is multidimensional and can invoke a variety of meanings. Leadership means different things to different people ((Mullins and Christy, 2016, to the point that it has become a common platitude that there are as many different definitions of leadership as there are authors who wrote about the topic with no universal nor standardised definition of leadership (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2014, Daly, et al. 2015, Northouse 2015; Bass et al. 2003; Yukl 2010).

The concept, leadership has several, varied definitions and different interpretations within much of the body of literature, some of which can be very confusing (Mullins and Christy, 2016, Rost, 1993). Northouse (2012: 2) argues that there are many ways to finish the sentence, "Leadership is. . . .". Stogdill (1974:7) points out in a review of leadership research,

there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it. It is much like the words democracy, love, and peace. Although each of us intuitively knows what we mean by such words, the words can have different meanings for different people.

Similarly, Bass and Avolio, (1997:16) adopted Stogdill's (1974) words to express the same view that *"there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept"*. Moreover, in a way that complicates matters still further, it is often the case that leadership is defined in a contextual way with, for example, its placement in regard to the concept of management (Kotter, 2007).

There is no universally applicable and successful paradigm, therefore, for leadership, yet it continues to be a widely known notion (Bolden et al., 2009). It has been suggested by Bass 1997, Northouse, 2017).) that leadership studies run hand in hand with the development of civilisation that has shaped, and continues to shape, leaders. Bass et al. (2003) argue that as there is a great deal of breadth and variety to leadership studies, therefore, it would be difficult to arrive at a generic definition for the concept of leadership.

Appropriate terms that determine leadership include ways of thinking and influence over others, various behaviours and forms of intelligence, relevant traits, positions within administrations and issues surrounding supervision, control, authority and power (Northouse 2013, Blau et al., 2010; Bodla and Nawaz, 2010). Leadership has been defined in terms of describing the influence and personality of a leader (Bass, 2010). Also, leadership has been considered as an art for setting directions in order to achieve particular aims and influence (Bass, 1985). In keeping with the uncertainty, Yukl (2002: 2) claimed leadership, as an expression, is "*a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined".* However, a compilation of a number of the leadership definitions was introduced by Yukl (2002) (see Table 3.1). Close examination of the tabulated definitions shows that most definitions of leadership tend to agree that "*leadership is a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over others in order to guide, structure and facilitate organisational activities and relationships"* (Yukl, 2002:7). There are differences in the leadership focus, however, in terms of how influence is exerted, who does the influencing and the outcome and purpose of that influence. In contrast, Northouse (2013) views leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. This suggests that there is an exchange process that takes place between the leader and the followers. According to Bass and Bass, (2008) good leadership is developed through a never-ending process of self-study, education, training, and the accumulation of relevant experience. Table 3.1 below provides a sample of various complex nuances that several authors put forward to convey the perceived meaning of leadership. The consistent assumption that emerges

from the leadership debate is that leadership style effectiveness and success is contingent upon the situation or the organisational culture. It is measured against the leader's capability to deal with the employee mind-set within a specific situation. Moreover, leadership styles vary from situation to situation. Thus, effective leadership is situational and contingent; what works in western countries may not work in developing countries. Effective leader adapts their leadership style and behaviour to fit the situation.

Table 3.1 Definitions for leadership

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

The conclusion that can be drawn from the extensive and diverse range of definitions highlighted above, is that there are recurrent themes and similar explanations of what leadership means. This leads this study to conclude that leadership is an overarching term which overlaps in meaning. Whilst most researchers have, in general, defined leadership according to their particular personal perspectives and areas of interest, 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 facilitate 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.

In general, leaders can be considered those who can turn their visions and beliefs into reality by exercising influence and controlling others (Bennis and Nanus, 2007). Also, as stated by Robbins (2008), leadership can be defined as the ability to work towards achieving a goal through the influencing of a group It was stressed by Cooley (1902:7, cited in Stogdill, 1974) that: *"The leader is always the nucleus of a tendency, and all social movements, closely examined, will be found to consist of tendencies having such nuclei".* As a process, leadership moves people in a way that has their genuine, long-term interests at heart (Lord and Hall, 2005). Nel et al. (2004) point out that rather than coercion, leadership involved the

exercising of influence, with a leader who is attempting to change actions and attitudes in relation to the achievement of particular goals. Likewise, Bass (2010) saw leadership as the influencing of relationships amongst people, with followers guided by communication into achieving particular goals. For Bass and Bass (2008), leadership is considered a type of relationship for the application of influence and power in order to get people to work together for the accomplishment of common goals. Numerous authors agree that leadership refers to a process by which a group is influenced towards achieving a goal (Nahavandi, 2006; Avolio et al, 2009).

In addition, leaders can be considered as individuals capable of effectively employing their influence over others for the transformation of their visions and beliefs into forms of action (Northouse, 2007; Nohria and Khurana, 2010). Hellriegel et al. (2004, 286) have described leadership as the *"The ability to influence others to act toward the attainment of a goal"*. Similarly, 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. The suggestion was made by Lussier and Achua (2010) 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. An organisational leader brings about change in the attitude and action of groups by way of a process of exercising of influence through effective use of social skills for the accomplishment of a goals (Greenberg and Barong, 2003; Callan et al., 2007);

Haslam et al. (2011) offered support to this view and categorised the social skills involved into technical skills, interpersonal skills, and conceptual skills. Thus, it can be argued, that effective leadership can be considered as involving a combination of the use of skills, knowledge and influence for the facilitation of the achievement of a goal or goals (Haslam et al., 2011). By way of response to the criticism of the failure of scholars to offer an agreed definition of leadership, Yukl and Van Fleet (1992,149) stated that:

> *Definitions are somewhat arbitrary, and controversies about the best way to define leadership usually cause confusion and animosity rather than providing new insights into the nature of the process. At this point in the development of the field, it is not necessary to resolve the controversy over the appropriate definition of leadership.*

Whilst, there is disagreement and confusion surrounding the concept of leadership, the various definitions and the manifestation of forms of leadership seem to suggest that it is a concept that is universally accepted (Bolman and Deal, 1997). Bennis and Nanus (1997:1) quirkily stated that "*Leadership is a word on everyone's lips*," and "*Everyone agrees there is less of it than there used to be*". They proceed to highlight that whilst particular competencies in leadership have, over time, stayed more or less constant, theories of how leadership works and what it actually is have not remained as constant, with, over the years, inconsistencies in consideration of how leadership is learned and applied.

It can be argued that the core leadership theories and styles that provide the embodiment of the current understanding and knowledge of leadership tend to overlap at times and the arguments appear to be the same over the last few

decades. Thus, the term leadership covers a range of meanings often overlapping, depending on who defines it and it also comes under different labels, demonstrating the different perspectives and purposes which they intend to serve. The wide range of variations of the definitions also suggests that the different stakeholders, are yet to agree on common ground regarding the future direction of leadership, as the leadership debate needs to move and rise to a different level.

3.3 Distinguishing between management and leadership

Numerous authors have argued that effective managers need to have skills in both leadership and management in order to manage people within a team (Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007; Waite, 2008; Hughes and Avey, 2009; Lussier and Achua, 2013; Mullins, 2010; Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011). Leadership has been considered to be a process for the influencing of others so that long-term organisational goals can be achieved (Bartol et al., 2003). Pierce and Newstram (2003: 162) stated that "*Effective leaders take a personal interest in the long-term development of their employees".* So that the goals of an organisation can be achieved successfully, there needs to be the effective support of both leaders and managers. There is often the presumption that organisational leaders are the people sitting in top-level management posts, and for them to be effective, such people have to have both leadership and managerial skills. It is clear, then, that there is a need to discuss and define the differences and similarities that exist between management and leadership. Distinguishing between management and leadership is appropriate as managers have more of a concern with short-term organisational problems, whilst leaders tend to have a much wider perspective and have concern for the organisational context and environment, both externally

and internally (Nel et al., 2004). Kotter (1990b) adopted three criteria for distinguishing between managers and leaders, with managers being those that organise staff, problem solve and plan budgets, whereas leaders set organisational directions, align people towards goals and inspire and motivate them. At its most basic, managers aim to give an organisation consistency and order whereas leaders seek to bring about movement and change, and so the leader can be considered as complementary to managers rather than their replacement (Kotter, 1990). Whilst Kotter (1990) described management and leadership as conceptually different, he did not assert that they could not be the same people. Management skills are focused on the facilitation of organisational work, with the overseeing of work to be done and ensuring that it is undertaken in a way that accords with the regulations and rules of the organisation. The management skill lies in making sure the tasks of an organisation are done how they should be; leaders, on the other hand, are involved in identifying the goals of the organisation, with initiation of vision development related to what role an organisation is to play in the first place. It was declared by Bennis and Nanus (1985, 21) that "*Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing".* An important element of an organisational vision is the idea of it being a 'shared vision', and some research has indicated that the sharing of the personal vision of a leader in a way that organisational members adopt is, perhaps, what distinguishes a true leader from someone who is just a manager (Lunenburg, 2011). Successful leaders ought to have a certain degree of emotional intelligence and be able to realise the significance of the role of employees in the attainment of the goals of the organisation; as such, they should be able to give them the motivation to willingly work towards achieving the goals

in question (Nohria and Khurana, 2010). It was explained by Heller (2002) that whilst a manager tends to deal with planning, controlling and problem solving during the lifetime of an organisation, leaders tend to deal with the behaviour of the people within that organisation. For a manager to be effective, there is a need for the right combination of skills of leadership and management for the particular processes and situation (Marquis and Huston, 2009). Leaders are concerned with motivation of the members of their team in order to have enhanced vision and inspiration to make a reality of that vision. Furthermore, high levels of management could be considered as being able to generate a vision though, in order to achieve it, a sense of destiny has to be developed that the team shares. Kouzes and Posner (1995:124) considered that: *"Leadership is not about imposing the leader's solo dream. It's about enrolling others so that they can see how their own interests and aspirations are aligned with the vision and can thereby become mobilised to commit their individual energies to its realisation".* Management theories were classified into two primary categories by Heller (2002), i.e. the democratic style and the directional style. A style of management that is democratic can be said to be trying for a degree of engagement of the team within organisational decision-making. A directional style of management, on the other hand, would involve directing employees in their work in an attempt to fulfil the task(s) in question. As those in positions of leadership are always known as managers, however, such a classification has been rejected by numerous authors. Sy et al. (2006) indicate that leaders and managers are alike in a number of ways such as their establishment of relationships and networks in order for goals to be reached. There can be a difference between the terms leader and manager, however, as the former tends to focus upon the long-term strategies

and goals of an organisation, whereas the latter tends to concentrate upon the short-term planning and budgeting for a number of months or years ahead (Sy et al., 2006). the main differences that can be identified between leaders and managers.

Table 3.2: 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 3.2 clearly shows how the various activities of leaders and managers can be alike in a number of their elements, such as the reaching of goals by use of establishment of relationships and networks. However, managers would tend to have a better handle on operational deadlines and budgetary control, whereas leaders tend to be more able to bring about effective change (Sy et al., 2006).

Also, as highlighted by Northouse (2010), leadership dimensions can accord with various different classifications such as individual characteristics or a perspective on personality, or having a focus upon group processes.

The role of leader has been defined by Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007) as involving goal setting for the culture of an organisation and the shaping of the organisational vision, mission and objectives through giving followers something to believe and then helping them feel inspired and motivated to work towards the accomplishments of the objectives. In contrast to that perspective, Hughes and Avey (2009) considered that managers who are effective use their roles to ensure all operations are working at the optimal level and that there is efficiency in working towards the accomplishment of the goals of the organisation through the integration and control of resources. There is a suggestion that poor leadership may be in existence even if the management is effective, though without effective management there cannot be good leadership. Whilst some theorists have given the suggestion that leadership and management are interdependent or separate, there seems to be agreement that there is a need for both effective management and effective leadership for an organisation to be successful (Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007; Hughes and Avey, 2009). Moreover, there is a strong link between leadership and whether management either succeeds or fails; however, the relationship between leadership and management is inconclusive and still debated.

Lunenburg (2007) states that many management definitions point to the key role played by the effective utilisation of both material and human resources for the

achievement of common objectives and goals. The majority of scholars back the idea that leading is an important aspect of being an effective manager (Buford et al., 1995; Kibort, 2004; Yukl et al., 2008; Lussier and Achua, 2010). Within the AD Police (ADP) in the UAE, there are five primary functions for management, i.e. organisation, planning, human resource management and staffing, influencing and leading, and controlling. The influencing and leading management function in the ADP has been defined by Buford et al. (1995:7) as *"the process of inducing individuals (peers, superiors and subordinates) or groups to assist willingly and harmoniously in accomplishing organisational objectives".* As such, whilst ADP leaders may be expected to be organisational leaders, leadership is not necessarily positional. According to Nohria and Khurana (2010), and as reflected in the descriptions above, the leadership role is a challenging and demanding one, and so there is a need for the development and encouragement of the natural talents of potentially good leaders. The following section of this chapter has the aim of discussing the various leadership theories, styles such as transactional and transformational, for example, and showing their application within a public-sector setting, within the UAE in particular, where leadership is often culturally orientated, embracing traditional beliefs, norms and values.

3.4 Leadership Theories

Leadership has become a major area of interest in literature due to its pertinence and urgency in addressing a complex management phenomenon, as demonstrated by the proliferation of studies on this research area (Harris, Harris, and Eplion, 2007, Yukl, 2002, 2006; Bass and Bass, 2013, Scouller 2011). Leadership theories have evolved over the years. 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 the leadership style of the individual leader must be adaptable and their style matched to the specific situation or mind-sets of the employees. As Bass and Bass, (2008:95) indicate: *'an adequate analysis of leadership involves a study not only of leaders but also of situations'*. To put the leadership debate in perspective, a review of the key leadership theories is necessary.

The leadership literature is at times disjointed and inconsistent in the use terminology. In discussion of leadership theories, styles and models are often used interchangeably because it is often difficult to make a clear-cut distinction between them. For the purposes of this study "style" and "model" will be used interchangeably.

3.4.1 The 'Great Man theory'

In the nineteenth century and prior to the Second World War, there was a great deal of attention in leadership theory to the notion of the 'Great Man' (Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader, 2004). Such theorising had the assumption that leadership capacities were an inherent quality, and so great leaders were considered to be people who were not nurtured but born that way. It was considered that a 'great

man' naturally held the skills that were essential to help him in performing a leadership role. For Iszatt-White and Saunders (2014), an assumption that evident characteristics or qualities that had been inherited underlay the notion of the 'Great Man', that potential leaders were born that way; furthermore, they considered that there were assumptions that leaders were born a certain gender and into certain societal classes. Such theories give the portrayal of a great leader as someone with mythical, heroic qualities and destined to rise up to a leadership role when the time calls for it. Wider societal factors were not up for discussion as they would be nowadays and the term 'Great Man' itself was used as leadership qualities were being considered to be, primarily, male (Outcalt, et al. 2001). Thomas Carlyle undertook the most significant study of the theoretical development of 'Great Man' theories in 1846 with research into a number of great historical figures who had exhibited particular behaviours and seemed to possess certain types of characteristics. He documented the successful outcomes of such men, such as their affluence, political standing and prosperity and proposed that not everyone has what is required to be great. As Carlyle, (1946, cited in Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014) states, everyone is different but *"the Great Man was always as lightning out of heaven; the rest of men waited for him like fuel, and then they too would flame".*

In accordance with such theories, often centred on gender and race of the individual in question, emulation of the characteristics of such great men is necessary if a person were to become a good leader themselves. An inordinate amount of credence was given to particular variables that were immutable such as height, race, oration and gender. Furthermore, as noted by Ledlow and

Coppola (2011), variables that were mutable, such as religion, education and social class also featured heavily in early versions of the 'Great Man' theory. The early work of Galton in 1869 also gave strength to the theory of the 'Great Man' with his study of the hereditary background to the lives of great leaders (Bass and Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Also, the work of James (1880) gave emphasis to the congruence of great men with their surroundings, and highlighted how there was a reciprocal effect between individuals and environments (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011). The works of James, Galton and Carlyle although dated, have been very influential and are even today considered to be the biggest body of leadership research in existence.

In short, the Great Man theory of leadership is based on the belief that leaders are a rare breed of people, born with innate attributes and destined to lead. The deliberate use of the term 'man' suggests that leadership is a male dominated field, military and Western.

3.4.2 Trait theory

Following the 'Great Man' theory phase, as evolution of research into historical figures occurred, scholars were beginning to undertake examination of some of the commonalities between some of the great men of the past and tried to develop a finite list in relation to leadership traits. This central focus upon traits eventually became a distinct discipline known as 'Trait Theory', with the premise being that it ought to be possible to identify certain qualities that were superior and that differentiated a leader from followers (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011). As such, an assumption underlies 'Trait Theories,' that people may potentially become great

leaders if they were found to have such leadership traits. It was suggested by Iszatt-White and Saunders (2014) that 'Trait Theories' were seeking to provide an examination of the biological, behavioural and psychological characteristics that differentiated a leader from a non-leader or follower. Several early twentieth century researchers undertook research that sought to explain the notion of leadership in terms of characteristics, personality and traits (see, for example, Kohs and Irle, 1920; Bernard, 1926; Bingham, 1927; Tead, 1929; Page, 1935; and Kilbourne, 1935). Other authors made compilation lists of common traits that had been identified within numerous other studies and made suggestions of those characteristics and traits that were considered vital for leadership (see, for example, Smith and Krueger, 1933; Bird, 1940; and Jenkins, 1947). Up until the 1940s, the majority of leadership research had a focus upon the attributes and traits of leaders and the difference of them to those of followers (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

Lewin et al. (1939 cited in Ledlow and Coppola, 2011), undertook a major piece of research into 'Trait Theories' with a study of a group of children aged ten and eleven years of age in clubs for the making of masks, and discovered that leaders can be classified into one of three styles of leadership, i.e. laissez-faire, democratic and autocratic. The 'laissez-faire' style is where the involvement of the leader in decision-making is at a minimum; this style works best when the people involved are motivated and capable of their own decision-making and where central coordination is not necessary. The 'democratic' style is one where a leader ensures that people are involved in decision-making. However the final decision process may vary from facilitation of group consensus to a process that,

ultimately, involves the leader making the decision. This approach can be problematic if there is a big range of opinions and the way of arriving at a final, equitable decision is unclear. Thirdly, the 'autocratic' style involves a leader making decisions without having any consultation with other people. This approach works effectively if the decision does not require any input, where input would not change the decision even if given, and where there would be no effect upon the motivation of other people to undertake subsequent actions, whether or not they had had any involvement in the decision-making (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011).

3.4.3 The laissez-faire style of leadership

The laissez-faire style of leadership can also be considered as non-directive, passive or permissive, and it is one where the leader lets followers set their own goals and decide upon the ways in which they are to be achieved. As Catalano (2012) points out, the leader is involved very little, either in terms of planning, decision-making or directing. Masters and Wallace (2011) clarify that the French phrase 'laissez-faire' refers to someone being allowed to do something of their own accord. Responsibility is given to employees to undertake duties without a lot of close supervision or direction; as such, the leader provides guidance, ideas and information when necessary, though by and large exercises a policy in their dealings with employees that is 'hands-off', whilst, simultaneously setting goals and letting individuals decide upon how those goals are to be reached. It was noted by Masters and Wallace (2011) that a leader adopting the laissez-faire approach allows employees to make decisions independently, gives them encouragement to be creative and to take initiative, allows them to have

independence in their work and, rather guides the employees on general job 'know-how', whilst avoiding the provision of precise directives. Bass (1997 cited in Smothers, 2008) shares a similar view of laissez-faire leadership in suggesting it is an approach wherein leaders avoid taking proactive steps or interventions within a situation or even making any specific decisions at all. Meanwhile, Tulsian and Pandey (2008) have referred to a laissez-faire style of leadership as one that could be termed more of a 'non-leadership' approach given that members of the group are allowed by the leader to establish their own goals and to make and implement their own decisions. For Exantus (2012), the laissez-faire style of leadership ought to be considered as different in that it is neither a representation of a transactional or transformational style. Such a 'hands-off' approach is certainly not appropriate for every organisational situation and Masters and Wallace (2011) have stated it only operates well within organisations where creativity is required from employees such as in architectural practices, fashion design house and advertising agencies. It was suggested by Catalano (2012) that this approach works well if group members are educated to the same level as the leader and where he or she undertakes the same tasks as the members of the group. Masters and Wallace (2011) have also noted that the laissez-faire leadership style requires employees who are assertive, confident and creative and able to establish their own particular goals and achieve them. The laissez-faire style of leadership has received much criticism and, for Bass (1997 cited in Smothers, 2008), in contrast to the transactional leadership style, the laissez-faire approach is a representation of a non-transactional leadership style and, therefore, is frequently considered to be ineffective. Some studies however, including that of Bass, consider that the laissez-faire approach does actually lead

to enhanced performance of followers in some instances (Kunstler and Daly, 2010).

Likewise, the laissez-faire style of leadership has been characterised by Pride, et al. (2008) as administrative, 'management by exception' or 'passive-avoidant'. Exantus (2012) described the laissez-faire style as having the avoidance of leadership or it being absent, and argued that such leaders actively avoid participation in the decision-making of groups or individuals. Tulsian and Pandey (2008) acknowledged leadership that was laissez-faire did not involve direction or the provision of inspiration as the leader did not provide any to the followers in question.

It has been suggested by Northouse (2014) that since the leader was not involved in the instruction or regulation of subordinates, the lack of direction can lead to the whole environment becoming lacking in direction and purpose and becoming one of chaos and frustration; in such a way, the author believes it is difficult for followers to find meaning for the work and, with low motivation, productivity can be lost. A noteworthy work by Kirby et al. (1992, cited in Smothers, 2008) discovered that there was significantly less satisfaction with leaders amongst followers in situations where the laissez-faire style of leadership was at work. Also, various other research works have indicated that leaders who have a laissez-faire style of leadership are more often dissatisfied themselves with the leaders over them (Lirng et al., 2001; Stanfield, 2009). Both Whitehead et al. (2010) and Catalano (2012) suggested that, in the majority of situations, because of a lack of direction, guidance or goals, the laissez-faire approach can have people feeling a

sense of frustration or even at a loss. Furthermore, when situations become difficult, leaders with a laissez-faire style have often been found to avoid decision-making with a hope that the problem would have somehow worked itself out. So, it seems that only certain mature workers operate well under the laissez-faire style of leadership and in the majority of situations, the approach is unproductive and fails to lead to success.

Examination of the effects of the three aforementioned styles of leadership was undertaken by Lewin et al. (1939 cited in Ledlow and Coppola, 2011) who examined the effect upon group tension, the effect on feelings of a sense of team spirit and cooperation as opposed to individualism, and the effect upon production. In modern times, the work is the most highly quoted and most frequently cited in relation to leadership. The finding that was most significant within the work was that the leadership style that was considered the most effective was the 'democratic' approach; the 'laissez-faire' approach was considered to lead to less coherence within the patterns of work and to less energy being exerted, whilst the 'autocratic' style was considered to be excessive and resulted in revolutions as evidenced by world history.

3.4.4 Behavioural theories of leadership

As Ledlow and Coppola (2011) indicate, the behavioural leadership theories began to emerge within the 1950s. Iszatt-White and Saunders (2014) consider that these theories have tried to concentrate upon leader characteristics, demonstrated on a day-to-day basis that could be observed and measured. The

studies related to behavioural leadership that were most famous were the first two undertaken in the later years of the 1940s and in the 1950s by the State Universities of Ohio and Michigan.

Within the study by Ohio State University, leaders were evaluated by their subordinates using a Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) that had 150 different criteria that gleaned comments related to how often their leader was actually demonstrating certain qualities. Following the analysis of the findings and their categorisation, two dimensions arose, as follows:

1. Initiating Structure. A task focus whereby the leader concentrated upon the organisational goals and the related planning, control and criticism to ensure those goals were delivered (Landy and Conte, 2010). A leader that had a high score for this particular element was believed to have more effectiveness; however, a score for consideration that was not high meant that there was a higher degree of discontent experienced amongst employees and this frequently leads to higher levels of absenteeism and grievance (Korman, 1966, cited in Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014)

2. Consideration. For this element, there is a focus upon feelings and relationships in which a leader seeks to involve followers and support them, with mutual trust, team work and open communication valued qualities. If the leader scored highly for consideration it also meant that there was a high level of satisfaction amongst the associated subordinates (Landy and Conte, 2010).

For the research undertaken at the Michigan State University, on the other hand, there was an examination of the effect that the behaviour of leaders had upon small groups. This also resulted in two primary categories for the behaviour of leaders, i.e. a Production orientation and Employee orientation. The Production orientation had a focus upon technical and production job aspects and the use of employees, in the main, was considered a way of reaching a particular end. The Employee orientation, on the other hand, focused upon human relations, respect, trust and participation at the workplace (Robbins, 2009). At first, the study from Michigan State University had considered the production and employee categories as lying at ends of a leadership spectrum, with interest in goal achievement automatically meaning there was less interest in relations with employees. However, as the study from Ohio State University showed, it was possible for leaders to have high scores for both relationship and task elements. The categorisations were later developed into two dimensions that were independent (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014; Yukl, 2010).

Lots more empirical research followed these two initial studies and, in the main, they confirmed the conclusions that had been reached. Studies that had a focus upon examination of the intersection of the two research approaches related to leader effectiveness, however, were mainly inconclusive. So, the attention of researchers has shifted towards offering more refined perspectives upon behaviour that saw a complex behavioural interaction as having more relevance to the effectiveness of leadership (Yukl, 2010). The Blake and Mouton Management Grid was another noteworthy approach that came out of the original research into the orientations of employee and production (Zeidan, 2009). The

belief that underlay this approach held that there is a sound consistent leadership style that can be exercised in various situations. Two variables are utilised within the grid which are concerned with production inspired by the production orientation and the described employee orientation. These variables are viewed as interdependent within the model; that is, at their connection point they stop being variables that are separate and are combined into a new creation. The implication is that if the score of a leader changes for one variable, there will be an impact in the score in relation to another type of variable (Borkowski, 2011). Blake and McCanse (1991, cited in Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014) consider there to be five main intersection areas, as follows:

- *The Impoverished Management Leader* (score of 1.1) does the minimum necessary for completion of a job and can seem apathetic with regard to tasks in question and has infrequent interaction with employees;

- *The Team Management Leader* (score of 9.9) is extremely pro-active and has a high level of involvement with the task and with employees, who are given responsibility and trust. The suggestion from the model is that this type of leader is the best for all types of situations and is the type of person who is approachable for the employees and offers clarity for the purpose of the work;

- *A Country-Club Management Leader* (score of 9.1) has a high level of concern for people though a low-level of concern for the production and, as such, manages to facilitate a working environment that is very good, however there is a degree of compromise for the speed of completion of tasks;

- *An Authority-Compliance Management Leader* (score 1.9) is one who minimises the relational aspects of management though has a belief in the gaining of an efficient work tempo (Borkowski, 2011).

- *The Middle-of-the-Road Management leader* (score 5.5) has sufficient balance to advance the organisation adequately.

Blake and Mouton (1964) made the important discovery in using their model that leaders may, in fact, switch between different styles without an integration of them. Furthermore, they had the recognition that for certain leaders, their main task was their own personal advancement and that such people could use any of the aforementioned styles if it helped them in their ambitions in some way; the term for this style is 'opportunism' (Robbins, 2009).

Table 3.2: From 'Great Man' to 'Transformational Leadership'

Great Man Theories	Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the school of Trait Theories
Trait Theories	The lists of traits associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life.

Behaviourist Theories	These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practising managers.
Situational Leadership	This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, while some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation.
Contingency Theory	This is a refinement of the situational viewpoint and focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most appropriate or effective leadership style to fit the particular circumstances.
Transactional Theory	This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty of the followers.
Transformational Theory	The central concept here is change and the role of leaders in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance.

Source: Bolden, et al. (2003, p.6)

Some leadership traits appear more frequently than others, including: technical skill, friendliness, task motivation, application to task, group task supportiveness, social skill, emotional control, administrative skill, general charisma, and intelligence. Of these, the most widely explored has tended to be "charisma". The following table lists those identified by Stogdill (1974).

Table 3.3 Leadership traits and skills

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

Source: Stogdill (1974)

The following figure illustrates Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964) which, although might be considered rather dated, is still a useful tool to evaluate leadership style for change and improvement.

Figure 3.1 Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964)
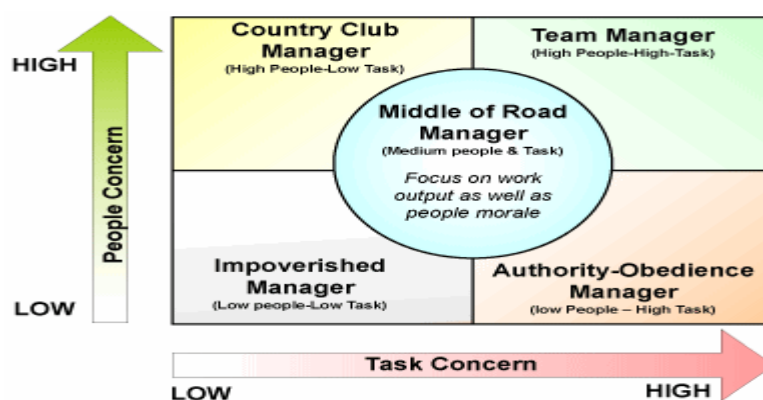
Source**:** The Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964)

The next significant approach to behavioural studies of leadership with a basis in relationships and tasks was that developed by Likert (1977) who undertook more than five hundred studies into over 350 companies, with a survey of 200,000 subordinates and 20,000 managers. Following analysis of the findings, four significant managerial behaviour patterns were identified and formed into a 4-system model (Ercetin, 2012). The first of these is the 'Exploitative Authoritative' which is an approach that is dictatorial from leaders who are autocratic; there is minimal involvement and delegation of subordinates in the decision making with this pattern of leadership. Work motivation comes by way of fear of punishment or actual punishment. The next kind is the 'Benevolent Authoritative' wherein delegation to and involvement of subordinates within decision-making remains minimal. However, motivation come from reward rather than the threat or use of punishments. The third type is 'Consultative' wherein there is information sharing with subordinates and involvement of them in the processes of decision-making; furthermore, there is a preference for teamwork and, therefore, more of the trust can be maintained. Finally, the type known as 'Participative' is that where there is active involvement of subordinates in the decision-making and where the communication at all organisational levels, and between them, is open; such an active involvement of the stakeholders leads to high trust levels within an organisation (Swansburg, 2002). It was found by Likert that the closer that the leadership and management of a company was to the 'Participative' type, then the higher the company productivity levels and the greater were the potential of earnings (Likert, 1979, cited in Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014). The research discovered that where that style of leadership was in evidence in an organisation, productivity increases were reported as being at a level from 10% to 40% whilst,

simultaneously, levels of health, labour relations and employee satisfaction within the companies were good too. So, as with the work of Blake and Mouton (1984), there was the proposal from Likert that, across every situation, one leadership way has a relevance (Bhatia, 2010).

3.4.5 Situational theories of leadership

Bass and Stogdill (1990) consider that the situational leadership theories are in direct opposition to the trait theories and suggest that questions of leadership are all a case of the demands of each situation, i.e. the emergence of a leader is determined by situational factors. Fairholm and Fairholm (2009) argue that situational theories emerged from a notion that behavioural theories are inadequate for the complexities of society and work as particular behaviours tend to be of most use only in particular types of situation. The idea has its basis in the belief that what leaders do is determined by the situation and that behaviours have to have congruence with the particular environment in question. As such, based on these theories, the leader is not the relative of the leader before, but arises as the result of the specific situation (Fairholm and Fairholm, 2009). From the late 1960s, leadership theories began to shift towards these perspectives and throughout the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s, such approaches continued to be developed further and refined (Vecchio, 1987, cited in Northouse, 2011).

Wren (1995) suggested that situational leadership theories are an attempt to show the relationship that is appropriate between a particular situational aspect, namely the level of readiness shown by followers, and the behaviour of the leader in question. The suggestion is that a leader has to keep sensitivity towards the

readiness levels of followers, which can be defined as their willingness and ability to undertake a specific task. Also, as there is the assignment of new tasks, or the establishment of new goals, or as personal problems emerge, leaders need to be mindful of how the readiness levels may change. The ability here can be seen as a function of the skills and/or knowledge that have been acquired from experience, training and/or education. Willingness can be considered as a combination of motivation, confidence and commitment. Lussier and Achua (2013) suggested that a follower that is confident can perform a task adequately without the need for a great deal of supervision; whilst they define motivation as the enthusiasm and interest of a person in performing a task. So, there has to be an appropriate adjustment in the behaviour of the leader. Northouse (2013) shared similar views in stating a situational style of leadership requires that leaders match their leadership style to the commitment and competence of their subordinates, and that effective leaders are those able to recognise the needs of their employees and are then able to adapt their leadership style in order for those needs to be met.

There is a stress with situational leadership theory that leadership comprises both supportive and directive elements and that each of them has to be applied to an appropriate degree for any particular situation. In order to determine what is required in any specific situation, leaders have to undertake an evaluation of the employees and make an assessment of how committed and competent they are for the performance of a particular task. With the basis in the assumption that, over time, the motivation and skills of an employee vary, there is the suggestion with situational leadership theory that leaders ought to alter the degree to which

their style is either supportive or directive in order to meet the changing requirements of their subordinates (Northouse, 2013). Thus, the underlying notion with situational leadership is an assumption that the style involves a dynamic interaction where the level of readiness of followers could change and where the behaviour of leaders has to also change to an appropriate degree so that the follower performance can be maintained.

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) were responsible for one of the key works within the development of the situational leadership approach. For them, follower readiness could be split into four different levels: R1, where there are low levels of both willingness and capability; R2, where there is a high level of willingness though a low level of capability; R3, where the level of capability is high though the level of willingness is low or moderate; and R4, where there are high levels of both willingness and capability (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014). Based on this situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard, styles of leadership can be categorised into four distinct groups of supportive and directive behaviours:

a) S1, also known as a directive style, is one in which there is a high level of direction and a low level of support and in which the communication from the leader is concentrated upon the achievement of goals and in which very little time is spent utilising supportive behaviour. Instruction is given to subordinates about the goals and how they are to be reached, followed by careful supervision (Bhatia, 2010). This leadership style may be appropriate for groups lacking willingness and the necessary competence to perform relevant tasks, i.e. R1 (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014);

b) S2, also known as a coaching approach, is one in which there is both a high level of direction and a high level of support in which communication of the leader has a focus upon the achievement of the goals in question and upon the meeting of the socio-emotional needs of the subordinates. Such leaders have involvement with their subordinates, encourage them and seek their input whilst, ultimately, keeping the final decisions over what goals are to be reached, and how they are to be reached, to themselves (Northouse, 2013). This style of leadership is most appropriate for groups with a level of readiness of R2, where there is a high willingness to undertake a task that has been assigned but a low level of competence (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014);

c) S3, known as the supportive approach, is a style wherein the level of support is high though the level of direction is low. When taking this approach, a leader does not have an exclusive focus upon goals though utilises supportive behaviour to encourage the employees to bring their skills forward for the accomplishment of the task(s) in question. Such a style involves listening, the taking of suggestions and feedback, and praising, with the leader handing the control over everyday decisions to the subordinates whilst remaining available to help with problem solving if necessary (Northouse, 2013). This type of style of leadership is appropriate when people have a variable degree of commitment toward the tasks assigned to them though have a high degree of competence, i.e. R3 (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014);

d) S4, the delegating approach to leadership is one where the style is low in both direction and support where less social support and task input is

offered, though the leader facilitates the confidence of the employees and their motivation for performing tasks. Such leaders tend to reduce their involvement in the controlling of details, the planning of the work and the clarifying of goals. Following agreement with a group over what tasks need to be done, and how they are to be done, a leader leaves subordinates to decide upon the manner in which they are to be accomplished. As such, in adopting this style, control is given to subordinates by the leader who then keeps from intervening with any unnecessary forms of social support (Northouse, 2013). This type of leadership is most appropriate for groups with a level of readiness of R4, that is, those groups comprised of people with high levels of both competence and willingness to accomplish the associated tasks (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014).

As Landy and Conte (2010) indicate there are several strengths with an approach that has situational leadership. It is viewed by many experts as a standard by which leaders can be trained. Also, it is an approach that is practical that is easy to understand and apply (Robbins, 2009). Also, if a leader wishes to enhance the effectiveness of their leadership, the approach lays out a distinct group of prescriptions for action (Borkowski, 2011). A further strength of situational leadership is that there is an emphasis on there being more than one appropriate leadership style; leaders are instead encouraged to have flexibility and be willing to adapt their leadership style to the particular situational demands (Northouse, 2013). There has, however, also been a degree of criticism of the approach. To begin with, the theoretical underpinnings to the approach do not have the support and justification of a large body of robust research; as such, there is a degree of

ambiguity with regard to how certain leadership aspects are conceptualised by the approach (Northouse, 2013). There is a lack of clarity for explanation of how subordinates develop from a low level of operation to a higher one, nor how, over time, their level of commitment, changes (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011). Without a sufficient body of research, the levels of development have to be questioned. Also, there is a failure of the model to address how the demographic characteristics have a bearing upon the preferences of employees with regard to leadership. There are no guidelines provided for how the approach can be used by leaders within the setting of a group rather than contexts that are one to one (Robbins, 2009).

3.4.6   Contingency theories of leadership

Contingency leadership theories emphasise the idea that leaders are not effective in every situation. There will be success if the style of leadership of a leader matches a work situation well; however, there is likely to be failure if the style does not match the situation well (Landy and Conte, 2010). Fiedler (1974) suggests the most important model for contingency in this study, involving a survey requesting subordinates to give a description of leaders or managers with whom they had enjoyed working. Bipolar adjectives were used for rating the person in question, such as unfriendly or friendly and, by this method, the leader or manager was judged to be either task focused or relationship focused (Robbins, 2009). The Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale was developed by Fiedler (1974) based upon his survey findings. There is the suggestion with the model that if a leader has a LPC score that is low, they are a more task focused leader, and that a high LPC score relates to a leader who has a relationship oriented focus. Those with a

score that is high may have poor performance when under considerable pressure as their focus is more upon people than the task in question. On the other hand, those with a score that is low would be those who achieve a task without considering others and this is emphasised further in stressful situations (Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014). There is the suggestion with contingency theories that there can be three categorisations for situations, i.e. position power, task structure and the relations between leader and member(s). Position power refers to the degree of authority held by a leader to punish followers or reward them, and includes power that is legitimately acquired by individuals because of their position within an organisation. There is strong position power if someone has the authority to award rises in pay or rank, or to employ or sack someone; conversely, there is weak position power when someone does not have such authority (Borkowski, 2011). The task structure variable for situations refers to the degree to which there is clear spelling out of the task requirements. When there is complete structure to a task, there is a tendency for the leader to be given greater control, whilst unclear, vague tasks would tend to lessen the influence and control of a leader (Robbins, 2009). Thirdly, the leader-member relations comprise the loyalty, confidence and sense of attraction that followers feel towards the leader (Borkowski, 2011). When subordinates like, trust and cooperate with a leader and the atmosphere of the group is positive, then leader-member relations can be said to be good. On the other hand, when there is friction within a group and a lack of friendliness, then the relations of leader-member can be said to be poor. The three situational factors, when taken together, can be seen as determining whether a situation within an organisation is favourable. Situations have the least favourable rating when there are unstructured tasks, weak leader position power and when

the relations between leader and follower are poor. On the other hand, defined tasks, strong leader position power and good relations of leader-follower would tend to lead to situations with a most favourable rating. Circumstances between those two extremes would tend to be more rated as moderately favourable. As noted by Robbins (2009), certain styles of leadership have more effectiveness within certain types of situation. Those people with a low LPC score, i.e. who are task motivated, would tend to have greater effectiveness in situations that are both very unfavourable and very favourable. As such, low LPC scorers would tend to be effective when situations are out of control or, conversely, proceeding smoothly. On the other hand, those who have a high LPC score, i.e. those who have a relationship oriented motivation would tend to be effective in situations that could be described as moderately favourable; as such, if there is a degree of certainty though things are proceeding neither in a completely controlled way nor in a way that is totally out of control, then high LPC scorers would tend to be effective (Fiedler, 1974, cited in Northouse, 2013). It was argued by Fiedler and Mahar (1979, cited in Iszatt-White and Saunders, 2014) that instead of a person adjusting his or her motivation or personality to be suitable for a particular situation, leaders find it easier to adjust a situation so that it suits his or her own particular leadership style. Furthermore, in certain situations, for an organisation to have the best possible result, it may be the most appropriate thing to change the leader or the situation or both of them.

Path-goal theory is another important contingency theory which has the assertion that for leaders to be have effectiveness, they have to engage in types of behaviour that are complementary to the abilities and environments of

subordinates in a way that is compensatory for their deficiencies and also in a way that is instrumental to the performance of the individual(s) and work unit, and that facilitates the satisfaction of subordinates (House, 1971, cited in Wart, 2012). Expressed another way, it is the responsibility of the leader to seek for the alignment of the goals of the organisation and the worker, and to then make sure that the path for the employee in trying to attain the goals is made clear. Social exchange theory (see, for example, Hollander, 1978 and Homans, 1958) and expectancy theory (see, for example, Vroom, 1964) are the theoretical foundation from which path-goal theory has been developed. There is the assumption within the theory that employees and workers are engaged in a relationship that is one of mutually beneficial exchange and that it is the job of the leader to seek the enhancement of the shared goals and sense of reciprocity; the leader has an emphasis upon the two contingency types that can be seen within the transactional model of leadership, i.e. a comprehensive focus on subordinate and task characteristics. The numerous contingencies that could be deficient are examined by the theory and there is the suggestion that a specific need would be remedied by the particular leadership type (Fairholm and Fairholm, 2009). A key contribution made by the theory is the conceptualisation it has of the requirements for leadership. There is the suggestion that there is not always a need for leadership; instead, it suggests that leadership supplies what is missing or needed for a task environment and/or for subordinates. The theory has the argument that when conditions are ideal, and when co-operative, highly motivated and well-trained employees are in place who have suitable incentives and ample supplies, there is very little need for leadership. However, such conditions are very rare and so leaders are needed to improve conditions and maintain them (Wart, 2012).

The appropriate style to adopt is mainly related to contingencies that are either related to the followers or the task. Whilst in theory, there is an endless number of contingencies that are task related, there are five primary factor types that are identified by path-goal theory, i.e. task difficulty, task ambiguity, job quality (such as monotonous, stressful and so on), worker control (autonomy or level) and interdependency (such as need for a team approach) (Bhatia, 2010). Another type of contingency groups those involving subordinates, i.e. the preferred fulfilment types, work preferences and the training and experience of workers. So that such contingent needs can be attended to, there is a suggestion that there are four styles of leadership, i.e. achievement-oriented, participative, supportive and directive (Griffin, 2011). Leadership behaviour that is achievement-oriented has direction towards encouragement of excellence in performance through the setting of goals that are challenging, through looking for improvement and having an emphasis upon performance excellence. Also, the leader shows confidence that the subordinates will reach the high performance standards required. A leader that is participative, on the other hand, looks at encouraging influence of the subordinates in the making of decisions and in the operation of work units, i.e. a participative leader consults with subordinates and takes account of their suggestions and opinions when decisions are being made (House, 1996, cited in Wart, 2012). The third style, that of the supportive leader, involves behaviour directed at satisfying the preferences and needs of subordinates, such as looking to create a work environment that is psychologically supportive and friendly, and through displaying concern for the welfare of the subordinates. Finally, the leader who has a style that is directive is one that looks to clarify paths/goals and has behaviour geared towards the provision of a structure for subordinates in

psychological terms, i.e. subordinates are informed what the expectations are for them, the work is scheduled and coordinated, and specific guidance is provided along with clarification of any rules, procedures or policies that are relevant to their tasks (House, 1996).

So, based on the aforementioned contingencies, in accordance with path-goal theory, and the present contingencies, various styles can be relevant to supply that which is 'missing'. When there is a lack of formalisation and clarity in the job at hand, structure can be supplied by directive leadership and this is appropriate when subordinates have had a lack of education or training and in situations where, in general, workers prefer order and structure in their work (Whitney, 2007).

If there is job complexity and/or significant change, it is helpful to have leadership behaviour that is participative, in addition to behaviours that are achievement-oriented when there is a need for higher standards. Furthermore, if workers prefer a high degree of control over their workload, a style that is more achievement-oriented or participatory has a tendency to lead to better work (Griffin, 2011). When jobs are unpleasant there is a call for leadership behaviour that is more supportive. When jobs are highly interdependent, participatory leadership styles are more appropriate. Meanwhile, directive leadership is preferable when high security is needed. However, if the need for security is low, then a style that is achievement-oriented may be more appropriate. Furthermore, if workers have a greater degree of control of their work, there is a tendency for leadership behaviour that is achievement-oriented to work better. So, leaders that have a

strong wish for individualistic recognition have a tendency to prefer styles that are achievement-oriented and supportive, whereas those leaders who tend to be more interested in the success of the group tend to be more amenable to styles that are participatory (Whitney, 2007).

There is the suggestion that there several advantages to the participative style of leadership, as seen by path-goal theory and the situational theories and the models hailing from Ohio and Michigan State Universities and Hersey and Blanchard. However, as noted by Landy and Conte (2010), there are important disadvantages; when members of a group lack the knowledge or ability for difficult decision-making, or when a conclusion cannot be reached, either by the leader or in working with each other, then there is potential that decision quality may ultimately suffer in situations where a participative leadership style has been adopted (Bass and Bass, 2008). There is an assumption with the model that the leader has the important duty of making decisions and there is a suggestion of a manner of choosing a strategy for decision-making. However, there is also the equally significant implication that it is not always suitable to have an entirely participative leadership style or decision-making by a group (Rigolosi, 2005). Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012) consider that the model proposes a leader has to adopt a style of leadership depending on the circumstances, the implication being that a leader may have an autocratic style in one set of circumstances and a participatory one in another. As such, it is considered that to administer effectively, there is a need for an ability to diagnose a situation correctly and then select a suitable style for decision-making.

Figure 3.2 Contingency theories of style of leadership

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┌─────────────────────────────┐
│ Leadership Styles           │
│   ▪ Directive               │
│   ▪ Supportive              │              ┌──────────────────────────────────┐
│   ▪ Participative           │              │ Ideal conditions for each style  │
│   ▪ Achievement-oriented    │              │ determined by situational factors│
└──────────────┬──────────────┘              │   ▪ Task: clarity of job,        │
               │                             │     difficulty,                  │
               │                             │     stressfulness and danger,    │
               │                             │     interdependency, worker      │
               │                             │     control, etc.                │
               │◄────────────────────────────│   ▪ Subordinates: experience     │
               │                             │     and training, work           │
               │                             │     preferences, types of        │
               │                             │     fulfilment desired, etc.     │
               │                             │                                  │
               │                             │ Strategies for success           │
               ▼                             │   ▪ Ability to select correct    │
┌─────────────────────────────┐              │     style                        │
│ Performance Goals           │              └──────────────────────────────────┘
│   ▪ Follower needs and      │
│     satisfaction            │
│   ▪ Production efficiency   │
└─────────────────────────────┘
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Source: House and Mitchell, (1974)

Vroom and Yetton (1973) developed another key contingency model in order to address this matter, which presented seven rules that enabled leaders to select the appropriate style of decision-making. The initial three rules have a focus upon the decision quality. As such, if a decision is of importance and a subordinate possesses the relevant information that the leader lacks, then it is not suitable to have a decision made in an autocratic way as the leader would not be adequately informed. If, on the other hand, the quality of decision is of importance, though subordinates do not share in the concern for the goals of a task that the leader has, then it would be inappropriate to have group decision-making as potentially uncooperative or even hostile people would be given far too much influence. If the quality of decision is of importance, and there is an unstructured decision problem

and a leader without possession of the required expertise and information for making a sound decision, however, then the decision in question ought to be made through the interaction of people in possession of the relevant information (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2012).

The following four model rules address the acceptance of decisions. An autocratic style of decision is not suitable if it is important that a decision is accepted as it is unlikely that subordinates will accept a decision that is autocratic. The implementation of the decision may not be effective. Furthermore, if it is important that a decision is accepted, which is unlikely with a decision that is autocratic even though subordinates share the task objectives of the leaders, then subordinates ought to be permitted to be equal partners in the decision-making process as there would be a maximisation of acceptance without the quality being risked. When the acceptance of the decision has importance and there is likely to be disagreement amongst the subordinates about an important problem/issue and the best way to solve it, then it is inappropriate to have individual consultation and autocratic procedures as they fail to provide the chance of differences being resolved by way of negotiation and discussion amongst the subordinates, or between the leader and the subordinates (Yukl, 2006). Moreover, if the quality of decision is not of great importance though acceptance of it is vital, which is unlikely with a decision that is autocratic, then the only procedure that would be suitable would be to have a decision from the group, as this would maximise acceptance without the quality of decision being risked (Lunenburg and Ornstein, 2012). The value of the model has been supported by further research. Upon adoption of a strategy for decision-making through the suggestions of the model, there was a 62% success rate of

decision makers as opposed to a 37% rate of success for taking other approaches (Vroom and Jago, 1988)

3.4.7 The theory of leader-member exchange (LMX)

According to the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, two kinds of relationship exist between the leader and the follower. One of these has its basis in the formal relationships that are established within an employment contract. This is also known as 'low quality leader-member relationships' and related to the term 'out-group'. The other kind of relationship is based upon role responsibilities that are negotiated and extended and that include respect, mutual influence and trust, and these are also known as 'high quality leader-member relationships and related to the term 'in-group' (Winkler, 2010). It has been argued by Rainey (2009) that employees within an 'in-group' are recipients of the benefits of being given assignments that are of more interest and they participate within the making of decisions of importance. However, when compared to members of an 'out-group', members of an 'in-group' also have a greater number of obligations, such as meeting the expectations of leaders, of working harder and the bearing of greater responsibility. There are also corresponding types of benefit and obligation for the leader in relationships such as these (O'Donnell, 2009).

A further suggestion by Winkler (2010) is that group members enter into one of these two kinds of groups early on, with the distinction depending on how the superior-subordinate relationship develops as the mutual role is defined, as well as the assessment by the participants of the potential costs and advantages of such relationships. According to Rowe and Guerrero (2011), personal

characteristics and personality traits also play a significant role as they have a bearing upon the attitudes and behaviours of both subordinate and leader. It was proposed by Forsyth (2009) that in becoming a member of one of these two kinds of groups, there is a dependency upon subordinate behaviour with regard to the degree to which he or she has responsibility developing within that relationship of leader to follower. The greater the degree of willingness to make a contribution to group aims over and above the role that has been formally defined by the hierarchy within the work contract, then the more likelihood that a subordinate will enter into being a part of an 'in-group' (Leponiemi, 2008). A consequence of this is that mutual relationships between the follower and leader include mutual influence and trust as well as the more formal aspects (Larson, 2006). If, on the other hand, a follower does not wish to assume greater responsibility, he or she will become an 'out-group' member. According to LMX theory, leadership is conceptualised into an interaction process between the follower and leader that has a focus on the relationships between them. As noted by Van Breukelen et al. (2006), within work groups, the relationships of leader to follower can be divided into a working relationship set between the various work team members and the leader. LMX theory emerged in the 1970s and had the underlying assumption that various relationships develop between leaders and all of their followers, and so a leader can have several different transaction types and relationship types with various different followers (Rowe and Guerrero, 2011). The theory has the proposal, therefore, that followers and leaders are engaged in an exchange type of relationship wherein leaders lead the followers as they get something from them, and followers follow as they are in receipt of something from their leader (Messick, 2005).

3.5 Neo-emergent leadership theory

The Oxford School of Leadership developed the theory of neo-emergent leadership, with the suggestion that emerging information by a leader of another stakeholder creates leadership, instead of it being because of the true leader actions. Expressed another way, the basis of a perception of leadership amongst a majority is formed by stories or information being reproduced. In modern society, blogs, the mainstream press and other information sources have reports with their own particular viewpoint with regard to a leader. A particular view may have a basis in reality, though it could have a basis in a form of payment, the vested interests of the media, a leader or the author, or be based upon a political command. The inference from the theory is the perceptions of leaders are a created thing that may, in reality, not be a true reflection of the leadership qualities possessed by a person (Avolio 2009).

3.6 The environmental leadership theory

Leadership is described by the environmental leadership model from the perspective of group dynamics that incorporates group psychology and self-awareness for the nurturing of environments that promote a self-sustaining form of group leadership, with a basis in the personal and emotional gratification taken from the group activities. Environmental leadership theory states that a psychological structure is created by an environmental leader through which the employees are able to discover and attain gratification in their work or activities (Williams, 2012). The theory has an insistence that all individuals have a variety of environments that can bring forward various aspects of their identities. Each of the various environmental facets is driven by perceptions within them that are

emotionally charged. An environmental leader is one who is able to create a platform, by way of awareness raising and education, from which an individual can fulfil their emotional needs and from where he or she can be more consciously aware of how and when they impact upon the emotional gratifications of other team members and the group as a whole (Avolio 2009). So, rather than environmental leadership being about changing the group 'mind-set' or changing the mind-set of a particular person, it is more about cultivating an environment that inspires individuals within a group and that brings out the best in them. Rather than it being about having an ability to influence another to undertake an action to which they are not committed, it is more a case of nurturing a working culture that gives motivation and that benefits everyone. Rather than carrying other people towards a particular end, it is rather the establishment of surroundings that help in the development of qualities in people so that they are able to carry one another (Carmazzi, 2013). So, environmental leaders are those who are able to instil passion within their employees and who give a group and its dynamics appropriate direction. A psychological support system is implemented within a group setting by an environmental leader that enables the developmental and emotional group needs to be filled (Carmazzi, 2013)

3.7 Theories of transformational and transactional leadership

Towards the end of the 20th century, two significant theories of leadership, namely transformational leadership theory and transactional leadership theory, emerged because of the challenges presented to organisations as they sought to cope with change within modern society (Bertocci, 2009). The theory of transformational leadership is taking a leading role within research related to leadership (Keskes,

2014). The concept has the suggestion that it is insufficient for followers to be dealt with by a leader just in terms of punishments and rewards. Transformational leadership theory calls for leaders to be able to identify the changes needed, and for them to create visions that can guide people as those changes are made through active involvement of subordinates, inspiration and the execution of processes in a committed way Western, (2008). Burns (1978) was the first to introduce the concept in describing leadership that was transformational as having a basis in a commitment to values that are shared, in which people engage in a way that both followers and leaders raise the levels of morality and motivation in each other to higher and higher levels (Burns 1978). It was suggested by Marshall (2011) that transformational leadership requires emotional intelligence with values systems, and with attention given to the spirit with which followers and leaders are involved with one another, to raise spirits and provide inspiration.

For Neider and Schriesheim (2002), transformational leadership is a style that is involved with an underlying process of influence that gives followers motivation through encouraging self-interests to be transcended for accomplishing goals and the good of the organisation. Followers are motivated to exceed original expectations and to feel a sense of respect, loyalty, admiration and trust in relation to their leader. The transformational style has a focus upon changing the beliefs, interests, values and morale of employees in order for the performance to be enhanced over and above initial expectations. This focus is achieved through increased awareness and acceptance of the values and goals of the organisation and through helping the employees have a perspective that goes beyond just their personal self-interest (Spagnoli and Caetano, 2012). Leaders that are

transformational have a tendency to be visionary, charismatic and inspirational so that the results that some may perceive as extraordinary can be achieved (Marshall, 2011). It was suggested by Neider and Schriesheim (2002) that transformational leaders raise the consciousness and awareness levels of followers with regard to the importance and value of significant accomplishments and outcomes, and they are able to help and encourage their followers in transcending their own personal interest so that the group may be enhanced and/or the interests of the team, the organisation and even wider society can be met (Bertocci, 2009).

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, was a concept that Max Weber first described back in 1947 and that later re-emerged in the work of Benjamin Bass in the early 1980s (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011). Gibson et al. (2003) consider transactional leadership to be a kind of leadership whereby a leader identifies the kinds of rewards that are wanted by followers, then helps them achieve a performance level that leads to them receiving such rewards. Meanwhile, George and Jones (2009) have defined transactional leadership as a type that involves the motivation of followers through the noticing of the mistakes of subordinates and the reprimanding of them for those mistakes and for performance that is substandard, as well as the exchange of rewards when high levels of performance are seen. If a transactional leadership approach is taken, a leader has a reliance upon contingent rewards that have a dependence on a follower undertaking the necessary actions in order to receive those rewards. So, for example, for a follower to get a promotion, he or she may have to have an increased workload, or sales may have to be increased by them in order to have a better salary or

costs may have to be lowered in order to get a bigger bonus (Bertocci, 2009). For a transactional leader, the concepts from path to goal act as a guiding framework. However, a leader may also adjust directions, organisational missions and goals so that effectiveness can be achieved. According to Hood (2007), it is very important that both followers and leaders have flexibility within such an approach.

Leaders who are transactional tend to have a focus upon the establishment of goals and the setting of rewards so that followers will work towards their accomplishment. Transactional leaders also monitor progress towards the achievement of the set goals, so that compliance to the rules of the organisation and the instructions of the leaders is increased (Testa, 2011). Leaders with a transactional style can be considered as those with a tendency to focus upon control and efficiency within processes, with a preference for avoiding risk and a preference for working with the system as it stands (Keskes, 2014). Transactional leadership can be considered as having three dimensions, i.e. non-leadership behaviour known as 'laissez-faire', management by exception, and contingent reward (Hetland et al., 2011).

3.8 Transformational styles of leadership

Bertocci (2009) claims that the transformational style of leadership involves ten different functions that work to give definition to the way in which a vision is achieved by leaders by working with and through others to effect change. Firstly, a leader who is transformational is one that looks out for opportunities, whether they are leading an organisation, an organisational division or just a small workgroup. The transformational leader continues to search for opportunities for innovation and improvement to performance, for the group that is being lead, on

an ongoing basis (Bush, 2011). Secondly, a transformational type of leader is willing to take risks and to experiment in a way that challenges the status quo and creates working environments that encourage subordinates to experiment and take risks themselves. So, experimentation can involve challenges to the status quo and the creation of a working environment that helps encourage subordinates to experiment and challenge the status quo themselves whilst, simultaneously, fostering creative thinking and making sure that success brings a greater reward than the penalties that come forth for having failed. As such, a positive attitude is encouraged that encourages subordinates to feel challenged and able to effect change (Hood, 2007). Thirdly, a leader that is transformational develops a vision of high performance that lets followers envision what the unit could be and that helps followers share in a sense of common ground and common purpose (Marshall, 2011). The fourth function of a transformational leader is that he or she enlists the help of others in obtaining a commonly accepted vision or action plan by placing an emphasis upon a sense of common purpose and through communicating the vision effectively through showing faith in the followers and through demonstration of his or her own belief in that organisational vision (Hood, 2007). The fifth function of a transformational leader is the fostering of collaboration involving the coming together of people to work towards the challenging goals of the vision. Group problem solving and cooperation is promoted by a transformational leader instead of conflict and he or she creates interaction mechanisms for the subordinates and builds trust amongst them through trusting them in the first place until any reason for not trusting them emerges (Lucas, 2005). A sixth function of a transformational leader is the strengthening of others by, for example, enhancing the capacity of employees in

the achievement of the goals of a vision by giving them the resources, knowledge and tools for the job. Employees are empowered by a transformational leader through the provision of the autonomy and authority for decision-making in their work. Followers are provided with the information they need and the transformational leader works to take away obstructions such as excessive bureaucracy and 'red tape' (Marshall, 2011). The seventh function of transformational leaders is example-setting, with them always trying to be a role model for how one needs to think and behave in order to accomplish the organisational vision. An eighth function of the transformational leader is that they plan and establish series of small goals and wins that would make a contribution to the overarching goals of the organisational vision (Bush, 2011). Accomplishment of such small goals helps an employee to see how progress is being made and this builds in him or her a confidence and a positive attitude with regard to the vision as a whole (Lucas, 2005). The ninth function of a transformational leader is that they make expectations known, are able to connect the rewards to the performance, and they ensure that performance can be measured. Transformational leaders remove any obstacles to the achievement of the task goals and the consequent receipt of reward, and they provide rewards that are valued by people and they seek to be consistent in their reward distribution for good performance (Hood, 2007). Finally, a transformational leader is one who is a kind of cheerleader for subordinates and would recognise achievements and accomplishments and celebrate them in a public and visible way (Bertocci, 2009).

Burns (1978) was, in fact, the first to introduce a model of transformational leadership; it was developed based upon research that described political leaders (Hood, 2007). His model had a focus upon the interdependent, dynamic relationships that existed between followers and leaders, and had a basis on an assumption that it was difficult to differentiate between leadership and management. However, Burns claimed that there were differences in the behaviours and characteristics of leaders and managers and suggested the two distinctive styles of leadership of 'transforming' and 'transactional' (Winkler, 2010). In accordance with the model, 'transforming leadership' relates to change and social justice and, to align with that perspective, a major role for leadership is considered to be the bringing of self-awareness for followers in regard to their values and needs. Rather than a transactional leadership approach based up a relationship of give and take, transforming leadership is based upon the traits, abilities and personality of the leader in working towards change through articulation of challenging goals and an energising vision and through leading by example (Bush, 2011). Moreover, the model has the suggestion that a leader who is transformational is one that possesses three distinct characteristics to his or her personality, as follows: i) individual attention, by which a leader pays attention to the needs of followers and assigns them meaningful projects so that they grow both as a professional and personally; ii) charisma, by which a leader instils a sense of pride, respect and value in the follower and articulates a vision; iii) intellectual stimulation, by which a leader helps a follower to rethink rational approaches by way of examination of situations and encouragement so that they become more creative in their work (Bertocci, 2009). Based on the model, a leader can be thought of as someone using moral agency in facilitating emergent

standards and perspectives that are both individual and shared, and who fosters the essential utilisation of internal values and end values for bringing about change (Lucas, 2005). The model has the suggestion that transactional and transforming styles of leadership are mutually exclusive. The perspective taken is that transforming leaders are innovative and have the belief that change of the culture of an organisation is necessary to bring about enhanced output and performance. Transactional leaders, on the other hand, have a preference for continuing with 'business as usual', and do not tend to strive to change the culture of an organisation (Marshall, 2011). Following considerable research in this field, Bass (1985) built on the research of Burns (1978) and put forward a modified transformational leadership theory that was more pragmatic. The psychological mechanisms that underlay the concept were explained by Bass (1985). Also, instead of the term 'transforming', as initially used in the work of Burns (1978), Bass (1985) used the term 'transformational' and suggested that leadership that was transformational could be defined in general terms in relation to the behaviours of leaders and the effect they had upon followers. As noted by Neider and Schriesheim (2002), Bass (1985) proposed four types of behaviours that were transformational in engaging followers. Firstly, he considered there to be 'idealised influence or charismatic leadership', which he saw as behaviours that aroused strong emotions in the follower and led to them identifying with a leader. When behaving in such a way, the transformational leader turns into being a role model that followers wish to emulate. For followers, the leader is someone who takes risks, who they respect and admire and who presents a sense of purpose and a clear vision to them to work towards (Marshall, 2011). The second behaviour type, 'inspirational motivation', involves the communication of a vision

that is appealing through the use of symbols to concentrate the efforts of subordinates. In such a way, appropriate behaviour is modelled with transformational leaders behaving in a manner that motivates other people, challenges them, and that generates greater enthusiasm for the work at hand. Simultaneously, the behaviour type involves clear communication of expectation and demonstration of a commitment to shared visions and goals (Marshall, 2011). The third type of behaviour is 'intellectual stimulation' which involves behaviour that increases the awareness that followers have of problems and influences them to view the problems from a different perspective. Without publicly correcting or criticising others, the leader that is transformational actively tries to bring forward new ideas about how to approach the work and to stimulate followers to have a creative approach (Marshall, 2011). The fourth kind of behaviour is 'individualised consideration' which includes the provision of encouragement, coaching and support to followers by a transformational leader who puts attention on the needs of others and their potential for development. A transformational leader establishes a climate that is supportive and where respect is shown for individual differences, acknowledgement is given of individual concerns and the followers are, in general, encouraged in their work.

As Gabriel (2008) argues, if the aforementioned factors are exhibited by a leader, then he or she is effective in the motivation of followers to higher engagement levels. A number of researchers have, however, been reconsidering those four dimensions, and a new model has been developed that has five dimensions:

a) personal recognition, b) intellectual stimulation, c) supportive leadership, d) inspirational communication, e) vision (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004; Keskes, 2014).

The main difference between the model of Bass (1985) and the earlier model of Burns (1978) was that the earlier model viewed leaders as people who facilitated awareness and self-actualisation as a way of, fundamentally, affecting change. The model of Bass (1985), on the other hand, viewed leaders as people who facilitated the support of followers for change that leaders had already defined (Hood, 2007). Furthermore, the Bass (1985) model had less of a focus upon exchanges between followers and leaders and more of a focus upon how followers are motivated by leaders (Gabriel, 2008). Bass (1998) conducted further studies that discovered evidence that leadership that was transformational could have extreme power and had the capacity for inspiration beyond what people had initially expected. Also, he discovered that transformational leadership could be applied to many different domains including business, educational, medical and military fields (Western, 2008).

Tichy and Devanna (1990) undertook another key work in the study of transformational styles of leadership by proposing a 3-step model by which leaders transform their organisations (Gabriel, 2008). This model first has an emphasis upon the needs of the organisation before examining the behavioural needs that cascade from them (Wart, 2012). The three assumptions upon which the model is based are that i) a struggle exists between the forces for change and the forces of stability; ii) a dramatic tension exists between acceptance and denial

of reality; and iii) a struggle exists between fear and hope, and between the leap of faith deemed necessary countered by a tension between change and stability and a denial that change is in fact required at all (Welsh, 2007). Tichy and Devanna (1990) asserted that issues of global competitiveness have meant that it is ever more important that institutions across the world are capable of continuous transformation; as such, they see that it is not only a matter for dominance to increase excellence but a matter of survival (Wart, 2012). Using the metaphor of a play with three acts, Tichy and Devanna (1990) linked the needs of individuals and organisations to such acts. In Act 1, leaders, dissatisfied with the current state of affairs, recognise changes that are triggered by pressures in the working environment, and they then serve as agents of change through the provision of an impetus for change inside their organisation. In Act 2, following consideration of various viewpoints in the organisation, a vision is formed that serves as a form of road map, in conceptual terms, to show the destination for the organisation. The communication of the conceptualised vision by the leader is essential as it must be accepted by sufficient employees who then work with the transformational leader to bring it about. In the final act, Act 3, the structures of the organisation that are outdated are demolished and the new structures are founded so that the change can be institutionalised (Firestone, 2008; Wart, 2012). The process needs a new form of culture to be shaped that is well-matched to the organisation in its new reinvigorated state (Kiper, 2007). Tichy and Devanna (1990) only provided for two alternative kinds of style, namely the transformational style and the managerial style. They saw transformational leaders as being rare though of increasingly vital importance to the success of an organisation. A managerial leadership style was seen by them as being, on the other hand, a

much more commonplace style within organisations (Wart, 2012). Their model viewed leaders who are transformational as being principled and courteous agents of change, who are authentic, value driven people who are oriented towards learning and who are capable of the creation and articulation of a vision, in addition to being able to reflect upon assumptions by consideration of cognitive and emotional factors (Gabriel, 2008). Since change is a common aspect of the dynamic environment for modern day business, a leader who is transformational helps subordinates more smoothly cope with transition processes. Also, in bringing about change for an organisation, a transformational leader coordinates people through the successive stages of change as if in a theatrical play with logically connected acts (Kiper, 2007).

3.9 Transactional styles of leadership

According to Bertocci (2009) the transactional leadership style is one in which a leader, in taking into account the needs, self-conception and esteem of people, helps the followers to see what has to be undertaken in order for the desired results to be accomplished. The rewards for the performance expected are framed by the transactional leader and path-goal conceptualisations are utilised in order to show the followers how rewards can be achieved. The transactional style of leadership is also known as 'management by exception' and it was suggested by George and Jones (2009) that in using such an approach, a leader has a reliance upon the contingent rewards. In other words, the situation has a dependency on a follower doing what is necessary so that they will be rewarded for doing so. For instance, a follower may have to lower costs in order to receive a larger bonus, or

increase their workload so as to receive a promotion, or demonstrate an increase in sales so that he or she may receive a greater salary. Whilst this leadership style uses a path-goal conceptual framework, it also involves the leader adjusting the organisational mission, goals and directives so that effectiveness can be achieved. So, flexibility in both the leader and the followers is very important when a transactional style of leadership is at work. It was suggested by Bush (2011) that the transactional style has a close alignment to micro-politics in terms of its relationships of exchange. For Miller and Miller (2001), transactional leadership involves concentration upon proper resource exchange. Judge and Piccolo (2004) consider transactional leadership to consist of three different dimensions. The first dimension of 'contingent reward' relates to the degree that a leader establishes constructive exchanges between them and their followers. The second dimension of 'management by exception-active' relates to an active leader monitoring the behaviour of followers, anticipating problems that could arise and the taking of corrective action where considered necessary. The third dimension of 'management by exception-passive' relates to passive leaders waiting for the behaviour of a subordinate to result in a problem rather than taking what they consider unnecessary action.

3.10 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y for leadership

McGregor was an early contributor to the theory of transactions in the 1960s with his development of a Theory X and Theory Y for leadership (Ledlow and Coppola, 2011). His theory suggested that, in general, leaders have one of two sets of contrasting assumptions with regard to subordinates, and these assumptions have a considerable bearing upon the behaviour of the leaders. Based on the

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perspective of McGregor, a Theory X type of leader or manager considers followers to be uncooperative, lazy and indifferent, and he or she takes a stance that is usually very directive and autocratic and, as such, has characteristics that are very similar to transactional leader characteristics. A leader or manager that considers subordinates to be friendly, bright and energetic, on the other hand, would tend to treat them in a different way using an approach that was more oriented towards consensus-building and democratic; such behavioural traits would be more akin to a leader who was transformational (Montana and Charnov, 2008). For instance, if subordinates arrived for work late, then a manager of the Theory X type would consider that as irresponsible behaviour and consider the situation as one that needs punishment and a stricter form of control. A Theory Y type of manager, on the other hand, could possibly consider that subordinates had been finding their jobs to be lacking in interest and so would consider further inducements that could stimulate the subordinates into more timely and improved performance (Mukherjee, 2009). Self-assessment by leaders of Theory Y type may occur in the form of modifying internal factors, such as limitations, motives, past experiences, and preferences with regard to style of leadership, as well as modifying external factors, such as time constraints, norms of the organisation, task characteristics, climate and structure of the organisation, history of experiences with the group, legal and economic limitations, and the organisational stability (Schermerhorn, 2011). After such a self-assessment, a Theory Y type of leader selects a style of leadership, depending on the particular situation. A Theory X type of leader, however, only has one style of leadership at their disposal, an autocratic one, as his or her worldview is limited without consideration for such modifiers (Miller, 2009). Comparison of laissez-faire leadership with

Theory X with Theory Y by Northouse (2015) suggests that there is dissimilarity of the former with both of the other two; this is because leaders who take a laissez-faire approach would not attempt to control their subordinates in the way a Theory X type of leader would and, by the same token, they would not attempt to guide and nurture subordinates in the way a Theory Y type of leader would.

The above leadership theories and styles are broad and diverse in scope and breadth; each tends to focus on different aspects of leadership. This study argues that leadership is too multifaceted and multidimensional in content to be pinned down to a single style or theory. In addition, there is clear evidence that the definition of leadership remains a matter of the researchers' individual interpretation, and the purpose and context in which it applies. As a result, there is no universal or one-size-fits-all leadership theory. While there is common agreement on the general and generic meaning, there are still different nuances of meanings of leadership. The boundaries in defining and delimiting leadership styles and theories are often fuzzy. In short, leadership is still a term which is full of spins and turns, often used to suit a particular agenda. Good leadership remains in high demand and in short supply.

3.11 Newly coined leadership styles and theories

More recently, leadership has become a fertile area and has witnessed the emergence of new labels of leadership styles and theories. Over the last two decades the landscape of leadership has acquired a new jargon as a wide range of new leadership styles and theories have been proposed. Some attribute this

proliferation to the complex, volatile and versatile nature of today's world. For instance, leadership styles have been labelled as:

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*
Emergent leadership style	*Team leadership*
Distributive leadership	*The Facilitation Leadership Style (also known as the Participative or Democratic style*

Source: Compiled by the present researcher

Evidence shows that early leadership styles/theories essentially focused on personal characteristics and attributes of leaders and the manner with which they lead which is based on the command and control of both people and processes. Leaders relied on power, position, or personality to exercise authority. The new leadership styles are more enabling styles of leadership, where leaders are

viewed as progress makers. Thus, it is clearly demarcated from more traditionally individualistic models of leadership (Senge and Kaeufer 2001; Fletcher and Kaeufer 2003; Fletcher 2004). Recent leadership styles advocate the sharing, exchanging and brainstorming of ideas as a form of problem solving. It is a group action to make sense of the challenges and obstacles that they face. It does not depend on one individual arbitrary decision. The new leadership landscape is one of dynamic, interactive processes of influence and learning which will transform organisational structures, norms and work practices (Pearce and Conger 2003, Turnbull James 2011). This makes sense as Pearce and Conger (2003:2) point out: "*Top leaders may not have sufficient and relevant information to make highly effective decisions in a fast-changing and complex world*". Similarly, Turnbull James (2011:1) echoes the same sentiment arguing that:

> *Many critical leadership issues cannot be addressed by single leaders, even at the top. Such examples include: collaboration rather than competition among senior business unit managers; changes involving many teams or units rather than falling within any one manager's remit; breaking down 'silo thinking' and adopting cross organisation processes.*

According to Riley (2012:2) there has been a gradual shift away from autocratic leadership. Possible reasons for this include:

- Changes in society's values
- Better educated workforce
- Focus on need for soft HR skills

- Changing workplace organisation

- Greater workplace legislation

- Pressure for greater employee involvement

In short, traditional leadership styles are individually driven actions while modern leadership style is a collectively based process. As Ensley et al (2006: 220) state:

> *Hierarchical leadership is dependent upon the wisdom of an individual leader whereas shared leadership draws from the knowledge of a collective. Further, vertical leadership takes place through a top-down influence process, whereas shared leadership flows through a collaborative process.*

3.12 Limitations of leadership theories

Some critics suggest that leadership has become just a 'buzzword', trendy but too speculative, fragmented and unable to provide concrete and practical implications. The shortcomings of leadership styles/theories can be summed up as follows:

- There is a lack of real progress in leadership research due to the absence of standard and universally acceptable leadership criteria.

- Much the leadership research focused mainly on leaders' characteristics and have overlooked the impact of the followers and the situation, and the organisational culture

- They tend to ignore political and organisational structure and cultural influencing factors

- They fail to explain why certain leaders would be effective in certain situations yet not in others.

- They suggest one-size-fits-all leadership style and are exportable, compatible and teachable.

- Leadership styles have few practical implications.

- Empirical findings of leadership within the public sector in developing countries remain limited; models have not been tested.

In summary, it is often the case that a leader must be flexible, adapting a leadership style that fits in with the organisational and cultural setting to motivate and engage with specific and culturally diverse groups.

3.13 Definitions of organisational commitment

There is an extensive and multifarious literature on employee commitment. To achieve and sustain success, an organisation must retain its most valuable asset, its employees and ensure they remain engaged and loyal for the long term. There are numerous definitions of the term commitment in the literature providing recurrent themes and similar explanations of what it means.

A definition of organisational commitment could be the strength of identification and involvement of an individual with an organisation (Keskes, 2014). Also, organisational commitment could be defined as a type of force for tying an individual to a particular course of action that is relevant to an organisation (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2009). Many organisations in the public sector in recent years have changed to have greater similarity to the private sector. However, studies

into the commitment to the methods and objectives of the public sector, as reflected in an ethos of public service and its associated motivation, have shown that the values of employees working in the public and private sectors are still very different (Rayner et. al., 2011; Williams et al., 2012). It has been shown that commitment is a very significant driver for whether an employee decides to leave an organisation or stay with it (Shaw et al., 2008). Since high employee turnover is very costly to an organisation, it is a cause for great concern; exit interviews and severance pay, loss of productivity and the costs of hiring and training new staff, all compound to increase costs for an organisation. To try and identify, take on and retain employees who are dedicated, studies of organisational commitment have looked into areas such as: a) personal attributes, such as time spent working at the job and age; b) performance and behaviour; and c) concepts that are related to emotion, attitude and logic, such as pay and job satisfaction (Keskes, 2014; Panaccio and Vandenberghe, 2014). Research has also shown that organisational commitment has a moderating effect on the relationship between turnover of employees and pay satisfaction (DeConinck, 2009). As Kim (2009) states, motivation in the public sector is affected by organisational commitment. It has also been frequently argued that organisational commitment is a more significant behavioural indicator within organisations than other aspects such as job involvement and job satisfaction (Moon, 2010). Indeed, it has been found that organisational commitment has a particular effect upon organisations working in public services (Testa, 2011). In other words, employee commitment with the organisation increases loyalty and reduces their intentions to quit the organisation.

3.14 Perspectives on organisational commitment

The definitions of organisational commitment that are usually adopted by theorists of behaviour have three key aspects of attitude, as follows: i) belief in the goals and values of an organisation and acceptance of them; ii) a willingness to exert effort for the organisation in question; and iii) a desire to stay on as an organisation member (Keskes, 2014). With a basis in the aforementioned conceptualisations, Meyer and Allen (1991, cited in Smothers, 2008) developed the 3-component model which has proven to be one of the more well-supported organisational behaviour models in the field and certainly one that has been empirically greatly scrutinised (Keskes, 2014). The 3-component model has recognition for three separate organisational commitment components, namely: normative commitment, continuance commitment and affective commitment (Keskes, 2014). Distinguishing between the three kinds of organisational commitment is important as they can have different relationships with other types of behaviour, even though they all lead to a reduction in the turnover of employees (Meyer et al., 2004).

A normative type of commitment is one involving the perception of a moral obligation to keep working for an organisation loyally and to maintain the relationships and memberships that are associated with that (Hassett, 2012). There could be a perception by an employee of a sense of obligation for employment within an organisation or for a different reason such as the perceived loyalty shown by the organisation or a perception of an employee that he or she is being treated well (Keskes, 2014). Such perceptions have a basis in social and moral practices and norms of reciprocity (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). The continuance type of commitment is one that involves the perception of the costs,

be they economic or otherwise, of leaving an organisation; this may include perceptions of organisational resources and effort, personal time invested and the availability of other alternative employment opportunities that are acceptable (Aladwan et al., 2013; Keskes, 2014). A number of empirical studies have divided the continuance type of commitment into two further dimensions, i.e. commitment because of investment sacrifice, and commitment because of a deficiency in alternative opportunities for employment (Powell and Meyer, 2004; Bentein et al., 2005; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). The third type, affective commitment is one involving strong attachment to the organisation in emotional terms, with a willingness to make special effort for the organisation (Alyn, 2010). There is a tendency of employees with an affective commitment to their organisation to take on the goals and values of the organisation as if they were theirs, and such people tend to decide to remain working in an organisation because they wish to continue working there (Avolio et al., 2004; Winkelmann-Gleed, 2012)

3.15 Measuring organisational commitment

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) was the first measurement instrument of organisational commitment to be accepted to a substantial degree (Mowday et al., 1979 in Napp, 2011; Alyn, 2010). It is a 15-item questionnaire that utilises a Likert scale with 7-points; the item scores are then summated and then a summary score ascertained by dividing the summated item score by 15. The OCQ was adapted a few years later by Allen and Meyer (1990, cited in Winkelmann-Gleed, 2012) in their 3-component model, with the argument that if there were three distinct psychological states then independent measurement of them ought to be possible (Napp, 2011). As such

three measures were developed by them, originally made up of 7-point Likert scales with eight items on them, to be self-administered by the employees, and these were the normative commitment scale (NCS), the continuance commitment scale (CCS) and the affective commitment scale (ACS) (Napp, 2011). Meyer et al. revised these measures in reducing the items in the questionnaire so that each scale that it was possible to use a 5-point Likert scale without there being a substantial impact upon their effectiveness (Meyer et al., 2004; Napp, 2011). Meyer and Allen (1997, cited in Aladwan et. al., 2013) conducted an analysis that showed reliability scores of 0.79 for the NCS, 0.75 for the CCS and 0.87 for the ACS; all three of the scales are now widely used in research, with the ACS being used the most often (Hayward et al., 2004). Meyer et al. (2004) conducted an analysis that involved a thousand nurses over a two-year period and it showed that there was a negative correlation for turnover intention with all three of the scales. Further work by Meyer et al. (2004) showed that there was a positive correlation of affective commitment with performance ratings received from supervisors and promotion opportunity; however, no significant relationship was shown when tested to continuance commitment (Napp, 2011). A study conducted by Shore and Wayne (1993) investigated the relationship of both continuance and affective commitment to perceptions of organisational support and other types of behaviour showed that there was a positive relationship of affective commitment to the altruism of employees and compliance with rules; their study also showed that there was a negative relationship of continuance commitment with those types of behaviour Shore and Wayne, (1993),

3.16 Relationships between organisational commitment and leadership

Studies have demonstrated that numerous factors are precursors to, and reflected within, organisational commitment, one of the most important being leadership (Keskes, 2014). Within the literature on leadership, transactional and transformational leadership are the two main leadership styles recognised (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Whilst a number of other differences are evident, the main difference between the two styles of leadership is the system of reward that leaders use. Transactional leaders tend to use rewards that are tangible whilst transformational leaders, on the other hand, use rewards that are intangible. It ought to be reiterated that there is no complete agreement amongst scholars with regard to the terms transactional and transformational leadership styles, or whether they are perceived to have mutual exclusivity or whether they are complementary (see, for example, Lee, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2005; Keskes, 2014).

Research has shown that there is no significant correlation between organisational commitment and transactional leadership (Hayward et al., 2004). However, other research has shown that there is a significantly positive correlation between organisational commitment and transformational leadership (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). There have been numerous studies that have proven types of relationship between organisational commitment and transformational leadership (see, for example, Dvir et al., 2002; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Avolio et al., 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2005). A general pattern that emerges from the findings in the research is that transformational leaders tend to have followers who become more involved and motivated and that express less behaviours related to

withdrawal (Keskes, 2014). This state of affairs is accomplished by transformational leaders through their promotion of values that are supportive to the accomplishment of goals and effectively linking them with employee performance, and through the creation and development of a sense of joint commitment between both leaders and followers for the achievement of the goals and visions of the organisation (Dava, 2014). Moreover, transformational leadership motivates followers through attempts at understanding follower needs and encouraging them to engage in finding innovate solutions to organisational challenges (Gürbüz et al., 2014).

3.17 Summary and gaps in the literature

Although the interest and popularity of leadership as a research area is still unabated, empirical data related to leadership studies with practical implications are in short supply and still lack concrete evidence. Moreover, harsh criticism has been levelled at leadership theories, models, and styles. The dominant situational leadership models have been continuously questioned and challenged.

The literature review related to leadership clearly shows that the leadership concept has been understood and investigated from many different perspectives. The concept was first analysed by scholars through early theories such as that of the 'Great Man' and then theories related to traits. Following this, approaches were developed related to 'behavioural' and 'situational' perspectives and then 'contingency' theories were developed before, finally, theories related to 'transformational' leadership. Importantly, it was observed that the different approaches used by various scholars have altered over time. Initially, theories

only had a focus upon leaders renowned for their impact in warfare and politics, and attempted to understand their characteristics and traits. Later, however, scholarly efforts shifted towards trying to understand the situational and behavioural factors that had an effect upon both followers and leaders and to also actively consider the nature and context for leadership and the role that followers were playing. Leadership styles that work best in today's world need to be adaptable to the situation at hand; good leaders make judicious choices dependent on the context within which they are working.

The literature related to organisational commitment, or in other words, loyalty to the organisation in question, reveals that leadership style has a significant impact upon the commitment of followers to the organisation. Tabassi and Abu-Bakar (2010) stated that the degree of commitment to an organisation was relatively higher in those sorts of organisations where subordinates could be involved in the process of decision-making when compared to organisations where leaders alone made the final decisions. It was clearly indicated by Banerjee and Perrucci (2010) that the quality of supervision was significant in influencing the organisational commitment level within an organisation. Luechinger et al. (2010) considered that a feeling of being in receipt of fair treatment and support was also responsible for enhancing commitment to an organisation. Bass and Bass (2008) had a similar perspective and argued the commitment to an organisation by followers was very dependent upon feeling like the leader was showing consideration towards them.

The literature review has supported the merit in associating leadership style to organisational commitment. The majority of research into these fields is founded

on the perceptions and feelings of employees' organisational commitment and leadership within various types of organisation, and has a primary focus on those at work at a variety of levels and in various departments. A significant literature gap can be noted from the comments made by several authors that state that literature in the field of leadership has failed to clearly focus upon the mechanisms and processes that transformational leaders use in influencing the motivation and performance of followers (see, for example, Bono and Judge, 2003; Avolio et al., 2004; Yukl 2006). These processes and mechanisms have great significance for understanding the impact that a transformational style of leadership has upon the behaviour of employees, such as commitment to their organisation, for example (Bass, 1999). Also, a further gap can be seen from the literature review in that scholars have not given clear definitions of how organisational commitment and leadership work together in helping to transform processes of operation.

Thus, this research has examined how employee commitment and leadership work together and have an effect upon performance and help in improving the processes of operation of an organisation. Furthermore, whilst extensive research has been undertaken into the field of organisational commitment and leadership, and readily-available literature has evolved in relation to various theories about leadership style and organisational commitment, there is a dearth of studies undertaken in the Middle East. This lack of Middle Eastern research is important as the region is different from the west in numerous ways, such as demographically, culturally and ethnically. In particular, there does not appear to be much research on this topic undertaken within the UAE. At present, the leadership literature mainly involves organisations within developed countries

where the government legislation, working conditions and nature of the employees are all different from the UAE context. It is well known that over the last three decades the UAE has been dependent on expatriates to sustain its booming economy and maintain its citizens' standard of living. Over 87% of the UAE workforce in the UAE consists of expatriates from more than 200 nationalities worldwide (Maceda, 2014). The UAE economy is such that more than 60% of GDP comes from industries related to oil. Also, the country follows Sharia law as well as a civil law system. Factors such as these make the working environment within the UAE very different from the west, and they have an impact upon selection of leadership style and the levels of organisational commitment.

Furthermore, the literature review related to organisational commitment and leadership styles suggests that most of the research conducted to date has been undertaken within the private sector. In contrast, leadership studies that have been conducted within public sector settings are limited. With such a shortfall in public sector studies, investigation into the impact of style of leadership upon the commitment to the organisation within the Abu Dhabi Police force is ever more appropriate as it seeks to fill a gap within the literature for this particular field.

A key point to consider is that leadership and various aspects to it are often very different within organisations in the private sector from those in the public sector. In the majority of cases, leaders working in the public sector have a greater level of authority and use their power to control subordinates with rather strong methods and penalise them if they believe it to be necessary. Another point to consider is that leaders working in the private sector tend to have goals focused on benefitting

the organisation such as achieving increases in production and the generation of more sales and revenue. However, with organisations in the public sector, leaders have objectives that are different as there is responsibility for providing society with services as well as the organisational advancement in itself. Furthermore, since this study has a focus upon an organisation in the public sector within the UAE, it has a unique context; the Abu Dhabi Police force operates within an environment that is culturally very different from western countries, as outlined above, with significant cultural and demographic differences, a high proportion of immigrants within the population and the existence of directives to follow Islamic laws that guide leaders in treating subordinates in a way that corresponds to the values of Islam. At present, there is a lack of clear details or information in the ADP department related to how the behaviours of supervisors have an impact on officers whilst they work within the constraints of regional, changing demographics, local culture and so forth. Furthermore, there are no details related to the impact upon organisational commitment of ADP officers from the behaviours of leaders. The majority of research to identify the impact on organisational commitment from participative decision-making has been undertaken on organisations based within western countries (Meyer and Allen, 1997). By way of contrast, however, this study has the aim of discovering whether or not an approach that uses participative decision-making has a positive effect upon the organisational commitment of ADP employees. In doing so, the study fills a gap in the literature through the means of comparison of its findings to those in similar research studies undertaken on comparable organisations based in the west. It is widely known that leadership has a significant bearing upon employees in terms of the direction they receive, and the overall sense of well-being and

satisfaction amongst them. This study provides further investigation of an under-researched field within the literature, with its aims of establishment of a link between organisational commitment and style of leadership and other such aspects of organisational life particularly within the UAE.

3.18 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework summarises the research by capturing all the elements that form part of the study under consideration and is substantiated by previous studies. This research examines the extent to which leadership styles affect employee commitment, focusing on employee commitment and identifying ways the organisation can increase the loyalty of its employees that would sustain its success and give it the competitive edge. The present literature review has shown that there is a broad range of views related to leadership styles, demonstrating conflicting and inconsistent views at times. The literature reveals a lack of clarity regarding the definition, scope and overall goals of leadership. It is evident that there is no one size fits all style of leadership. The existing research evidence focusing on leadership styles has been criticised for not being adequately informed by theoretical perspectives.

The following conceptual framework addresses and fills a knowledge gap by linking the literature findings of leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment to the empirical findings of this study. The conceptual framework shows the different leadership styles that influence employee commitment. The framework aims to make recommendations in order to inform policy and decision makers on how to effectively enhance employee commitment:

Figure 3.3: Conceptual Framework

Leadership Styles	Organisational Commitment	
Transformational Leadership Style	Affective Commitment	Lead to employee Commitment & loyalty
Transactional Leadership Style	Continuance Commitment	Enhanced performance & Long-term success and sustainability of organisation
Laissez-faire Leadership Style	Normative Commitment	

Independent Variables

Dependent Variables

Source: Designed by the present researcher

The above conceptual framework acts as the link between the literature, the methodology and the findings of this study.

Chapter Four

The Research Methodology and Methods

4.1 Introduction

Selecting a methodology and methods for any study is a key matter that involves consideration of a variety of factors such as the nature of the problem, the research questions, aims and objectives, as well as the findings from the review of the literature. The degree towards which any methodology for research is considered appropriate is not a matter that can be judged without also giving consideration to the manner in which it would be applied to the particular research problem in question (Morse et al., 2008). This chapter has the aim of discussing the relevant types of methodology and methods for the research as identified within the literature, before describing and justifying the research methodology and research designs that were employed within this current research study into the impacts of leadership upon commitment in the ADP. The chapter has an analysis of the challenges encountered due to the police reform agenda and modernisation, and the degree to which these had an impact upon employee commitment. The manner in which the pilot study was undertaken is highlighted and there is a discussion within the chapter of the plan for analysing the data. The aim is to show how key decisions were made for the meeting of the research objectives. The chapter has a concluding discussion of the main issues raised in relation to using the chosen methodology.

Over the last ten years or so, the UAE has seen a major ethnic transformation, with a huge number of immigrants moving to the country from a very wide range of cultural and social backgrounds. As such, UAE decision-makers are faced with new and emerging challenges, and there is a need for competent, successful leadership to address those challenges as the modern society of the UAE continues to change. As the west has a clear leadership culture, various sectors have widespread and formal training to help foster effective leadership. Such, a supportive culture for staff development and leadership has yet to be founded within the Middle East. This research, therefore, has value in that if focuses on the sensitive public sector within the UAE and takes a particular look at the impact that leadership has upon commitment of employees.

4.2 Research as a concept

It is important that the research purpose is examined before more finely examining the research methodology adopted. Research was defined by Walliman (2005, 8) as *"a term loosely used in everyday speech to describe a multitude of activities, such as collecting masses of information, delving into theories and producing wonderful new products".* The key research objective is seen as being the acquiring of useful or interesting knowledge (Walliman, 2011). For Burns (2000, 3), research can be considered as *"a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem".* Kumar (2005, 6) considers research to be a term for *"one of the ways to find answers to your questions",* and Kumar (2005: 6) also highlighted that when a study is considered to be a way of answering certain questions, the following implications ought to be considered within the research process:

a) Research is done within the framework of a set of research philosophies;

b) Methods, techniques and procedures are employed that have been tested for validity and reliability;

c) Research design has to be unbiased and objective in nature.

It can be seen then that research does not have one comprehensive and clear definition. Hussey and Hussey (1997) indicated, however, that there is agreement that research is something that utilises suitable methods to collect and analyse data, that it is used to address a particular problem or issue (the research problem) and that is systematic. As this research study has identified a particular kind of problem, and given the associated questions that are raised, the main research areas could be considered to be within the exploratory and descriptive research categories. Change and development of society could be seen as driving forces behind the need for social research. Research framework acts as a structured way to understand and develop research.

4.3 Revisiting the research objectives

This current research study intends to achieve four specific objectives, as follows:

1. To critically review the literature on leadership styles and organisational commitment.
2. To assess the perceptions of employees about leadership styles amongst employees at ADP.
3. To examine the relationship between different styles of leadership and the dimensions of employee commitment.

4. To make recommendations based on the findings of this study on how to improve employee commitment at ADP.

It also set the following research questions:

1. What are the perceptions of employees about leadership styles at ADP?
2. What are the challenges of employee commitment at ADP?
3. To what extent do styles of leadership influence the commitment of employees?

4.4 The research methodology

The terms research method and research methodology are often used interchangeably though they are, in fact, different notions, with the former term having the lesser scope of the two (Saunders et al., 2009; Kothari, 2010). Research methodology has been defined by numerous authors, and whilst the definitions may differ in their details, there is agreement that research methodologies encompass more than just a single application of a method (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008; Collis and Hussey, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009).

Research methodology has been defined by Saunders et al. (2009) as being a theory of how research ought to be done and, given the assumptions upon which the research is founded, the implications of the use of the particular methods by a researcher. Research methodology has been defined by Kothari (2010) as an approach that is systematic in finding the solution to a problem in research, and he states that methodologies also include a logic for the numerous steps taken in

conducting the process of research. Likewise, Hyde (2008) also stated that a research methodology was a scientific manner of acquiring knowledge through the application of various systematic methods and approaches. Collis and Hussey (2009) consider the methodology to be the overall approach employed when conducting research.

To overcome the confusion between the terms research method and research methodology, Saunders et al (2009) suggested that the methodology can be seen as the theory for undertaking the research, whilst the method can be seen as the instruments and procedures that are put to work in order to gather qualitative or quantitative data and analyse them. Kothari (2010) argued that a research methodology helps in determining what methods could be relevant and informs the decisions over why and where a particular method ought to be applied. On the other hand, Kothari considers the research method to be related to the particular techniques by which the specific data are collected and analysed, such as the calculation of the standard deviation. By way of summary, the research methodology can be seen as the scientific approach that researchers use, in order to address a particular research problem that involves the application of techniques and methods in order to identify what issues need to be look into, the undertaking of the data collection and analysis, and the working towards the relevant conclusions. Collis and Hussey (2009) stressed that the research methodology gave an explanation of the overall approach taken by study researchers during the research process. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) described the research methodology as the particular combination of techniques employed for the specific circumstances being examined.

4.5 Research philosophy

Briggs et al. (2012) consider the research philosophy to be a description of the assumptions behind knowledge itself, the fundamental perspective taken upon the nature of what knowledge is and how it ought to be developed. Lots of authors have made the distinction between the two key alternative philosophies for research known as positivism and interpretivism (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Positivism is founded upon the approach taken for studying natural science (Saunders et al., 2009). Research that has its basis in a positivist philosophy has concern for facts that can be observed rather than just impressions. Also, a positivist researcher does not affect the research subject in question nor is he or she affected by it (Saunders et. al., 2009). In relation to the social sciences, a positivist philosophy has the assumption that it is possible to objectively measure social reality, in the same way the natural sciences can be studied, and, thus, there is no need for subjective deduction (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

On the other hand, interpretivism was developed in response to criticism of the weaknesses of positivism when it came to the study of the social sciences (Holden and Lynch, 2010); in particular, there was objection to the way a positivist approach enabled cause and effect relationships to be identified between variables without being able to understand how people interpreted their social worlds (Zoogah, 2014).

Table 4.1: Comparison of positivism with 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	Aim 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 operationalized 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)

This study has a main basis in positivism in facilitating a more objective subject treatment as with the approach taken to the natural sciences (Collis and Hussey, 2009). So, the positivist approach enables the research project to be applied in a systematic way with scientific methods for the gathering and analysing of data from the research population sample, i.e. ADP employees, and to undertake generalisation of the findings gathered to the entire research population (Saunders et al., 2009). The rationale for selection of a positivist approach was based upon consideration of the nature of the problem and the research study questions that were set. The mainstream literature has been split into those two

key research philosophies or paradigms, and the implications of adopting one philosophy or another are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Implications of positivist and interpretivist research philosophies

	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	**Aim 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)

Later there is discussion of these philosophies in the context of management research, with explanation and justification of the research methodology selected for this particular study.

4.6 Ontological and epistemological research philosophies

Ontology is a term for the reality that researchers investigate, whereas the epistemology refers to the relationship between that reality and the researcher. The research methodology, then, refers to the particular techniques that the researcher uses for investigation of the particular reality (Torchim, 2006). For this research, a positivist approach and an interpretivist approach are the possible ones for facing the research question. Hanson et al. (2005) stated that a social science ontology is those key principles that people have about the issue under consideration and its nature; ontology relates to the beliefs that a researcher has in predicting the manner in which social behaviour will occur as with the operation of nature. The argument is whether society is believed to be a living thing or not, or whether social behaviour is thought to be potentially shaped in accordance with a social structure or whether behaviour results from personal social actors and their decisions. So, as highlighted by Johnson et al. (2007), the way such questions are considered by a researcher frames the way in which social studies would be conducted by him or her.

Morse et al. (2008) viewed the term 'epistemology' as being related to proof; the type of it and the quality of it. If something is to gain acceptance as being true, a lot of good quality evidence is required. Proof can potentially relate to trust, personal experience, and faith, as well as logic and empirical evidence. The perspective taken by Clark et al. (2008) was to refer to epistemology as the branch of philosophy that unearths answers to questions such as 'How do researchers obtain the knowledge desired?' and 'What is the meaning of knowing?' Powell et al. (2008) considered there to be four kinds of knowledge source. As stated by

Tashakkori and Creswell (2007), with epistemological issues, the first sort, intuitive knowledge, is that based more upon the feelings, beliefs and the faith of people rather than upon facts. A second knowledge sort is authoritative knowledge which depends on source quality as to the degree of any weaknesses or strengths. A third sort of knowledge, as also highlighted by Picken (2007), is logical knowledge, which is based upon the notion that new knowledge is created from reasoning, in a general accepted way, from one point to another. A fourth kind of knowledge, as presented by Feilzer (2010), is empirical knowledge which is founded upon demonstrating facts via different research methods, such as observation and experimentation.

Research methodologies, as applied to sociological projects, have concern for the methods used to obtain reasonable knowledge of social worlds by definition of reliable and valid knowledge considered replicable, consistent and representative of the population sample within a positivist and quantitative world (Catterall, 2000; Galbraith, 2010). Fiegen (2010) noted that validity is linked to the accuracy and extent of the measurement done, i.e. is the measure used in the research measuring what it is supposedly measuring. For a particular sociological methodology to be considered reasonable, it has to have both reliability and validity. In general, the ontology establishes the epistemology and the epistemology then determines the sociological methodology. Once a sociological methodology has been established, then the research methods for data collection can then be determined. As Mangan et al. (2004) state, various sociological concepts often intertwine in ways that bring forward new ideas on how social science research can be undertaken.

4.7 Positivist philosophy

Positivist philosophy takes the same perspective as naturalism and is most often used for research into observable social realities. Creswell (2005) noted that studies that are positivist have final outcomes in a way that is similar to the findings of physical and natural studies with results that can help the creation of generalisations that are like laws. The positivist paradigm, by way of empirical study, aims to shape theories with assumptions, in regard to the relationship between two variables or more, being developed by the researcher through the use of literature and/or research studies (Remenyi et al., 2002). Empirical means are then used, with gathered data tested, to see if there are significant links between variables. A perspective is taken with a positivist paradigm that considers scientific methods to have consistency within all knowledge fields and, as such, the method acts as a foundation for a form of scientific unity. Positivist researchers tend to look for facts in relation to social phenomena and to establish their causes, whilst not having regard for the individual state, in subjective terms, of the people in question (Mangan et al., 2004). Saunders et al. (2009) argue that a positivist philosophy is related to natural science with, as with the physical and natural sciences, the observation of the social reality resulting in the production of generalisations that are law-like. Saunders et al. (2009) also pointed out that the positivist researcher has the primary aim of generalising findings to a broader population. So, if a piece of research reflects a positivist philosophy, it has adopted traditional methods from natural science to scientifically study social reality in order to develop knowledge through the use of appropriate approaches to research and appropriate procedures and methods for analysis of the collected data (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

4.8 Interpretivist philosophy

It is considered by Denzin and Lincoln (2008, 222) that *"An interpretivism believes that to understand this meaning of the world one must interpret it"*; as such, interpretivist philosophy makes a distinction between the social and natural worlds. For researchers advocating an interpretivist position, various methods can be applied to study of the social world so that reality can be understood and explained (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This approach sees the world as socially constructed and subjective with an observer also being a part of that which is under observation. A consciousness that is interpretivist has concern for all manner of experiences and events and aims to find the answer to questions such as how?, why? and what?. So, an interpretivist approach investigates the nature and detail of social phenomena (Dew, 2007; Saunders et al., 2007; Collis and Hussey, 2009). It has been emphasised by a number of authors that interpretivist approaches, also known as social constructionist and phenomenological approaches, have an important role to play in research for business and management (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Remenyi et al. (2002, 95) noted 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."* Remenyi et al. (2002) stated the importance for interpretivists of understanding emerging literature as well as studying the problems of real life. Instead of being a reductionist approach, interpretivist research philosophy is holistic in nature and allows complex situations to be more fully examined. Interpretivist philosophy aims for a focus upon the context for a study and relates to a research paradigm for conducting the collection of qualitative data that has a

stress upon the experiences subjectively felt by people (Denscombe, 2007; Rubin and Babbie, 2009). An element of the context of the research study is the research nature and the characteristics of the setting. Remenyi et al. (1998) consider that interpretivist approaches achieve similar results to those that positivist researchers have acquired. It is possible to conclude that an interpretivist philosophy, as an epistemology, acts in supporting the notion that a researcher needs to understand differences between roles that people play as social actors. Summaries for the alternative terms for the philosophies are shown in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3: Alternative terms for philosophies of research

Positivist philosophy	Interpretivist philosophy
Quantitative	Qualitative
Objective	Subjective
Scientific	Humanistic
Experimentalist	Interpretivist
Traditionalist	--

Source: Collis and Hussey (2003, 58)

Philosophies of research are thought of as having assumptions that are fundamental and which, therefore, have implications for how a piece of research should be conducted (Creswell, 2005). Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) assert that, taken as a whole, there is still considerable debate amongst researchers with regard to establishing the most appropriate philosophies for a particular type of study. It is important there is an understanding of the weaknesses and strengths of the various research paradigms and their suitability for various research contexts. Table 4.4 offers a guide for how quantitative and qualitative research philosophies have weaknesses and strengths in different respects.

Table 4.4: Strengths and weaknesses of positivist and interpretivist research philosophies

Philosophies	Strengths	Weaknesses
Positivist	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 look at change processes overtime. 3-Ability to understand people's meaning. 4-Ability to adjust to new issues and ideas as they emerge. 5-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. (2002, 20)

If the two different research approaches are assessed, it can be appreciated that they do not necessarily oppose each other. It is necessary to understand the assumptions behind each approach so that a more informed decision be made with regard to how to proceed with a piece of research and what research methods and techniques ought to be used. Collis and Hussey (2009) compared the fundamental assumptions upon which each paradigm is based under headings for ontological assumptions, epistemological assumptions, axiological assumptions, rhetorical assumptions and methodological assumptions; these are explained further here:

Table 4.5: Assumptions behind the two main philosophies of research

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,	Inductive process Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors Context-bound Emerging design-categories identified during research process

		explanation and understanding Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability	Patterns, theories developed for understanding Accurate and reliable through verification

Source: Collis and Hussey, (2009, p.58)

In research for management and business, there is often a combination of approaches that are interpretivist, positivist or realist (Saunders et al., 2009). So, if a realistic approach is taken to studying people, as with this research, there is a recognition of the importance of having an understanding of the socially contracted interpretations and meanings that people have of their particular, subjective reality. Saunders et al. (2009) stressed how important it was to understand wider societal forces, processes and structures that impact upon, and possibly constrain, the behaviours of views of people.

4.9 Justifying choice of positivist and interpretivist research philosophies

There are important assumptions with regard to the perspective on the world within the research philosophy to be adopted in this study, and the strategy and methods selected will be based upon those assumptions. The appropriate philosophy for adopting when conducting a piece of research is, in part, influenced by practical consideration; however, the most influential aspect is likely to be the perspective the researcher has of the relationship between knowledge and the knowledge development process (Saunders et al., 2007). As Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) noted, it is very important, therefore, to have a sound understanding of the matters involved as there is a need to consider what evidence type is needed

and how it should be gathered and analysed/interpreted; ultimately, the approach taken during an investigation has to facilitate the provision of sound answers for the research questions. Gilbert (2008) suggested that, in many circumstances, there may be a need to generate a range of different types of data. Collis and Hussey (2003) made the claim that neither of the paradigms for research can be considered the best one; instead, they consider it more useful to see the paradigms as sharing the same continuum. In keeping with that perspective, both interpretivism and positivism will be used within this research project.

4.10 The research approach

A research study involves a theoretical perspective on a particular research question; however, the theoretical stance is not always apparent within the research design or may not even be known at the early stages of the research process. It is often the case that there is an explicit discussion of the theoretical stance when the findings are presented (Saunders et al., 2009). Deductive reasoning and inductive reasoning are the two alternative key logic systems employed within scientific research. A deductive approach is one where a researcher develops theory and hypotheses and tests them with an appropriately designed research process. In contrast, the inductive approach, involves data collection and analysis so that a theory can be developed (Sanders et al., 2009).

Table 4.6: Comparison of deductive and inductive research approaches

	Deductive Reasoning	**Inductive Reasoning**
Premises	Stated as facts or general principles	Based on observations of specific cases
Conclusion	Conclusion is more special than the information the premises provide.	Conclusion is more general than the information the premises provide
Validity	If the premises are true, the conclusion must be true.	If the premises are true, the conclusion is probably true
Usage	More difficult to use (mainly in logical problems). One needs facts which are definitely true	Used often in everyday life (fast and easy). Evidence is used instead of proved facts.

Source: Klenke (2008)

A deductive approach can be very highly structured with testing of specific hypothesis with large samples and the use of controls and operationalised definitions; these controls and definitions help to isolate the study variables from other effects and potential influencing factors, and they help to give precise measurement of the variable effects. As such, the generalisation of the findings of the research is facilitated (Anderson, 2013). In comparison to a deductive approach, an inductive research approach usually uses a sample size that is smaller and the inductive approach is more likely to have a focus upon the context to allow for an investigation of social and business issues to a greater depth and that goes beyond merely observable facts (DePoy and Gitlin, 2015). This research project employs an approach that is deductive and that is based upon existing literature with application of leadership theories that have been well-established, i.e. laissez-faire, transactional leadership and transformational leadership. In doing so, the research seeks to answer questions with regard to the relationship

between organisational commitment and style of leadership within the particular context, the ADP. Given that there is a lot of literature available that validates the research theories and methods employed in this research, there is no need for the development of new theory, an approach that would have been well suited to inductive research (Townsend and MacBeath, 2011).

4.11 The inductive and deductive research approaches

It is important to give consideration to the approach taken to research in order to make explicit the theories that lie behind the design of the research project. A researcher is then able to make more informed, better quality decisions and identify what approach would work and utilise an appropriate research design that can cope with research constraints. Deduction and induction offer two differing research approaches for building theories that help a researcher to understand, explain and predict business phenomena (Sekaran, 2003). An inductive research approach is one that involves a data observing process so that a theory can be generated (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). Rubin and Babbie (2009, 39) concluded that either an inductive or deductive approach may be employed for theories that have an influence on the process of research and stated:

> *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 deductive research approach involves gathering data that can either confirm or reject the relationships that have been hypothesised between variables that have already been deduced from extant knowledge. According to Trochim (2006), a deductive research approach commences with concepts that already exist, with hypotheses and theories then formulated for testing through use of the empirical data collection; inductive research, on the other hand, commences with the empirical data collection from which there is then derivation of associated models, concepts and theories. The major differences between the two key research approach types are demonstrated in Table 4.7 below. Inductive approaches are also referred to as building theory and they allow a researcher to acquire a greater understanding of the nature of the particular phenomenon under consideration by way of data collection and analysis.

Table 4.7: Major differences between deductive and inductive research 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 processes
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 structure approach	
Researcher's independence of what is being researched	
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generate a conclusion	

Source: Saunders et al. (2009, 127)

It was suggested by Saunders et al. (2009) that there are advantages to combining both inductive and deductive approaches and in this research, both are indeed employed; deduction is used to develop the theoretical framework to study the literature, whilst the aims of the research are addressed later through the use of an applied inductive approach.

4.12 The quantitative and qualitative approaches

To determine data, two main approaches can be used in research, i.e. a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Patton, 2008). The quantitative approach refers to numerical data collection or the collection of data that it is possible to usefully quantify, and that can be used within all kinds of research strategy. Qualitative data, on the other hand, is all types of non-numeric data, or data that have not undergone quantification, and that can be utilised within suitable strategies of research (Saunders et al., 2007). Denizen and Lincoln (2003, 13) noted that: *"The word qualitative implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and on processes and meaning that are not experimentally examined or measured in terms of quantity, amount, intensity, or frequency."* Creswell (2005) considered that there is a choice for researchers between three different approaches to research methodology, i.e. the quantitative and qualitative

approaches, and the mixed methods approach. It was claimed by Rudestam and Newton (2007), however, that there is usually an 'objectivist' convention that acts as a foundation to quantitative research, with the understanding having a basis in observing an external reality. As described in the work of Ragin (1994), a quantitative approach can be considered as more scientific than a qualitative approach. Creswell (2009) and Saunders et al. (2009) have proposed numerous criteria for the determination of the appropriate research approach to adopt; the key criteria they identified are as follows:

A) *The research topic*. If a lot of literature exists to help a researcher develop a framework of theory and associated hypotheses, then it may be suitable to use a deductive/quantitative approach. It may be more suitable to use an inductive/qualitative approach when studying in relation to a new topic for which few pieces of literature exist.

B) *The time constraints*. It may be less risky to adopt a quantitative research approach as it can be much less time consuming than qualitative research.

C) *The respondent preference*. Most managers are familiar with quantitative approaches and there is more likelihood that they will have faith in any conclusions that result from quantitative data.

The key differences between qualitative and quantitative approaches, as summarised by Ary et al. (2009), are demonstrated in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8: Distinguishing between qualitative and quantitative research approaches

	Quantitative approach	**Qualitative approach**
Purpose	Study relationship, cause and effect	Examine a phenomenon as it is, has rich detail
Design	Developed previous study	Flexible, evolves during study
Approach	Deductive: tests theory	Inductive: may generate theory
Tools	Preselected instruments	The researcher is primary data collection tool
Sample	Large samples	Small samples
Analysis	Statistical analysis of numeric data	Narrative description and interpretation

Source: Ary et al. (2009, 25)

4.13 The advantages and disadvantages of adopting a quantitative approach

The quantitative approach, with its data aggregation of mainly numerical assigned values, holds a number of advantages for a researcher (Muijs, 2011). Since it uses accepted classifications that are fixed, generalised statements can be built by the researcher. It has been shown by Patton (2002) that the approach enables reaction of a limited number of questions to be measured and facilitates easy collection and comparison of data. Quantitative research challenges or eliminates the influence of a researcher upon a phenomenon being investigated (Robson, 2002). Furthermore, using a quantitative approach with a limited amount of questions, a researcher is able to collect a lot of data from a big number of participants; as such, the collection and comparison of data is simplified with a

quantitative approach. A number of advantages of quantitative research have been put forward by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) and Onwuegbuzie and Leech, (2007). as follows:

i) Research hypotheses can be built and tested;

ii) The research findings can be generalised;

iii) Quantitative predictions can be obtained;

iv) Using quantitative tools enables quicker research data collection;

v) The analysis of data is considered to consume less time.

Within the UAE context, there may be a reluctance of participants to participate within a qualitative research process due to perceived cultural barriers; so, a quantitative approach could help gain access to participants. There are several potential disadvantages to a research approach that is quantitative that, as Robson (2002, p.23) noted, can limit *"first by directing research to what is perceived by the senses; and second by employing only standardised tools, based on quantifiable data, to test hypotheses".* Furthermore, it was argued by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) that, by having a focus upon testing research hypotheses rather than generalisation of hypotheses, a researcher could be missing out on a more holistic appreciation of a phenomenon.

4.14 The advantages and disadvantages of adopting a qualitative approach

There is a tendency for qualitative research methods to have a stress upon inductive approaches that concentrate on the generation of theories (Bryman, 2004). A qualitative approach is, in part, composed of the examination of, and

reflection upon, the perceptions of participants within a study in order to gain an appreciation of the rationale that lies behind their workplace activities (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). As Smith (2008) also noted, qualitative research approaches are often considered appropriate for research that is inductive and exploratory. Qualitative research methods can also prove to be helpful if a researcher has the intention of describing complex, though limited phenomena; qualitative approaches can help in getting a grasp on phenomena when very little is understood about them (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008).

There are a number of disadvantages to qualitative approaches, however, including the influence that the perception of a researcher of a situation has upon the data collection and interpretation process. Qualitative research is considered by Smith (2008) to be limited in the degree to which it observes people and develops an understanding of the attitudes and behaviour of them. Since qualitative research involves, in the main, engagement through personal contact, it has been criticised as being rather subjective in nature; there is a need to take the outcomes of qualitative research on trust without them having been tested (Flick, 2007; Patton, 2010). Bergman (2008) suggested that employing mixed methods approaches can help the weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative approaches to be overcome. The above discussion highlights reasons for why research into management can benefit from positivist and interpretivist approaches being used together. In relation to this study, the philosophy for the research links to the research objectives and has been selected based upon scrutiny of previous research. As such, in order to achieve the research purposes, a mixed methods approach has been adopted.

4.15 Justifying the selection of mixed methods

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) provided a definition for the mixed methods approach to research in stating it is: "the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative or qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study". If both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed in the collection of data, the approach is also known as triangulation (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Triangulation has been defined by Denzin (1978, p.291) as: "the combination of methodology in the study of the same phenomenon". A mixed methodology is thought to be helpful in making research fuller and enables a deeper understanding to be developed of changes to systems for accounting. No particular method should be seen as being perfect (Morse, 2010; Thyer, 2010). Collis and Hussey (2003, 77) put forward the proposal that: *"A questionnaire survey providing quantitative data could be accompanied by a few in-depth interviews to provide qualitative insights and illuminations"*. More specifically, research can be shaped as a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research in a concurrent, parallel, sequential or conversion manner (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003; Kritzinger and Michalowitz, 2008).

Whilst numerous researchers have considered that qualitative and quantitative methods ought not be combined together due to the vast differences in the assumptions underlying them, several researchers, such as Creswell (2009) and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), have noted that using various methods within the same research project could potentially keep limitations to a minimum. If both qualitative and quantitative research methods are employed, a researcher may

be able to identify and justify the components of a model within just one study. Moreover, if results are taken from the use of one method, they can then be used in informing and developing the use of another; furthermore, the nesting of one method within another method can help in the provision of insights into several unit analysis levels (Greene, 2007; Saunders et al., 2007). Cameroon and Molina (2010) state that it seems that mixed methods approaches are employed more often within studies of strategic management and international business. Table 4.9 below, from the work of Creswell (2003), has a comparison of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approaches.

Table 4.9: Comparison of quantitative, mixed methods and qualitative research approaches

	Quantitative Research	Mixed Methods	Qualitative Research
Scientific method	Deductive or "top-down" The researcher tests hypotheses and theory with data	Deductive and inductive	Inductive or "bottom-up" The researcher generates new hypotheses and grounded theory from data collected during fieldwork
View of human behaviour	Behaviour is regular and predictable	Behaviour is somewhat predictable	Behaviour is fluid, dynamic, situational, social, contextual, and personal
Most common research objectives	Description, explanation, and prediction	Multiple objectives	Description, exploration, and discovery

Focus	Narrow-angle lens, testing specific hypotheses	Multilens focus	Wide-angle and "deep-angle" lens, examining the breadth and depth of phenomena to learn more about them
Nature of observation	Attempt to study behaviour under controlled conditions	Study behaviour in more than one context or condition	Study behaviour in natural environments. Study the context in which behaviour occurs
Nature of reality	Objective (different observers agree on what is observed)	Common-sense realism and pragmatic view of world (i.e. what works is what is "real" or true)	Subjective, personal, and socially constructed
Form of data collected	Collect quantitative data based on precise measurement using structured and validated data collection instruments (e.g. closed-ended items, rating scales, behavioural responses)	Multiple forms	Collect qualitative data (e.g. in-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes, and open-ended questions) The researcher is the primary data collection instrument
Nature of data	Variables	Mixture of variables, words, and images	Words, images, categories
Data analysis	Identify statistical relationships	Quantitative and qualitative	Search for patterns, themes, and holistic features

Results	Generalisable findings	Corroborated findings may generalize	Particularistic findings. Representation of insider (i.e. "emic") viewpoint. Present multiple perspectives
Form of final report	Statistical report (e.g. with correlations, comparisons of means, and reporting of statistical significance of findings)	Eclectic and pragmatic	Narrative report with contextual description and direct quotations from research participants

Source: Creswell, (2003)

In order to achieve the research objectives, since separate use of qualitative or quantitative methods would have not been adequate for providing a full answer for the research questions of the study, a mixed method was employed. Use of an approach that used mixed methods was considered more suitable to enhance the understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Teddlie and Tashakori, 2009). It was stated by Swanson (2011, 329) that: *"the mixed methods research methodology is also suitable when the objective of the methodology is to use the results of one method to elaborate on the results of the primary method used for the investigation".* The quantitative method is the primary approach for the data collection and analysis for this research, with a type of qualitative method employed for elaboration of the quantitative research findings and enhancement of the level of understanding of them within the context at hand. As noted by Saunders et al. (2009), when mixed methods approaches are used in research, the various approaches can have complementarities that increase finding validity. As the processes for quantitative and qualitative analysis are not reliant upon each other, they are autonomous and, as shown by Flick (2006), phases of a study may

be kept apart until the final stage of a study when findings are being compared to give a fuller understanding of the phenomena under investigation. For this study, the qualitative research results are able to offer further information that enhances an understanding of the impacts of style of leadership that were gleaned from the quantitative research findings. A primary feature of taking a positivist research approach is that several different variables can be measured. As the researcher has a background of working within the ADP, his experience may have an effect when interpreting and analysing findings; so, the adoption of a positivist approach gives the research more credibility and validity. The data and findings that came out of the qualitative research gave confirmation or triangulation of the findings from use of the quantitative method (Bryman and Bell, 2008). An approach that is interpretivist/qualitative was also used in order to clarify and confirm findings of the initial phase of the research through the analysis of the findings from the semi-structured interviews with ADP managers, and through use of the previous observations and knowledge of the study researcher. Given the size of research sample is small and the depth sought in analysing the meanings of the research findings, the approach reflects the suitability of using an approach that is interpretivist. A mixed methods research approach is also employed as it has the aim of uncovering the underlying mechanisms to the particular reality. Given the peculiarities of the working environment for the ADP, the key aims of the study, however, are to enable leaders at the ADP to gain a better appreciation of the circumstances and perspectives of ADP employees so that more effective leadership styles that are 'employee-friendly' can be established. The specific protocols employed by the methodology in the collection of data, triangulate the worldviews and perspectives of the ADP staff (Patton, 2010).

4.16 The triangulation technique

Increasingly, the employment of multi-methods for the acquiring and analysis of data is being favoured (Saunders et al., 2009). In this research, then, as the purpose of the study is determining the impact that leadership has upon the commitment of ADP employees, triangulation was considered appropriate for addressing the objectives of the research. Triangulation is enabled by the mixed methods approach in supporting the reliability and validity of the findings of the research (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). When it comes to research in the field of business, triangulation refers to information that has been gathered from various sources which then undergoes analysis to try to ensure that there is no bias to the view acquired from a participant (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009). The most common type of research approach of mixed methods is the triangulation design (Creswell, 2009). Indeed, Creswell and Clark (2007, 18) stated that: *"Triangulation research is important today because of the complexity of problems that need to be addressed, the rise of interest in qualitative research, and the practical need to gather multiple forms of data for diverse audiences".* The strategy of employing various methodology types together adds depth and rigour to research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008). If a restricted research approach had been taken for the study of the ADP, then the opportunity would not have been taken to develop a detailed comprehension of the organisational issues. If just qualitative research had been used, then there would have been insufficient data to gain a full picture of the processes currently at work within the organisation. A triangulation methodology was used for this research, therefore, in order to minimise the disadvantages and maximise the advantages of employing each kind of approach to research (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009). At first, the

collection of data is in the form of a review of literature which is then followed by the questionnaire (self-administered) and then the interviews (semi-structured). Further follow-up interviews let the researcher probe for more detail and obtain data that supports and confirms the findings that came from the questionnaire that was initially conducted. The structure of the study, based upon a triangulation approach, is shown in Figure 4.1 below:

Figure 4.1: The study structure based on a triangulation approach


```
   Quantitative Method              Qualitative Method
           ↓                                ↓
      Data Collection                  Data Collection
     Self-Administered               Semi-Structured
      Questionnaires                    Interviews
           ↓                                ↓
      Data Analysis                    Data Analysis
            ↘                          ↙
              Integration of Findings
```
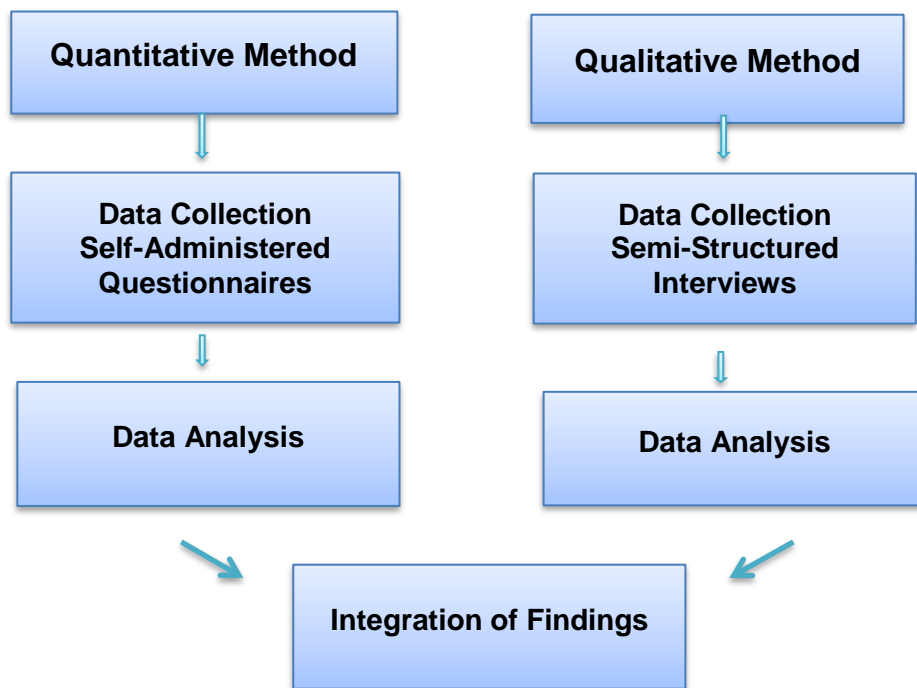
4.17 The research strategy

The research strategy is an overall plan for addressing the questions of the research including the approach taken to acquiring and analysing the data needed to address the questions (Zoogah, 2014). There are a number of general research strategy types that are given attention within the literature and that are employed

within research which include, though are not restricted to, surveying, experimentation, the use of case studies, grounded theory, action research, ethnography, research of archives and history (Saunders et al., 2009; Yin, 2009). This research employs a survey type of research, with both an exploratory purpose and a descriptive one in having a description of the organisational commitment and the current styles of leadership within the ADP and in developing a greater understanding of how the type of leadership has a bearing upon the commitment of employees. To answer the questions of the research, there is a need to gather unambiguous and specific data with minimal researcher interaction and in a form that is standardised. It is appropriate to use a survey strategy for a number of reasons. Firstly, a survey allows a researcher to acquire the kind and amount of data required in order to answer the question(s) of a piece of research (Anderson, 2013). Secondly, a survey is perceived as having authority and is relatively easy for a researcher to explain and for the participant to understand (Saunders et al., 2012). Thirdly, a survey is an effective, economic and efficient way of gathering a large amount of data from a big population (Sanders et al., 2012).

The research strategy should indicate the objectives of the research, pointing to the required collection of data, the resources required, the estimated restrictions and research boundaries, and a declaration of how the particular strategy was selected by the researcher (Creswell, 2009). There has to be an emphasis upon adopting appropriate strategies for the particular questions and objectives of the research without them having mutual exclusivity. Research methods for management and business studies have been arranged by Yin (2009) into five different kinds of research strategy as Table 4.10 below shows.

Table 4.10: The relevance of various research strategies to different situations

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)

4.17.1 The various kinds of research strategy

Collis and Hussey (2009) showed classifications of research strategy, with a basis in its purpose as being: the descriptive approach, the exploratory approach, the explanatory approach and the analytical approach. The three research purposes used in each of the strategies are the descriptive approach, the exploratory approach or the explanatory approach (Yin, 2009).

4.17.2 The descriptive research approach

If descriptive research is being used, there should be a sound structure and a sound understanding of the problem being researched (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005). The purpose behind the use of a descriptive research approach is, it is said, for the provision of a description of the phenomena in question so that an overview can be gained of an industry, an organisation or an individual, or alternative perceptions; in doing so, researchers tend to try and find answers to

the simple question 'What is happening?' (de Vaus, 2002; Sekaran, 2003). It has been argued by Collis and Hussey (2009) that descriptive research approaches can be employed in discovery of exacting problem characteristics and gaining knowledge of them. Often, the collected data is of a quantitative nature and it is usual for information to be summarised by means that are quantitative and statistical.

4.18 Types of research

4.18.1 The exploratory research approach

The exploratory research approach is in relation to circumstances where there is little available information or insufficient in relation to how problems in research that are similar may have been addressed in the past (Zikmund et al., 2010). As Collis and Hussey (2009) noted, exploratory studies have often used case studies, historical analyses and observation, which draw on both quantitative and qualitative data. Zikmund et al. (2010) highlighted three exploratory research purposes, i.e. discovery of new ideas, the screening of alternatives and diagnosis of a particular situation.

4.18.2 The explanatory research approach

Explanatory research approaches are those types wherein there is establishment of the relationships between different variables so that they can be explained. Collected data are subjected to statistical tests like correlation, for example, in order for results to either confirm the existence of a relationship or to confirm a relationship does not exist (Thomas, 2009). The research design is the combination of the plans and procedures in relation to research assumption as

well as the detailed methods by which data is to be collected and analysed; it is based on the nature of the research issue, the participants to the study and researcher experience (Creswell, 2009).

4.19 Justifying selection of descriptive and exploratory research approaches

Based upon the above discussion, this research can be thought of as both descriptive and explanatory in its attempts at investigating the impact that leadership has upon the commitment of employees by way of assessing suitable models that may be used by effective ADP leaders. The strategy may be used for exploring all types of roles, relationships and events at the level of the individual, the social group or the community (Robson, 2002). To accord with the primary aim of the study, the research can be thought as exploratory; with regard to the further research objectives, this research can be thought of as being descriptive. Descriptive research has the aim of providing explanation for the characteristics of the participants of a study and estimating the unit percentages in relation to a specific population that are seen to exhibit a particular kind of behaviour; as such, the descriptive approach seeks to systematically provide a description for a particular situation, problem or the attitudes of people with regard to an issue (Robson, 2002; Kumar, 2005). Exploratory research approaches use pilot studies in order to explore certain areas for which there is a dearth of previous research. In this study, a pilot study is employed in enhancing the reliability of the research. Exploratory research has the purpose of developing preliminary ideas prior to embarking on the investigation of the research question(s) (Neuman, 2011; Kumar, 2005). Also, exploratory research projects aim to discover new ideas and investigate the processes that lie behind problems, experiences and meanings in

relation to certain contexts (Ghauri et al., 2005; Zikmund et al., 2010). For this research project, it is crucial that a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods are used. As mentioned above, the study has the primary aim of investigating the impact that leadership styles have upon employee commitment based upon perspectives taken from examples of best practice. Therefore, there needs to be a profound understanding of phenomena which should come from the efforts at finding answers for questions such as 'how?', 'why?' and 'what?'.

The combination of research techniques can give more robust and rich findings; there are, however, several reasons why this research project uses quantitative research. Firstly, since the study is a comparative one, quantitative data comparison is more easily done. Secondly, objective data avoids the issue of data collection ambiguity. Thirdly, it is easier to analyse large amounts of quantitative data than equivalently large volumes of data that is qualitative. For the aforementioned reasons, conversion is undertaken of attributes that are qualitative into a format that is quantitative for analysis.

The research population targeted was all middle and junior managers and employees in the hierarchy of the ADP. Various methods of sampling were employed during both the quantitative and qualitative research phases. In the qualitative phase, there was a purposeful sample of leaders from the ADP, and in the quantitative phase there was a random sample of employees and managers from the ADP. Some types of research can tolerate examination of a whole population, whilst other types of research cannot. However, sampling is able to be done quickly and efficiently when limits to resources and other constraints

foreclose the possibility of examining an entire population. Moreover, in comparison to examination of the whole of a population, higher accuracy overall may be provided in certain cases by sampling (Cohen et al., 2011; Bryman, 2008). The ADP has a relatively large number of staff and a comprehensive survey would be extremely difficult to do; so, to acquire an insightful and broad view, an easier selection of workers at various profiles was undertaken.

4.20 The data collection methods

The methods for collection of data for researchers are to explore, define, understand and describe phenomena and analyse the relationship between their various aspects (Cohen et al., 2011; Cerit, 2009). Yin (2009) suggested six primary sources of evidence to utilise within a case study type of approach. Table 4.11 below shows the various strengths and weaknesses of the six different sources. Yin (2009) believed there to be no complete advantage of one type of data source when compared to another, and so the use of multiple sources of evidence can help clarify the genuine meanings that have been attributed to the phenomena being investigated. Silverman (2013) and Denzin and Lincoln (2008) encourage researchers to use more than just one research method as they recognise that corroboration of findings has value in improving the validity of data.

Table 4.11: The strengths and weaknesses of various evidence sources

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

Source: Yin, (2009, 102)

So that the research objectives can be achieved, the data collection was conducted simultaneously to the questionnaire dissemination to the managers and employees of the ADP and to the conducting of the semi-structured interviews with the ADP managers. The data collection methods are those instruments and mechanisms used to acquire the research data, such as questionnaires,

interviews and observation; some techniques are qualitative whilst others are quantitative (Saunders et al., 2007). The researcher tailors the research strategy and methods in such a way that there is a tendency for research to be either quantitative, qualitative or a combination of the two of them (Creswell, 2009). A quantitative method is made up of procedures and techniques for the collection and analysis of data involving numeric data generation and it has been broadly described as involving the collection of numeric data and illustration of relationships between theory and the research findings (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). Both the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview were developed from a thorough literature review that concentrated upon leadership theories and the commitment of employees. Existing literature was used to formulate questions and these were integrated so that the objectives of the research could be achieved through identification of the impact that the style of leadership has upon the commitment of ADP employees. Whilst it had originally been developed for investigating natural phenomena, this kind of research has also been used widely within management and business research studies. Laboratory experiments and surveys are examples of the use of quantitative approaches (Berry and Jarvis, 2006). Qualitative methods, on the other hand, involve social inquiry processes that aim to help arrive at a more holistic and sophisticated understanding of a social reality. The bases for objectives of qualitative method are description, discovering and understanding and hypothesis generation. This method was discussed by Bryman and Bell (2007) who believed it could be difficult to employ as it was subjective and impressionistic with a heavy reliance upon unsystematic researcher views and it was often the case that the research was unstructured with reliance upon researcher ingenuity. Since this

research adopts both kinds of methods, it benefits from having the advantages of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. Multiple sources of data allow for data triangulation; there is an assumption that a single method of research alone would not manage to capture the reality under investigation in all its complexity (Creswell 2003; Creswell, 2009). The data collection procedure for this research study, therefore, involved the questionnaire survey, which is often found within quantitative research projects, and interview methods, commonly used within purely qualitative research projects. Data reliability and validity can be increased through use of both kinds of research method together; hence, that combined approach is employed within this research (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

4.21 The qualitative phase

4.21.1 The interviews

The qualitative type of research interview has been defined by Amaratunga et al. (2002, 4), as being an approach *"whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena"*. Saunders et al. (2009) consider an interview to be simply a discussion with purpose that is held between two or more people. The interview gives valid and reliable data with relevance for the research purposes and, as Yin (2009) noted, the interview is one of the key sources of information within case studies. It is a valuable technique for obtaining data, especially within a qualitative study approach. Saunders et al. (2007) classified three interview types; the links to research types and strategies of the three kinds of interview are shown in Table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12: The utilisation of different interview types

Types of interview	Exploratory	Descriptive	Explanatory
Structured		√√	√
Semi-structured	√		√√
In-depth	√√		

√√ more frequent √ less frequent

Source: Saunders et al. (2007, 314)

Bryman and Bell (2011, 574) provided a definition for the structured interview by stating it is: *"a research interview in which all respondents are asked exactly the same questions in the same order with aid of a formal interview schedule".* When an interview is structured, the participant is asked a previously prepared set of questions and the responses are then recorded in a standardised schedule. The questions can vary depending on the context of the organisation and the conditions of the interviews (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). A researcher could leave out some questions within a certain interview or add other questions for the purposes of acquiring supplementary information or in order to explore the research questions and objectives still further. Data are collected by the interviewer using a tape recorder and/or taking notes (Yates, 2004). The structured interview method or quantitative research interview is able to provide a deeper level of information with regard to particular variables that have aroused interest; however the method may miss a more comprehensive picture (Kumar, 2008). An interview that is unstructured or in-depth interview does not have a pre-determined list of questions or themes. Normally, unstructured interviews are used for acquiring clear ideas of what issues may be applicable or important in a specific situation or in relation to a particular problem. An unstructured or in-depth interview is, in essence, a discussion that is informal that has no strict guidelines and so it lets open discussion flow (Saunders et al. 2009)

In unstructured interviews, there may also be the eliciting of repressed feelings that participants may have not known that they had or were, perhaps, unwilling to admit they had. This interview type is entirely informal and it is occasionally referred to as non-directive (Saunders et al., 2007). On the other hand, an interview that is semi-structured is one where the questions have been pre-determined with the interviewees possibly requiring explanations for objectives of the research and the questions being put to them (Saunders et al., 2009). Uncertainties can also be clarified by the researcher who helps to ensure that the questions are understood and that the responses from the participants are recorded clearly. Modifications can also be done to the interview to make it more suitable, with some questions added or omitted where considered appropriate, and further explanations given when necessary (Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al. (2007) indicated that semi-structured and in-depth interviews may be employed within qualitative research studies to unearth and provide deeper understanding of the 'How?' and 'What?' of a particular situation, in addition to the placement of greater emphasis upon the 'Why?' of the situation. It was stressed by Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011) that interviews had the strength of allowing the researcher to explore the processes ambiguities, complexities, and contradictions that an interviewee may face. A researcher may explore and then negotiate the questions and answers in terms of their potential meanings, with the respondent perspective being explored by the interviewer. The interview method is, however, both time consuming and expensive, especially if a big number of respondents is involved. In addition, the validity and reliability of the questions with the interview process could also be affected because of the interaction between the interviewee and interviewer.

4.21.2 The sample for semi-structured interviewing

Individual interviews that were semi-structured were undertaken face-to-face with a sample of managers in the ADP working in various departments; as such, the perceptions and attitudes towards the current practices of the style of leadership at the ADP could be gleaned. Upon analysis of the findings, several 'grey areas' were found and so the researcher had to seek clarification through interviews with the managers. A variety of views were collected in regard to various kinds of leadership and, once opinions were gathered from a variety of dimensions, triangulation was done to the research sample. The study targeted participants with four years of work experience or more and a random selection of managers (middle managers and senior managers) was made from several grade levels within the relevant groups within the structure of the ADP. It was considered that the outcome of the research could potentially be enriched through a selection of employees at various managerial levels. Also, it was possible to have confidence in the accuracy of the process of interviewing and in the reliability of the research, in general. Overall, interviews were believed to be a data collection technique that would be efficient in collecting a large volume of research data for consideration and analysis. Interviewees were told of the importance placed on gathering insights into the role being played by the current practices of leadership for enhancement of the knowledge sharing levels amongst employees.

4.21.3 The questions of the semi-structured interviewing

Semi-structured interviews were considered by Wengraf (2001, 52) as having *"a number of interview questions prepared in advance but such prepared questions are designed to be sufficiently open that the subsequent questions of the*

interviewer cannot be planned in advance but must be improvised in a careful and theorised way". The discussion of the interview concentrates upon three primary themes that emerged from the questionnaire and the review of literature. The researcher introduced the themes to the research interviewees in order to ensure that the questions asked of them, and the research aims, were fully understood by the respondents. In doing so, discussions between respondents and the researcher were prompted with regard to the study importance. As such, the following highlighted areas were put forward to be investigated:

Theme No.1: *Do you believe that the current social, economic and cultural changes that are occurring within the UAE impact upon the style of leadership?*

Theme No.2: *What is the current leadership style at the ADP? Which type of leadership is needed in order to drive the commitment of employees required to meet challenges faced at the ADP?*

Theme No.3: *What are the views/perceptions with regard to the leadership of the ADP, its structure and the levels of commitment to the organisation*?

The questions allowed participants to indicate those factors that contributed the most in regard to employee commitment and leadership so that they could be discussed, in addition to the identification of the leadership style practice that was preferred amongst employees at the ADP. The researcher was helped by an expert on the topics of qualitative methodology and quality in order to enhance the quality of the questions of the semi-structured interviews. As a number of fellow PhD students were engaged in working in related fields, their help was received to enhance the validity of the interview questions and to ensure all main areas of enquiry were being addressed.

4.21.4 The interview procedures

The following procedures were used to undertake the interviews:

a) Telephone calls and emails were used for arranging the participant interviews.

b) A total of ten interviews were held face-to-face with leaders from of a variety of departments in the ADP, with participants chosen based on them being from a range of departments and levels of job within the ADP hierarchy;

c) Efforts were made to help participants feel comfortable and at ease whilst the interviews were being conducted, with an informal style to encourage them to feel able to freely talk about the issues in question. The interviews were conducted in the offices of participants and they lasted from about 30 to 45 minutes. Information was kept in note form by the researcher;

d) Through using open-ended questions, in following-up on responses, the researcher was able to ask more probing questions. Open-ended questions afford interviewees a certain amount of flexibility for the responses they give (Patton, 2002);

e) Participants were thanked for co-operating and offering their time and contributions.

4.21.5 Justifying the selection of the semi-structured interviewing instrument

The techniques of using interviews is believed to be very effective when collecting complex data as it helps in generating a rapport between researcher and

participant and boosts the response rates and the data quality (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher had a focus upon the open questioning of participants in order to describe the opinions they and in order to acquire complex and comprehensive answers from participants. Semi-structured interviews, as a more commonly used qualitative research method, are frequently easy when it comes to collecting qualitative data (Heaton, 2004). The semi-structured interview with qualitative research is seen as non-standardised and has a list of themes or questions for the interviewer to cover during the time, with sufficient flexibility for exploring interesting areas were they to arise (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2009). More obtained insights may have relevance to the research objectives; semi-structured interviews are, indeed, considered the primary source of research data from case studies (Yin, 2003). It has been highlighted that interviews can generate more confidence than responses gathered from questionnaires, and can have the benefit of non-verbal communication (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). The particular usage of interviews for seeking to acquire semi-structured information behind participant experiences was noted by Saunders et al. (2007). An expectation for this research is that the interviewing of leaders will provide professional perceptions in relation to the cultural organisational dimensions and the way in which employee commitment is altered. The semi-structured interview has been carefully designed so that bias can be reduced. It is typical for the semi-structured, openly framed interview to allow for communication that is two-way, informal and focused, and that has a gradual shift from questioning of a general nature to a focus that is more specific (Barrio, 2000). The semi-structured interview offers flexibility and enables new areas to be explored if and when they crop up; overall, the semi-structured method

is considered appropriate for this research project as it can help explore subjective meanings (Yates, 2004; Janckowicz, 2005).

4.21.6 The analysis of the interview data

Concentrating upon analysis of the content, measurement was done for the semantic content that was associated with each leadership style. Content analysis is a very particular type of thematic analysis useful as a presentation technique for interview data (Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Zikmund et al., 2010). The words and emergent themes of the participant descriptions were investigated. Instead of using the NVivo tool for analysis of qualitative data from the in-depth interviews, the researcher decided to manually analyse the data as the NVivo tool is not workable for Arabic, and also the volume of collected information from the interviews was, in relative terms, quite small.

When it comes to qualitative data, the analysis of content requires a coding process whereby an initial process of open coding proceeds the formation of frames of coding that involve breaking text down into categories that are more easily managed; as such, the information is broken down into phrases, sentences and words and this is then followed by the researcher comparing the statements made by participants, including determining whether participants who made a particular statement also made another, as shown in Appendix 2. The findings were subjected to a mechanism for quality control, with analysis of the data sample by another researcher (fellow PhD student) in order to confirm that there was consistency in use of the assigned meanings. Table 4.13 shows the

advantages and disadvantages of content analysis according to the perspective of Babbie (2004). After the suggestion from Patton (2010), the answers were subjected to content analysis with the cross-interview type of approach employed in the manual analysis of the collected data and its classification.

Table 4.13: The strengths and weaknesses of content analysis

Advantages	Disadvantages
- It is a socially-oriented research method, capturing real-life data in a social environment. - It offers flexibility. - It offers high face validity. - It gives speedy results. - It is low in cost.	- It affords the researcher less control than individual interviews. - Data are difficult to analyse. - Moderators (interviewers) require special skills. - Differences between groups can be troublesome. - Groups are difficult to assemble. - The discussion must be conducted in a conducive environment.

Source: Babbie, (2004)

4.22 The quantitative phase

4.22.1 The questionnaires

In management and business research, it is common to use a survey strategy; on the other hand, there is a tendency for experimental studies to dominate within psychological research. It was noted by Remenyi et al. (1998) that surveys collect data from a big population, and it is commonly the main source of quantitative data within management research. Surveys are used in description, explanation and/or the testing of hypotheses. In the social sciences, this is more conventionally carried out through interviews and questionnaires, however in-depth interviewing, structured observation and the analysis of content may be

incorporated as well (Bryman, 2008). Sarantakos (1998, 223), in offering a description of the survey, highlighted 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 to be the research method of social sciences"*. It is common for surveys to be used in the measurement of the frequency of attitudes, behaviour and beliefs, with the survey being either analytical or descriptive. An analytical survey is used in investigating relationships that may be present between a number of variables, whilst descriptive surveys are intended to identify and measure the frequency of population that has been specified (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In this current research, it is relevant to use a descriptive survey to address the questions and objectives of the research, and especially the questions of a 'What?' type (Yin, 2003). In general, the considerable popularity of the survey comes from its ability to allow large volumes of data to be collected from a large population, in a way that is extremely economical, through use of written techniques (questionnaire) and/or oral techniques (interview). In devising a strategy for surveying, there are important variables that have to be known; so, the survey is only employed within situations that are understood reasonably well. This study has mixed methods, however, which means that information that is insightful may first be generated through the use of a qualitative approach for the identification of predominant leadership styles and identification of the factors that are crucial for employee commitment. It is then possible to construct a theoretical model that permits result testing through use of a quantitative approach. Employee interviews or questionnaire completion were considered by Spector (1997) as being the main way of undertaking the measurement of the satisfaction of employees. In this research, the research strategy of using a survey has been

employed mainly because it is an efficient and cost-effective way in which large volumes of data from a big population can be collected in order to answer the research questions (Yin, 2009). A questionnaire is thought to be the most probable way in which a standardised set of data can be achieved; the regular comprehension of questions by the participants enables quantitative instruments to then be used for analysis (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009). For this study, the questionnaire has enabled the collection of data from a wide range of participants from diverse ADP departments. It is easy to administer questionnaires that have been formulated well, and the survey strategy has given the researcher a greater degree of control over the research process and it has helped in suggesting causes for variable relationships (Janckowicz, 1995; Yin, 2009).

4.22.2 Questionnaire types

The researcher undertook the survey in order to examine current ADP leadership styles and to examine the impact that they were having upon employee commitment; by doing so, the research questions were able to be answered. According to Haimon (1998), advanced methods of analysis employed within social investigation have become a primary procedure for survey data processing. In measuring the characteristics of a population, the survey can be a very valuable way to help in describing a population and formulating models to analyse the characteristics of them. In considering the values of a taking a survey approach, Gilbert (2008 95) states that: "*sociologists also regard surveys as an invaluable source of data about attitudes, values, personal experiences and behaviour".* Gilbert (2008) acknowledges the benefits of conducting survey through a

telephone interview, through the sending of questionnaires through the post, or through conducting them face to face. The beliefs, feelings and views of people that are acquired could be adequate in themselves or they could be utilised in adding weight to an argument that has been put forward (Jankowicz, 1995). A comparison of the strengths and weaknesses of the aforementioned methods now follows.

4.22.3 Telephone interviews

Fricker et al. (2005) estimate that it costs about half the resources to do telephone interviews than face to face interviews. Telephone interviewing has several clear advantages:

a) There is a bigger chance of gaining access to an interviewee;

b) It is cheaper than undertaking personal, face-to-face interviews;

c) The period of data collection tends to be shorter;

d) They can be administered more easily than surveys posted within the mail system;

e) Fewer people are needed in order to conduct the survey.

Telephone interviewing also has some disadvantages including:

a) When there are sensitive questions, there is less reliability;

b) It may be more difficult for respondents to answer complicated and long questions in a telephone interview.

4.22.4 The mailed questionnaire

The technique of mailing questionnaires involves questionnaire distribution through the postal service with a covering letter. The self-administered questionnaire is believed to be the most commonly used method. A postal questionnaire has limited interference and less time is taken from the researcher in comparison to interviewing and questionnaires that are administered personally (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). Mailed questionnaires are also advantageous due to:

a) *Cost effectiveness*. There is no need for trained interviewers and the process nature and the data analysis also keep the approach cost effective. When participants are located over a broad area, then it is clear that mailing questionnaires is likely to be much cheaper than other types of approach (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003);

b) *Accessibility*. Respondents distributed over a broad area can be mailed with ease;

c) *Anonymity*. As noted by Sekaran (2003), mailed questionnaires lend themselves to the maintenance of anonymity and respondents can send in their responses at a time that is convenient to them. Without personalisation in the survey, there is more likely to be a truer opinion offered when the participant is faced with a controversial or sensitive question;

d) *There is a reduced degree of error from bias*. When using a mailed questionnaire, personal matters or variable skills in the interviewer play

less of a role; as such there may be more consistent, stable and uniform measurement (Remenyi et al., 2002);

e) *The possibility of collecting large amounts of data*. As Babbie (2004) stressed, a mailed questionnaire allows a large amount of data to be acquired within a relatively short timeframe from a large number of participants.

A mailed questionnaire can also have a number of significant disadvantages, however:

i) There is a need for simple questions. To ensure questions are comprehensible and simple, there is a need for printed definitions and instructions;

ii) Once the questionnaire has been posted, there is no further control the question over who is the person completing the questionnaire*;*

iii) The rate of response can be low*.*

4.22.5 The personally-administered questionnaire

If just local surveying is done, with an aim of having focused gatherings in a workplace or in the homes of people, then it is considered appropriate to use the personally-administered questionnaire tool for the collection of data. In the works of both Collis and Hussey (2003) and Sekaran (2003), advantages of personally-administered questionnaires are highlighted and include the following considerations:

a) There is the possibility of a high rate of response as the researcher is able to collect responses personally and does not have to rely on a postal service;

b) It is possible to remove interviewer bias;

c) Any confusion can be clarified by the researcher;

d) It is possible to explain the topic and themes of the research to participants to encourage and motivation them to give franker responses;

e) Administration of questionnaires to a big number of participants can be quicker and cheaper when interviews are conducted in the same place;

f) Less skill is required to administer a questionnaire than to conduct an interview;

g) When being collected, a questionnaire can be examined to see if it has been completed fully.

For the current research, both personally-administered and mailed questionnaires were utilised.

4.22.6 The design, distribution and administration of questionnaires

It is crucial to have a suitable questionnaire design in order for the required data to be obtained that addresses the questions and objectives of the research. So, for careful formulation of the questionnaire questions, a researcher should give consideration to the following:

a) Each item in the questionnaire should have a particular role that is made clear;

b) For each of the 4 scales, each group of questions should have the aim of testing a particular variable;

c) Before an item is included, there should be decisions made in respect to how the analysis of the responses will be undertaken and through the use of which statistical methods, in addition to consideration over how data will be presented and/or published.

All of the survey questions have to be given consideration in order to ensure that the responses given have validity; the language and wording of the questions have to relate to the perceptions and attitudes of the participants. Saunders et al. (2003) suggest the guidelines below to ensure that questionnaires have suitable wording:

a) Questions should use familiar vocabulary, terms and concepts, and be straightforward and clear;

b) There should be a simple scale employed from which a participant can select an answer;

c) Questions with bias that could encourage a particular response to be given should be avoided;

d) Questions should be direct and short so that participants are more likely to be willing to be involved and so that misunderstandings are more likely to be avoided;

e) There should be an avoidance of using leading questions that employ language that is emotive and that could lead a participant to respond in a certain way. Kumar (2014:120) defines a leading question as *"one which, by its contents, structure or wording, leads a respondent to answer in a certain direction"*;

f) There should be avoidance of ambiguity in question wording;

g) Questions that are negative and confusing should also be avoided.

So that the best possible instrument for the research was created, the researcher followed the above guidelines when designing the questionnaire.

4.22.7 The question sequence and flow

On a subconscious level, respondents may have more readiness for questioning when the questions are considered to have an appropriate sequence and flow. A 'funnel' approach was recommended by Sekaran (2003) whereby questions moved from being general to have a more specific focus, and questions went from easily answered ones to questions that had progressively more difficulty. Certain key principles were applied in the questionnaire construction, as follows:

a) With similar topics being grouped together, there was a logical flow; the first questionnaire element was related to information of a demographic nature and this was followed by a second element with 4 sections that related to the addressing of the questions of the research;

b) Following the initial broad questioning, more specific questioning then followed based upon the initial participant response;

c) The likeliness of hesitation was reduced through the careful construction of the questions at the start of the questionnaire;

d) An emphasis was placed by the researcher on a keen interest in participant views rather than having them feeling like they were under some sort of intense scrutiny. Also, the initial questions were drafted in a way that made them easy to answer;

e) Every one of the questions was drafted in a way that it had relevance to the participants;

f) Open questions were used only minimally and those that were included were used towards the end of the questionnaire.

4.22.8 Types of questions

As an instrument of surveying, there are particular disadvantages and advantages to the use of closed and open questions (Sekaran, 2003). It was observed by Remenyi et al. (2002) that questions that are open are best used within exploratory studies since the researcher is unable to specify the response categories beforehand. It is easy to ask open questions and they allow participants to provide more opinions and information in the way they want to express them. Open questions are disadvantageous in certain respects, however, since they increase the duration of the study and this may discourage participation and lead to an increase in the number of responses that are incomplete and

unusable. Another disadvantage is that much of the acquired data may present difficulties when it comes to analysis and/or the data may be useless or irrelevant (Remenyi et al., 2002; Collis and Hussey, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). Closed questions, on the other hand, require either an answer that is either yes or no or is a choice from several presented alternatives. Closed questions can be completed by a respondent quickly, however the creation of a design that is clear, and that considers all possible responses, is a difficult thing to do. Also, closed questions are limiting in their range of options and there may be frustration for the participant in feeling that they are unable to give a response that is an accurate and true reflection of their beliefs (de Vaus, 2002; Denscombe, 2007). Closed questions do, however, prove useful for the collection of certain types of data and, given the range of answers is limited, the data analysis can be much more straightforward. It can be quick and easy to ask a large number of questions, and since the responses are standardised, comparison is straightforward too; as such, the decision was made to mainly employ closed questions with the research study questionnaire.

4.23 The scaling process

A scale has been defined by Sekaran (2003:185) 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".* The study used dichotomous questions to offer participants only two alternatives when gathering gender information, and

questions in a multiple-choice style with a range of options when gathering information in relation to age, qualification and experience in auditing. Further ordinal scales were employed for gathering evidence into numbered categories to indicate order (Remenyi et al., 2002). For measurement of the extent of the perceptions of individual participants in relation to each of the statements, a 5-point Likert scale was designed (Saunders et al., 2009). In order to help remove bias from the research, a neutral option in the middle meant that participants could select that option if they had no emotional response to the research (Sekaran, 2003).

Table 4.14: Example of the Likert-type scale using five points as used within the study questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't Know

For analysis of participant responses, the researcher chose to use the specialist package for statistics and analysis known as SPSS. Statements related to current perceptions in regard to the dominant leadership styles and their impact upon commitment in the ADP.

For the study purpose, the questionnaire designed by the researcher comprises three main sections. The first section caters for demographic information about the participants, with information used for differentiation of respondents using various methods. The second questionnaire section has reference to the leader characteristics based on categorisation within the Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ comprises nine main leadership traits categorised into three primary styles of leadership (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Table 4.15 demonstrates how this second section was developed to accord with the division of the MLQ.

Table 4.15: Categorisation of leadership and associated traits

Leadership styles	Leadership Traits	Questionnaire question number
Transformational Leadership	Idealized Attributes (IA): which refers to the instilling of pride in others for being associated with them. This person displays a sense of power and confidence	10, 18, 21, and 25
	Idealized Behaviours (IB): this attribute indicates that the person talks about his/her most important values and beliefs. In addition, this person has a strong sense of purpose.	6, 14, 23, and 32
	Inspirational Motivation (IM): this person always talks optimistically about the future. And talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	9, 13, 26, and 34
	Intellectual Stimulation (IS): this person suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments, while seeking different perspectives when solving problems.	2, 8, 35, and 36
	Individualized Consideration (IC): this attribute indicates that this person spends time in teaching and coaching their employees in order to help them develop their strengths.	15, 19, 29, and 30

Transactional Leadership	Contingent Rewards CR: this person offers assistance in exchange for their efforts and expresses satisfaction when they meet the expectations.	1, 11, 16, and 33
	Management by Exception (Active) MBEA: this type of leader focuses on irregularities, mistakes from the standard. So they always direct their attention toward failure to meet standards.	4, 24, 27, and 22
	Management by Exception (Passive) MBEP: this attribute of the leader indicates that s/he does not interfere until problems become serious. So, s/he waits for things to go wrong before taking action.	3, 12, 17, and 20
Laissez-Faire LF	Laissez-Faire LF: this type of leaders always avoids getting involved when important issues arise, absent when needed, and always avoids making decisions.	5, 7, 28, and 31

Source: Compiled by the present researcher

As Table 4.15 shows, each leadership trait is associated with a number of questionnaire questions. Such repetition has the purpose of ensuring reliability of the data that the questionnaire helps to gather. In analysing this questionnaire section, each question group is gathered into a mean figure which undergoes analysis rather than analysis of all the individual questions. The third questionnaire section was also based on the model of Meyer and Allen (1991), considered one of the most empirically scrutinised of all models of organisational behaviour. The model comprises three primary sections requiring the participant to give answers to a number of questions in relation to normative commitment, continuance commitment and affective commitment (Keskes, 2014)

4.24 The translation of the questions of the interviews and questionnaire

The researcher translated the questionnaire and interview questions from English into Arabic to enable the sharing of the objectives. Senior lecturers in linguistics, who had knowledge of Arabic and management, offered their assistance. Fontana and Frey (1994, 371), in giving their recommendation of such an approach, considered that *"use of language is very crucial for creating sheerness of meanings in which both interviewer and respondent understand the contextual nature of the interview"*. With further help from a senior linguistic lecturer, the interview transcripts and answers were translated to English.

4.25 Justification for choosing the research approach and data collection techniques

Consideration of all potential data collection techniques before the questionnaires are adopted, as recommended, ensures the application of the suitable one for the context of the research (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2009).

The validity of the data may be enhanced through combination of the questionnaires with other techniques into a mixed methods or multi-method approach. So, for this research, in combination with questionnaire, a semi-structured interview method was used in order to enhance the validity of the data and to cut out the 'method effect' on the results of the research (Saunders et al., 2009, 154).

It would be difficult for the researcher to conduct in-depth interviews or observation whilst residing out of the country, with international phone calls also being costly

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and inefficient. (Tejeda et al., 2001; Smith 2006). The management of the ADP gave their prior approval following delivery to them of a pre-distribution sample for them to review. All information gathered from participants is to be kept confidentially.

4.26 The research population and technique of sampling

The research population is the group of things or people that a researcher is investigating (Sekaran, 2003); it relates to all the elements or cases of a piece of research collectively. Robson (2002: 60) considered that: *"A sample is a selection from the population".* Whilst the sample has the attributes of the population of the research, it is just a segment of all potential components or cases (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2000, 150) noted that: *"Sampling techniques provide 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."* All of the cases in the research are known as the research population, whereas the sample refers to a subset of the population that is made up of a selection of the members of that population (Robson, 2002; Sekaran, 2003). Whilst some pieces of research involve the collection of data from an entire population, there should not be a presumption that the data collected is necessarily more useful than if only a representative sample had been used (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) outlined the situations when researchers have to employ a sample:

1. When data collection from an entire population would be difficult to achieve, e.g. when a researcher is only able to get permission for the gathering of data from a sample of the population;

2. When it may be a possibility for the researcher to collect data from an entire population but the cost would be prohibitive;

3. When restrictions of time foreclose the possibility of collecting data from an entire population, such as when there is a tight deadline for the researcher;

4. When a researcher needs to have some results quickly.

In terms of sampling, there are both non-probability and probability techniques; the latter of these known to have a probability of non-zero for selection for each element of the population. Stratified sampling and random sampling are typical probability techniques. Non-probability sampling uses non-random selection, with examples including quota sampling and snowball sampling (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To ensure an acceptable quality level, there has to be strict adherence to sound principles of sampling. There are disadvantages and advantages to using each technique depending upon the circumstances. One disadvantage is that it helps in discovering only predictions or estimates of population characteristics, and so there is the potential of the researcher making an error in the estimation. Key advantages, however, are the low costs involved, the need for less human resources and time savings (Kumar, 2008). Random sampling has been adopted for this research so that there is an equal chance of inclusion for all of the units and so the sampling can be said to have greater representativeness. The study population that was targeted was all employees and middle and junior managers in the hierarchy of the ADP who had a position for leading people. Different methods of sampling were employed in the quantitative and qualitative phases of mixed methods research approach. The qualitative phase of the study involved the purposeful sampling of the leaders of the ADP, whilst the quantitative phase

used random sampling of the managers and employees of the ADP. Whilst it may be extremely difficult to conduct an examination of a whole population, sampling may be efficient if there are issues and constraints and if there is a need for quick results; there can also be, in some instances, a greater degree of accuracy if sampling is used (Bryman and Bell, 2007). As there is a large number of workers in the ADP, selection from various profiles of them can be easier and enable a broader and more insightful view to be acquired.

4.26.1 Questionnaire sampling technique

If studying a specific research problem, there has to be a decision over the scope and size of the group of cases or members of the group targeted for canvasing. In certain cases, it may be financially and technically feasible to have coverage of nearly all possible members of a group or nearly all cases, as with the taking of a census, for example (Townsend and MacBeath, 2011). In general, there are two sampling types, i.e. non-probability and probability (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Non-probability sampling results in the acquisition of a sample that is not fully representative of the population in question, such as the use of the technique of snowballing sampling (Bryman and Bell, 2011). With probability sampling, on the other hand, there is known probability of non-zero for all elements within the population to appear within the sample; examples being stratified and random sampling (Zoogah, 2014).

Figure 4.2: The common techniques and types of sampling
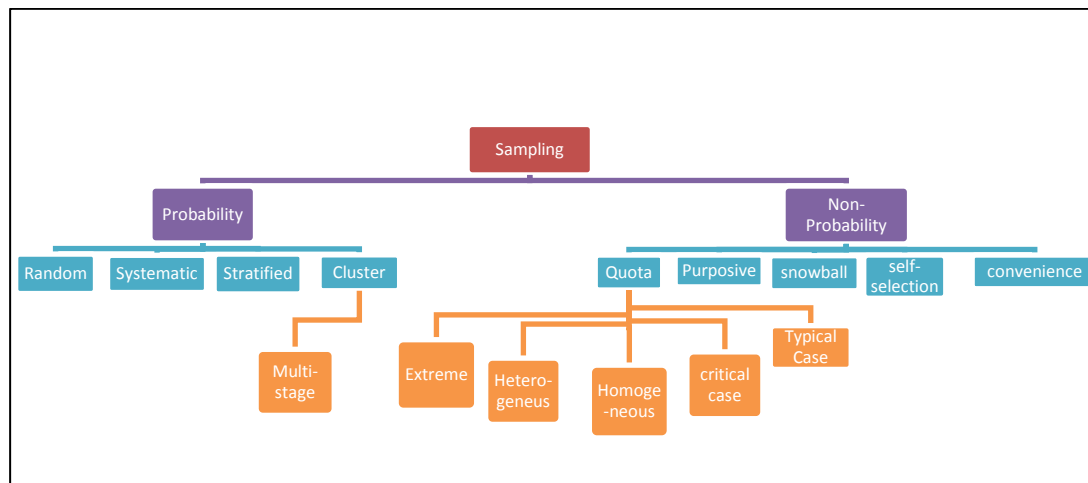
Source: Saunders et al., (2009, 213)

For the purpose of this study, a probability sampling was used with the selection of random samples from five positions within eight different departments so that a representative size of sample could be selected for the entire population in order that any relationship between organisational commitment and the existing styles of leadership could be highlighted. Random sampling that is stratified is a method of information gathering from a sub-group of respondents to help ensure that the sample selected covers the entire population in a size of group that is relatively consistent. So, the researcher used a ratio method for selection of the size of the sub-group sample with all the people having a chance of selection in accordance to a ratio given to his or her department; this has the purpose of enhancing the sample representativeness (Brigham, 2010). The aim of using the strategy of selected sampling is to have representativeness of the characteristics of the entire population. Therefore, three steps were followed for the selection of the size of sample: i) prediction of the size of sample for each sub-group, ii) computation of the sample size proportion in accordance with its category and iii) adjustment of the sampling size to the rate of response.

Table 4.16: The size of sample for each of the sub-groups

Sub-groups according to their departments	Population	Weight percentage	Sample size	Selected sample
Commander General of Abu Dhabi Police	470	0.12	43	68
Deputy Commander General	420	0.11	39	61
General Directorate for Finance and Services	280	0.07	26	41
General Directorate for Human Resources	180	0.05	17	26
General Directorate for Guards and Establishments Protection	280	0.07	26	41
General Directorate for Policing Operations	560	0.15	52	81
General Directorate for Central Operations	250	0.07	23	36
General Directorate for Security Affairs and Ports	1350	0.36	124	196
Total	3790	1	349	550

(Compiled by the researcher)

The ADP is the population in question for this research study. With a manpower of 3,790 employees, it is not a small organisation, and the additional security concerns make it a difficult proposition to do a thorough canvasing of the employees of the organisation.

The researcher calculated the sample by using Yamane's (1967) formula:

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

According to Yamane (1967), **n** is the sample size, **N** is the population size, and **e** is the level of precision. Instead of a full survey, then, samples were taken from various different employee groups from within the organisation, with selection from various departments and offices. Table 4.17 shows the minimum size of sample for each of the departments.

4.27 The pilot study

The pilot study was considered by Daniel and Turner (2010) to have potential benefit to a researcher as it helps to ensure that the methods employed are not imbued with any weaknesses that could have been avoided. So, this research part includes an essential pilot study to help ensure that the various study instruments are consistent and valid prior to conducting the second study phase.

4.28 The design for the scale

The scale design exercise is one with the purpose of ensuring that it is developed to be effective in addressing the research objectives. In order to increase confidence and motivation, three principles were employed by the researcher, as put forward by Dillman (1978, 123-125), which consisted of:

a) Questions placed in descending order of their importance and usefulness, with that order being that which was agreed following the convening of a focus group and the piloting;

b) The questions were grouped together based on them having similar content, grouping based on area, and grouping based on type of question. During scale construction, there was grouping based on

subject, and grouped with the title of the participant, were questions in relation to leadership style, rewards and recognition, the salary and any fringe benefits.

4.29 Testing the pilot questionnaire

Conducting a small number of questionnaires could benefit researchers in the minimisation of difficulties and problems that could be faced by participants as they try to understand the questionnaire questions (Saunders et al. (2012). Yin (2009) emphasised upon the importance of undertaking a pilot study before conducting the actual questionnaire survey, so that the researcher has a chance of redesigning both the questionnaire and procedures that should be followed during the collection and analysis of the data. To help the researcher in the development of the questionnaire, the draft version was distributed to several PhD students of the Liverpool Business School for their comments. An Arabic version of the questionnaire was then distributed to five members of the ADP with a request for feedback with regards to how understandable the questionnaire questions were. Following this, a final version of the questionnaire was developed by the researcher.

4.29.1 The scale of measurement for the pilot test

With the use of the literature, and in order to address the study purpose, a division was made into three main leadership styles, i.e. laissez-faire, transactional and transformational; each of these three divisions was then further divided into sub-

groups containing four questions. Each leadership trait had several questionnaire questions with the repetition purpose being to ensure the questionnaire gathered reliable data.

4.29.2 The Pilot questionnaire survey

A total of 40 questionnaires were distributed by the researcher in the pilot study phase, from which thirty were returned. Three of the questionnaires were taken out due to them being incomplete. As such, there was a rate of response of 66%. Table 4.17 below shows the rate of response for the pilot study. So, to accord with this rate, the researcher decided to distribute a total of 550 questionnaires so that the targeted size of sample was likely to be achieved.

Table 4.17: The rate of response to the questionnaire of the pilot study

Total Distributed Questionnaires	Missing Questionnaires	Incomplete Questionnaires	Valid Questionnaires	Response Rate
40	10	3	27	66%

Hair et al. (2010) stated that the level of reliability may be measured through use of Cronbach's Alpha, with the recommendation that it has a figure of over 0.70. The questionnaire pilot study showed that the Cronbach's Alpha for questions related to leadership to be acceptable at 0.783; the reliability level, then, was increased for the data collected from the respondents.

Table 4.18: The reliability test

	Cronbach's Alpha
All questions	0.783
Leadership questions	0.743
Organisational commitments questions	0.727

The researcher analysed the questionnaire returned through use of SPSS software for the further benefit of verifying the validities of the different variables and scales employed in the questionnaire; once this was done there was reassurance that the survey was a valid one for the further phase(s) of the PhD.

4.29.3 Pilot test feedback

There was general agreement that the questionnaire could be clearly understood, however a number of issues were raised by respondents and so minor adjustments were made as follows:

a) An additional three questions were put into the questionnaire;

b) Two of the questions had been repeated and so they were deleted;

c) There were slight variations in two questions when comparing their Arabic and English versions and so they were reworded to facilitate understanding;

d) In order for participants to use the questionnaire easily, the scale rating direction was changed to a low to high direction from a high to low direction.

Some reviewers thought the questionnaire was too long, and some made the suggestion that logos of Liverpool John Moores University and ADP ought to be placed on the questionnaires to give them a formal appearance.

4.30 Study measurements used

4.30.1 Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)

The study purpose was, through the use of a MLQ approach, to seek to determine the styles of leadership of different managers at the ADP in order to acquire the perceptions of individuals working under/with the management approaches of the various managers (Bass and Avolio, 2000). The MLQ was first developed in the work of Bass and Avolio (1997) and following that, there have been improvements that have resulted in the development of many different versions. The version known as MLQ Form 5X comprises eleven statements of rating that use a 5-point Likert type scale to identify and measure the main attributes of the styles of leadership. The scale was designed with 1 equating to 'Strongly Agree', 2 equating to 'Agree', 3 equating to 'Neutral', 4 equating to 'Disagree', and 5 equating to 'Strongly Disagree'. Lots of studies have shown the MLQ reliability with a Cronbach's Alpha of greater than 0.90, such as the study of Avolio and Bass (2004) and their MLQ scale; the instrument is considered to be one of the best available instruments for evaluation of styles of leadership, and it was adapted for this research project because of its extensive nature and scale validation. Also, the instrument is the most commonly used one for the measurement of style of leadership and its effects or outcomes. The Short-form 5X (revised) is the recent version of the MLQ and it is employed in this research

to gauge ADP employee perceptions of managerial styles of leadership, such as transactional and transformational styles.

4.31 Commitment

One of the questionnaire parts was related to commitment, which has a description in this research as being the exchange of skills, experiences and knowledge amongst ADP staff members. There were originally five items within the Van den Hooff and de Ridder (2004) instrument that have been shown to be reliable and valid. Commitment is the dependent study variable, with a reflection of the acceptance of new ideas or their development. Commitment measurement was done through building upon the work of previous studies and modifying it so that is was appropriate for the context of the ADP. A further commitment measure, reflected the utilisation of new approaches to services and their delivery by way of developments in new technologies and their use, as well as the implementation of reward systems and incentives for staff members.

To ensure both content and face validity, and the definition of the construct, the initial item pool was presented to three experts in the academic field of commitment and leadership (DeVellis, 2003). They were asked to give each item a rating, in comparison to the provided definition, as being either 'clearly representative', 'somewhat representative' or 'not at all representative'. Also, the review involved the checking of the clarity of the items and dimension, the ranking scale of the questions and the overall scale layout. Modified items of the scale construct were deleted as they were considered 'somewhat representative' or 'not at all representative'.

4.32. The research validity

The research validity refers to the degree to which the findings of a research work are truly representative of what they are supposedly about (Saunders et al., 2009). The validity of research is also known as internal validity (Zoogah, 2014). As Anderson (2013) noted, it is a validity error type for a causal relationship to be identified when there is not really a relationship. Several threats to validity were identified in the work of Robson (2011), in which they were referred to as testing, history, maturation and mortality. So as to ensure that the instruments of collection for the survey data measure the variables of the research accurately, the design of them was based upon instruments that had already been used within relevant pieces of research. Furthermore, all the survey questions were linked directly to organisational commitment, a leadership style dimension or to a relationship that exists between the two. Instructions on how to complete the questions are incorporated in the survey instruments, and so there was an increased likelihood that participants would answer the questionnaire appropriately. An introduction to the research was also incorporated into the instruments, along with an explanation of the research purpose, explanation of how the data gathered from them will be utilised, and confirmation that privacy would be protected. The introduction had the purpose of obtaining the support of the potential participants of the research sample, so that the probability of withdrawal from the research was reduced. Also, the likelihood of misstatement of truths or deliberate concealment of information was reduced.

4.33 Reliability of the research

The reliability of research is the degree to which the collection of data or the techniques for analysis will be consistent in producing the same findings (Anderson, 2013). Research studies are considered to have reliability when the results produced are the same even when the research is undertaken by another researcher or at another occasion (DePoy and Gitlin, 2015).

4.34 Generalisability of the research

The generalisability of research is the extent to which the findings of research can be applied to other settings, such as within another organisation (Briggs et al., 2012). This current study relates to the relationship between organisational commitment and the style of leadership in the ADP and, it is important to note, no claims are made with regard to other populations. The sample of the research is composed of ADP employees from different departments and offices however, and as the ADP is a government organisation that is centralised, and with its own schools for training, the study findings could have the potential for generalisation, to a degree, to other organisations of government that have the same cultural values. Values such as loyalty to the monarchy and public service may be shared. However, given the particular ADP concerns for security, there is likely to be a limit to the degree the findings can be generalised to another organisation.

4.35 Procedures for data analysis

A key part of a research study such as this is the preparations that are done in readiness for successful data analysis; this depends on whether the data is

quantitative or qualitative (Collins and Hussey, 2003). In this research, the acquired data from questionnaires was used for the performance of appropriate analysis of the quantitative data. Once the responses had been collected, the next stage was the coding of them. Upon completion of the coding, data were entered in the SPSS on a computer. The researcher entered the data from hard copy form into the computer over a period of around a month. There are considered to be four critical steps to successful result analysis (Watling and James, 2007); these steps are a) having statistical tools available, b) ensuring each tool has the use of conditions, c) acquisition of the meanings of the statistical results, and d) having the knowledge to conduct statistical calculations. Both non-parametric and parametric tests for statistics were given consideration. Several conditions were put forward for using parametric tests by Field (2009); these conditions are as follows:

I.   Data ought to come from populations that have a normal distribution;

II. The same variance should be present throughout data, i.e. variance stability should exist at all levels;

III. Data measurement should be at an interval level, i.e. the distance between scale points of attitude should be equal;

IV. There should be independence of the data of individual participants so that the response of one person is not influential to another person.

Whilst there is a need for parametric statistical tests to have data that is normally distributed, there is a suggestion from central limit theorem, in relation to large samples, that sampling distributions are themselves normal even if there is no

normality for raw scores (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). So, this study employed parametric tests and statistical analysis of both descriptive and analytical methods, and analytical methods were given top priority.

4.36 The descriptive statistical method

Descriptive statistical techniques were used to describe the data collected from the various sources of relevance; these techniques were mainly founded upon calculation of a mean, a median, a frequency distribution of mode, and distributions of percentages and standard deviation (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). The study has sample characteristics, including sex, age, education level and rank, which are described through use of the descriptive method.

4.36.1 The analytical statistical method

The analytical statistical technique is used to make inferences from the statistical sample of the population parameters (Hair et al., 2007).

Significance level: There is considered to be a level of significance that is statistically acceptable when the p value is below 5% (0.05). If there is a lower level of significance, then there has to be more divergence of the data away from the null hypothesis in order for it to have significance; as such, a 0.01 level is a level of significance that is more conservative in nature than a 0.05 level. That significance level means there is below a 5% chance that the result may have been produced by chance; a smaller p value equates to a greater likelihood that

the result expressed has not just come about from chance. Ronald Fisher (1925, cited in Field, 2009, 25) suggest that choosing a 0.05 level of significance means that if there is only a 5% chance of the probability of an event happening then statistical significance or truth can be attached to that finding. As Bryman (2008) noted, a level of significance of 0.05 is often used within research for business.

Independent t-test: A so-called independent t-test can be employed to establish where a significant difference exists between two means collected from samples that are independent (Field, 2009). As a test of the inferential type, the independent t-test was designed to help researchers decide whether or not there should be acceptance or rejection of their null hypothesis. This research study used a t-test for testing a number of personal variables such as job level, sex and nationality.

Analysis of Variance: The one-way analysis of variance test, commonly known as ANOVA test, is like the t-test notion except that it is employed in comparing more than two groups; it is chosen for utilisation if there is a need for comparison of at least two means to see if between them there is the existence of differences of statistical significance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The ANOVA uses the F-ration to test the overall linear model fit; with it being inferential, its design helps researchers to a decision over whether there should be acceptance or rejection of their null hypothesis. ANOVA was employed within this research to test position, age group, education level and department.

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient: A correlation is the extent by which a relationship exists between two different variables, and the test of a correlation discovers the direction of the association, i.e. non-existent, negative or positive (Saunders et al., 2007). To accord with the research of Field (2009), Pearson's correlation coefficient can have a value from +1 (change in a variable results in the same change in the same direction in another variable) through 0 (when a variable changes, another variable remains the same) through to -1 (when a variable changes, another variable changes by the same magnitude though in the direction that is opposite). To evaluate the research questions, Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was employed in the examination of bivariate analyses of a number of the leadership style dimensions and factors.

Multiple Regression: Multiple regression analysis was defined by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996, 445) as being *"a method used when there are several independent variables, each of which may contribute to our ability to predict the dependent variable".* The objective of multiple regression analysis is to summarise data as well as quantify variable relationships; it is expressed by way of an equation for predicting values that are typical for a variable given the other values of a variable. Analysis by multiple regression involves, then, discovery of best straight-lined relationships for explanation, for example, of how variation in Y (a dependent variable) is dependent upon the variation in other variables X_1, X_2 and X_3 (independent variables). There is a regression coefficient (b_i) associated with each of the predictors with, as noted in Field (2009), b_0 being the outcome value when predictors are at zero. Once the relationship has been estimated, calculation of the equation can be done as below:

$$Y = (b_0 + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \ldots + b_nX_n) + i$$

So that the independent set of variables can ensure the maximum level of prediction, each of the independent variables is given a weight through the regression analysis procedure (Hair et al., 2010).

4.37 Ethical considerations

The general ethical consideration in relation to the design of research is to try and ensure that a study does not lead indirectly or directly to harm, embarrassment or material disadvantage to the population being researched (DePoy and Gitlin, 2015). For research to be ethical, there are lots of considerations such as information confidentiality, informed consent, the right for the participants to withdraw at any point without having to explain why, ensuring information is used appropriately and, in general, ensuring protection of the rights of the organisations and individuals involved (Briggs, et al., 2012). Ethical approval was given for this research by the Liverpool John Moores University Ethics Committee, and so this study accords with the ethical code for research of LJMU. The ethical code has procedures to ensure the research standards are ethical and so the chance of the study project resulting in any harm to participants is minimised. The procedures include having to read the code, the obtaining of appropriate skills for the design and use of the instruments of surveying, the seeking of approval from the management of the organisation under investigation, and the acquiring of individual consent from everyone involved in the research.

4.38 Summary

Chapter Four provided details of the research methodology employed to achieve the study objectives. The research philosophy and background to the research was covered within the first section to highlight issues of theory and to justify why the researcher chose the approach that he did for investigation of the research problem. The second part of the chapter had an overview of the methods chosen for the research in order to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. The section then also had an explanation for the techniques used, i.e. the initial pilot study for the questionnaire, the questionnaire survey itself, and the interviews. Description is given of the need for reliability and the statistical analyses for internal reliability, along with discussion of replicability and the need for validity. Explanation was given for ethical considerations when gathering data within such a process of research. By carefully utilising the methods described for a case study of the ADP, the researcher has envisaged that there will be greater understanding of the impact that various styles of leadership have upon the commitment of employees.

Chapter Five

Quantitative Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

In order to achieve the research aim and objectives, this chapter aims at analysing and uncovering the relationships between independent and dependent variables. The previous chapter provided the details about the research methodology and methods used in the study. Since phase one of the study adopted a quantitative method in which a survey questionnaire was distributed to obtain the data, this chapter presents results relating to the questionnaire that forms the basis of the phase one investigations. Based on the quantitative data, various statistical techniques including Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23) and structural equation modelling (SEM) based on AMOS software (version 23) were used to analyse the data. This chapter comprises the following sections: introduction, data management, data screening, demographic characteristics, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling and conclusions.

5.2 Preliminary Data Consideration

Out of 500 distributed questionnaires, 333 questionnaires were returned and considered valid for subsequent quantitative analysis. Although 333 questionnaires were returned, 24 of these were unusable, for the following reasons: respondents had put the same answers on all the Likert scale items (16 cases), missing demographic data (2 cases), and too many missing responses (6

cases). Accordingly, only 309 questionnaires were considered valid for further data analysis, thereby giving a high response rate of 61.8% of the original sample size. It is worth mentioning that such a high response rate might be the outcome of the systematic probability sampling technique.

5.2.1 Data Screening

To ensure the accuracy of the statistical techniques used in the study, it was necessary to screen and clean the raw quantitative data collected. According to Hair et al. (2010), data screening and cleaning is considered an important concern when the intention is to use multivariate analysis. Similarly, Byrne (2010) states that data screening is very important when the researcher decides to employ SEM before testing the measurement model, so as to ensure that no assumptions of the model are violated which may cause problems with the estimations. Whilst it might be time-consuming and exhaustive, the decision not to follow this process can result in wrong model estimations and poor fit. Therefore, when the data were entered in the SPSS spreadsheet, they were screened to ensure that there were no errors during data entry. This was done by identifying data located outside the range specified by using descriptive and frequency commands in SPSS. The results of descriptive analysis showed that the means and standard deviation for continuous variables were in the appropriate range, which indicates that the variable data were clean (Meyers et al., 2008). For the purposes of data cleaning, initially two types of analysis were applied. These were missing data and outliers. This study further confirmed the data by screening the normality, linearity and reliability before inferring results from the data.

Missing Data

Missing data refers to the valid values of variables which are not available for the analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Missing data have effects on data analysis, in terms of the results of analysis, sample size, generalisation, and bias when data are not random and the application of the remedies is inappropriate. Hence, to avoid missing data, an immediate approach was taken such as checking the answers of respondents at the time of survey collection to ensure respondents answered all questions. If there were any questions unanswered, the respondents were either asked at the end of the briefing session, met in person during the survey collection or asked by telephone for clarification. However, several parts of the questionnaire were still not answered by some respondents. Thus, six cases were excluded due to missing data per case. In line with the recommendations from Hair *et al.* (2010), questionnaires that had missing data were then no longer considered for further analysis, which related to less than 5% of the total responses (N=309), and Malhotra (1999) describes this procedure for removing missing data as case-wise deletion. Therefore, only completed questionnaires (with no missing data) were considered to be usable for further analysis.

Outliers

After treating the missing values, the next logical step was to consider outliers (univariate and multivariate), representing those cases with odd and/or extreme scores from other dataset observations. Errors in data entry, erroneous sampling techniques, missing values in calculation, and extreme responses on multi-point scales are among the many causes of outliers.

Univariate outliers were identified from the value of z-scores from the data set of the questionnaire. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggest that if the value of z-score is more than ± 3.29, the data are considered as univariate outliers, and will be eliminated from further analysis. They further suggest that extremeness of a standardized score depends on the size of the sample; with a very large N, a few standardised scores in excess of 3.29 are expected.

For the purposes of multivariate analysis, Mahalanobis distances (D^2) test was used across all sets of variables. In this test, if D^2/df (degree of freedom) value exceeds 2.5 in small samples and 3 or 4 in large samples it can be nominated as a possible outlier (Hair, at el., 2006).

Based on the z-score and Mahalanobis distances test, only one item was identified as having multivariate outliers ($D^2 > ± 2.5$) and no item was found to have univariate outliers (z-score > ± 3.29). This one item was removed from further analysis.

Normality

In statistics, normality refers to the data distribution which is a fundamental assumption in measuring the variation of variables. For analysing the data, it is not always required but is found better if the variables are normally distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). According to Hair et al. (2006), if the variation from the data normal distribution is sufficiently large, all resulting statistical tests are invalid, because normality is required to use the F and t statistics.

Skewness and kurtosis (K-S) are two most common ways of considering data that will indicate the normality of a given dataset distribution (Doornik and Hansen, 2008; Thulin, 2014). Skewness demonstrates the symmetry of distribution, while kurtosis refers to how much the distribution is peaked or flat compared with the normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010). However, scholars provide general guidelines about when skewness and kurtosis values might become problematic. For example, Hair et al. (2010) suggest that any skewness and kurtosis values falling outside the range of -1 to +1 represent a potential normality problem. On the other hand, many researchers are less conservative, recommending that skewness less than an absolute value of 3, and a kurtosis index with an absolute value of less than 8 do not indicate a significant normality problem (West et al., 1995; Doornik and Hansen, 2008; Kline, 2011).

Table 5.1 Collapsed Variables Normality Assessment

Items/Constructs	Skewness	Kurtosis
Idealised Attributes (IA)	-.846	.257
Idealised Behaviours (IB)	-.730	-.123
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	-.703	-.024
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	-.974	.084
Individualised Consideration (IC)	-.581	-.752
Contingent Rewards (CR)	-.712	-.833
Management by Exception (Active) MBEA	-.699	.138
Management by Exception (Passive) MBEP	-.961	.681
Laissez-Faire (LF)	-.760	-.280
Organisational Commitment (Dependent Variable)	-.843	-.034

In the current study, all individual measured items were tested for normality using skewness and kurtosis statistics as shown in Table 5-11 above, which reveals that for all the items, the maximum absolute value of skewness and kurtosis were -0.846 and -0.833 respectively, thereby indicating no significant deviation from normal distribution.

Reliability

In order to assess the internal consistency of all measurement items in the survey (all scale measures), Cronbach's Alpha test was performed by running the data using SPSS 23.

Table 5.2 Preliminary Reliability Test Results

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Accepted > 0.7 Rejected < 0.7
Idealised Attributes (IA)	.950	Accepted
Idealised Behaviours (IB)	.875	Accepted
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	.912	Accepted
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	.890	Accepted
Individualised Consideration (IC)	.948	Accepted
Contingent Rewards (CR)	.911	Accepted
Management by Exception (Active) MBEA	.862	Accepted
Management by Exception (Passive) MBEP	.882	Accepted
Laissez-Faire (LF)	.760	Accepted
Organisational Commitment (Dependent Variable)	.892	Accepted
Overall Reliability	.907	Accepted

The results shown in Table 5.2 above indicate that Cronbach's alpha scores for all individual constructs are in the range of 0.760 to 0.950, the overall score being 0.907. Hence, all were above the recommended level of 0.7 (Nunnaly,1978; Sekaran, 2003; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, it could be said that no internal consistency problem was revealed up to this stage of data analysis.

Linearity

Linearity means the correlation between variables which is represented by a straight line. In data analysis, it is important to know the level of relationship of variables. An implicit assumption of all multivariate techniques based on co-relational measures of association, including multiple regression, logistic regression, factor analysis, and structural equation modelling, is linearity (Hair et

al., 2010). Thus, examining the relationships of variables is important to identify any departures that may affect the correlation. In statistics, linearity can be measured by Pearson's correlations or a scatter plot (Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

Table 5.3 Pearson's Correlations with DV (Employees' commitment to the organisation)

	DV	TFLIA_C	TFLIB_C	TFLIM_C	TFLIS_C	TFLIC_C	TSLCR_C	TSLMEA_C	TSLMEP_C	LFL_C
Correlations										
DV	1	.526**	.385**	.578**	.176**	.400**	.521**	.197**	.387**	-.241**
		.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	309	309	309	309	309	309	309	309	309	309
TFLIA_C	.526**	1	.444**	.433**	.355**	.509**	.416**	.084	.179**	-.204**
TFLIB_C	.385**	.444**	1	.278**	.149**	.282**	.228**	-.059	.021	-.094
TFLIM_C	.578**	.433**	.278**	1	.268**	.429**	.318**	.169**	.196**	-.214**
TFLIS_C	.176**	.355**	.149**	.268**	1	.148**	.225**	.088	.127*	-.192**
TFLIC_C	.400**	.509**	.282**	.429**	.148**	1	.170**	.203**	.150**	-.148**
TSLCR_C	.521**	.416**	.228**	.318**	.225**	.170**	1	.126*	.245**	-.094
TSLMEA_C	.197**	.084	-.059	.169**	.088	.203**	.126*	1	.272**	-.065
TSLMEP_C	.387**	.179**	.021	.196**	.127*	.150**	.245**	.272**	1	-.161**
LFL_C	-.241**	-.204**	-.094	-.214**	-.192**	-.148**	-.094	-.065	-.161**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

This study applied Pearson's correlations and found all independent variables significantly positively correlated to the dependent variable (Table 5.3). Results of this test also showed that all variables are linear with each other.

5.3 Background and Demographic Profile of the Study Sample

Demographic information provides data regarding research participants and is necessary for the determination of whether the individuals in a particular study are a representative sample of the target population for generalisation purposes (Salkind, 2010). Demographic variables are independent variables by definition because they cannot be manipulated. In research, demographic variables may be

either categorical (e.g., gender, race, marital status, psychiatric diagnosis) or continuous (e.g., age, years of education, income, years of experience).

In this study, the demographic characteristics of the respondents such as age, gender, rank and education were sought in the questionnaire. Demographic characteristics of the participants (Table 5.4) show that participants of different age group, gender, educational level and years of experience were included to represent the target population.

Table 5.1 Demographic Characteristics of Survey Participants

Demographic	Category	Frequencies	Percentage
Gender	Male	228	73.8
	Female	81	26.2
Age	21–30	84	27.2
	31–40	86	27.8
	41–50	98	31.7
	51–60	41	13.3
Education	High school	25	8.1
	Diploma	59	19.1
	Bachelor	128	41.4
	Masters	85	27.5
	PhD	12	3.9
Pay Grade / Rank	Policeman	18	5.8
	Corporal	56	18.1
	Sargent	70	22.7
	Warrant Officer	47	15.2
	Lieutenant	37	12.0
	Captain	21	6.8
	Major	42	13.6
	Colonel or Above	18	5.8
Years of Experience	5 or Less	70	22.7
	6-10	87	28.2
	11-15	89	28.8
	16-22	63	20.4

As shown in the above table, out of 309, 73.8% (n=228) of participants were males and 26.2% (n=81) were females. This result reflects the overall gender diversity of the workforce in the police force of Abu Dhabi. Similarly, participants of different age groups were included in the study. However, demographic results suggest that the majority of participants 50% (n=170) are 21-40 years old. This result reflects the ground reality of the police force where the minimum recruitment age is 21 and age of retirement is 60. In terms of educational levels, most participants (n=220) are degree holders or above. The implication is that majority of the respondents are well educated. This result is understandable as most government employees (police force) are well educated in general. Finally, the participants represent different pay scales and years of experiences. This is a further indication that the researcher included participants from various backgrounds as shown in Table 5.4 above.

5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Respondents' Responses

This section presents a descriptive analysis of the data obtained from the sample. The aim is to report responses from the sample on the major constructs of the present study in the form of central tendency and dispersion.

The questionnaire consists of 10 major constructs which were measured by 42 different items (statements) using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Respondents were asked about their agreement or disagreement with each statement. An overview of the participants' responses using the frequency analysis method is presented in the following section.

Idealised Attributes (IA)

As discussed in the literature review, Idealised influence attributes (IA) refer to the social charisma of the leader and whether he or she is perceived as confident and powerful, and focused on the higher-order ideals and ethics of their followers. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they comprehend the presence of IA in their leadership. The results show the mean scores of the four items used to measure IA are between 3.70 and 3.80 with standard deviation ranging from .645 to .681. It could be concluded that most of the respondents (mean score is more than the midpoint of 3) tend to agree with the presence of IA in their leadership within Abu Dhabi Police.

Table 5.5 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to IA

Items Related to IA	Mean	Std. Deviation
In exchange for my efforts, s/he provides me with assistance.	3.71	.669
S/he re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are suitable or not.	3.80	.645
S/he does interfere when problems become serious.	3.70	.681
S/he focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	3.77	.650

Idealised Behaviours (IB)

The literature review suggests that Idealised influenced behaviours (IB) refer to the charismatic actions of the leader that are cantered on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they comprehend IB among their leadership. The findings reveal that the mean scores for IB were between 3.54 and 3.61, thereby indicating that a significant number of respondents tend to agree with the presence of IB among their leadership. Moreover, the descriptive statistics for IB also revealed that the respondents were not very dispersed around their mean scores on individual items (standard deviations between .762 and .801).

Table 5.6 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to IB

Items Related to IB	Mean	Std. Deviation
When important issues arise, s/he gets involved.	3.55	.744
S/he clearly expresses his/her strongest values and beliefs.	3.61	.801
When I need him/her, s/he is always there.	3.58	.763
In case of problems, s/he investigates different options to solve them.	3.54	.762

Inspirational Motivation (IM)

Inspirational motivation (IM) refers to the behaviours that leaders use to energise followers by viewing the future optimistically, stressing ambitious goals, projecting idealised vision, and communicating a vision that is obtainable. Survey participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they see IM as behaviour of their leadership. Results of descriptive analysis (Table 5.7) suggest that the mean scores of the four items used to measure IM are between 3.61 and 3.75 with standard deviation ranging from .774 to .900. It could be concluded that most of respondents (mean score is more than the midpoint of 3) tend to agree with the presence of IM in their leadership within Abu Dhabi Police.

Table 5.7 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to IM

Items Related to IM	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he Talks optimistically about the future.	3.75	.861
I feel confident being associated with him/her.	3.67	.774
S/he clearly explains who is responsible for attaining performance objectives.	3.75	.900
S/he does take action before things go wrong.	3.61	.825

Intellectual Stimulation (IS)

Intellectual stimulation (IS) is the leader's actions that appeal to the follower's sense of logic and analysis by challenging followers to think creatively and find solutions to challenging problems. Survey participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they saw IS present in their leadership. The mean score of respondents' responses (above midscale 3) suggests that IS exists among the leadership of Abu Dhabi police institute.

Table 5.2 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to IS

Items Related to IS	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he is always keen to explain what needs to be achieved.	3.62	.796
S/he signifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	3.67	.834
S/he always teaches and coaches me and others.	3.47	.881
S/he clearly explains how a person will be rewarded when performance targets are attained.	3.67	.883

Individualised Consideration (IC)

Individualised consideration (IC) refers to the behaviour of leaders that contributes to the satisfaction of followers by advising, supporting, and paying attention to the followers' individual needs, and allowing them to develop and self-actualise. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they saw IC present in their leadership. The results as shown in the following Table 5.9, show the mean scores of the four items used to measure IC are between 3.64 and 3.68 with standard deviation ranging from .797 to .818. It can thus be concluded that IC is part of leaders' behaviour within Abu Dhabi Police.

Table 5.9 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to IC

Items Related to IC	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he believes in the notion "If it is broke, fix it".	3.66	.797
S/he priorities the good of the group according to his self-interest.	3.68	.789
S/he deals with me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	3.65	.818
S/he presents that action should be taken when problems become chronic.	3.64	.801

Contingent Rewards (CR)

Contingent reward (CR) refers to leader behaviours that are focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on fulfilment of contractual obligations. The findings reveal that the mean scores for CR were between 3.59 and 3.65, thereby indicating that a significant number of respondents tend to agree with the presence of CR among their leadership. Moreover, the descriptive statistics for IB also revealed that the respondents were not very dispersed around their mean scores on individual items (standard deviations between .822 and .972).

Table 5.3 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to CR

Items Related to CR	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he treats me respectfully.	3.65	.822
S/he mainly focuses on addressing mistakes, complaints and failures.	3.56	.842
S/he takes into consideration the moral and ethical aspects of decisions.	3.59	.981
S/he follows up all mistakes.	3.62	.972

Management by Exception (Active) (MBEA)

Management-by-exception, active (MBEA), refers to the vigilance of a leader whose goal is to make sure that standards are met. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they saw MBEA present in their leadership. The results (Table 5.11) show the mean scores of the four items used to measure MBEA are between 3.50 and 3.61 with standard deviation ranging from .824 to .999. It can thus be concluded that MBEA is part of leaders' behaviour within Abu Dhabi Police.

Table 5.4 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to MBEA

Items Related to MBEA	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he demonstrates his/her power and confidence.	3.50	.999
S/he expresses with force their vision of the future.	3.51	.836
S/he guides me to meet standards.	3.49	.924
S/he always makes the decisions.	3.61	.824

Management by Exception (Passive) (MBEP)

Management-by-Exception (MBEP), passive, refers to leader who intervene only after noncompliance has occurred or when errors have already happened. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they saw MBEP behaviour present in their leadership. The descriptive results displayed in the following Table 5.12, show the mean scores of the four items used to measure MBEP are between 2.62 and 2.73 with standard deviation ranging from .742 to .861. It can thus be concluded that leaders within Abu Dhabi Police do not possess MBEP characteristics. It was expected, since most of the respondents tend to agree with the presence of MBEA style leadership within the police department of Abu Dhabi.

Table 5.12 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to MBEP

Items Related to MBEP	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he takes into consideration my different needs, abilities, and aspirations from that of others.	2.63	.742
S/he supports me to develop my strengths.	2.71	.748
S/he always answering in responding to compelling questions	2.62	.850
S/he stresses a collective sense of mission.	2.73	.861

Laissez-Faire (LF)

Laissez-faire leadership (LF) refers to the absence of a leadership, where the leader avoids making decisions, abdicates responsibility, and does not exert authority. Survey participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they see LF as behaviour of their leadership. Results of the descriptive analysis (Table 5.13) suggest that the mean scores of the four items used to measure LF are between 2.29 and 2.45 with standard deviation ranging from 0.840 to 1.014. It could be concluded that most of the respondents tend to disagree with the presence of LF behaviour among their leadership within Abu Dhabi Police.

Table 5.13 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to LF

Items Related to LF	Mean	Std. Deviation
S/he acknowledges when I meet expectations.	2.32	0.840
S/he demonstrates his/her trust that objectives will be attained.	2.33	0.818
S/he is effective in meeting my job-related needs.	2.29	0.818
S/he encourages me to complete assignments in a different way.	2.45	1.014

Organisational Commitment (OC)

Organisational commitment is the dependent variable (DV) of the current study. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they saw OC behaviour present in their leadership. The results (Table 5.14) show the mean scores of the six items used to measure OC are between 3.71 and 3.89 with standard deviation ranging from 0.655 to 0.717. It can be seen that most of the survey participants showed a positive response to the items related to organisational commitment.

Table 5.14 Descriptive Analysis of Items related to OC

Items Related to OC	Mean	Std. Deviation
It would be very hard for me to leave my job at this organisation right now even if I wanted to.	3.85	0.717
Too much of my life would be disrupted if I left the organisation.	3.75	0.668
Right now, staying in my job at this organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	3.83	0.694
I believe I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	3.71	0.655
One of the few negative consequences of leaving my job at this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives elsewhere	3.80	0.715
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organisation is that leaving would require considerable effort	3.89	0.714

5.5 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents and Dependent Variable

As mentioned above, the dependent variable (DV) in this study is 'employees' commitment to the organisation'. The researcher included five statements aimed at measuring the responses for DV. Respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale about their level of commitment to the organisation (Abu Dhabi Police). With regard to the DV, it was then used to investigate the difference if any between demographic groups such as age, grade, department, level of education and years of service. The results of ANOVA are presented in the next section.

5.5.1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Demographic variables can be explored for their moderating effect on dependent variables (Salkind, 2010). In this study, One-Way ANOVA was used to analyse the relationships between demographic variables such as age, level of education, pay grade and experience and the dependent variable.

The ANOVA results suggest that age and gender groups have no significant difference in relation to the DV i.e. $P > 0.05$. However, level of education, grade and level of experience showed significant difference ($P<0.05$) when factored with the DV (See Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3).

Figure 5.1 ANOVA Results for Role of Employees

Organisational Commitment

Duncan[a,b]

Rank of employees	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05					
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Policeman	18	1.0000					
Corporal	56		2.0000				
Sergeant	70			3.0000			
Warrant Officer	47				3.8085		
Captain	21					4.0000	
Lieutenant	37						5.0000
Major	42						5.0000
Colonel and Above	18						5.0000
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000

ANOVA

Organisational Commitment

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	483.837	7	69.120	1361.886	.000
Within Groups	15.277	301	.051		
Total	499.113	308			

Figure 5.2 ANOVA Results for Experience Level of Employees

Organisational Commitment			
Duncan			
Experience of employees	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
5 or less	70	2.5147	
6-10	87	2.5395	
11-15	89		3.2222
16-22	63		3.4706
Sig.		.882	.139

ANOVA					
Organisational Commitment					
	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	57.175	3	19.058	19.148	.000
Within Groups	294.612	296	.995		
Total	351.787	299			
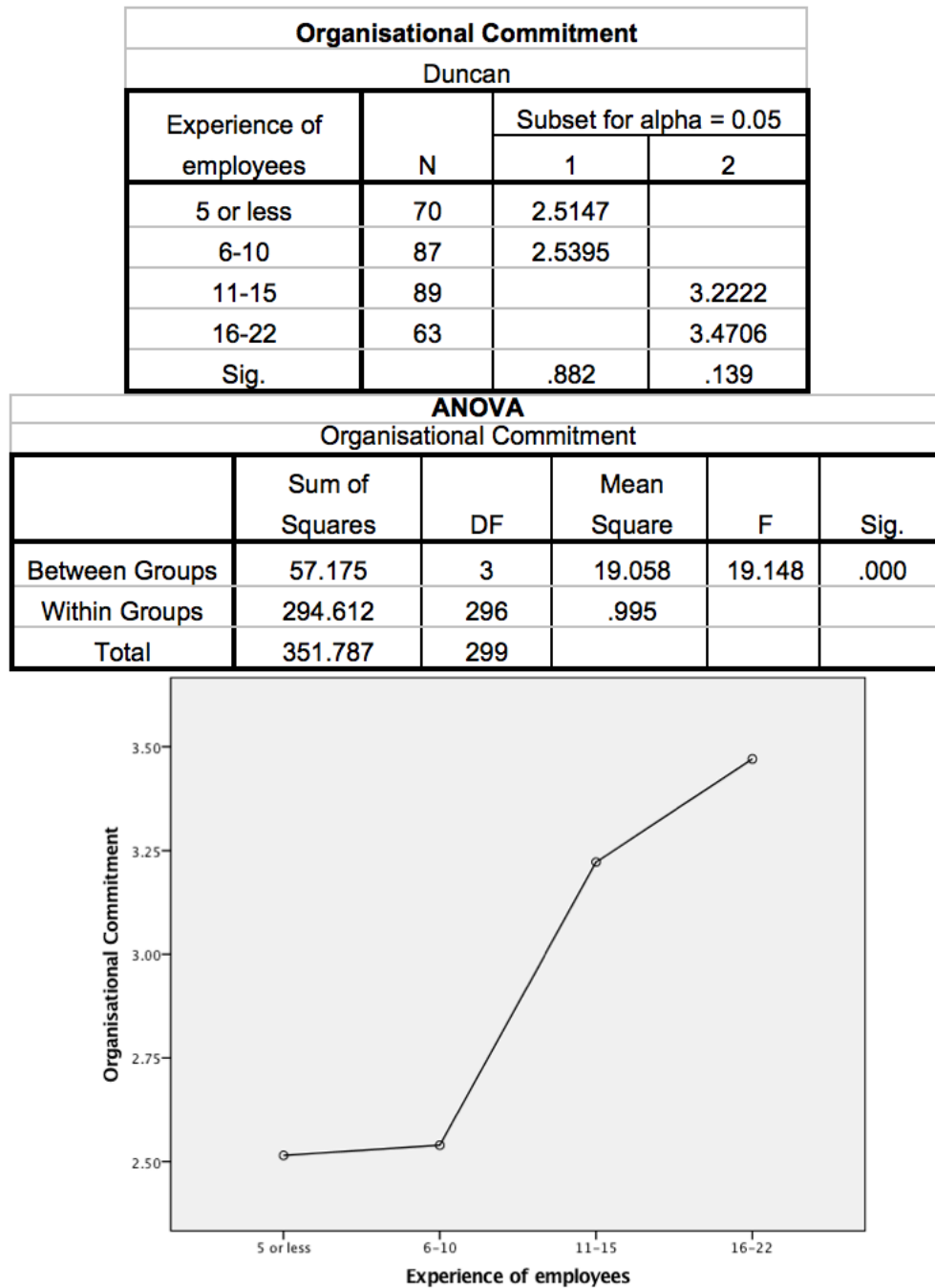
Figure 5.3 ANOVA Results for Education of Employees

ANOVA					
Organisational Commitment					
	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37.410	4	9.353	4.946	.001
Within Groups	565.379	299	1.891		
Total	602.789	303			

Organisational Commitment				
Duncan[a,b]				
Education of employees	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
high school	25	1.9600		
bachelor	128	2.6016	2.6016	
diploma	59		2.7797	
masters	80		2.9375	
PhD	12			3.9167
Sig.		.067	.368	1.000
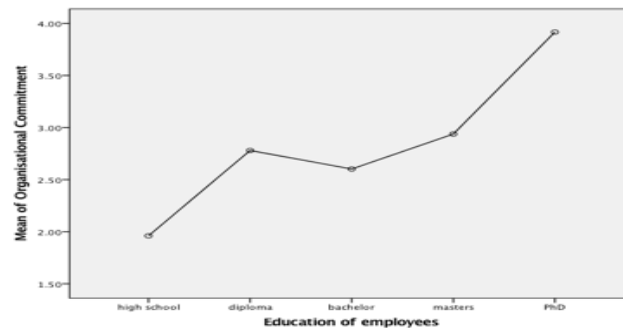
As shown in the above figures, One-way ANOVA analysis suggested that there are significant differences between levels of independent variables when compared with dependent variables. Therefore, a Post Hoc test was used to identify these differences.

Post Hoc comparisons using Duncan's test for DV (Employees' commitment to organisation) revealed that respondents in the higher positions (Captain and above) had a significantly higher mean (above neutral) than those in the lower positions such as policeman, corporal, sergeant and warrant officer (below neutral).

Likewise, Post Hoc comparisons using Duncan's test for DV revealed that the experienced employees (11 years and above) showed more commitment than less experienced employees, who were below neutral (Figure 5.2).

Similarly, Post Hoc comparisons using Duncan's test for DV revealed that the well-educated employees (Degree holders and above) had a significantly higher mean for commitment to organisation than the less educated employees, who were below neutral (see Figure 5.3).

5.6 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis (FA) refers to all the correlated items in the same group or separate from other variables. Byrne (2010) defined factor analysis as a statistical procedure for investigating the relation between a set of observed and latent variables. It is concerned with the extent to which the observed variables are generated by the underlying latent constructs, which in turn depends on the strengths of the regression paths from the factors to the observed variables. Factor analysis provides and specifies the unit of analysis, helps with data summation, and the reduction of the data (Hair et al., 2010). However, it is necessary to take a few steps and make certain decisions before conducting factor analysis. Firstly, the matrix of association must be identified, followed by the methods of factor extraction and rules of factor retention. Because all classical statistical analyses are fundamentally correlations (Cohen, 2011; Knapp, 1978), the idea of factor analysis is to derive factors by analysing the pattern of covariation (or correlation) among items. In each factor, the items that form the factor are those with stronger interrelation. Thus, a higher interrelation among

items reflects the same construct (convergent validity) and a low interrelation of items reflects a different construct (Spector, 1997). The interrelated items also have effects on the issues of interrelated sets of variables (multicollinearity). Sufficient interrelation of variables is important to produce representative factors.

The researcher applied exploratory factor analysis SPSS version 23 for Windows to extract factors in which numerous methods are available for factor extraction and rotation. Among these, the principal component extract method which is the most common and default in the SPSS programme was used to extract the minimum set of variables which accounted for the maximum variance in the data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Several ways are available to assess the adequacy of extraction and the number of factors but most the common are Eigenvalues greater than one and Scree plot. Before going to extract factors, it is important to calculate the variability in scores (the variance) for any given measures (or variables) (Field, 2006). According to Hair et al. (2010), communality is the total amount of variance original variables share with all other variables included in the analysis. A variable that has no variance would have a communality of 1; a variable that shares nothing with other variables would have a communality of 0 (Field, 2006). Communality can be calculated from factor loading in which a model containing multiple constructs with communalities of less than 0.5 are required and for a larger sample size less than 0.7 is required (Hair et al., 2010). This research applied variables with a communality value above 0.5.

In order to achieve the best possible interpretation of the factors, the varimax rotation method was used. Rotation is important to select for improving the

interpretability and scientific utility of the solution. It is used to maximise high correlations between factors and variables and minimise low ones. Rotation means discriminating between factors exactly where it implies (Hair et al., 2010). This study applies a varimax of orthogonal techniques which is most commonly used in rotation for maximising variance. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) the goal of varimax rotation is to maximise the variance of factor loading by making high loadings higher and low ones lower for each factor. The factor loadings above +/- .50 were considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study for reliability assessment, Cronbach's Alpha technique was applied to the factors derived from the exploratory factor analysis to test the internal consistency of factors (Churchill, 1979; Peter, 1979; Litwin, 1995; De Vaus, 2002). Result values equal to or above 0.70 were considered to be an acceptable level of reliability as shown in Table 5.2 (Nunnally, 1978; De Vaus, 2002). Later, the factorability of all independent variables was examined. Several well-recognised criteria for the factorability of a correlation were used. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .755, above the recommended value of .6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (χ^2 (630) = 11614.287, p < .05) as shown in the following Table 5.15:

Table 5.15 KMO and Bartlett's Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.755
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	11614.287
	df	630
	Sig.	.000

Varimax rotation technique was developed by Kaiser (1960). This produces factors that have large pattern/structure coefficients for a small number of variables and near-zero or very low pattern/structure coefficients with the other group of variables (Kieffer, et al. 1988). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the goal of Varimax rotation is to maximise the variance of factor loading by making high loadings higher and low ones lower for each factor. Hair *et al.* (2010) suggest that if the factor loadings are .50 or greater, they are considered to be very significant, and can be used for further analysis.

In this study, eleven factors were initially extracted and all items had factor loadings of more than 0.50. However, as certain components had cross loadings or only had one item loaded, problematic items/variables were identified and excluded, resulting in nine final factors (with stronger correlation) that were subject to further analysis. The results of exploratory factor analysis using Varimax are shown in Table 5.17.

The Scree test, which displays the eigenvalues for each factor, was used as part of the decision criteria for retaining factors. In addition, only factors with a loading above 0.5 were retained. The following figures shows results of scree plot and total percentage of variance explained by each factor.

Figure 5.4 Scree Plot for Factor Analysis
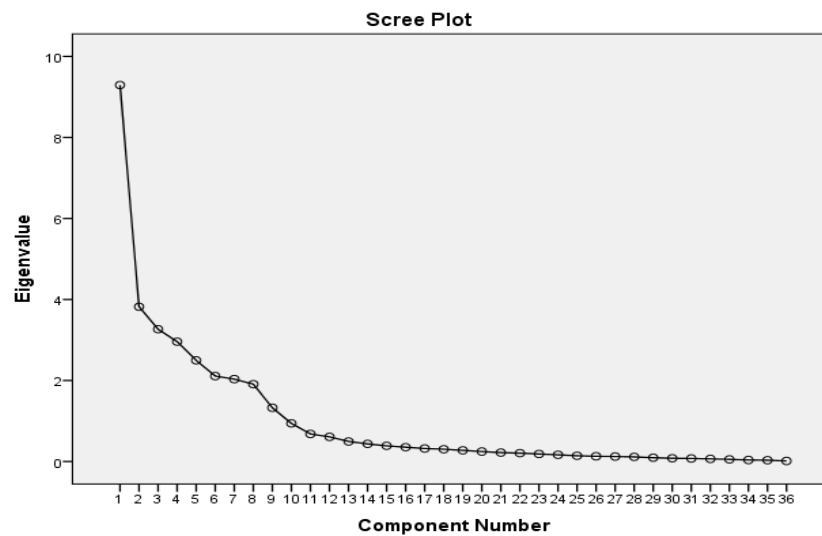
Table 5.16 Percentage of Variance Explained by each Factor

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.293	25.814	25.814	9.293	25.814	25.814	3.909	10.857	10.857
2	3.820	10.612	36.426	3.820	10.612	36.426	3.513	9.757	20.614
3	3.265	9.070	45.496	3.265	9.070	45.496	3.288	9.133	29.747
4	2.959	8.219	53.715	2.959	8.219	53.715	3.171	8.809	38.556
5	2.497	6.935	60.650	2.497	6.935	60.650	3.146	8.739	47.295
6	2.109	5.858	66.508	2.109	5.858	66.508	3.134	8.704	55.999
7	2.034	5.650	72.158	2.034	5.650	72.158	3.041	8.448	64.447
8	1.910	5.305	77.463	1.910	5.305	77.463	3.031	8.419	72.866
9	1.327	3.685	81.148	1.327	3.685	81.148	2.982	8.283	81.148
10	.941	2.613	83.762						
11	.681	1.891	85.653						
12	.609	1.692	87.344						
13	.495	1.375	88.719						
14	.435	1.209	89.928						
15	.387	1.074	91.002						
16	.355	.985	91.987						
17	.321	.891	92.879						
18	.304	.843	93.722						
19	.276	.766	94.489						
20	.246	.683	95.172						
21	.221	.614	95.785						
22	.206	.573	96.358						
23	.185	.515	96.873						
24	.166	.461	97.334						
25	.142	.395	97.729						
26	.130	.360	98.089						
27	.123	.341	98.431						
28	.114	.316	98.747						
29	.094	.262	99.009						
30	.081	.224	99.232						
31	.075	.209	99.441						
32	.065	.181	99.622						
33	.053	.147	99.769						
34	.037	.104	99.872						
35	.033	.091	99.963						
36	.013	.037	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

A popular and intuitive index of goodness of fit in multivariate data analysis is the percentage of explained variance: the higher the percentage of variance a proposed model manages to explain, the more valid the model seems to be (Lorenzo-Seva, 2013). As shown in the above table, first two factors are the most explanatory factors. Factor one alone explains 25.81% of the total variance in the empirical data. Similarly, factor two explains 10.61% of the total variance. Total percentage of variance explained by the final nine factors is 81.48%.

Table 5.17 Factor Loadings

	Components								
	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9
TFLIC3	.890								
TFLIC4	.860								
TFLIC2	.859								
TFLIC1	.859								
TFLIA1		.865							
TFLIA4		.842							
TFLIA3		.801							
TFLIA2		.777							
TSLCR3			.898						
TSLCR4			.891						
TSLCR2			.830						
TSLCR1			.785						
TFLIM4				.899					
TFLIM2				.860					
TFLIM3				.772					
TFLIM1				.763					
TFLIS3					.905				
TFLIS1					.883				
TFLIS2					.810				
TFLIS4					.755				
LFL2						.881			
LFL3						.875			
LFL1						.871			
LFL4						.825			
TSLMEP1							.868		
TSLMEP3							.851		
TSLMEP4							.819		
TSLMEP2							.816		
TSLMEA3								.886	
TSLMEA2								.866	
TSLMEA1								.789	
TSLMEA4								.748	
TFLIB3									.836
TFLIB1									.834
TFLIB2									.814
TFLIB4									.764

Based on the findings of the EFA, nine latent factors (constructs) were retained. Furthermore, reliability is also determined using Cronbach Alpha for each new construct. Reliability and factor analysis are complementary procedures in scale construction and definition (Coakes and Steed, 2007). Therefore, after defining the name and label for each of the components, the final step in the factor analysis was to determine Cronbach's Alpha for each component for the reliability measurement (see Table 5.18 below).

Table 5.18 Factor Loading and Cronbach's Alpha for Final Components

| Serial No.	Components (Factors) Extracted	No. Of Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	% of Variance Explained
Factor 1	Transformational Leadership Individualised Consideration (TFLIC)	4	.876	21.814
Factor 2	Transformational Leadership Idealised Attributes (TFLIA)	4	.923	10.612
Factor 3	Transactional Leadership Contingent Rewards (TSLCR)	4	.965	9.070
Factor 4	Transformational Leadership Inspirational Motivation (TFLIM)	4	.876	8.219
Factor 5	Transformational Leadership Intellectual Stimulation (TFLIS)	4	.765	6.935
Factor 6	Laissez-Faire (LFL)	4	.789	5.858
Factor 7	Transactional Leadership Management by Exception (Passive) (TSLMEP)	4	.982	5.650
Factor 8	Transactional Leadership Management by Exception (Active) (TSLMEA)	4	.784	5.305
Factor 9	Transformational Leadership Idealised Behaviours (TFLIB)	4	.982	3.685

As shown in the above Table 5.18, reliability was assessed for the nine final factors that resulted from EFA using Cronbach's Alpha. All values of Cronbach's Alpha were above 0.70 as suggested by Hair et al. (2010) and all corrected item total correlations were above 0.35 (Field, 2009), which indicates the internal

reliability of the components. Moreover, the percentage of variance shown in Table 5.18 explains the explanatory power of each factor. It can be seen that factor one (TFLIC) is the most explanatory (21.814%) and factor nine (TFLIB) is the least explanatory (3.685 %) factor.

5.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Following EFA, CFA was employed in order to validate the underlying structure of the main constructs in the study, examine the reliability of the measurement scales, and assess the factorial validity of the theoretical constructs. AMOS 23 software was utilised to create the measurement model shown in Figure 5.5 below based on the EFA findings.

Figure 5.5 The Original Measurement Model Based on EFA Results
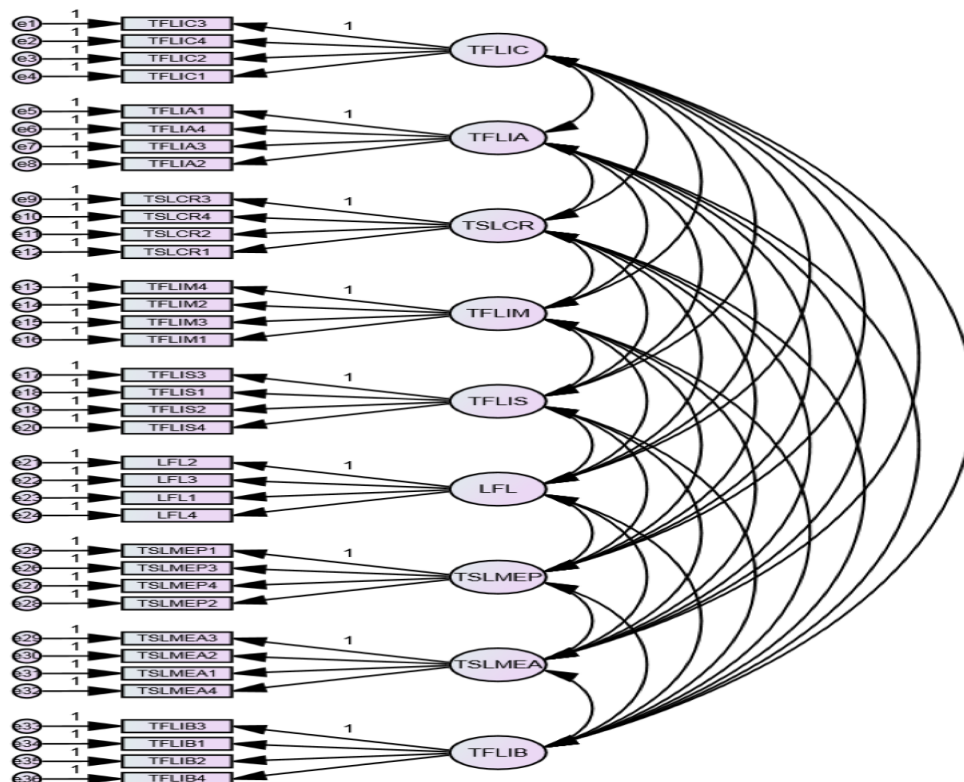
According to Perry et al. (2015), the most important part in conducting CFA is to learn the extent to which the measurement model fits the empirical data. Statistically, a measurement model is said to fit the observed data when its estimated covariance matrix is equivalent to the covariance matrix of the sample data (Cheung and Rensvold, 2002; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) indicate that since there are no clear guidelines in the literature for assessing structural equation models, a multiple criteria approach should be adopted instead of depending on a single-straightforward indicator. Hair at al. (2010) however recommend reporting Chi squared statistics in addition to another absolute index such as RMSEA and an incremental index such as CFI. When comparing models of varying complexity, they recommend adding PNFI measure. Others report GFI or more recently, SRMR, instead. This study used the 'Rule of Thumb' criteria for a structural equation model fit:

Table 5.5 'Rule of Thumb' for Measurement and Structural Models Fit Indices

Goodness of fit (GOF) Measure	Criterion	References
x^2 / Degree of freedom	≤ 3	Hair, et al., 2010
GFI	> 0.8	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand,1996
AGFI	> 0.8	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand,1996
CFI	> 0.8	Lau, 2011; Kline, 2010
RMR	< 0.05	Hair, et al., 2001; Kline, 2010
NFI	> 0.9	Wang and Wang, 2012
TLI	> 0.9	Hair, et al., 2010
RMSEA	< 0.10	Devaraj, et al., 2002; Byrne, 2001

Subsequently, to test the measurement model, CFA through AMOS 23 was conducted using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method, which is the most widely used method for parameters estimation in SEM (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

Figure 5.6 below shows the output path diagram of the CFA first-run, and is followed by the overall goodness-of-fit statistics in Table 5.20.

Figure 5.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output Path Diagram (First Run)
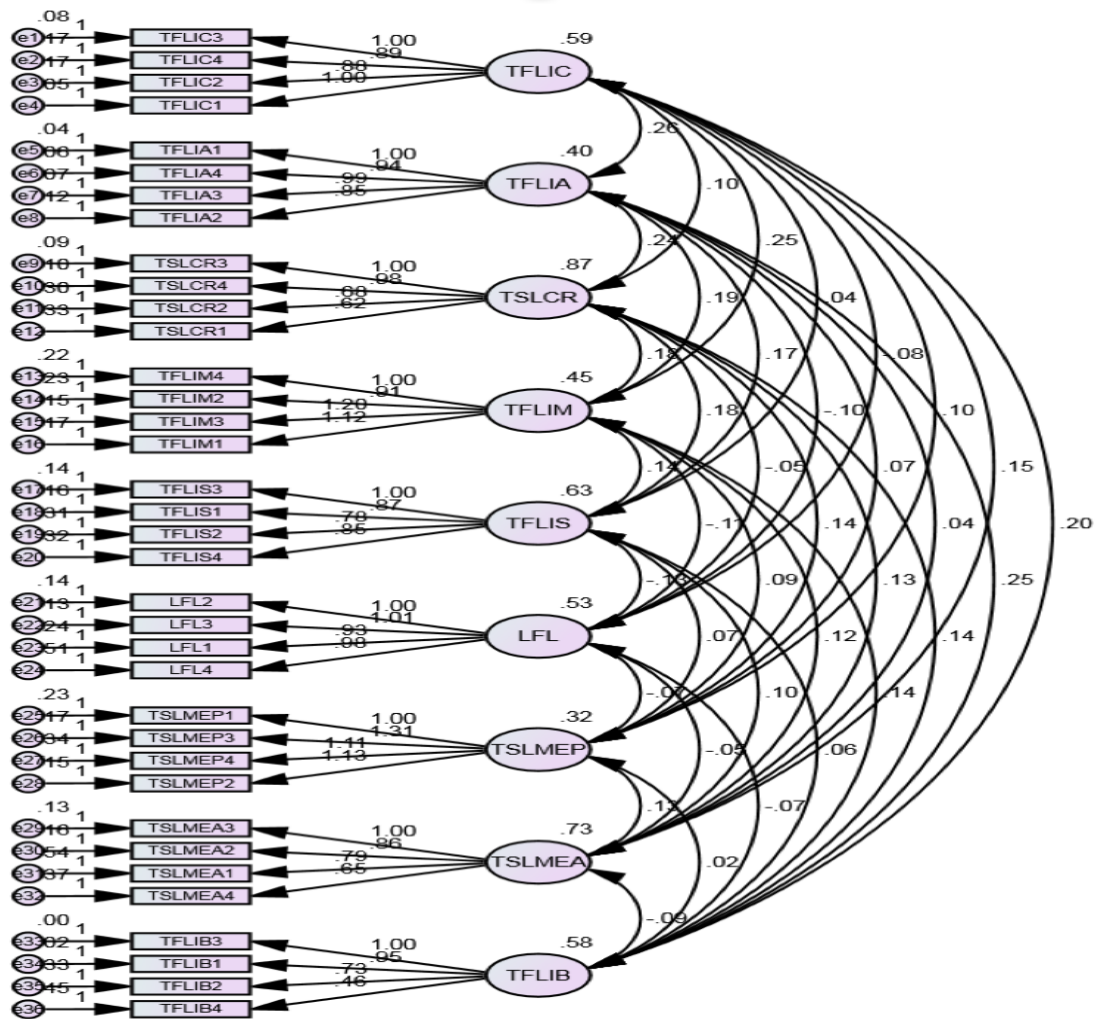
Table 5.20 Measurement and Structural Models Fit Indices

Goodness of fit (GOF) Measure	Conceptual Model (First Run)	Criterion	Acceptable/ Unsatisfactory	References
χ^2 / Degree of freedom	5.800	≤ 3	Unsatisfactory	Hair, et al., 2010
GFI	0.627	> 0.8	Unsatisfactory	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand,1996
AGFI	0.555	> 0.8	Unsatisfactory	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand,1996
CFI	0.867	> 0.8	Acceptable	Lau, 2011; Kline, 2010
RMR	0.052	< 0.05	Acceptable	Hair, et al., 2001; Kline, 2010
NFI	0.733	> 0.9	Unsatisfactory	Wang and Wang, 2012
TLI	0.737	> 0.9	Unsatisfactory	Hair, et al., 2010
RMSEA	0.095	< 0.10	Acceptable	Devaraj, et al., 2002; Byrne, 2001

As shown in the above table, values for CFI, RMR and RMSEA are acceptable. However, the model fit summary showed unsatisfactory results for GFI, AGFI, NFI and TLI. Therefore, the model was considered unstable and unacceptable values particularly of CFI, GFI and AGFI suggested that there was a room for further model adjustments in order to achieve a good model. The following section explains the process of the model enhancement used in the study.

5.8 The Measurement Model Enhancement

To improve the measurement model goodness-of-fit, several modifications were introduced to the original model shown in Figure 5.5. The following paragraphs provide more details about the procedures applied for those adjustments, which were based on guidelines from Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003), Hooper et al. (2008), Hair et al. (2010), and Byrne (2010):

- Standardised Regression Weights (SRW): known as factor loadings in EFA, these regression weights represent the correlation between the observed and latent variables. These weights are recommended to be above .05, but higher values (close to one) are much better. Any measurement variables less than .05 would be considered for elimination due to the weak correlation with their latent variable.

- Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC): these values represent the percentage of variance in the latent variable that can be explained by each individual observed variable. While values above .05 are considered acceptable, higher values (close to one) are more favourable.

- Standardised Residuals (SR) matrix: since standardised residuals represent the differences between the data covariance matrix and the model-estimated covariance, observed variables with high-standardised residuals are considered to be a poor fit in the model. A good model should generate standardised residuals close to zero. Therefore, standardised residuals of more than +2.56 or less than -2.56 are usually indicators to determine the causes of the model misfit.

- Modification Indices (MI): these indices indicate the effect of freeing pre-fixed parameters on Chi-square (χ^2). Therefore, checking these values would help the researcher to determine which path should be added to the model in order to decrease the Chi-square (χ^2) statistic, which in turn improves the model fit. Large modification indices (usually more than 6.63) determine which parameters should be set free in order to achieve better model suitability. A common practice in this

regard is to correlate parameter errors that are part of the same factor. Moreover, parameters that show high covariance between their errors and at the same time have high regression weights, are candidates for deletion.

In line with the above guidelines provided by Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003), Hooper et al. (2008), Hair et al. (2010), and Byrne (2010), the following modifications were made in order to enhance the measurement model goodness-of-fit:

- Deletion of TLIC1 and TLIC2 based on SR analysis.

- Deletion of TLIB2, TLIB3 and TLIB4 based on MI analysis.

- Covariance of error terms related to LFL construct such as (e22 with e23) based on MI analysis.

- Deletion of two whole constructs (TFLIA and TSLMEP).

Figure 5.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output Path Diagram (Second Run)
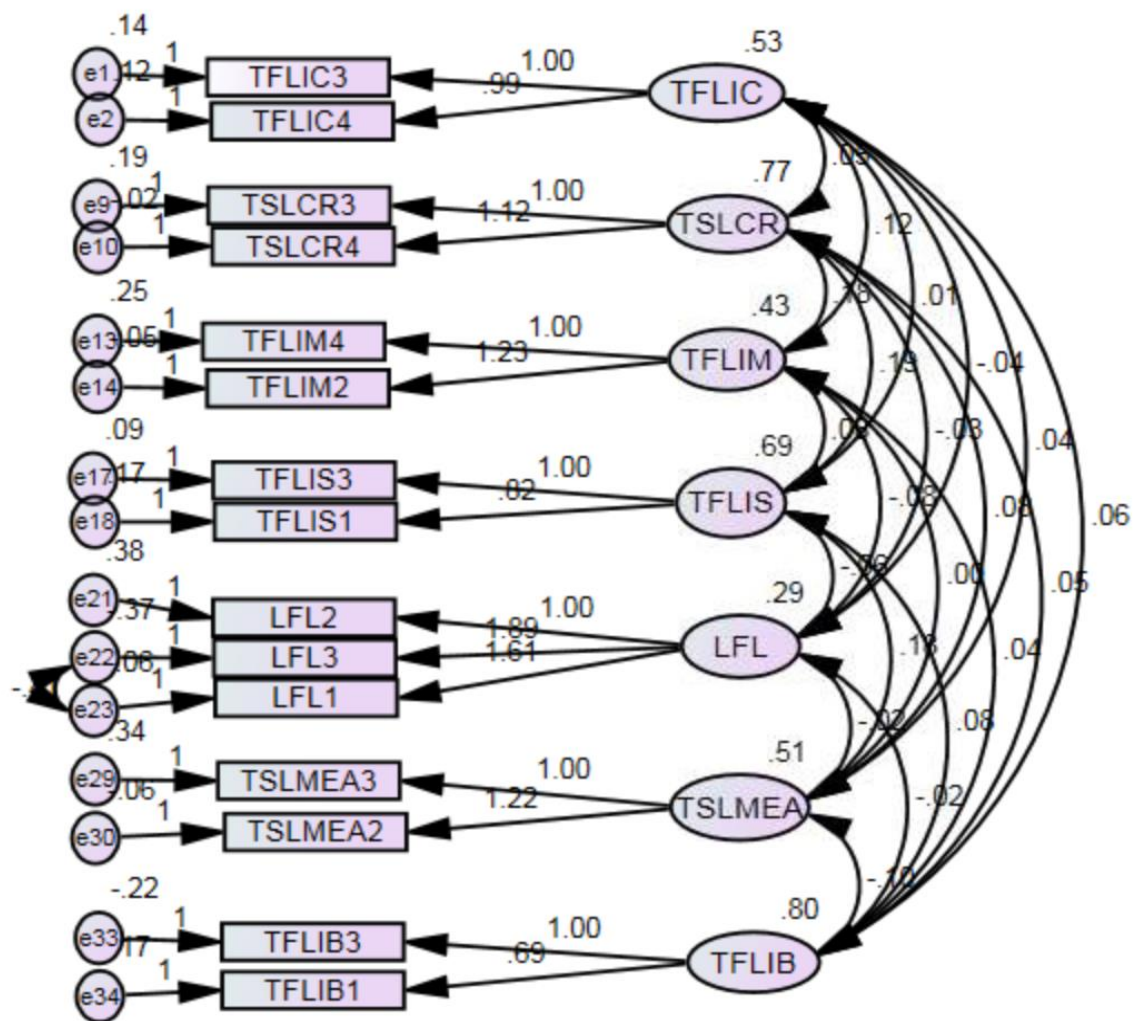
As can be seen, in order to achieve a stable model, the researcher identified and removed the weaker and problematic items/constructs from the model. Generally, less correlated items from each construct are removed to achieve suitable results and a stable model (Hair et al., 2010). The second run of CFA model after deleting weaker correlated items and problematic constructs is shown above (Figure 5.7).

Table 5.21 shows the overall goodness-of-fit statistics that resulted from the second-run of CFA.

Table 5-6 Model Fit Summary (second run)

Goodness of Fit (GOF) Measure	Conceptual Model (First Run)	Criterion	Acceptable/ Unsatisfactory	References
X^2 / Degree of freedom	2.957	≤ 3	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
GFI	0.940	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
AGFI	0.958	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
CFI	0.973	>0.8	Acceptable	Lau, 2011; Kline, 2010
RMR	0.045	<0.05	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2001
NFI	0.946	>0.9	Acceptable	Wang and Wang, 2012
TLI	0.938	>0.9	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
RMSEA	0.082	<0.10	Acceptable	Devaraj et al., 2002; Byrne, 2001

It can be seen from Table 5.21 that introducing the above mentioned modifications improved the overall goodness-of-fit of the model to an acceptable level. All Goodness of Fit (GOF) Measures were at acceptable level. Values of GFI (0.940) and CFI (0.973) are most important to note in this regard. Therefore, since the revised model was confirmed to fit the empirical data adequately, it was decided that no further modification was necessary.

5.9 The Structural Model Evaluation: Goodness-of-Fit

Based on the stable CFA model (Figure 5.7), a structural model was constructed as shown in Figure 5.8 for further SEM analysis. It can be seen that the structural model consists of one endogenous variable (DV), and seven exogenous variables (TFLIC, TSLCR, TFLIM, TFLIS, LFL, TBLMEA and TFLIB).

According to Hair et al. (2010), SEM analysis usually involves testing two types of theoretical models - measurement and structural. The measurement model

represents the theoretical knowledge of the underlying structure of a latent variable through specifying the nature of the relationships among the observed variables that construct a particular latent variable. The major interest here is to examine the regression structure paths between the latent variable and its observed variables. On the other hand, the structural model examines the theorised direct and indirect relationships among the latent variables and it is usual for this to be employed for hypothesis testing purposes.

After CFA, in line with the advice from Hair et al. (2010), SEM using AMOS 23 was performed in order to assess the goodness-of-fit between the structural model output and the empirical data. The results indicated that the structural model provides a good overall fit with the data as displayed in Table 5.22.

Figure 5.8 GFI Model to Forecast DV (Employees' Commitment to Organisation)
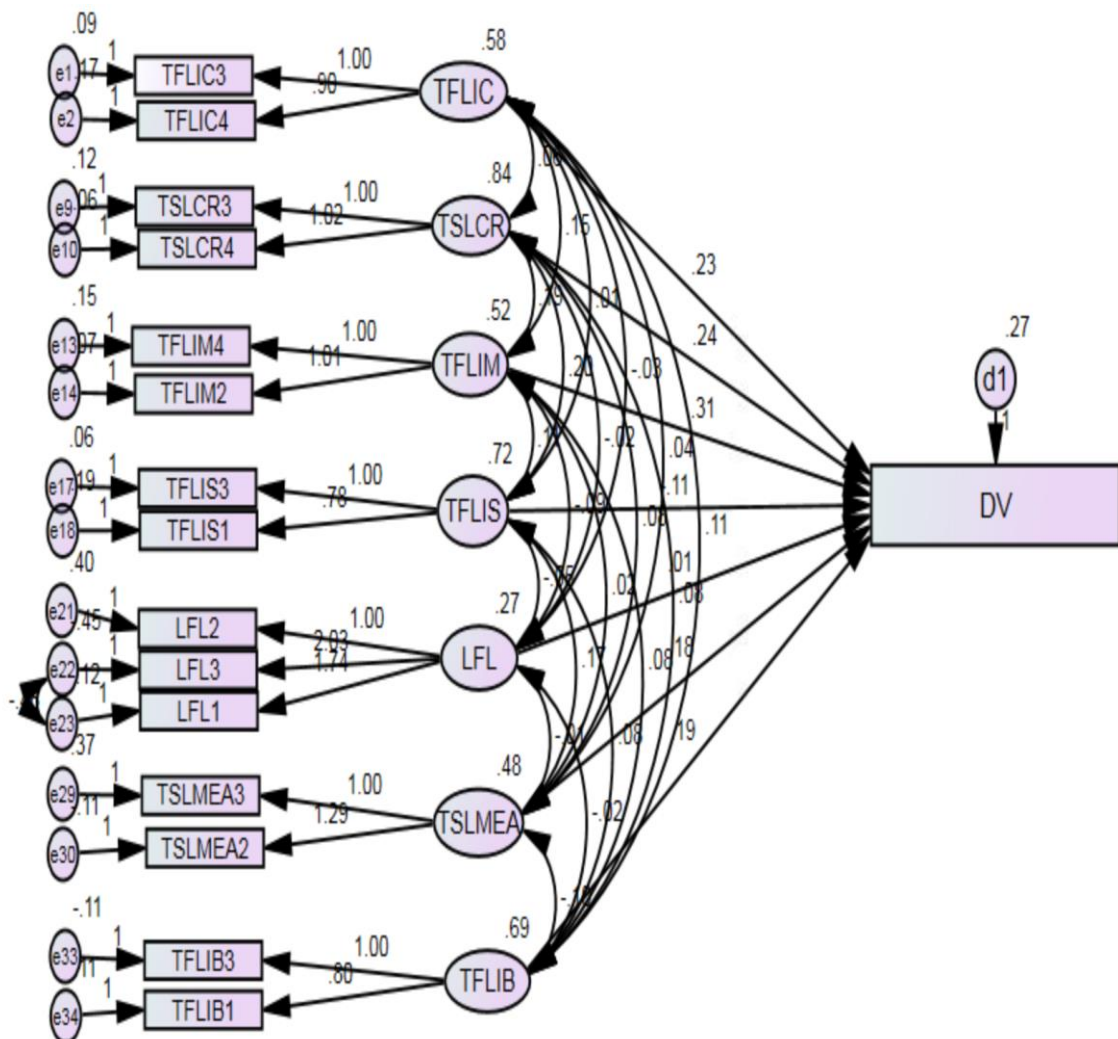
As can be seen from the following table, the SEM is a stable model with adequate

Goodness of fit (GFI) and meeting other criteria.

Table 5.22 Goodness of Fit Summary for SEM Predicting DV

Goodness of Fit (GOF) Measure	Conceptual Model (First Run)	Criterion	Acceptable/ Unsatisfactory	References
X^2/ Degree of freedom	2.138	≤ 3	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
GFI	0.945	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
AGFI	0.929	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
CFI	0.979	>0.8	Acceptable	Lau, 2011; Kline, 2010
RMR	0.045	<0.05	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2001
NFI	0.946	>0.9	Acceptable	Wang and Wang, 2012
TLI	0.938	>0.9	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
RMSEA	0.052	<0.10	Acceptable	Devaraj et al., 2002; Byrne, 2001

5.10 Testing Research Hypotheses

Having successfully validated the structural models' goodness-of-fit to the data, the next step was to examine the research assumptions using path measurement coefficients (regression weight estimates and critical ratios) from the SEM analysis performed with AMOS 23. Table 5.23 summarises these results, from which it is seen that only 6 of the 9 hypothesised causal paths in the structural models were found significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.23 Path Coefficient Weights for Structural Model

Path			Estimate	C.R.	P	Comments
DV	<---	TFLIC	.226	4.944	***	Significant
DV	<---	TSLCR	.246	6.897	***	Significant
DV	<---	TFLIM	.287	6.001	***	Significant
DV	<---	TFLIS	.128	3.189	.001	Significant
DV	<---	LFL	-.047	-1.507	0.18	Insignificant
DV	<---	TSLMEA	.177	4.063	***	Significant
DV	<---	TFLIB	.194	5.582	***	Significant

*** p< 0.001, *Cut off (C.R >±1.96) (Hair et al., 2010)

As it can be seen from Table 5.23 and final model (Figure 5.8), TFLIC, TSLCR, TFLIM, TFLIS, TBLMEA and TFLIB showed significant positive influence on employees' commitment to the organisation as p < 0.05. Therefore, these six constructs are good predictors for the DV (employees' commitment to the organisation). However, in an attempt to secure a decent and stable model that would better fit the empirical data, problematic constructs such as TSLMEP and TFLIA were deleted to achieve good model fit for the DV (see Figure 5.8). Moreover, in the case of LFL, p value was greater than 0.05 which means no significant influence of LFL on DV (organisational commitment).

Table 5-24 Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis	Comment
H1: TFLIA has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Rejected**
H2: TFLIB has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H3: TFLIM has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H4: TFLIS has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H5: TFLIC has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H6: TSLCR has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H7: TSLMEA has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Accepted**
H8: TSLMEP has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Rejected**
H9: LFL has a significant positive influence on employees' commitment	**Rejected**

The following paragraphs present in detail the results of hypotheses testing:

The causal path between TFLIC and DV revealed a significant positive impact (path coefficient= 0.226, p< 0.001, and critical ratio= 4.944). This result inferred

that TFLIC has a strong positive impact on employees' commitment to the organisation.

As presented in Table 5.23, the path coefficient and critical ratio estimates for the causal path between TSLCR and DV were 0.246 and 6.897, respectively. The p value was less than 0.001 showing strong and positive influence of TBLCR on employees' commitment to the organisation.

Results of regression weight and critical ratio estimates for the causal path of TFLIM to DV were 0.287 and 6.001, respectively with $p<0.001$. These results indicate that TFLIM has a significant positive effect on the employees' commitment to the organisation.

As presented in Table 5.23, the path coefficient and critical ratio estimates for the causal path between TFLIS and DV were 0.128 and 3.189, respectively. The p value was 0.001 ($p<0.05$) showing positive direct effect and strong influence of TFLIS on employees' commitment to the organisation.

As presented in Table 5.23, the path coefficient and critical ratio estimates for the causal path between LFL and DV were -.047 and -1.507, respectively. The p value was greater than 0.05 (0.18) showing negative effect and weak influence of LFL on employees' commitment to the organisation. The causal path between TBLMEA and DV revealed a significant positive impact (path coefficient= 0.175, $p< 0.001$, and critical ratio= 4.065). This result inferred that TBLMEA has a strong positive impact on employees' commitment to the organisation.

As presented in Table 5.23, the path coefficient and critical ratio estimates for the causal path between final construct (TFLIB) and DV were 0.183 and 5.411, respectively. The p value was 0.001 ($p<0.05$) showing positive direct effect and strong influence of TFLIB on employees' commitment to the organisation.

Finally, in order to assess the explanatory power of the research models shown in Figures 5.7, Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) estimates for the Endogenous Factors were analysed. The SMC results (0.702) suggest that the final model explains a total of 70.2 % of the variance.

5.11 The Final Research Model

Subsequently, in an attempt to secure a parsimonious model that would better fit the empirical data, an insignificant regression path such as the LFL construct was excluded from the model due to its ineffectual impact ($P > 0.05$) as noted earlier. The final structural model is shown in Figure 5.9 below.

Figure 5.9: The Revised Structural Model
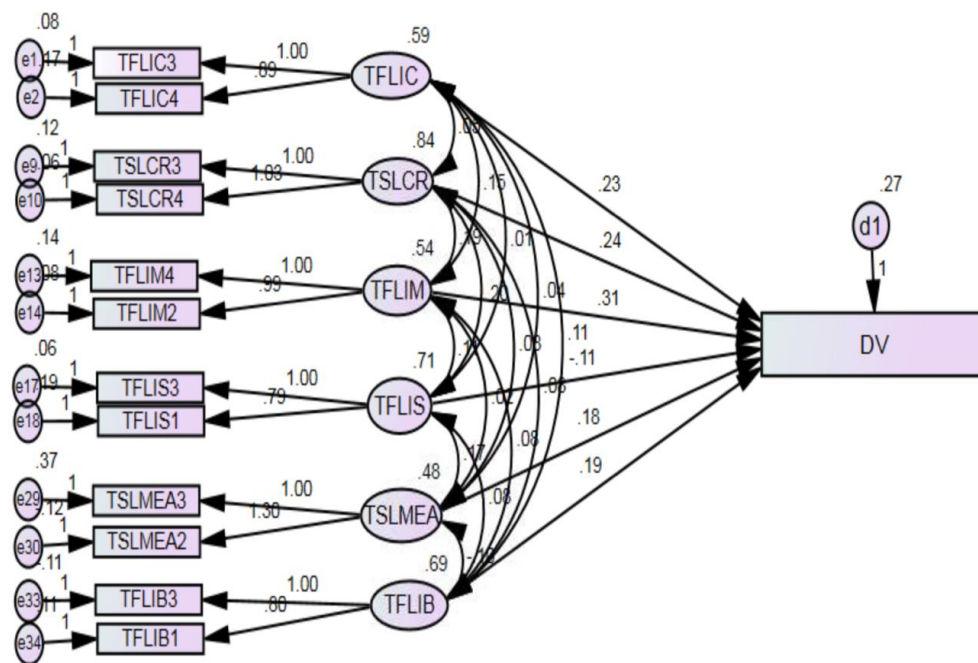
In addition, Table 5.25 below shows that the overall goodness-of-fit for the revised structural model was slightly improved as a result of excluding the non-significant regression paths.

Table 5.25: Structural Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (SEM second-run)

Goodness of Fit (GOF) Measure	Conceptual Model (First Run)	Criterion	Acceptable/ Unsatisfactory	References
X^2 / Degree of freedom	2.128	≤ 3	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
GFI	0.965	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
AGFI	0.939	>0.8	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand, 1996
CFI	0.989	>0.8	Acceptable	Lau, 2011; Kline, 2010
RMR	0.045	<0.05	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2001
NFI	0.946	>0.9	Acceptable	Wang and Wang, 2012
TLI	0.938	>0.9	Acceptable	Hair et al., 2010
RMSEA	0.052	<0.10	Acceptable	Devaraj et al., 2002; Byrne, 2001

Overall, after removing insignificant paths from the original model, a more parsimonious revised model was obtained, indicating a better fit with the collected empirical data. The following figure, 5.10, displays the final research model.

Figure 5.10: The Final Research Model
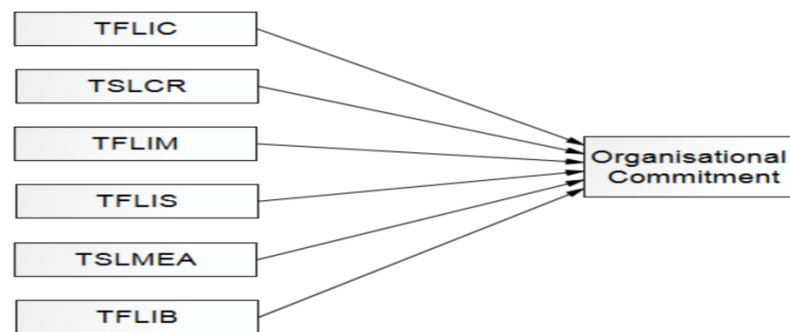
5.12 Summary

In conclusion, this chapter has presented the findings from the final purified scales and theory testing. Initially, data was screened by highlighting missing data and data outliers in order to prepare for further analysis. Accuracy of data was assessed through linearity, normality and reliability tests to infer accurate results portrayed by the data. This section was followed by an explanation of factor 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 9 factors were extracted. The measurement scale for this research was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) after the exploratory factor analysis. The measurement model and

structural model was assessed in AMOS 23 software on the basis of 309 cases. Before inferring results, reliability and construct validity tests were also conducted in which all measurement scales were found satisfactory. Standardised estimates and t-values showed statistically significant positive relationships between independent variables and the dependent variable. Most independent variables related to leadership styles were found positively and significantly correlated to the DV. However, two factors – TSLMEP and TFLIA – were not found significantly related to DV. The results of significant relationships between constructs were nearly as theoretically expected. However, more detailed discussion of the findings will be provided in Chapter Six. The following chapter presents the semi-structured interview findings.

Chapter Six

Discussion of Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to analyse and interpret the main findings acquired from the survey questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews that were conducted to reach the study objectives. There will be discussion in relation to the findings that will link them to previous research and there will be identification of gaps that exist in the knowledge of the topic. It is worth mentioning at this point that the study purpose is to undertake an empirical examination of the impact that styles of leadership have upon the commitment of employees at the ADP of the UAE, with a particular focus on acquiring information with regard to the specific questions of the research. The findings have been organised into two primary headings, i.e. the dominant styles of leadership practice within the ADP, and the relationship between style of leadership and commitment; these two aspects form this discussion chapter framework. In seeking to acquire a deeper understanding of the situation, semi-structured interviews findings aim to support the quantitative results.

6.2 Discussion of the quantitative findings

In recent years there has been a growth of interest in studies of leadership and the impact that it has upon the commitment and performance of employees. However, through conducting empirical studies, only limited insight can be gleaned about a particular style of leadership and the impact that it has upon

commitment. Also, previous research of this nature has almost always been undertaken in advanced, industrial countries. The research seems to have had little if any positive influence upon the status of leadership; debate appears to remain a theoretical matter with few implications for its practical application. This research study has the contention that the majority of previous leadership studies have been too narrowly concentrated upon settings in western organisations or related to western business, contexts that, for many years, have relied upon a tradition of accountability, democracy, stability and transparency. A leadership role in such circumstances can be relatively easier than in the Middle East as employees are aware of their rights and how to defend them and tend to be manageable people working within a structure that has been made clear to them. Hunter (2004, 28) noted that "*Anyone could lead perfect people, if there were any. The real challenge is to learn to develop the imperfect people we are*". Such a perspective is appropriate for the Middle East as, on the one hand, there are particular culture influences and, on the other, the workforce is so diverse and multinational. Often, employees can be unaccustomed to strict discipline, strictly imposed rules and work ethics, and they could believe they have the best attributes to lead or even politically govern themselves. The discussion with regard to style of leadership and its bearing upon the commitment of employees is founded upon the themes as illustrated in the following Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Discussion themes

Objective 1	The dominant styles of leadership at the ADP
Objective 2	Investigate the extent to which leadership styles (such as transformational, transactional) have significant impact on employee commitment.
Objective 3	The perceptions of employees regarding commitment at the ADP
Objective 4	Factors for improving commitment at the ADP
Objective 5	The suitability of applying western models of leadership styles at the ADP.

6.3 The discussion

There is a significant link between various styles of leadership and commitment levels with regard to age. Interestingly, it was discovered that the findings shown in Chapter Five reflected a general trend for the age groups. As with most populations in the Arab world, young people in the UAE constitute the biggest proportion of the population. The local culture is such that the young tend to be brought up with a code of conduct that is strict, and tend to treat more senior people in a very respectful way; these behaviours translate into a logical whereby older people are more likely to be given leadership positions. This study does not openly criticise the current practices and appointment of elderly leaders; it is suggested from the styles of leadership at the ADP that lots of the traditional manners of thinking and conducting business have already been undergoing far-reaching changes. This research takes the perspective that relatively young employees and more senior aged leaders working in the ADP do not have an apparent generational clash but rather complement one another. Each style of leadership has its own advantages and disadvantages.

There is a need for the ADP to capitalise upon its human capital so that it can be used effectively for handling the potential crises and challenges ahead. In general, there is a shortage of leadership within the Arab world, and within the UAE in particular. Styles of leadership may impact directly upon the failure or success of an organisation with some styles more appropriate in particular circumstances than in others, depending on the magnitude and type of challenge(s) being faced. As regards the ADP and the dominant leadership styles at work, the findings from the perspective of the employees indicated that there is a predominance of attributes of transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership. The findings from the data from the employees indicated that there were marginally higher transformational leadership attribute means than transactional ones. Analysis of the data collected from ADP leaders also shows that the transformational leadership style mean has a higher value than that for the transactional style of leadership. For instance, the four items employed in measuring the Idealised Attributes have mean scores from 3.70 to 3.80 with standard deviations with a range from .645 to .681. The suggestion from these findings is that employees had the perception that the style of leadership of their manager was largely transformational. The perception was, then, that leaders are in possession of practical leadership skills to face up to everyday issues in their work.

The ANOVA test was also employed in gauging if any difference existed between the data of the employees. The findings showed a number of significant differences between the views of employees with regard to their qualifications, age group, position, department, the experience of the employees and the total employee number at work in each department. The two styles of leadership within

the ADP highlighted that the relationship between employees and their leaders was good, and it was clearly shown that it was important for leaders to have self-awareness and moral and ethical principles, and to display integrity and honesty. The example of the leadership of the ADP shows how the local culture influences the leadership. Also, ADP leadership values are committed to the entire ministry system, with managers empowered to show leadership at all ADP levels; these results align with those findings in the work of Bass and Bass, 2008; Lussier and Achua, 2013

The findings also showed a number of significant insights for the development of leadership. As the sense of uncertainty grows within the UAE, along with the rapid rate of change, evidence suggest that senior managers are, indeed, acting in the manner of leaders. Essentially, this research discovered that organisational leadership can be considered as the leading of others for the achievement of the goals of the organisation in question, and the delivery of its vision; the research findings showed that this statement is true at the ADP from the perspectives of the leaders. The leadership of the ADP has awareness that its role is more than just status and job titles; it is recognised that there is a need to have the necessary attributes of leadership to win over the minds and hearts of people and to establish relationships that are founded on mutual respect and trust for the benefit of UAE citizenry as a whole. There is no clear-cut difference, however, between the varying degrees of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire practices of leadership in the ADP. There are many different contexts within which leadership can apply, and the style of leadership itself, is not a consistent and static form of behaviour; leadership is a behaviour that is profoundly influenced by the culture and setting of an organisation. In regard to the first question of the research, the

current study findings align with those of similar studies that were undertaken in different parts of the world, particularly Europe and the United States (Bass and Riggio, (2006). It is suggested from the debate on leadership that the main priority of leaders is the future success of their organisation and the creation of new opportunities for people. Often, such leadership requires the initial addressing of extremely challenging circumstances, such as threats to the stability and security of the UAE. The current research findings also have consistency with several other studies from various countries and educational settings; examples of such studies are a study from Thailand of Dastoor et al. (2003), studies from the USA of Stumpf (2003), Webb (2003), Moore and Rudd (2006), Bragg (2008) and Grosso (2008), a study from Tanzania of Nguni et al. (2006), a study from Pakistan of Bodla and Nawaz (2010), and a previous study from the UAE of Talal (2011). The aforementioned studies are in broad agreement with the findings of this current research since they highlighted a general trend that shows that transactional styles of leadership are less in evidence than transformational styles of leadership. These findings could lead to an inference that, overall, the laissez-faire style of leadership is the style practised least by leaders across the world, with more leaders practising the transactional style of leadership and the most practised leadership style is the transformational approach. Those findings also have consistency with those of a study across cultures undertaken by Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) from business settings in Kyrgyzstan, Georgia, Russia, Kazakhstan, Germany and the USA. From the aforementioned findings, a conclusion can be reached that the transformational style of leadership seems to be predominant in the ADP, even though the leadership within the UAE is often bound and undermined by the existing organisational culture and deeply

embedded tradition practices, and practices of management that can be unpredictable. It may appear paradoxical, however, that leaders working for the ADP do lead by example and give others inspiration for the achievement of success through encouraging their employees to take initiative and to be innovative and proactive. In a political climate where there is an increasing doubt in the leaders of the Arab world, the research findings are encouraging. The research findings clearly show that most employees in the ADP feel that leaders welcome suggestions and frequently take ideas on board. Cynics may argue that the views of employees contradict reality and that they are merely being positive in the responses as they are being defensive as they can ill afford to criticise their leaders. However, as Western (2008, 120) pointed out: *"the insidious facet of transformational leaders is normative control which comes from within the individual themselves through the internalisation of the leader's organisational culture. This makes constant surveillance unnecessary, requiring no external policing"*. The study findings show that the leaders of the ADP set an example through behaviour that aligns with the Islamic values of the UAE, and through adoption of positive attitudes and consistent motivation of employees to promote progress and consolidate a sense of loyalty and commitment.

6.4 Are the leadership models of the west appropriate to the UAE?

Data analysis of the information gathered from both employees and leaders, through the use of descriptive, t-tests and ANOVA tests, revealed that the vast majority of staff in the ADP are not keen for a leadership model 'imported' from elsewhere. The suggestion is that the only option for a leadership style is a 'home-grown' one that incorporates an understanding of local issues and can deal with

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them. Such a view aligns with the literature wherein there are ample examples and evidence that emphasise that institutions and organisations should have a model for leadership that is clearly defined and that accords with the environmental and cultural setting within which it is operating. A model of leadership has to be suitable to the workforce and also be consistent with the culture of the organisation rather than imported freshly and/or conceptualised from outside. The research findings suggest that it is likely that a style of leadership that has been conceived abroad will be incompatible and fail to achieve its purpose; it seems that a model for leadership 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. A style of leadership should have relevance, be meaningful and be suitable for the institution or organisation in question and its people; as such, there has to be alignment with the culture of the organisation and consistency for those being managed. In accordance to significant findings from the literature, it can be argued further that a model or style of leadership is not a generic thing, but is instead particular to the organisation type, the nature of the business environment and/or the particular service being provided. Styles of leadership have their basis in the competences and skills available to address local issues as and when they arise. The main goal of leadership is to provide expertise in decision-making and effective direction for an organisation or institution; leadership styles are not standardised and applicable to every situation. Everyone has a different leadership style depending on the task in question, the particular environment, and the background of the workers and their capabilities. The successful performance of an organisation is dependent to a large degree upon the leadership style undertaken. All leadership styles or

models have their own strengths and weaknesses, and so adoption of a particular leadership style is determined by taking into account the environment and whether it fits in with the organisational culture. The research findings show that the development of an appropriate style of leadership in-house within an institution or organisation is preferable to the importation of one, even when such an external style is considered successful. Leaders who are working on the ground with inside knowledge of the organisation tend to have the skills needed to deal with crises; leadership within the Middle East involves being equipped to deal with the ever-changing nature of the political environment. Furthermore, there ought to be consideration given to the particular aspects and nature of society with, for example, the Middle East having strong family connections and 'Wasta'. The UAE data give clear evidence that the country is paradoxical in relation to styles of leadership. On one hand, there are transformational styles of leadership that encourage the involvement of participants within the process of decision-making, and on the other an old-fashioned, leadership style persists wherein people are expected to follow the example set. Since the ADP is a very sensitive sector, the leadership ought to be considered a beacon of responsibility and authority, and this results in the expectation that leaders act and behave as leaders. Rather than just exerting power from a position within a hierarchy, leaders are seen as people with status, as well as being in a position of power, to help an organisation operate competently and effectively for the best interests of the nation.

One of the key themes of the literature focuses upon highlighting and describing the attributes and characteristics of leaders and people's perceptions of what a leader actually is. Another involves examination of the influence that leaders have upon the way people act and think, and the way in which people are spurred

towards action with the belief that a clear vision exists for their efforts. Leadership success has a close link to the followers embracing what they see as a realistic vision. There is also a strong suggestion from analysis of the data that most respondents recognised that, as a large institution of government, the ADP has very diverse personnel and there is also diversity in the styles of governance and leadership. The findings of the survey show that a consensus exists, in general, that the key purpose of the different departments of the ADP is to ensure effective police response to threats to, and concerns of, the public, and to increase the confidence of the public in how policing is delivered and how crime is being eradicated. Most respondents also made the indication that leadership styles differ considerably from one ADP department to another. The conclusion can be drawn, therefore, that, in order to be effective, the adoption of a leadership style that is transformative, in respect to the process of decision-making and its role, is sensible for the ADP. The current environment in the UAE calls for leaders able to manage complexity and volatility and able to face up to imminent challenges issues. Nowadays there is broad acknowledgement that skills for leadership are not innate, i.e. they can be learned; it is clear, then, that leaders who tend to be successful are people who are adaptable and flexible in their approach and able to draw upon a range of approaches when considered necessary. The leadership style adopted is dictated by the particular environment and challenges that the organisation faces.

6.5 The vision and impact of the transformational leadership approach

The study findings confirm that a transformational style of leadership of leaders at the ADP plays a significant part in promoting the commitment of employees. The

perceptions of employees of the leaders did provide reactions that were positive. Higher need levels and feelings of commitment tend to be stimulated by transformational qualities in a leader; these findings are supported by the work of other researchers that examined leadership (for example, Bass et al., 2003). The attention that employees receive from managers is reflected within the generally positive view of their work and the workplace conditions and these, in turn, increase commitment and enhance performance of the ADP staff. The research findings showed that the leaders of the ADP have the abilities and skills to influence, motivate or interact with employees.

As Kotter (1990, 62) noted "*Management controls people by pushing them in the right direction; leadership motivates them by satisfying basic human need.*" The argument of Kotter leads to the explicit recommendation that the balance to strike for leaders is between controlling and encouraging people to perform willingly rather than with reluctance. This line of argument from the literature does align with the study findings. One conclusion that can be made is that employees are naturally uneasy with a controlling leadership style, but in view of the nature of the job at ADP it goes with the territory. No societies seem to approve of leaders who seems fanatically controlling everything. A number of the respondents in this research, however, noted that, in certain cases, a degree of control and overseeing may be necessary. This finding gives further endorsement to the claim of Drucker (1996) that a lack of control can lead to negligent workers. This research has the view that a leader has to tread very carefully in balancing skills for controlling and transformational styles of leadership in accordance with the type of problem and the nature of the situation.

6.6 The limitations of the transactional leadership approach

Clearly, within the current critical political climate of the Middle East, there has been a decline in the popularity of transactional styles of leadership. These study findings demonstrate that the transactional style of leadership does not have full relation to the commitment of employees. 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. Also, respondents appeared to favour performance being related to reward. Furthermore, a leadership style that is transactional could seem out of place or irrelevant for the environment of the ADP where most duties are normally regimented and uniform. The result is that employees tend to seek flexibility and variety within the performance of tasks; these sorts of process aspects tend to be complemented by a more balanced transformational style rather than a transactional one. It was interesting to note, however, that a number of respondents stated that the transactional style of leadership may be useful within the Middle East, in general, and in neighbouring Bahrain, in particular. It was argued by them that the uncertain political climate for the ADP calls for leadership that is both transformational, when addressing change issues, and transactional when ensuring public priorities are addressed and dealing with the enforcement of regulations; this balance is considered essential if the important public organisation is to be able to more effectively deliver the changes required, with minimal resistance through appreciation of employees and recognition of their work and the achievement of set targets. The empowerment of staff and recognition for individual efforts are considered to be strong leadership attributes.

6.7 Blending styles of leadership: Transactional and transformational combined

In broad terms, the study findings have shown that transformational leadership is likely to be the effective style for leadership within the twenty-first century in the ADP. In the context of a politically volatile Middle East, being proactive in introducing meaningful changes within governmental organisations is preferable to such changes being forced upon the government. The study results show clearly that only a transformational style can directly impact upon the performance and commitment of employees. A clear relationship exists between the performance of ADP employees and employee commitment. One way in which this result can be interpreted is that the mission and role of the ADP have been set clearly. Tasks have been defined well, and the working environment has been well organised too, so little scope exists for leadership of a transactional nature. On the other hand, a considerable contribution to the commitment of employees comes from a transformational leadership style. It was perceived by employees of the ADP that their commitment was not affected by the transactional type skills of managers. A major element of employee commitment was attributed by them to the transformational skills of managers. In a work environment that is programmed and routine, the commitment of employees results from appeal to needs that are higher, that help the work overcome the boring nature of certain chores. Commitment also comes from recognition of when different incentive types ought to be administered; this research finding contrasts with those of the study of Bass (2010) which had shown that both styles of leadership are in close relationship and are effectively complementary in nature. The current research findings support instead the position of Burns (2007) which had the two leadership styles

as being at opposing ends of a spectrum. It is perhaps the case that the findings of this research are specific to the situation and only represent an exception to the conceptualisation of Bass (2010). Based on the findings of this research, and the findings of numerous other researchers, it could be argued that a leader has more chance of succeeding, when it comes to enhancement of the commitment of employees and achievement of their organisational and personal targets, when there is a combination of the two leadership styles (see, for example, Bass and Avolio, 1997; Yousef, 2000; Mosadegh and Yarmohammadian, 2006; Al-Hussami 2008; Gooty,et al. 2009; Voon et al., 2011).

It seems, then, that the management of the performance of employees drives the commitment of the employees and this helps operational and strategic goals to be delivered effectively. It seems clear that different circumstances require different styles of leadership. The argument of this study is that a description for a leader who has ideal qualities is one who is adaptable, i.e. uses their leadership style(s) to fit the particular circumstances in order to optimise success, flexible, i.e. is able to employ any effective style at any given place or time and reflective, i.e. is able to identify the various demands that a situation presents.

Often leadership is a careful balancing act between the changing demands and challenges of a situation and personal needs. So, it seems that the ADP requires some form of permutation lying between a transformational style of leadership and a transactional one; as such, a form of leadership is needed which has the vision, thought and reflection of a transformational leader who can assess situations and be aware of the feelings and needs of employees, along with the determination and organisational skills of a transactional leader who is grounded in reality.

6.8 A positive relationship exists between the commitment of leaders and employees

An important relationship was also discovered between the commitment of leaders and employees. This discovery means that if respondents have a commitment to the competencies of their leaders, then they tend to have job commitment. As there are few studies dedicated to examination of the influence of style of leadership upon commitment within the UAE, the current research findings make a contribution to the argument that style of leadership has a direct bearing upon the commitment of employees. This is a useful insight for decision-makers, and shows consistency with the previous research of Ahangar (2009) which revealed a strong relationship between commitment and transformational leadership factors. Also, the findings are consistent with those of Givens, (2008) and Voon et al. (2011) which both revealed positive correlation between the commitment of subordinates and transformational leadership. The research findings showed that leaders who listen, adjust to circumstances, process information, think creatively, build-up personal relationships, take action where necessary, communicate effectively, motivate successfully, inspire trust, delegate responsibilities, and cultivate individual talents, have more effectiveness when it comes to enhancement of the commitment of employees and helping them achieve performance standards at a high level. These findings correlate with the findings of the previous work of a number of researchers (see, for example, Hamidifar, 2009; Gill et al., 2010; Talal, 2011) who supported the view that it is of vital importance for leaders to communicate effectively, build relationships and solve problems so that the commitment levels of employees are increased and their performance efficiency enhanced. The relationship between employee

commitment and the style of leadership of managers was studied by Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) in Iran in the Isfahan University Hospital. Two questionnaires were distributed amongst 814 employees who were senior, middle and first line manager selected in a stratified sampling of selected hospitals. Their study showed that the dominant style of leadership amongst managers was a transformational approach. So, a so-called 'ideal leader' is a person who can adapt their approach to accord with the demands and needs that the situation presents. Good leaders have awareness of the significant relationship between their management approach, in terms of style of leadership, and the attitudes of employees towards their command, specifically, and their work, in general. Such a self-awareness comes with the implication that leaders ought to continue to try and improve and seek to have the competencies of leadership that befit the variety of situations and characteristics of people that they encounter. It is quite often the case that when the leadership skills are poor, inconsistency and a lack of fair treatment can quickly lead to employees becoming demotivated.

6.9 Determination of the dominant style of leadership at the ADP in accordance with the MLQ instrument

This question was answered through survey data analysis based upon 5X-Short Form version of the MLQ. A total of 36 items were used in the MLQ for the measurement of the styles of leadership as reported by the individual leaders (Bass, 2010). The effective leadership style for a particular environment is, however, less effective in another environment. The findings demonstrate that the managers of the ADP that exhibit the qualities of a transformational leader, such as good communication and inspirational motivation, tend to provide clear aims and focus for future action, and make their employees feel valued.

Transformational leaders show an interest in people, and their needs, perspectives and views, and they tend to communicate the vision and strategy of the ADP in such a way that support and commitment to its delivery is generated. A mixture of transactional and transformational leadership styles seems to be the suitable approach for leadership at the ADP as it has been discovered in the literature that such a combination is indicative of managerial success within organisations (Bodla and Nawaz, 2010). Since it would be impossible to have one leadership style that is suitable for all ADP departments, this research has shown that the styles of leadership at the ADP are, indeed, diverse and lots of leaders are shifting towards the adoption of more western styles of leadership. As such, many leaders have been becoming more consultative and less authoritarian; however, significant differences in culture obviously remain. The evidence demonstrates that a number of leaders impose themselves initially through the provision of guidance and direction before becoming much less visible so that space and distance is created for employees to just proceed. It seems the ideal for the managers of the ADP to have a suitable mixture of transactional and transformational leadership qualities, as such a blend of leadership styles has effectiveness within a diverse range of cultures and types of organisation. As Bass (1997: 130) stated: *"Transformational and Transactional view leadership as either a matter of contingent reinforcement of employees by a transactional leadership or the moving of employees beyond their self-interests for the good of the group, organisation, or society by Transformational Leadership".*

The population of the study sample still indicates, however, that the transactional leadership style is still common among the managers of the ADP. Transactional styles of leadership were seen as having three aspects, i.e. contingent reward,

management by exception (passive), and management by exception (active); taken in turn, the first aspect means that commitment is expressed when expectations are met by others, the second aspect means that action is only taken when something has gone wrong, and the third aspect means that attention is directly towards failures so that standards can be met (Bass and Avolio 2004). Several respondents criticised transactional styles of leadership as they were often perceived to result in the demotivation of staff. A degree of consensus exists with regard to the issue of whether the leadership structure of the ADP was top down. The mean for the employees has an indication that they felt the existing approach of the leadership of the ADP operates in a structure that is top down. The reason for this may be because lots of people in the ADP are considered to be powerful leaders with the capacity to give guidance to others for the achievement of a target by way of their own means.

In a way, there is a need for leaders in the ADP who are able to understand complex issues and solve them, as well as know how to provide a quality service that can generate the commitment of employees. Likewise, it was demonstrated that employees had mixed feeling with regard to the third statement, i.e. *'the ADP's leadership structure is democratic';* the mean for these responses was not so conclusive. The interpretation for this could be that numerous leaders at the ADP can be single-minded in paying excessive attention to objectives that are short-term. There is a fear amongst them of changing direction, even when a strategy is not actually working as desired.

Leaders with a laissez-faire style tend to avoid decision-making and they also avoid involvement if an important issue arises. Interestingly, it is noteworthy that

managers in the ADP with laissez-faire leadership styles are sometimes accepting of the involvement of employees within the process of decision-making, though always make decisions themselves. Leaders who are transformational always tend to permit the participation of employees within decision-making, and this may boost the confidence of subordinates (Bass et al., 2003; Bass and Avolio 2004). Both transactional and transformational styles of leadership are effective; transaction leaders tend to have more effectiveness in exploiting organisational level knowledge, whereas transformational leaders tend to have more effectiveness in the creation and sharing of knowledge at the level of groups and individuals (Voon et al., 2011). Also, previous research has shown that leadership of the transformational style was the style that was most effective for work within the hospitality industry (Mosadegh and Yarmohammadian, 2006). The research findings of this study seem to align with the findings of previous research of scholars who have claimed that a transformational style of leadership is required in order for organisational goals to be achieved by leaders; the transformational style of leadership supports staff in working harder, enhances the effectiveness of staff and also leads to an increase in the commitment of staff within organisations (Bass and Avolio 2004). An understanding of the styles of leadership of the leaders is key for people training and developing programmes of higher education for training leaders of the future within the context of the ADP. In addition, the result findings are also an addition to the relatively limited amount of knowledge in regard to the styles of leadership within the business and cultural context of the UAE.

The question is an investigation of the degree to which the transformational style of leadership has an impact upon employee commitment. The statistics

demonstrated that the transformational style of leadership influenced commitment in a positive way. The research demonstrates that if transformational type of leadership skills are applied within the organisation, employees will be led into having more commitment to the organisation. This shows that the influence is significant in terms of the relationship between the commitment of employees and transformational leadership. In terms of the impact upon commitment of employees from transformational leadership, it was discovered that the full model indicated that the variable led to a higher determination coefficient. This showed the fact that significant influence exists in the relationship between employee commitment and transformational leadership. The relationship is founded on the assumption that through explanation of what is wanted by the leader, and then through appropriate behaviour being rewarded, the followers are directed by the leader towards the desired level of performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

This research had the main purpose of providing an examination of the role that styles of leadership and commitment of employees had in making a link between the employee commitment and transactional and transformational leadership. The research findings have provided considerable insight into the perceptions of commitment of the employees that work towards promotion of affective responses to the ADP on the part of employees. The findings confirm that transformational leadership has a link to the commitment of employees; these findings are consistent with those of previous research (Lok and Crawford, 2004; Emery and Barker, 2007; Nielsen and Daniels 2012;). The current research findings also echo the findings of the work undertaken by Chen et al. (2011) and Nguni et al. (2006) that discovered evidence of the influence that transformational leadership approaches had upon the commitment of teachers, and the relationship of

transformational leadership to several key outcomes for an organisation including commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and perceived extra effort (Trottier et al., 2008). Research undertaken by Bartram and Casimir (2007) and Gill et al. (2010) gives support to this study in that they discovered that follower commitment was predicted by the transformational model. Bass et al. (2003) gave a plausible explanation for the results in suggesting that leaders who are transformational tend to encourage employees to think of new ways of doing their work and to take a reflective, critical approach to what they are doing. Transformational leaders then challenge and motivate employees to have more involvement in their work, and this results in commitment levels increasing, both in respect to their work and to the organisation as a whole. These study findings offer support to the situation of the ADP where a link exists between the transformational style of leadership and the level of commitment; there is the suggestion that there seems to be a positive for the issues of result validity or generalisation of the study.

This argument may be extended still further in respect to the relationship amongst individual attributes of transformational leadership and the relationships they have to commitment and associated facets of it. The results demonstrated that there was the existence of a relationship that was strong and positive amongst the transformational leadership attributes. The study results also align with those of Nguni et al. (2006), Hamidifar (2009) and Hu et al. (2010) which showed strong relationships between commitment and transformational leadership attributes. In general, it is evident that a form of interdependency exists between the variables. Indeed, a combination of all of the different attributes would have a significant impact upon employees. Charisma for a leader is important so long as does not

come at the expense of being considerate to individuals and being able to stimulate employees intellectually. Employees have a positive response to the charisma of a leader if, at the same time, they can play a reasonable part within decision-making. So, leaders have to pay an equivalent amount of attention to the skills, talents and individuality of employees. Charisma has been shown, in fact, to be an attribute with a strong form of relationship to commitment; this result aligns with the work of Nguni et al. (2006) who showed that the dimension of charismatic leadership within transformational leadership demonstrated significant influence upon the commitment of teachers. So, the current leaders of the ADP have to be facilitators of change and in possession of critical judgement and excellent skills at an interpersonal level; ADP leaders need to be people able to adhere to rigorous ethical codes whilst also being able to motivate their employees through the effective sharing of a strategic vision.

6.10   Style of leadership and employee commitment

It widely acknowledged that employees are the asset of an organisation. The employees are the lifeblood of a business; it seems that an organisation becomes successful through the ability of a leader to make adjustments with an understanding of employee needs. A style of leadership that is flexible drives employees on to engagement with the values and vision of an organisation and this results in staff who are more loyal and productive; qualities for which the ADP strive. Research has clearly shown that a greater degree of engagement of staff results in positive impacts upon performance and competitiveness. The results demonstrate that lots of employees attach great value to a good culture at work

and transparency; as such, employees like the workplace to be welcoming and they want to sense that they are valued.

6.11 Summary of quantitative analysis

A recurring view that came out of the findings was that there was agreement amongst all of the participants that, as an issue, leadership is complex; however, there was not a general consensus upon a single definition for leadership. Various theories of leadership have been shown to improve a general understanding of the concept and to give in-depth analyses of the various leadership styles and models. Leadership has been examined by researchers from lots of different angles and within various organisational and cultural settings. There has been good documentation of the strengths and weaknesses of the various leadership studies, and this current research goes some way to widening the debate on leadership with the provision of fresh insights from the ADP. Without a doubt, the turbulent and volatile political events throughout the Arab world have had an enormous impact upon the thinking around the concept of leadership. ADP leaders found it to be interesting to be able to reflect for a while on their own styles of management; indeed, the issue of leadership and readiness to bring about change is very topical within the region. There is a great deal of interest on the debate over leadership considering the current political and economic circumstances and the calls being made for sweeping changes throughout the Arab world. It has been clearly seen that lots of the traditional leaders of the world have not been fit for the job as they have failed to lead by example and/or failed to provide the inspiration and direction needed.

6.12 Concluding remarks

There has been extensive research undertaken on leadership, with lots of theories taken on board within practice throughout the western world. It is noteworthy that lots of these leadership theories have given insights that have proved beneficial to both decision-makers and researchers; however, it does seem that may theories are inconsistent, recurrent, duplicated and with a basis in evidence that is anecdotal. Also, the theories may be applicable to other parts of the world, especially in cultural terms as, for example, there are considerable differences between the Middle East and the culture of the west. The style of a leader has deep roots within his or her culture. As this current study has shown, there can be considerable constraints from the cultural clash between the background of a leader and the claims made for new styles of leadership such as the transformational and transactional leadership styles.

This current research has discovered that leadership involves the engagement of employees in a harmonious way. Much has changed with regard to attitudes towards leadership in recent years in the UAE and this has, in part, been driven by the many uprisings throughout the Arab world.

As a whole, the research evidence has shown that ADP leaders have adopted a proactive and flexible leadership style, with the approaches taken to decision-making dependent upon the situation in question. Decision-making in the ADP is neither undertaken through a prescriptive process nor has it been defined clearly. Whilst the actions and style of leaders can be variable, there is an eagerness and expectation for some type of process and agenda to be followed when there is a need for decisions to be made within board meetings; however, no master plan

exists to which people can adhere. The aforementioned and described style of leadership could seem fictitious to those familiar with the culture in the UAE and/or to those with views that are contradictory. However, the fact remains that, in the light of upheaval in the Arab world and the calls for change, the leaders of the ADP have begun to bring about changes within the public-sector organisation at both the national and local levels; the implementation of these changes is aimed at reflecting the vision contained in government policy and at providing services that meet evolving public needs. There has been the introduction of reform throughout the public sector including the introduction of measures to bring about key changes to the modus operandi of the civil service.

6.13 Discussion of interview findings

6.13.1 The interview procedures

This study includes the use of semi-structured interviews so that information can be acquired from managers of the ADP. To be more precise, the process of interviewing was designed in order for the findings for the study of objective 2 to be enhanced and confirmed; as such, the objective was to provide an analysis of the challenges and problems that are currently constraining development of ADP leadership styles. The conducting of the interviews had the key purpose of supplementing the questionnaire responses and enhancing the overall reliability and credibility of the findings of the study. The decision was made, therefore, that semi-structured interviews be conducted with ten managers in order to get a better appreciation of the potential constraints upon the adoption of certain styles of leadership within the ADP. It is possible to justify the decision to include

qualitative research for the study as it is a means by which questions can be raised that would not have been if only survey questioning was done. The semi-structured interviews aim at asking questions of a 'why?' and 'how?' nature, and this would not be possible within a typical quantitative type of study.

6.13.2 The participant profiles

So that the attitudes and perceptions in relation to leadership programmes could be obtained, a sample of individual managers from different departments within the ADP was taken and interviews of a semi-structured nature were conducted. Details from the interviews are listed within Table 6.3:

Table 6.2: The role and rank of the interviewees

Interviewee	Grade	Department	Length of service in Organisation
A	General	General Directorate of Human Resources	20 Years
B	Colonel	General Directorate of Finance and Service	17 Years
C	Lieutenant Colonel	Deputy Commander General	15 Years
D	Consultant	General Directorate of Finance and Service	13 Years
E	Major	Commander General of AD Police	11 Years
F	Captain	General Directorate of Finance and Service	9 Years
G	Captain	Deputy Commander General	8 Years

H	First Lieutenant	General Directorate of Human Resources	7 Years
I	Lieutenant	Commander General	6 years
J	Lieutenant	General Directorate of Policing Operations	5 years

6.13.3 Analysis of the results of the interviews

The semi-structured interviewing of ADP managers was conducted in 2016. The open-ended and semi-structured questioning within the interviews had the aim of addressing the key themes, as follows:

Theme No.1: Do you believe that the current social, cultural and economic changes that are happening within the UAE are having an impact upon the style of leadership?

Theme No.2: What is the current leadership style at the ADP and what leadership style do you believe is required for delivering changes for meeting challenges faced by the UAE?

Theme No.3: What are the views/perceptions of the leadership of the ADP with regard to commitment of employees and structure?

6.14   The qualitative findings

6.14.1 Overview of the phase of semi-structured interviews

The key objective for conducting of qualitative, semi-structured interviews is to have an understanding and insight into the specific phenomena under investigation (Sekaran, 2003; Saunders et al., 2009). This chapter section has the

purpose of discovering in greater depth the issues that came forth from the questionnaire survey findings. The interviews were undertaken to acquire opinions on matters that could not be elicited properly if the study was limited to a strategy that was solely quantitative. This chapter section has the objectives for the interviews, their key outcomes and findings, and interviewee profiling. The semi-structured interviewing was undertaken with leaders that held 10 different positions within the ADP management departments that were chosen for study. The questions were founded upon questions found in the sub-scales of MLQ and the Employee Commitment Survey (ECS). The instruments were appropriate for the study as they elicited responses that had details that would not have been captured through use of questionnaires alone. Also, the approach was suitable for participants as they had busy schedules and there was reluctance to take the time to complete a questionnaire. The researcher introduced the interviewees to the following three themes so that it could be ensured that there was understanding about the questions and research aims amongst the participants. The approach prompted discussion between the participants and the researcher in relation to the important role played by the study. Areas for investigation were outlined as:

Theme No.1: Do you believe that the current social, cultural and economic changes that are happening within the UAE are having an impact upon the style of leadership?

a) What key challenges are currently being faced by the ADP?

b) Are you able to explain the effects upon employee commitment and leadership behaviour from internal changes, such as new objectives, new issues, and new legislation and so on?

c) Are you able to explain how the leadership performance has been changed by external changes, such as political, social and economic factors and so on?

d) What pressures currently face the leadership team of the ADP whilst the Arab world goes through such changes to leadership? What concerns do you have?

Theme No.2: What is the current leadership style at the ADP and what leadership style do you believe is required for delivering changes for meeting challenges faced by the UAE?

e) What is the key style of leadership within the ADP? Are the current styles of leadership effective for the achievement of the objectives of the ADP?

f) Can you tell me what you think are the main attributes of leadership that are required to deliver change for meeting challenges being faced by the ADP?

g) Is there a commitment in the ADP to the commitment of its employees and do your employees have an awareness of the relationship between expected rewards and their performance?

h) Which mechanisms do you believe could be introduced by the ADP for the enhancement of the commitment and performance of employees?

Theme No.3: What are the views/perceptions of the leadership of the ADP with regard to commitment of employees and structure?

i) Do you believe that the channels of communication and the styles of leadership in the ADP are transparent and open with engagement of staff at all organisational levels which allows employees to be active participants?

j) Do you have discussions about changes for the organisation, for instance, at managerial briefings, with staff able to listen and be given active encouragement to provide feedback of any issue, question or information they may wish to raise?

k) Do you believe that offering your employees the chance to participate in decision-making will give them encouragement to work towards the achievement of better results?

l) Do you believe that continual recognition of employees by leaders shows that the leadership style is good?

m) What do you believe to be the best way that leaders ought to consider when they are dealing with employees in order to build up their commitment and trust?

n) So that targets and aspirations could be met, do you think that the ADP would consider the implementation of recommendations based upon the findings of this research study?

Interviews were held with a few personnel that represented five different ADP departments or directorates based upon their experience and expertise and their ability to offer broad, valuable information to a deep level with regard to the themes of style of leadership within the whole of the organisation. It was considered

conducive to the research objectives to have a one to one, private discussion between the researcher and personnel in relation to styles of leadership and associated aspects; that way frank and clear responses could be obtained that had the potential to highlight issues that may not have surfaced otherwise if just a questionnaire was used.

6.15 Discussion of the interview findings

In order to support the questionnaire findings, the interviews had a focus upon how leaders were defining their roles, building relationships and coping with changes. Questions included within the themes, for the evaluation of the leader of their own style of leadership, were as follows:

a) Do you think the social, cultural and economic changes that are occurring within the UAE are having an impact upon style of leadership?

b) What leadership style is currently used in the ADP and, given the changes facing the UAE, what leadership style do you think is required to deliver the necessary changes?

c) What are your views/perceptions of the ADP leadership with regard to employee commitment and structure?

The component of interview was undertaken so that depth could be added to the questionnaire result interpretations. Follow-up interviews were conducted to give support to, and to complement, the quantitative research finding interpretations. Analysis of qualitative data has the aim of identifying common patterns and trends. Questions that were open-ended, that the questionnaire did not cover, had a focus

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upon the perceptions and meanings that were held by participants in regard to employee commitment and leadership. The interactive data collection process is helpful as a strong value is placed upon the contribution of stakeholders to the debate. So, the leaders of the ADP were given the chance to give expression to their thoughts in an open way that enhanced the study findings. Involvement of stakeholders in research dialogue leads them to being active participants within the inquiry (Creswell 2009). The involvement enhances the understanding of the practices of the ADP leadership in a holistic way. Once the follow-up interviews had been analysed, multiple themes began to emerge from the ten interviews conducted with employees from various positions with the departments of the ADP. A key theme that emerged from the semi-structured interviewing was that every respondent was in agreement that the current ADP leadership is facing significant challenges, mainly because of the growth of both the domestic and foreign populations. Also, the fast pace of development of the UAE is leading to radical change, and whilst a degree of cultural openness has come with progress, there are many complexities that have challenged the stable and peaceful style of life in the UAE; as such, trouble spots are increasingly difficult to identify. Indeed, as one interviewee stated:

R (B) '*There is no doubt that the changes in society affect negatively or positively on the leadership style, therefore it leads to the challenges of how to cope with the culture of change'.*

Another interviewee raised the same important points in echoing the idea with the suggestion that recent changes affect all citizens of the UAE not only the leaders. The importance lies in making preparations for the unknown and unexpected and their undesirable consequences. As another interviewee stated:

R (D) *'complete openness to all cultures and the displacement of hundreds of thousands of foreign workers annually to the State or - The presence of advanced technology in the hands of even the children at affordable prices making it imperative that the ADP has to pre-empt to avoid the worst-case scenario'*

The comment serves to highlight a level of awareness and apprehension with regard to the pace of societal change that is being experienced in the UAE; however, a general consensus exists that, ultimately, the ADP can deal with potential threats if proactive strategies are used and the organisation is ready. The answers of participants showed there to be very mixed views over whether external factors had been having a bearing and led to the adoption of special roles for leadership. No consensus was evident for this. Some interviewees made the suggestion that, in the context of new development(s), new approaches were necessary. A suggestion was made by one respondent, as follows:

R (C) *'Leaders need to focus and address certain type of issues and give them priority. 2 – They should deal with some of the issues with sensitivity. 3 - Emphasis should be on dealing with a particular type of attitude and the application of certain policies'.*

A general feeling exists that there is efficient and level-headed leadership at the ADP, and that there is a vision and clear direction to enable the ADP to handle change as there is a suitable structure to address significant issues in relation to recent development.

R (G) *'Through performance of leadership Excellence it can ensure the continuous development and improvement and raise the efficiency of operations and external services, being able to respond efficiently to external changes and*

the development of performance indicators, which gives a positive reflection on those dealing with it, as well as optimum utilisation of human resources; which enhances the value of excellence in leadership and staff'.

From the data acquired from the in-depth interviews, it can be seen that leaders of the ADP emphasised that it is a duty of leadership to have action planning for dealing with all possible eventualities. Action planning and a degree of preparedness is seen as a key priority and participants were in agreement that the ADP leadership establishes the priority of the workload based upon urgency and importance. The leadership of the ADP is fully aware that unforeseen events can happen. As such, the degree to which the leadership is psychologically, mentally and physically prepared and in a state of readiness to address challenging events is what matters. One participant stated:

R (F) *'Spend more time on issues which were not important previously. – There is increase of pressure and fears of destabilisation of the security of citizens and residents alike, while the state enjoys a high level of security which is not available in the neighbouring country. – Closely monitoring the political and social security requires more effort from leaders and their concern leaves them to focus on human development, and neglect issues that may be important in the near future'.*

There is an acceptance amongst the leadership that there is complexity and diversity to the challenges that could be being faced by the ADP. These challenges will undoubtedly place the leadership under enormous pressure to adapt and manage change effectively. The study findings suggest, however, that most participants perceived that the leadership of the ADP had a strategy and the competence and direction to deliver change and to progress the organisation.

Further to this, the government has a determination of keeping security as a top priority. Participants acknowledged that the role for leadership and its development are turning out to be of crucial importance for the ADP within the current political climate because of recent political demonstrations and regime change within a number of Arab countries; however, an overwhelming message emerged that a positive environment and resource sharing was being facilitated by the leadership practices and the leadership nature within the culture of the ADP. Lots of participants were not overly concerned and had the belief that the strategy, structure and resources were in place at the ADP for the significant issues to be addressed if and/or when such challenges arise. As was argued by the following participant:

R (I) *'The achievements of the ADP in building a modern police force which is able to address the various risks and unparalleled views, despite the pressures faced by the leaders, do not make me think that there are concerns worth taking into account in our consideration'.*

A similar sentiment was echoed by other participants, with the indication being that the ADP has to carefully watch developments throughout the Arab world, and prepare for delivery of changes thought necessary to address future challenges. The ADP has, in the main, a transformational leadership style and leaders have the attributes needed for the creation of a vision and for guiding followers through a process of change through inspiration and the securing of employee commitment. As a further interviewee stated;

R (B) *'We need to keep abreast of developments and events experienced by the Arab world and work to make changes in what is in the interest of citizens and face the challenges of any plans and strategies with the current situation'.*

All the interviewees who were leaders said they were consultative and innovative, with an interest in serving the nation and working in such a way that employee suggestions are welcomed. These findings gave further confirmation of the quantitative survey results. There was an overall indication from the participants that there was a considerable degree of commitment amongst their employees, and the argument was made that communication is a primary feature for a style of leadership to be successful. Employees are regularly engaged by the leaders of the ADP within the process of decision-making, with such involvement developing a feeling them that they belong in the organisation. Employees felt that they were being supported in their work when leaders acknowledged talent and competence, their contribution and, overall, gave them affirmation in their job. As noted by the following participant:

R(C) *'Through the clarity of rights and duties and responsibilities, the nature of the relationship between leadership and employees has contributed significantly to the achievement of organisational justice and knowledge and awareness of employees about their rights. Increased communication with the command and following the style of the new assessment have all contributed to increasing staff commitment and affected the behaviour of the leader.*

The study findings are in alignment with the results of the quantitative study with a significant correlation being discovered in relation to the success in implementation of the legislation of the ADP, its vision and its action plans.

Employees felt acknowledged and supported and this created a working environment that was positive and which boosted their confidence levels enabling them to influence others; as such, the supportive environment helped develop the potential and skills for leadership. A clear trend that was seen from the interviewing was that a debate that was open and frank with key stakeholders of the ADP was an experience that was meaningful. Lots of participants emphasised the comfortable nature of the workplace atmosphere due to there being good relationships amongst staff working at every level of the ADP. Also, emphasis was placed on the sense of a collective vision, and increases in the empowerment of employees, the sense of ownership and commitment and a sense of enhanced teamwork. All of the leaders also acknowledged personal growth within development and leadership, in particular within the strategic areas of transformational styles of leadership. The interviews gave forth the view that leadership is not something that just happens but rather a leader is someone who has to be nurtured along for them to build and develop competence in leadership. As one of the interviewees highlighted:

R (D) *'We need to focus on leadership styles and qualities of the leader and enhance training for personal growth and leadership, to achieve the goals and aspirations because such courses aim at developing the skills of group leadership, development and planning in the ADP and in commitment of its employees also'.*

The interviews gave the impression that people considered a leader to be someone reliant upon followers. As an interviewee stated:

'*We are each leaders, servants, participants and stewards when the people around us respect and acknowledge us as such. Then we can concentrate on*

what it takes for others to grow and learn. In so doing, leadership becomes a privilege we all share'.

6.16 Summary

A recurring view that came out of the research findings was that all of the respondents were in agreement that leadership, as an issue, is a complex one and there is no general consensus over a definition for it. Various theories of leadership have been proposed to enhance the understanding, in general, of the issue and in-depth analysis has been provided of the various models and leadership styles. Leadership has been examined by researchers from lots of different angles and within various organisational and cultural settings. The weaknesses and strengths of these various studies have been well-documented; however, this current research project has broadened out the debate over leadership with its provision of fresh insights. The recent turbulent events within the Arab world have had a massive impact upon thinking with regard to leadership, and it is interesting for leaders of the ADP to reflect upon their own personal styles of management. The exercise of going through an interview was eye opening for some of the ADP leader participants. The majority of participants considered it to be a useful and helpful development activity that could possibly be employed in addressing weaknesses within current practices of the leaders of the ADP. Within the region as a whole, the issues of leadership and a readiness to change practices are very topical. There is a lot of interest being generated within the current political and economic context. Traditional leadership structures, based upon 'great leadership' are beginning to be challenged by people; there are greater calls for moves to be made towards having working environments where

employees are able to participate and act as engaged and valued stakeholders within their organisation. Throughout the world, it has been seen that lots of traditional leaders have failed to be fit for the purpose of leadership by failing to lead by example and by not providing the inspiration and direction required. The interviews conducted with the leaders of the ADP within this research project support findings that addressing the challenges currently experienced by the UAE and the implementation of change are difficult to achieve; however, there ought not to be undue concern nor overreaction. Clearly, the numerous warning signs ought to prompt leaders to thoughtfully address problems and face up to any discontent. Under the circumstances, it is virtually impossible to outline measures of readiness or advance a framework for dealing with all forms of eventuality; instead, it appears more appropriate to adopt a pre-emptive approach.

6.17 Concluding remarks

Extensive research has been done into the issue of leadership and this boom has led to the generation of numerous theories which are often researched further within the west. It is noteworthy that many of those theories have been beneficial in providing helpful insights and benefitting both decision-makers and researchers. It is fair to note, however, that a number of those theories of leadership are recurrent, duplicated and/or inconsistent and are frequently founded upon anecdotal evidence. Also, they may lack relevance for other places across the world, especially when the local culture differs somewhat from a western culture. Styles of leadership are deeply rooted within the local culture and, as this research has shown, the cultural background of a leader may act as an obstacle to progress. Often, there is a clash of cultures when looking at the

principal, wide claims made for new styles of leadership such as transformational leadership and transactional leadership. This research discovered that leadership involves harmonious involvement with the followers. Much has changed with regard to attitudes towards, and styles of, leadership in recent years within the UAE; such changes are clearly driven by the uprising that have occurred across the Arab world. Based on the interviewee statements, it seems that there is general agreement that strong leadership is essential for directing a workforce through transitional periods and for driving change processes. A flexible style of leadership is essential for ensuring that the objectives of the ADP can be achieved within the timeframe that has been established. ADP leaders seem to have awareness of the demands of the public, and an understanding of the varied ways in which change is occurring; as such, ADP leaders to appear to be awake to the social realities of the changes being experienced.

Chapter Seven

Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overall conclusion of the study which was undertaken to examine the extent to which leadership styles influence and drive the commitment of the employees at Abu Dhabi Police in the UAE. It sought to find out whether the current leadership styles have a direct impact on employee commitment within ADP. The key findings have been interpreted and linked to the research questions which were formulated in order to achieve the research objectives. Subsequently, recommendations are made based on the findings of the study. This chapter also highlights the contribution to knowledge and identifies the limitations of this study, and suggests areas for future research.

7.2 Where does this study fit within the key leadership debate?

The interest and pertinence of the concept of leadership is demonstrated by the number of publications on leadership theories, styles and models. Similarly, there is an entire leadership industry which prescribes leadership training and offers quick fix solutions to would-be successful leaders and managers. Evidence shows that the leadership literature is extensive and diverse. However, there are still many questions which remain unanswered regarding 'leadership'. Leadership is elusive and hard to pin down as it has many shades of meaning. According to Burns (1978:45) leadership is "*one of the most talked about and yet least understood social phenomena on earth."*

The key literature on leadership is polarised around two streams. The first stream presents the different traditional theories, styles and models of leadership. It is hierarchical and vertical top down leadership style. The conclusion that can be drawn from the broad and long history of debate over conventional leadership theories, is that it has generated many useful insights and perspectives but times are changing. This type of leadership is seen as outmoded, with limited effectiveness and not fit for purpose in many societies. The second stream consists of newly coined labels of leadership styles. There is a shift from the more traditionally individualistic models of leadership styles to participative, collaborative style of leadership due to the complex nature of today's world. Today society expects leaders to be facilitators, motivators and a driving force, for people and organisations to perform and develop. A leader aims to align people's needs, and the organisation's objectives. Each leadership theory is open to criticism and each leadership style has its strengths and weaknesses and there is no perfect leadership theory.

Moreover, what transpires from the leadership literature suggests that although the development of leadership is a research area that has covered plenty of ground and is continuously evolving, the basics and core elements of leadership have not changed much over the last hundred years. In other words, the main arguments of leadership have remained largely the same. On the whole leadership research appears to be overlapping and disjointed and many studies on leadership lack substance. There is clear evidence that the definition of leadership remains a matter of interpretation, and depends on the purpose and context in which it applied. As a result, it is unsurprising there is no universal or one-size-fits-all leadership theory. While there is common agreement on the general and generic meaning, there are

still different nuances of meanings of leadership. Different environments and different cultural settings require the use of different leadership styles. Moreover, the broad literature on leadership predominantly focuses on the business, political and military sectors but gives limited attention to the public sector, particularly the police sector. The boundaries in defining and delimiting leadership styles and theories are often vague. It is probably fair to say that despite the long history and evolution of research on leadership, it is rather short on originality.

The key theme that emerges from the wide ranging and diverse leadership definitions is that each definition is subjective and open to personal interpretation: the individual author puts their spin on the term to serve their own agenda or purpose. Some definitions provide fresh insights and perspective on the complexity and nature of leadership in context, others are merely saying what is already evident. For some a leader is someone who is expected to set direction and vision, build and inspire confidence and motivate followers to success. For others, a leader ensures that people follow procedures and obey orders precisely. Some may be of the opinion the latter is more fitting and in line with the role of the ADP.

Leadership influences organisational culture and so it is important that the necessary leadership skills and qualities are continuously nurtured and improved. With regards to ADP, the findings suggest that some leaders are struggling to move on with time and it is difficult to change mind-sets. The traditional style of leadership was intended to address a very different set of circumstances. This study takes the view that it is difficult to find a clear-cut and evident style of leading an organisation or group of people. An individual leadership style which works in one setting is often inspired and shaped by cultural identity, personal values, beliefs and experience. A leadership style at an organisational level is strongly influenced by the

organisational culture. Leading a public-sector organisation such as the ADP requires a different leadership style than for leading a private company.

The terms 'management' and 'leadership' are often confused or used indiscriminately and interchangeably. Clearly, they are not. Management and leadership are distinct concepts, albeit there is a natural overlap between the skills and attributes they require. Leadership is not simply a one man show; it needs to be collegial, collaborative and participative. In the workplace of today, a managerial position implicitly involves a leadership role. A more collective, collaborative and dynamic style of leadership is imperative for the sustainability of ADP, given the instability of the region and the pressures from outside the organisation. ADP possess a more highly educated workforce than ever before, it has greater potential in skills and knowledge to offer.

In addition, the leadership research has rarely managed to move beyond a review of the classical theories and styles of leadership despite the emergence of a new terminology such as *adaptive, authentic, ethical, collective, dispersed, devolved, democratic, distributive leadership styles,* etc. To be sustainable, the leadership debate needs to be innovative with a wider scope in search of a dynamic and evolving leadership fit for the 21st century. A new leadership pattern is needed, one that makes use of all of key successful attributes that have been covered extensively in the vast literature, a leadership style which could be subject to an in-depth investigation to find out whether it is suitable in the context of the 21st century. Today's leaders are often expected to be facilitators, enablers, multi-taskers, with multicultural awareness. Regional instability in the GCC countries is challenging the

way leadership is viewed and practised. ADP must be prepared to handle all kinds of situations.

In summary, the leadership literature has contributed significantly in enlightening and providing understanding and knowledge about the various layers of leadership in terms of models, theories and styles. This study argues that leaders should be flexible and adaptive. In other words, leaders must possess varied leadership styles in addition to the ability, the flair and the intuition to assess and provide a solution based on the merit of each situation or event. Leadership as a traditional position of authority has been overtaken by events and the need for change is triggered by the will of the people.

The results of this study show that the ADP has a clear leadership structure but there is evidence which suggests that the organisation's leadership structure is top down rather than transformational. It was evident that transformational leadership practices are better developed in some departments than others. The analysis of employee commitment results was taken as one example. Respondents' perceptions of transformational leadership and the current practices in the ADP differ from department to department. This explains why some respondents' understanding of transformational leadership is not matched by their experience of transformational leadership practice.

7.3 Linking key findings to the study objectives

It could be argued that the findings of this study are unique to the police sector, based on the fact that the sample population surveyed and interviewed were police staff at ADP. A typical leader in ADP settings, has a particular leadership style over others.

In line with this study's findings, the broad theme that emerged from the literature is that a transformational leadership style approach is more effective for sustaining and building trust and loyalty among followers. Transformational leaders inspire and encourage their followers to support the mission objectives and vision of the organisation. Transformational leadership encourages followers to work as a team and, at the same time, provides them with responsibility and a degree of control (Waite, 2008). One of the limitations of previous research is that it is largely based on of-the-shelf and pre-existing data collection instruments for measuring leadership styles' effectiveness which may not reliably translate into the UAE setting. Similarly, previous studies have generally relied mainly on questionnaires rather than mixed methods including interviews which tend to streamline reality and may generate suitable rather than realistic answers. In addition, the majority of leadership studies have been conducted in the west with a strong democratic tradition and vast cultural and organisational differences between these countries and the UAE which makes the generalisability of findings or adaption of leadership models incompatible.

While this study's findings revealed that in general, the ADP leadership is seen by the employees as fulfilling its role positively, this is not always matched by their experience of leadership practices. The findings also indicate that leadership styles at the ADP and leadership practices in general suggest that many people in positions of power have left some of the traditional ways of thinking and autocratic leadership behaviour behind. The ADP leaders in this study were found to uphold Islamic values in their behaviour while being seen as having a transformational leadership style. However, the ADP leadership has been criticised by some participants for adopting traditional leadership approaches. These were considered

to be inadequate to meet the new challenges facing the UAE. The literature contains numerous leadership styles as potential alternatives, but the ADP-related departments need an approach fitting with the values of the institution and the UAE culture as well as allowing for the use of other leadership practices and styles. Transformational leadership has been proposed as a viable leadership model for the ADP.

Most interviewees considered that developing a leadership style from within the organisation is more appropriate than adopting an external model. For this reason, this study takes the view that to select the best people for future leadership roles within the ADP, there is a need to establish succession schemes and talent management systems to ensure that the institution will have the right leaders in the future. A succession framework ensures that individuals' leadership skills are recognised and supported. If there is any lesson to be learnt or something useful to be retained from western leadership studies and leadership practices, it is that they are limited in scope and often incompatible with Middle Eastern values and culture. Western leadership models and styles are presented as given to be received in total, a ready-made package to be used and applied to boost staff morale and enhance performance. Research reveals that leadership styles are not made or learnable but are the product of enduring power structures in which there are attempts in different economic, historical, political, and social contexts to settle what is and is not effective leadership.

The results largely show that at the ADP, despite a clear preference for transformational leadership style, in reality there is a fine line between the old fashioned 'follow me' type of leadership and transformational leadership. Some leaders lack the competencies required to deliver change within the organisation.

The observation that can be made today is that, there is a leadership vacuum and lack of leadership skills. This phenomenon is not specific to the Arab world; it is a global issue. But the case of the Arab world is particularly exacerbated by the fact that for each of the awakening countries making the transition from an autocratic and despotic regime to a democratic one will not happen overnight but requires going through turbulent and uncertain times. It is a world which still relies on top down management style. There is little democratic debate as there is insufficient tradition and culture for such debate. There is little political diversity where most of the population is often excluded from the political process. Leaders are viewed as people with sufficient vision to guide followers on the outcome and the big picture. In order to deal with the new challenges facing the UAE, the ADP must opt for distributed leadership rather than a single leader, and of having leaders that are multi-taskers. Thus, new leaders and new kinds of leadership are called for. Leadership does not need to be a one man show and there needs to be recognition of the need for interpersonal and communication skills development.

Current leadership studies have supported the positive influence of leadership styles on enhancing commitment in a variety of organisations, but there is a lack of empirical research regarding the UAE particularly within the police sector. The results of the data analysis indicated that there are some differences in commitment due to employees' demographic characteristics, but that overall employees were moderately satisfied with their leaders. The findings also show that the current levels of commitment are adequate; there is a sense of purpose at every level. Some respondents expressed high levels of commitment but leaders can do better to meet the demands and needs of employees to secure higher performance. Not

everyone can fit in the leadership role comfortably; it does not come naturally. It is important to spend some time determining which style of leadership will work best.

The data found that the ADP has organisational strengths which stimulate and motivate employees. However, in order to achieve the mission objectives and the future vision of the ministry, operating a totally transparent policy committed to providing each employee with a working environment complete with clear reward schemes which inspire and motivate staff to achieve a high level of performance is needed. The ADP employees expressed strong appreciation for the positive aspects of their leaders, including continuity and stability of the organisation, recognition by their leaders of their commitment, a sense of achievement, and being able to work as part of a team. To enhance performance in the ADP workplace, the respondents recommended reducing red tape and better communication, and more rewards and promotion based on productivity.

To sum up, the findings of this study are in line with findings in several similar research studies over the years. One of the key themes to emerge is that all respondents agreed that leadership is a multifaceted topic and it is difficult to draw a clear-cut conclusion whether a common leadership style prevails across the ADP and whether all departments within this important public sector display comparable leadership characteristics. Respondents did, however, agree that the ADP must lead by example to deliver first class public services. The key to leadership success is in having the right mix of people and skills and striking the right balance between traditional and modern leadership styles.

Maintaining high levels of commitment by keeping the ADP employees informed about what is going on and the decision process and how they can contribute will

motivate and encourage staff to work towards the organisation goals. Results show that several some employees suffer from lack of experience, knowledge or expertise and regularly find themselves struggling to achieve their targets; this has translated in some employees voicing their discontent about their leaders. Today's challenges require complex and exceptional ADP leadership to deal in particular with areas outside the knowledge or comfort zone of the current management team. In these circumstances, it is the role of the leader to work well with the team, be open on long-term objectives, define roles for key projects clearly and update everyone regularly so they understand the status and on-going vision of the ADP. It is thus suggested that a leadership style that focuses on involving employees in the decision-making process and supporting them to develop greater initiatives is key to employee commitment and to creating a happy work environment. The challenge is to switch from obey and conform and listen and execute, to innovate and create, which is admittedly easier said than done within the police sector.

7.4 Contribution to knowledge

This study has contributed to increasing the currently limited empirical research on the styles of leadership and commitment within the public sector of the rapidly developing countries of the Middle East. In academic terms, there has been a lack of research undertaken of the context of public security in the UAE. Even across Middle Eastern countries in general, there has been little research on the impacts of styles of leadership and commitment in the sectors of public security and policing. There have been some limited studies involving public sector organisations. Currently, most of the literature related to organisations for public security, and their management, has focused upon developed, western countries. This study aims to

extend the currently limited body of knowledge related to public security organisations and increase the developing knowledge of public sector operations. This study, in particular, will seek to develop a conceptual model of commitment and leadership in the ADP, which could then be extended and adapted for use in other contexts in the Middle East. Also, this particular academic study which is related to the management of public security in the ADP is under-researched. As such, it provides practical assistance and knowledge for the organisation that employs the researcher. The knowledge of best practice gained will benefit the ADP and can be implemented and transmitted so that its impact will be felt in a number of different organisations for public security, such as emergency services and policing. Also, there is the anticipation that the study findings will be useful for future research and constitute a basis for future studies amongst employees, helping expand their skills, knowledge, work practice and experience.

Furthermore, this study is expected to be of value for policy and decision makers within the case study organisation, to help in understanding how current styles of leadership have an effect upon the commitment of employees. Also, the shortcomings of current styles of leadership practices can be identified, so that leadership skills can be used to foster a culture within which employees maintain an enhanced level of performance. Increased efficiency and productivity amongst the employees of the ADP would in its turn lead to an enhancement of organisational performance. The findings will have implications for the mentoring and coaching of employees in such a way that creates a clearer picture of the leadership role within an organisation aiming to be a more effective one. Leaders may also be encouraged to provide greater motivation to their employees so that their performance is enhanced.

The outcomes of this research have the potential to contribute to knowledge in the field of the leadership styles of leaders in the ADP. Firstly, previous research has suggested that the dominant leadership style of Middle East leaders was autocratic. Autocratic leadership does not allow staff to participate in decision making processes and the leaders are in control and command mode all the time. Admittedly, this style of leadership was and is still prevalent in some parts of the Middle East. In contrast, this research found that the dominant leadership style of ADP leaders is more inclined towards leadership styles which combine transformational leadership and transactional leadership. This style always allows employee to participate in making decisions and these leaders are admired, respected, and trusted (Bass and Avolio 2004). Secondly, this research also makes a contribution as being one which focuses on the influence of leadership styles of the ADP leaders within the public sector. Thirdly, this research also makes a contribution by contributing to the debate and by expanding the leadership literature, an area which is under-researched in the UAE in particular and the Middle East in general. Therefore, the leadership findings might be useful for the ADP leaders in implementing change to face the complex challenges ahead. Thus, the above research has practical implications for academic research, the ADP senior leaders and employees and other public sectors in the UAE.

7.4.1 Theoretical Contribution

The development and testing of the leadership styles model was a significant theoretical contribution of the study because it was the first use of this type of model in leadership styles studies at the organisational level. The model proved to be

extremely useful in understanding the factors influencing the relationships among individuals from various dimensions of employee commitment within the ADP who are forced to interact with each other and with leaders accustomed to ADP leadership methods. The model demonstrated that leadership styles are an important variable for managing individuals from different levels in the ADP. The successful application of the leadership styles framework to the UAE context implies that it would be valuable in future leadership styles studies in environments other than the UAE. The model would also be suitable for use with different variables related to leadership styles substituted for some or all of the variables used in this study. As a result, the leadership model provides an empirically verified framework for the testing of theoretical propositions related to leadership attributes in many different contexts in developing and industrialised nations. An additional significant contribution to leadership styles theory is by demonstrating that leaders in ADP used different approaches to leadership based on cultural differences with employees, their personal leadership development experiences, and the circumstances determined by their position and the organisational objectives.

7.4.2 Practical Contribution

An important practical contribution of the study was the information provided to leaders faced with the problems associated with leading employees in the ADP. Among the specific study population of ADP leaders, the leadership expectations and norms in the ADP culture influenced their instinctive approach to leadership styles. Many leaders, however, recognised that additional leadership development training and knowledge was necessary to enhance employee commitment.

Leaders can obtain information from their employees about leadership expectations to guide them when faced with a leadership issue, which is consistent with distributed leadership theory. Because the study focused on the ADP, it also makes a practical contribution to human resources planning for the organisation in the UAE and other Middle Eastern nations. Perhaps one of the most challenging issues facing the ADP today is preparing a generation of leaders capable of maintaining the stability, peace and welfare of the Emirati citizens and making the UAE 'built to last'.

The study made a methodological contribution through its use of a mixed methods approach to investigating the impact of leadership styles on employee commitment within the public sector in the case of the ADP in the UAE. Previous research examining leadership styles has adopted either an exclusively quantitative approach using surveys to collect and compare data from a broad range of subjects or a qualitative approach to collect data from a small group of subjects. By using a mixed methods approach to the research, this study demonstrated that qualitative data about leadership styles obtained from respondents in the ADP is useful for providing a broader understanding of quantitative findings. An additional methodological contribution was a research design that enabled the collection of data related to leadership styles from a single country in the Middle East. The mixed methods approach used in this study demonstrated the effectiveness of using both qualitative and quantitative methods for answering the research questions. By combining the qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study demonstrated that objective and subjective methods are effective for answering research questions involving the complex phenomenon of leadership styles programmes and practices.

7.5 Practical recommendations

This study set out to examine the impact of leadership style on employee commitment using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Leadership styles within the ADP were explored and the results presented and analysed. From the followers' perspectives, the predominant ADP leadership style within the organisation is 'semi transformational' for want of a better term. This means it is neither fully transformational nor completely autocratic. In order to deliver the changes and meet the challenges ahead, the employees recognise that the organisation needs to change by being more proactive and adopting a different style of leadership, and many respondents indicated that transformational leadership would be ideal.

Leadership styles are shifting slowly from closed, remote and autocratic to adaptive, servant, open and distributed. This shift in leadership style is driven by a number of key motives. Firstly, the Middle East economic boom has completely transformed the nomadic landscape to modern and affluent cities with skyscrapers. Secondly, there is regional turmoil and signs of instability in the Gulf. Everything is moving too fast for old fashioned leadership to cope by itself with the changing events. Thirdly, expectations of what constitutes 'leadership' are changing and people's aspirations are growing; leaders are required to make a difference by influencing far more and controlling far less than in the past. Fourthly, leadership in the twenty first century has to take a far broader role than ever before, managing a larger number of diverse relationships across departments as well as involving multi-tasking. Within ADP, a leadership style needs to be consistent with the goals, mission, and philosophy of the organisation. An ADP leadership style is often dictated by specific factors: the

type of the organisation and the nature of the task involving hierarchy, direction, formal organisational structure and cooperation.

Although many respondents claim that transformational leadership is predominant at the ADP, broadly speaking in the UAE the *'command and control'* leadership style is deeply rooted in culture and is difficult to shift. This style is not entirely incompatible; it is in line with the nature and type of the organisation. In addition, most local companies and organisations owned by the Emirati citizens are run by expatriates, therefore, the command and control mode of leadership is prevalent. The transition to openness, transparency and democracy is slowly progressing but it will take time to establish, because fostering the trust and building relationships and loyalty is a time-consuming process. The culture as a whole must change for these kinds of leaders to thrive and survive. As Shapiro (2005:1) points out*,* *"Leadership is an action, not a title, and the ability to lead can be found in every person. Each of us must claim our authority to lead at the right time and in the right place".*

There is growing information on leadership development programmes which provide valuable perspectives and useful insights and reflections on leadership development in support of government bodies and organisations in the UAE. Leadership is high on the agenda in the UAE and its development is a booming industry worldwide. The UAE has been undergoing radical economic, social and cultural changes. Consequently, the UAE leaders today face the challenge of accommodating themselves to a world of rapid change, especially in Dubai and Abu Dhabi which are struggling to maintain a sense of balance between retaining what is most important from the past while moving forward into a stable and

harmonious future. So far, ADP leaders have begun to adopt a continuous improvement style with which most employees are comfortable.

Many studies explored the role of leadership which has a direct bearing on followers. For instance, the traits, behaviour, situational perspective and the charisma of leaders became the focus of interest for many researchers, who sought links between previous leadership theories and the treatment and management of the followers within a group. Transformational leadership dominates the research and has been heralded as the means by which leaders can respond to the demands of reform to achieve appropriate and effective outcomes through turning the organisation into a highly performing machine. Inspiring and motivating the subordinate through charisma are deemed to be the key features of this leadership style. Transformational leadership style was also deemed to be a more suitable model by various authors who adopted, adapted and applied it into all types of cultures and organisational settings. However, studies that examine the impact that different leadership styles have upon the performance of followers in Middle East, and in particular within the public sector, are rare. Instead, various studies have attempted to fit Western leadership models into a developing country setting, with the focus being upon the cultural and organisational differences, rather than upon the development of new models of leadership suitable and applicable within a challenging developing country environment.

A study into the UAE leadership requires an inside knowledge and understanding of the synergy between tradition and modernity in the region as it adapts to a globalised world. Despite the significant pace of modernisation, change and the development of modern governance, holding to traditional and Islamic values is still

predominant. A strong grasp of the dynamics of this rapidly changing country requires a fine appreciation of culture and identity and the political machinery.

The following recommendations stem from the quantitative and qualitative findings. The ADP should:

1. Develop a clear vision and mission objectives which are consistent and aligned across every level of every department. Working in a coordinated effort towards achieving the federal government's agenda must be clearly understood by both leaders and employees.

2. Carry out critical assessment of the current structures and prevailing cultures of services within each department to ensure that leaders and organisational cultures are fit for purpose to respond to the challenges ahead.

3. Promote a greater coordination among key departments to share knowledge and good practice.

4. Provide a stimulating working environment for leaders and followers to meet periodically to discuss persistent problems and make recommendations for any action plan.

5. ADP leaders should use transformational leadership practices to create and sustain a healthy work environment.

6. The transformational leadership style is appropriate in different situations and should be promoted.

7. Positive rewards like praise, recognition and benefits need to be provided in a personalised way to sustain performance.

8. Leaders should build relationships and trust in order to create a friendly work environment.

9. ADP leaders should support and promote career development by providing opportunities for growth, advancement and leadership.

10. The most important recommendation for the ADP leadership is the training, mentoring and coaching of today's junior officers. Often, senior officers fail to provide the necessary mentorship and coaching for their junior officers.

11. ADP leaders must lead and sustain change.

12. ADP must cultivate the culture of updating and enhancing their leadership skills. They must take responsibility for the growth and development of their own leadership expertise and mentor others to develop leadership expertise. Leaders reflect on and work to develop their individual leadership attributes.

13. ADP must develop policies and provide resources that support effective leadership.

Leadership is all about good communication channels, transparent reports as well as being in touch with everybody else within the organisation. Leaders who explain, in very simple and understandable language, their vision of the organisation with clear targets that each of the employees aims to reach, really drive employee motivation to work towards the goal. They must establish a good relationship early; leaders must not stay in their ivory towers, getting information whispered to them by some trusted agents. The findings of this study significantly contribute to researchers' understanding of a successful model of organisational and social change within the ADP in the UAE, in addition to the relationships between the traditional Arab leadership styles which are being phased out in favour of transformational leadership.

7.6 Recommendations for future leadership training

The ADP needs well-trained and experienced leaders to meet the challenges that the UAE are facing. In a time of volatility and insecurity, it is essential that the ADP have the capacity to train leaders fit for the 21st century that can drive the employees to achieve the mission objectives of the federal government, to prepare leaders who are able to overcome future challenges through fresh insights and intellectual leadership. As demonstrated in the research findings, there is only a moderate level of transformational leadership behaviour. Bass's (1998) leadership theory suggests that transformational leadership skills can be taught and improved over time as long as leadership training is provided early on in an employee's career. Based on the transformational leadership theory, formal education and skill building programmes would help to develop effective leaders. Therefore, to improve the quality of leadership skills within the ADP, it is strongly recommended that the Police College Academy curriculum incorporate more training that focuses on leadership skill development in students prior to their graduating.

Other theories suggest that to develop an effective leader it takes time and experience. For example, Maxwell (1993) suggests that individual leadership skills develop over the course of an employee's career, and to develop more effective leadership skills requires both training and exposure to a role model with strong leadership skills. Therefore, in addition to improving the training for future leaders, it would be beneficial to assess and improve the quality of leadership among currently employed supervisors within the ADP. The implementation of in-service seminar trainings on transformational leadership development and commitment throughout the ADP might significantly improve the overall quality of leadership and management within the ADP organisation. If the ADP increases leadership and

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commitment training options, the organisation may ultimately experience a sizable reduction of managerial problems and personnel issues across the entire organisation.

7.7 Limitations of the study

Any research has its limitations and this study is no exception. This study acknowledges the following shortcomings:

Firstly, the data was collected using a sample population confined to Abu Dhabi Police Department (ADP). The findings might not be generalisable to other police departments within the UAE. It is possible that the results of the survey may vary if the study was conducted using other populations.

Secondly, the questionnaire designed to measure ADP leadership style and its impact on commitment produced useful information and the results showed a high level of reliability for the whole questionnaire with a wide range of validity between the low levels and high levels, but it is by no means flawless. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been criticised as containing dimensions which are too broadly defined. Although many studies have demonstrated support for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and its predictive validity, it is criticised because it does not incorporate key theoretical elements of transformational leadership adequately. Based on these limitations of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire it may be difficult to draw any firm conclusions (Tracey and Hinkin, 1999).

Thirdly, another limitation of this study was the possible loss of meaning in the translation process. The data collection instruments used by this study have been

translated from Arabic into English. Although loss of meaning has been minimised by checking its accuracy by translation experts, it is inevitable as Arabic and English are each deeply embedded in their own specific culture, and the distance that separates the linguistic and cultural systems is not always easy to bridge.

Fourthly, the researcher is an insider-researcher and therefore not entirely independent of the study, having an active role in the ADP force. 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 ADP and how they are affected. As such, the results are susceptible to bias.

Fifthly, this study adopted a theoretical leadership paradigm and a survey instrument that were developed in the Western context to define the leaders' leadership styles and employee commitment. Therefore, it is suggested to investigate and develop more locally relevant understanding of leadership and commitment that arises through more inductive, open-ended and exploratory modes of enquiry.

Finally, another limitation was time constraints and physical distance between the UK and the UAE. In many cases this is a common limitation. With greater time available it would have been possible to collect and analyse larger sets of data. A more expanded scope of the data would potentially provide deeper and broader insights into ADP leadership styles and employee commitment to enhance staff retention.

7.8 Suggestions for future research

In the present study, both the quantitative and qualitative sets of data were collated by involving the ADP employees as participants. Some relevant suggestions regarding leadership styles and the related employee commitment are provided as follows:

1. This study has covered plenty of ground in the literature related to leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment and has provided a useful platform to build on for further research studies. Further research is necessary to understand the importance of employee commitment within a sensitive sector such as a police department in the UAE

2. In-depth research needs to be conducted in order to understand the mind-set among ADP leaders, especially the new generation in order to determine the overriding leadership practices.

3. This study was conducted in the ADP. Future studies should attempt to make a comparison with Dubai Police Force (DPF). This study should also be extended to other GCC countries in the future. More research should be conducted to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment.

4. It is worth pointing out that the ADP needs to develop a suitable human resource strategy to achieve high levels of commitment among employees, which in return will lead to higher levels of organisational performance.

5. Another key area of the impact of leadership styles and their impact on employee commitment that has somewhat been overlooked and received little attention, is how expatriates view and experience leadership styles in order to gauge their perceptions and experiences.

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Appendix 1

AN EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AT ABU DHABI POLICE

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Part A: Demographic Information

1. **What is your position?**

   - ☐ Senior Manager
   - ☐ Middle Manager
   - ☐ Policeman
   - ☐ Police Officer
   - ☐ Captain
   - ☐ Other

2. **What is your age group?**

   - ☐ 18 - 24.
   - ☐ 25 - 39.
   - ☐ 40 - 50.
   - ☐ 50 or over.

3. **What is your gender?**

   - ☐ Male
   - ☐ Female

4. **What is your highest qualification?**

   - ☐ High school certificates.
   - ☐ Bachelor
   - ☐ Masters or equivalent
   - ☐ Ph.D. or equivalent
   - ☐ Other (please specify………………

5. In which department are you currently working?

☐ Commander General of Abu Dhabi Police.
☐ Deputy Commander General
☐ General Directorate for Finance and Services
☐ General Directorate for Human Resources
☐ General Directorate for Guards and Establishments Protection
☐ General Directorate for Policing Operations
☐ General Directorate for Central Operations
☐ General Directorate for Security Affairs and Ports
☐ Other (please specify

6. How long have you been working in your department?

☐ Under 3 years.
☐ 3-5 years.
☐ 6-10 years.
☐ Over 10 years.

7. What is the total number of years of work experience you have at AD Police?

☐ 1-3 years.
☐ 3-5 years.
☐ 6-10 years.
☐ Over 10 years

8. How many members are in the team you are working with?

☐ Under 10.
☐ 10-30 members
☐ 31 or over.