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Perceptions and Practices of Transformational Leadership in the Dubai Police Force

By

Rashed Salem Mohammed Khalfan Almazrouei

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Declaration

I confirm that I am the sole author of this thesis, and all quotations in the thesis have been properly acknowledged according to appropriate academic conventions.

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Rashed Salem Mohammed Khalfan Almazrouei

Abstract

Policing organisations strive to maintain law and order and the security of citizens, and senior leaders tasked with improving performance must manage complex bureaucracies successfully. The common perception is that policing organisations, just as in the military, operate in similar models. This notion has created perceptions of policing leadership as authoritative and highly centralised, controlling followers to behave in the way they are told to do so. The challenges of the 21st century have forced policing leadership to become highly competitive, flexible, and performance oriented. This phenomenon has also led to the adoption of novel contemporary leadership styles to address challenges. However, the contention is that the model developed for the private sector in Western countries may not be applicable in high-culture countries such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE) where the power distance is wide.

This study builds on the discussion of the leadership of policing organisations in the Arab world, with a particular focus on the Dubai Police Force (DPF) in the UAE. The central thesis of this study is that policing in the DPF is changing from an Arab authoritarian type based on clan hierarchy to a more transformational leadership style influenced by the new generation of leaders, technology and globalisation. This leads to the following questions: how do senior leaders in the DPF understand the concept of transformational leadership style? and what are the perceptions of the officers regarding transformational leadership in the Dubai Polie Force?

This study adopted a pragmatic philosophical approach using mixed methods where qualitative and quantitative data were used. Qualitative data were collected using semi-structured interviews with 15 senior leaders of the DPF, whereas quantitative data were collected using an online questionnaire from 283 middle-ranked police officers between the rank of Warrant Officer and Captain, including

75 female officers. Qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis and Nvivo software, whereas quantitative data were analysed using SPSS software.

Results from qualitative data showed that most senior leaders who participated in the study practice transformational leadership in the DPF. Some of the factors identified that helped transformational leadership to thrive in the DPF was executive leadership, particularly the Commander-in-Chief of the Police who changed the police culture in Dubai, particularly the level of education of the senior leader (most of them have either a master's or doctoral degree). The quantitative data supported the qualitative study findings. Strong agreement existed amongst followers regarding transformational leadership practices and how they improved individual and organisational performance.

This study concludes that regardless of the culture, the top leader of an organisation has a strong influence on its organisational culture. Moreover, the top leader can change the mindset of the leaders in the organisation to buy into his/her leadership philosophy. This case is demonstrated by the way senior leaders embrace transformational leadership practices in the Dubai Police. Therefore, leaders with higher education levels are likely to become transformational because higher education levels allow them to have a critical perspective of the merits of this style and its benefits to the organisation.

From a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the limited research on transformational leadership within the public sector, particularly in policing organisations in the Middle East. Insights on the best practices highlighted in this study will benefit the DPF and other public organisations in Dubai and the UAE. Furthermore, this study's findings can guide leaders in policing organisations in the UAE in implementing change in their organisations. These findings could be beneficial to future research on leadership in the UAE and provide a foundation for future studies on employee commitment, development, leadership, and work practices, particularly in cross-cultural organisations in the UAE.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1.Background of the Study

This section focuses on two main aspects—leadership police and leadership in the Arab world in association with the concept of transformational leadership.

1.2. Leadership in Policing Organisations

Policing organisations strive to maintain the law, order and security of citizens, and senior leaders who are tasked with improving performance must manage complex bureaucracies successfully. Schafer (2009) observed that although leadership has been a subject of study for centuries, interest in policing leadership is relatively new. Moreover, despite attempts to study leadership in policing organisations, it has been described as authoritarian, autocratic and bureaucratic, where leaders use their powers and positions to exercise command-and-control authority (Henderson, 1981; Craven, 2023).

The common perception is that policing organisations have similar leadership models of command and control, just like in the military (Kopel & Blackman, 1997; Cowper, 2000). Kopel and Blackman (1997) further argued that the assumption of a military leadership model operating in a policing organisation has created perceptions of policing leadership as authoritative and highly centralised, controlling subordinates to behave in the way they are told to do so. This thinking is misleading and problematic and creates challenges that hinder improvements in the leadership of policing organisations and in how these agencies conduct the business of policing societies (Kelling & Morse, 1988; Batts et al., 2012).

Rowe (2006) analysed leadership in British police and observed that the lack of flexibility in policing leadership led to changes in the leadership of policing organisations. Cockcroft (2014) added that recognising factors such as seeking consensus and the need for effective communication led policing leadership to realise the need for change. Martin et al. (2017) concluded that leadership styles based on rank and hierarchy were considered inappropriate for dynamic and professional policing organisations. For effective policing of society, leaders in the police force have to be good communicators, and they must also be team players who can develop a shared understanding of the problem and ease the followers' anxiety and uncertainty (Batts et al., 2012). These complex and problematic situations make the task of senior leaders in policing organisations a prodigious opportunity for leaders to transform policing organisations (Saifan Al Abdouli, 2017).

Schafer (2009) observed that policing leadership in the 21st century is highly competitive, flexible and performance-oriented. Innovative leaders attempt to transform policing organisations by seeking opportunities that enhance operational efficiencies and identifying internal and external issues that could be barriers to the organisation's sustainability (Charrier, 2010). Leaders' efforts in policing organisations to make changes often face challenges in implementing the most effective leadership strategies (Batts et al., 2012). Similar to other organisations, policing organisations also have to balance standardisation, consistency and predictability with change and adaptability. Leaders tend to spend time and all their efforts on standardising operations; however, many face challenges owing to the fluid context in which policing organisations operate (Bayley & Nixon, 2010; Kim, 2015). Leaders recognise that policing organisations have to adapt and evolve to remain effective in this changing world (Batts et al., 2012).

Batts et al. (2012) argued that, in policing leadership, urgently finding novel ways to lead policing organisations is necessary, just like in other organisations. The urgency is driven by the shifts in the workplace by the rise of a new generation of police officers, the availability of technology in addition to globalisation and the changing nature of crimes. Arguments show that culture affects leadership styles such that Arab cultures, where leadership is based on clan hierarchy, influence policing leadership, which tends to be authoritative, unlike Western culture which tends to promote transformational and participative leadership styles (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Taufiqurrohman et al., 2024).

In western cultures, leadership tendsedto be associated with traditional leadership styles that are highly authoritative. Several commentators (see Manning, 1997; Rowe, 2004) argued that traditional perspectives of leadership in policing organisations existed. The leaders relied on autocratic leadership styles, which created tense relationships with their followers. However, recent studies on leadership in policing organisations found that leaders now use several leadership styles that go beyond an autocratic leadership style (Adlam, 2002; Engel, 2002). Cockcroft (2014) observed that, generally, policing organisation leadership is changing and tends toward transactional or transformational leadership styles. This may be the case in western countries. Examining how policing organisations in the Arab world have coped with the new leadership thinking is necessary.

1.3. Research Problem

Transformational leadership theory has been widely studied, and there are examples of case studies to demonstrate its importance in 21st-century organisations in the private and public sectors (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Avolio et al., 2009; Khan & Varshney, 2013; Aldarmaki, 2017). Some of these studies, such as Aldarmaki (2017), examined transformational leadership in the Arab world. However, additional studies are required. Al Mansoori (2017) examined leadership styles in the Abu Dhabi Police, whereas Aldarmaki (2017) studied transformational leadership in the Dubai Police Force (DPF). However, the focus of the latter study was on the influence of transformational leadership on knowledge management. Other studies such as Al Abdouli (2017) focused on leadership characteristics in the United Arab Emirates (UAE)'s Ministry of Interior and mentioned the leadership in the DPF. However, the analysis included participants from the whole Ministry of Interior. Therefore, isolating the results of the study from the DPF employees is difficult.

DPF has many challenges, including overreliance on foreigners and the loss of talented employees at the end of their contracts. Biyguatane and Al-Yahya (2010) noted that the loss of talented employees and key core competencies are at least two-thirds of the public organisations' challenges. It is hoped that the public organisation in Dubai will understand the effectiveness of transformational leadership in building trust and loyalty to the leaders as well as commitment to the organisation to retain talented employees.

No study has been conducted on the understanding of transformational leadership and its effectiveness in policing organisations in Dubai in particular and the Arab world in general. Top leadership is recognised as key to the development of organisational culture, which in return influences how the entire organisation is managed to achieve its goals. Changes in leadership in the DPF need to be studied particularly on how the senior leaders influence their followers and how followers perceive current leadership from a transformational leadership perspective.

This study contributes to the literature on transformational leadership, particularly in policing organisations in the Arab world. The study identifies key factors that have led to changes in leadership practices in the DPF and examines senior leaders' understanding of the concept of transformational leadership. Most studies on leadership focused on one group, that is, they either focused on leaders or followers. In addition to gathering insights from senior leaders, the present study is also interested in the perspectives of followers on their leaders' styles of

leadership. This study provides an original examination of transformational leadership in the DPF. Despite the few studies on leadership in Dubai and the UAE, none have focused on how transformational leadership is practised in the DPF.

This study was prompted by a lack of research on transformation leadership in the DPF. Therefore, the central question for this study is: *what are the perspectives of the senior leaders and their followers on transformational leadership practices in the DPF?* Studying how transformation leadership is practised in the DPF is necessary. In doing so, this study fills the gap, contributing to the literature on transformational leadership in the DPF and to practice by providing a case study for other policing organisations on the effectiveness of transformational leadership.

1.4. Research Aim and Objectives

The challenges that policing organisations face in the 21st century include the rapid pace of change in technology and the emergence of a new and young generation of police officers in the UAE. Thus, policing organisations such as the DPF have to adopt additional participative leadership styles. The emergence of transformational leadership in the DPF provides an interesting topic of research. Therefore, this study mainly aims *to critically analyse transformational leadership practices in the DPF and determine how the concept is understood by senior leaders and how it is perceived by followers who are the middle-ranked officers in the DPF*.

The study had the following objectives.

> This study used a mixed-methods approach to gather data from senior leaders and their followers. The objectives are a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches.
>
> Previous studies on policing leadership indicated that the leaders of some police organisations usually demonstrate a command and authoritarian leadership style (Sarver & Miller, 2014; Saifan, 2025). In recent years, policing leadership shifted towards more inclusive and people-centred styles, moving beyond traditional, autocratic approaches to embrace transformational leadership and collaborative strategies (College of Policing Limited, 2023). Van der Vijver (2015) argued that the factors that anchor developments in society influence developments in policing organisations.

Therefore, the challenges that policing organisations face include adapting new leadership strategies that meet the needs of their societies. This is also the case in the DPF, where leadership style changed at an increased pace in the last 5 years. Therefore, this study aims to determine the new leadership styles used by leaders in the DPF.

Metwally and Zarka (2017)nobserved that there are claims from leaders to use transformational leadership but many do not understand the principle of leadership and how leaders can achieve the positive effect of change. Furthermore, Steinmann et al. (2018) noted that although many leaders claim to be transformational, they do not realise that understanding and implementing transformational leadership principles effectively is more than rhetoric. There is a need for genuine commitment to inspire and empower followers. Therefore, this study also aims to determine the leaders' understanding of transformational leadership concerning their practices.

1.4.1. Qualitative Objectives

i. *To investigate contemporary leadership styles espoused by senior leaders in the DPF.*

ii. *To critically analyse senior leaders' perspectives on transformational leadership and their practices in the DPF.*

1.4.2. Quantitative Objectives

i. *To critically assess the perspectives of middle-ranked officers in the DPF on transformational leadership.*

ii. *To determine how transformational leadership in the DPF affects middle-ranked police officers in terms of employee performance.*

iii. *To assess the effects of transformational leadership style on the overall performance of the DPF as a public organisation.*

Concerning quantitative objectives, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H1: *Transformational leadership in the DPF has a positive effect on organisational performance.*

H2: *Transformational leadership has a positive effect on employee performance in the DPF*

H3. *A strong relationship exists between organisational and employee performance in the DPF*

1.5. Rationale of the Study

Although policing organisations have been in existence in western countries for a long time, it is a new concept in the Middle East modern policing. For instance, the London Metropolitan Police was founded in 1829; however, DPF was founded in 1956 (PwC, 2018). Although autonomous, the DPF is an integral part of the UAE, which was founded by the British who were the colonial masters of the UAE. The DPF was modelled on the British police format; however, it has evolved over the years. For instance, the DPF of today abandoned the police rank of the London Metropolitan Police to use military ranks.

The UAE, which is made up of seven emirates, is a relatively new country that was imposed in 1971. Although each Emirati has its policing organisation, apart from the DPF, which is autonomous, the others are semi-autonomous and still have some control from Abu Dhabi. This study focusses solely on the DPF; the other forces are not included. The study chose DPF because it practised transformational leadership (Aldarmaki, 2017). Furthermore, as the researcher is an employee of the DPF, accessing data from senior leaders and the middle-ranked office of the organisation is easy.

DPF was founded in 1956 to provide public safety and security to the people of Dubai through the enforcement of laws in addition to fighting and preventing crime in all forms. In 1968, His Highness, Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, became the commander-in-chief of the DPF. This event was a quantum leap in the enhancement of safety and security services in Dubai. In addition, this appointment laid the foundation for the development of the DPF leading to what it is today. In the last six decades, DPF has developed from a conventional policing service provider to one of the world-leading policing organisations that integrate safety with community happiness and well-being through the enhanced use of technology.

Over the years, DPF has had significant changes. One of the most significant changes was the introduction of female police officers to the Dubai Police in 1977. Chu and Abdulla (2014) noted that the DPF employed more than 1400 female police officers in various departments in 2019. The number of female officers has increased in 2000. In 2021, DPF established the first female-only SWAT team. These show that the police force is geared towards modernisation. Moreover, the DPF has been at the forefront of using advanced technology in policing. The DPF became the first force worldwide to implement Smart Police Stations (SPSs) that are self-manned with no human interactions. SPS provides police services to the community, which

proved to be popular in Dubai as they are considered discrete and offer a trustworthy and confidential environment to the residents.

The DPF employs more than 20,000 and is responsible for the safety and security of over 3.5 million citizens and expats, including over 15 million visitors to the Emirati of Dubai. The DPF developed a corporate excellence framework with six key areas, including organisational innovation, strategic planning, operational management, efficient resource management and community partnership aimed at helping the police achieve its mission and vision within Dubai and UAE directives.

Effective leadership is argued to be key to managing the challenges facing policing organisations and improving the performance of the various departments of the 21st-century police force (Middleton-Hope, 2007; Batts et al., 2012; Juma et al., 2023). His Highness Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the Prime Minister of the UAE, the leader of Dubai, is the chair of DPF, which is led by His Excellence, Maj-General Abdullah Khalifa Al Merri (Commander-in-Chief). Upon his appointment in 2017, he vowed to transform the DPF into one of the most admired police forces in the world. DPF's governance structure is divided into eight leadership sectors, namely, the Office of the Commander-in-Chief, criminal investigation, Community Happiness Affairs & Logistic Support, Ports Affairs, Academy and Training, Excellence and Pioneering, Operations Affairs and Administration Affairs. These sectors are further divided into 24 general departments offering various services.

Since 2017, DPF has been undergoing changes not only in its operations but also in its leadership. These changes are attributed to the leadership of Maj-General Abdullah Khalifa Al Merri, which includes increased use of smart technology and highly transparent leadership in the DPF and changes in leadership approaches. The literature noted that a leader is a key important factor in the success or failure of an organisation (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998; Avolio & Locke, 2002; Cakil & Adiguzel, 2020). Leaders provide guidance and direction to their followers towards achieving organisational goals (Rowe & Guerrero, 2018). The commander-in-chief of the DPF introduced a transformational leadership style that is practised not only by him but also by other senior leaders. This study focusses on these transformational leadership practices in the DPF to determine how transformational leadership thrives in an Arab policing organisation.

Writing about transformational leadership in the Arab world seems strange because of its leadership style. According to Hofstede (2001), the power distance in the Arab world is very

high. When the power distance is high, the leader has substantial power over the followers (Kirkman et al., 2009). The cultures, beliefs and norms in the UAE, Dubai inclusive are different from Western cultures. In the UAE, leadership is heavily influenced by Islamic values and shaped by the Arabic culture (Yousef, 2000; harb, 2015). This influence is evident in almost all aspects of life, including political and socio-economic issues. In addition to religion, leadership is also influenced by tribal values and the colonial influences that shaped the cultural and leadership values in the UAE (Bakhatari, 1995; Khan & Varshney, 2013; AlAbab, 2024). The tribal approach encourages a hierarchy and autocratic leadership in public and private organisations. Thus, the power of shaping the organisation's culture and direction rests on the leader.

However, Arnold et al. (2009) observed that understanding the religious and cultural values of leadership and its assessment in the Arab world is important. Jamsari et al. (2012) noted that leadership in the Arab culture is an integral part of directing the lives of people to achieve a better and safer livelihood. Leadership is a process of transforming the behaviour and thoughts of individuals within the family, a group of people, the community, an organisation or a country to achieve shared objectives. Therefore, some principles of transformational leadership do exist in the Arab leadership philosophy. As noted by Bass (1985), transformational leadership is a theory of leadership that encourages leaders to transform their followers by motivating them to perform beyond expectations, go beyond their self-interests and work towards achieving a common goal.

Khan and Varshney (2013) argued that the interconnectedness of the world increases owing to globalisation. Moreover, leadership is an important issue in managing not only commercial organisations but also public services. The current business and economic environments require organisations to be flexible, adaptive and innovative to overcome the challenges of leadership in the 21st century (Parker & Bradley, 2000; Sarros et al., 2008). Transformational leaders should put all the pieces together and influence their followers to achieve greater goals so that they can adapt to the new environment and meet new challenges. A study by the United States Police Department (2015) on the UAE claimed that the country's policing organisations lacked the leadership needed to motivate its followers, promote autonomy and stimulate creativity and innovation. However, top leadership in the DPF has recognised the challenges of leading large organisations in the 21st century and has adopted transformational leadership.

This event also raises questions such as how do senior leaders in the DPF understand the concept of transformational leadership style? how do they practice it and how does it affect the performance of employees and the whole organisation? and lastly, what are the perspectives of the followers on the practice of transformational leadership in the DPF? The search for answers to these questions motivated the formulation of this thesis.

1.6. Significance of the Study

The results of this study are expected to provide a new perspective on public organisation leadership in the UAE, particularly policing organisations. Bass and Riggio (2006) noted that transformational leaders influence their followers' attitudes to put aside their self-interests to work towards a shared goal.

Most studies on leadership in policing organisations in the UAE have focused on low-ranked officers and patrol police (Kemp et al., 2013). Few studies have focused on senior or middle-ranked leaders (Seba et al., 2012). Studies on transformational leadership in the police focused on job satisfaction and organisational commitment (see, for example, Decker, 2018) and a comparison of transactional and transformational leadership styles (Fisher, 2009) on relationships (Cockcroft, 2014); these studies focused on Europe and American policing organisations. However, the challenges of transformational leadership adopted by the DPF have varying factors relevant to the region owing to the different cultures and geographical locations. This study's exploration of transformational leadership practices from the leaders and the followers in DPF provides new insights that could be relevant to leaders of policing organisations in the UAE.

Furthermore, the results of this study make a valuable contribution to the literature on transformational leadership in the Arab world. This knowledge will be useful for other organisations with leadership problems. The study will also provide a reference point for academics interested in learning further about transformational practices in an Arab organisation. Therefore, this study is considered important as it contributes valuable insights into transformational leadership in the UAE because of the limited research on the subject in this country.

1.7. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis comprises nine chapters. Chapter 9 presents an outline of each of the chapters in the thesis.

Chapter 1 introduces the background of the study, providing a brief overview of leadership in policing organisations and leadership in the Arabic World. The rationale of the study and the research problem are presented in this chapter, highlighting the key factors for this study and identifying the research gap that this study attempted to fill. This chapter also presents the study's aims and objectives. The objectives are presented based on the methodological approach. The qualitative and qualitative objectives have been presented separately as well as the key hypotheses for the study. The remainder of this chapter includes the significance of the study and a summary of each chapter.

Chapters 2 and 3 discuss the literature review on the two key aspects—transformational leadership and leadership from policing organisations. Chapter 2 begins by discussing leadership and defines the concept using various definitions from the literature. This chapter then turns on the key traditional and contemporary leadership theories. Traditional theories include trait, behavioural and contingency leadership theories, whereas contemporary theories include servant, participative, transactional and transformational leadership theories.

Chapter 3 forms the second part of the literature review, which focusses on leadership in policing organisations. This chapter starts with an overview of leadership in public organisations to demonstrate the key aspects of leadership in these organisations. Then, the discussion turns to leadership in policing organisations. Leadership styles have evolved from militaristic and authoritative leadership styles to transactional and transformational leadership theories. The last section of this chapter addresses transformational leadership in policing organisations. In the conclusion, the literature review is revisited to highlight the gap in knowledge that this research can fill.

Chapter 4 addresses the key philosophical and methodological perspectives of this study. The chapter starts with a discussion of the key research philosophies, including positivism and interpretivism. Then, this study introduces pragmatism and justifies its use in this study. The second section focusses on the methodological aspects of the study. Case study research is discussed in detail and its significance to this study. The next section introduces the research design and discusses the mixed methods in detail, arguing their relevance in this study.

Chapter 5 forms the second part of the discussion on research methodology. This chapter focusses on the methods used to collect data for this study. The chapter also introduces the key target for this study and a justification for the selection of the participants in qualitative and qualitative data collection processes. Sampling methods for qualitative and quantitative

approaches are discussed, including how they are used in the study. The chapter provides details on how data were collected and how the challenges encountered during data collection were overcome. The chapter ends with a discussion of how data collected from qualitative and quantitative sources were analysed.

Chapter 6 presents the study findings from quantitative data, including the testing of the reliability and validity of the questionnaire used in the study. In this section, the respondents of the study came from the middle-ranked officers of the DPF (from Captain to Warrant Officers). This chapter then presents the analysis of the demographic data gained on the respondents using SPSS version 24. The chapter presents the description and inferential data. The presentation is performed using tables and graphs, including explanations of the findings.

Chapter 7 presents the findings from the qualitative phase of the study. Data for this phase were collected from senior leaders in the DPF. In this case, senior leaders are defined as individuals who led key departments that have several responsibilities and manage many teams in their departments. The findings are presented on the basis of the five key themes that were merged from the data, including leadership culture, understanding transformational leadership, the influence of transformational leadership on performance, knowledge sharing and employee innovation as well as the challenges of transformational leadership in the DPF.

Chapter 8 discusses the study findings. The chapter begins with an overview of mixed methods data integration and how qualitative and quantitative data were integrated. Then, the discussion is done based on the study objectives. Despite a distinction between qualitative and quantitative objectives, some of them were discussed using qualitative and quantitative data. Some of the qualitative data were relevant to the quantitative objectives. This chapter concludes with the implications of this study.

Chapter 9 is the concluding chapter of this thesis. This chapter summarises the research findings relating them to the study objectives. The chapter also presents the study's contributions to the literature and its implications for practice. The chapter highlights the limitations of the study and provides suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Conceptualisation of Leadership

2.1. Introduction

Leadership has developed into a major academic field, and the past few decades have witnessed a dramatic increase in the development of several theories aimed at explaining leadership. This study aims to understand the application of transformational leadership in the DPF. This chapter is the first to analyse the literature on leadership, with a particular focus on transformational leadership theory in policing organisations.

The search process for this study was based on eligibility criteria established in the early stages of the research using keywords. The criteria included three items, namely, databases, keywords and search strings. This approach helped identify, locate and retrieve sources needed to address the research problem. I selected keywords that reflected the research problem. I initially identified keywords including *leadership* and *contemporary leadership theories*. As the search progressed, further keywords were identified, such as transformational leadership, leadership in public organisations, leadership in policing organisations and policing organisation culture. The search was initially conducted using Google Scholar, and this was expanded to include databases, including *Scopus*, *Web of Science* and *PsycINF*. These databases were chosen because they offer comprehensive coverage of scholarly articles and research in leadership studies.

The chapter starts by discussing the definition of leadership and the debates surrounding the definition of leadership. Then, the chapter discusses key leadership theories, which are categorised as traditional and contemporary leadership theories. Under traditional leadership, trait, behaviour and contingency leadership, the chapter then discusses contemporary theories, including servant, participative, transactional and transformation leadership approaches.

2.2. Leadership

The concept of leadership has received wide recognition in the social science field although it is new compared with other social science disciplines. This concept is one of the most researched fields (Avolio et al., 2003; Derue et al., 2011; Asrar-ul-Haqa & Anwarb, 2018). Some commentators observed that one of the reasons for the continued interest in leadership is that it is a key driving force for the organisation to achieve its goals (Yukl, 2013; Dansereau et al., 2013). Northouse (2025) observed that the concept of leadership is defined in many ways without a universal definition being agreed upon. Yukl (2013) and Northouse (2025) further

observed that the concept has been subjected to and characterised by a variety of frameworks, meanings and definitions based on the perspectives of people studying it to understand leadership. Thus, Vroom and Jago (2007:1) observed that '*The term leadership is ubiquitous in common discourse; politicians claim it, organisations seek it, and the media discusses it to excessive degree*'. Vroom and Jago (2007) also argued that despite the number of definitions being attributed to leadership, they are all considered aspects, such as personality, influence, position and responsibility.

Yukl (2013: 7) noted that leadership is *a process of one person influencing others not only to understand but also to agree on the tasks to be done and how to do them*. The emphasis is on influence, which refers to a leader facilitating individual and collective efforts to achieve common goals. Similarly, Northouse (2016) also defined leadership as a process of influencing others that could involve individuals or groups to agree to accomplish common goals. Moreover, according to Schein (2010), a process through which an individual (leader) exerts influence on others (the followers), leadership influences the nature and direction of a group's activity.

All the above definitions have noticeable common attributes. Firstly, all of the three definitions (Schein, 2010; Yukl, 2013; Northouse, 2021) referred to leadership as a process. Thus, leaders do not only exert influence on their followers, but leaders are also affected by the followers positively or negatively. Therefore, Rowe and Guerrero (2011) stressed that leadership is not a one-way traffic where the leader affects the followers. Rather, it is two-way, with interactions and transactions between the leader and the followers. Therefore, each party has an effect on the other.

From the definitions, the second attribute is influence in leadership, that is, an individual's ability to influence others to agree on what to do. Influence in leadership means that the leader has the ability and skills to affect the followers' behaviours and characters. Vroom and Jago (2007) noted several processes through which influence can occur, whereas Rowe and Guerrero (2011) observed that in leadership, individuals can influence not only subordinates and peers but also their superiors. Influence is a key attribute of leadership because, without it, there is no leadership. However, Vroom and Rowe (2007) argued that the definitions of leadership mention influence but not the processes by which the influence occurs. Therefore, the influences could be rewards as a motivation for accomplishing the task or inspirational appeals. They could also be threats or well-reasoned arguments. Therefore, there is a variety of

processes though which the leaders could influence the followers (Rowe & Guerrero, 2011). Vroom and Rowe (2007) observed that a consequence of collaboration between the leader and the followers working together to achieve a shared goal is necessary for effective leadership to occur influence.

Thirdly, leadership can only occur with the existence of a group of people to be influenced, that is, leadership influences others with whom they are engaged in achieving a shared goal. Therefore, leadership involves giving guidance and directions to a group of people to accomplish tasks. Leaders focus on inspiring their followers' strengths and energies to achieve a shared goal. Therefore, leadership affects contexts in which individuals are going in the same direction to achieve shared goals.

Another definition recognised in this study is that of Gardner (1990: 38), who defined leadership as '*the accomplishment of group purpose which is furthered not only by effective leaders but also by innovators, entrepreneurs, and thinkers; by the availability of resources; by questions of value and social cohesion*.' Gardner's (1990) definition indicates that leadership is broader, and it challenges the notion that leadership is the domain sole appointed person. Instead, leadership is teamwork to achieve shared goals as a group, where each member has a contribution to make. However, someone must guide and set the direction and motivate the group to move forward together with other great thinkers and workers, including the availability of the right resources and the social make-up of the group (Horner, 1997).

Manz and Sims (1991) provided another notable definition and offered a more flexible and inclusive approach using the expression of 'SuperLeadership'. Manz and Sims (1991:18) challenged the idea of leadership as one person executing everything for the others. Rather, they proposed another view, arguing that the most effective leaders are those who led their followers to maximise their potential. Manz and Sims (1991) posited that each person in the group is a leader in their capacity and thus leadership is not confined to a single appointed leader. Therefore, good leaders are those who devote their time to developing and facilitating individuals to lead themselves. Leaders are those who can tap into the potential of their followers, inspire creativity and innovation, develop new knowledge and lead to high productivity of individuals and the group in general (Sayaddi, 2019).

From the different views on leadership, evidently, the meaning of leadership has shifted from the traditional belief that leadership is the domain of one appointed individual and the rest of the group are mere followers doing what they are told to do. Leadership is defined as the ability

to inspire and motivate individuals in the group to harness their potential to achieve organisational goals. These views are traditional leader-centric approaches and contemporary theories that view leadership as a dynamic and reciprocal process within a group of people pursuing a similar goal (Komives, 2011). In this study, leaders are individuals who exercise leadership, whereas those who perform and with whom leadership is exercised are referred to as followers. Both parties are essential for leadership to occur.

2.3. Traditional and Contemporary Theories of Leadership

At least four theoretical perspectives, namely, the trait, behavioural, situational and emerging theories, have been used to study leadership (Gordon, 2002; Benmira & Agboola, 2021). The first three approaches represent traditional theories, whereas the last approach represents contemporary theories. This section reviews each of these approaches to leadership.

2.3.1. Traditional Theories of Leadership

Historically, scholars have attempted to understand and explain leadership using theories. In the 19th century, Thomas Carlyle proposed the Great Man theory to explain leadership by looking at the characteristics of some of the great leaders at that time (Khan et al., 2017; Nasibullah, 2023). The theory postulated that some individuals were leaders because they possessed greatness and divine destinies. Some commentators debated and rejected the Great Man theory, labelling it unscientific. However, this theory laid the foundation for other theories to emerge, looking at leadership through the lens of traits, behaviour and context (Northouse, 2016; Nasibullah, 2023). Nasibullah (2023) noted that these theories develop with the traditional orthodoxy of scientific methods. As Northouse (2016) highlighted, the theories developed with the orthodoxy derived from positivist traditional perspectives. The discussion below focusses on the three traditional approaches to leadership.

2.3.1.1. Trait Theory of Leadership

According to Yukl (2013), trait theory is one of the earliest approaches to understanding leadership. This approach postulated that leaders are born; therefore, the theory focused on understanding the specific traits and skills that are common amongst effective leaders. This approach was popular in the 1930s and 1940s, evolving from the Great Man theory, which dominated the views of leadership in the 19th century (Swanwick, 2019; Benmira & Agboola, 2021).

The trait approach assumes that physical, personal and mental attributes are inherent. Therefore, the early theorists focused on identifying particular characteristics associated with great leadership. (Dugan, 2024; Northouse, 2025) The argument then was that leaders possessed particular traits, which could not be found amongst followers. These traits could be identified amongst individuals who could potentially become leaders (Horner, 1997; Ayaz et al., 2024; Northouse, 2025). Trait theorists believe that leadership is just for a few rare people who have a set of unique attributes and characteristics that make them effective leaders. They drew their conclusion based on some of the historical leaders, such as Mahatma Ghandhi, Napoleon Bonaparte and Otto Von Bismarck, who shaped world history. The assumption was that these individuals were natural-born leaders with particular attributed and leadership skills that made them great leaders, which left a mark in the pages of history (Benhima & Agboola, 2021).

Some commentators reviewed the traits approach to leadership with scepticism and argued that this theory ignored the situational and environmental factors essential in determining the effectiveness of leaders (Horner, 1997). House and Aditya (1997) observed that many leadership scholars argued that searching for universal traits is almost impossible. Bass (1990) conducted a metanalysis of the leadership literature and identified 43 separate traits examined by these studies.

Bass and Stogdill (1990) examined desirable leadership traits and concluded that the best traits include self-confidence, the ability to take initiative and the ability to influence others. Roberg et al. (2002) added to this list by observing that effective leaders are task-oriented and problem-solvers and possess good organisational skills. They are driven and pursue goals with vigour and persistence, and they are ready to take responsibility and accept the consequences of their actions. However, Yukl (2013) observed that research on leadership traits produced little consensus on the key qualities of effective leadership and identified a lack of attention to mediate factors in the casual chain that could provide explanations on issues such as group performance.

The trait approach to leadership focusses on individual leaders' traits and skills that they exhibit. This theory does not propose principles that leaders need in particular situations or what leaders do in certain circumstances (Germain, 2012). Instead, trait theory points out that individuals with certain traits tend to be effective leaders. Therefore, the leader's personality is key to the leadership process (Zaccaro, 2007; Colbert et al., 2012; Northouse, 2016).

Furthermore, trait theory focusses on key characteristics of effective leadership. However, this theory does not provide the grounds to establish if these traits and skills are intrinsic to individuals or if they can be developed through training (Colbert et al., 2012; Holsinger & Carlton, 2018; Benmira & Agboola, 2021). Benmira and Agboola (2021) noted that no consistent or agreed-upon set of traits existed, and this approach was abandoned.

2.3.1.2. Behavioural Approach to Leadership

Harrison (2008) observed that the shortcomings of the traits approach in determining the actual traits of an effective leader and the criticism levelled at this approach led to the emergence of the behavioural theory of leadership. Benmira and Agboola (2021) noted that the behavioural theory of leadership was the most dominant in the 1940s and 1950s. This approach evolved from the trait theory. However, as the traits theory posited that leaders are born, the behavioural approach asserted that leaders were made and they have to learn certain behaviours to be more effective (Johns & Moser, 1989; Uslu, 2019).

The argument for the behavioural approach was that a leader's effectiveness does not depend on their traits or characteristics; instead, it depends on their behaviours, which, in essence, can be acquired though training and coaching (Yukl, 2012). As Goff (2003) observed behaviours are not innate, they can be learned; therefore, effective leaders can be trained. Some key behaviours, such as communicating with followers, effective planning, decision-making and delegation, can be acquired through training and coaching. Behavioural theorists in leadership believe that good behaviours engender success not only for the leader but also for the group. Therefore, the leader is not a unique human being as the trait theory suggests; instead, the leader is part of the group, and the leader's success depends on his/her behaviour and the relationships he/she cultivates with the followers (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Northouse, 2016), and most importantly, these behaviours can be learned (Yukl, 2012, 2013).

Thus, according to Goff (2003), leadership behaviours can be acquired through experience, and effective leaders can be trained. Yukl (2012) observed that several studies were conducted to determine the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of leaders and behavioural differences. The most noted studies were Kurt Lewin et al. at Michigan University and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Diagram Model (Linda et al., 2002; Uslu, 2019). As observed by Daft et al. (2010) and Derue et al. (2011), these studies were greatly oriented towards leadership relationships with the followers and the impacts on tasks.

According to Harrison (2018), Michigan University studies led by Kurt Lewin proposed three types of leadership styles, relating them to leaders' behaviours. These included the autocratic leadership style, which was job-oriented, and the leaders were greatly interested in completing the task using their methods. Therefore, they told the followers what needed to be done and how to do it. Secondly, for the democratic leadership style, which was focused on relationships, the leaders' behaviours were more oriented towards developing relationships and encouraging followers to participate in the decision-making process. Lastly, in the laissez-faire leadership style, the leader does not interfere nor intervene in the activities of the followers (Harrison, 2018).

The behavioural approach emphasised the actual behaviours that the leaders exhibited and not their traits. However, similar to the trait theory, this approach also ignored the situation and the environment of the leader (John & Moser, 1989; Northouse, 2016; Benmira & Agboola, 2021). One of the criticisms of the behavioural theory was similar to the trait theory, where important inconsistencies in the various studies were observed (Campbell, 2012; Northouse, 2016). Secondly, Harrison (2018) and Barling (2014) noted that behavioural theory did not consider situational factors in its attempt to describe leadership. Furthermore, Gill (2012) argued that when examined, all the behavioural theory studies obtained similar conclusions, for instance, Kurt Lewin's study at the Michigan University demonstrated that effective leadership is employee-oriented. Moreover, another study by Iowa University indicated that democratic leadership is the most effective (House & Aditya, 1997; Gill, 2012). However, Yukl (1989) noted that the effectiveness of leadership can be affected by several situational factors, such as the cultural values of the leader and the employees and the level of the leader's acceptance by the followers. The behavioural theory proponents did not consider all these factors.

2.3.1.3. Situational/Contingency Theory of Leadership

The failure of the trait and behavioural theories to explain the situation in leadership led to two other leadership theories that focused on the situation—situational and contingency theories of leadership (Uslu, 2019). The contingency theory attempted to fill the void left by the trait and behavioural theories, such as the failure to consider the situational and environmental factors affecting leadership (Harrison, 2018). The contingency and situational theories are similar to a certain extent because both focus on the importance of situations. The key difference is that situational leadership theory implies that leaders must adapt their leadership styles based on

the existing situation, whereas contingency leadership theory indicates that the leadership style must match the right situation (Tsolka, 2020).

Fred Fiedler first proposed the contingency theory of leadership in 1958 and proposed that successful and effective leadership is possible when leaders control the situation (Miner, 2005). This approach is relevant when we consider Pasmore's (2015) observations that organisations in the 21st century operate in a constantly changing environment. The basis of contingency theory is that no optimal leadership style exists under all circumstances owing to the dynamism of the ever-changing business environment. Therefore, effective leaders will use different leadership styles based on what works best in different situations within the organisation (Vidal et al., 2017; Shala et al., 2021). McCleskey (2014) further observed that the contingency theory emphasises the flexibility of the leader to work within the organisation's changing environment. Effective leaders are those who are sensitive to the current situation and adapt to deal with the existing problem.

Gill (2012) noted that the contingency theory of leadership indicated that although an individual may be an effective leader in certain situations or environments, the same individual may not be able to lead in other situations or environments. Fiedler (2006) argued that a particular leadership style may be successful in one situation in the past but may not be effective in the current situation. Factors such as changes in employees' expectations, cultural factors and changes in political leadership have all rendered autocratic leadership irrelevant in the 21st century, but it was considered effective leadership in the 20th century.

Kraft (2018) identified several factors that require leaders to change their leadership style, including personal, community and structural characteristics of the organisation, as well as the experience of the leader and followers and the organisational goals. Therefore, the proponents of contingency theory argue that effective leadership is function and leadership behaviour and the environment provides the basic ingredients of this function (Uslu, 2019).

According to Fiedler (2006), the leader–follower relationship is key to the contingency theory of leadership. He attempted to understand effective leadership and identified three particular conditions in terms of the leader–follower relations—good, moderate and poor (Stroh et al., 2001). When the relationship is good, the position of the leader is very strong, and the followers are well-motivated. However, if the relationship is poor, then there is less planning, the position of the leader is weak and the followers are less motivated. When the relationship is moderate, there is some planning, the leader's position is moderate and the motivation is average. All

these conditions indicated different situations of leadership. Fiedler (2006) posited that leadership behaviours are hard to change and situations need to adapt to the leader's behaviour through training.

Leadership scholars also criticised the contingency leadership theory. For instance, Northouse (2016) observed that the theory does not provide a valid explanation for why leaders with particular leadership behaviours are only effective in certain situations. McCleskey (2014) also argued that the theory does not provide solutions to the organisation if a mismatch exists between the leadership style of an individual and the situation in the organisation. A direction on how organisations can adapt leaders to different workplace situations should be provided. One outcome of contingency leadership theory was Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership approach.

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory indicates that optimal leadership can be effective for certain levels of followers' maturity (Thompson & Vecchio, 2009). In the subsequent updates of the Hersey–Blanchard situational leadership theory, the maturity aspect was added to relation- and task-oriented behaviours. The maturity levels of the followers may determine the leadership style that is most likely to have great results. These levels will also dictate the level of power that the leader will need to influence behaviour (Hersey et al., 1979; Silverthorne & Wang, 2001; Daft et al., 2010). Hersey et al. (1979) further described the relationship between the leader and followers, arguing that when the maturity level of the followers is low, the leader demonstrates a higher task structuring. However, as the maturity levels of the followers increase to moderate and high levels, the leader should demonstrate less structuring (Uslu, 2019).

The Hersey–Blanchard situational leadership theory proposes four situations based on maturity levels and how leaders should behave (Hersey et al., 1979; Uslu, 2019). Firstly, a very low maturity level of the followers would benefit from a 'telling' style of leadership. Secondly, a moderately low level of maturity would benefit from a 'selling' style of leadership. Thirdly, a moderately high level of maturity would do well with a 'participating' style of leadership. Lastly, high levels of maturity would benefit from a 'delegating' style of leadership (Hersey et al, 1979). In the situational leadership model, it is anticipated that the followers' readiness for self-direction would be the critical and most relevant aspect in determining the optimal leadership style.

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory had a few strengths. For instance, this theory was more practical compared with the traits and behavioural approaches, where it was applicable in several organisational settings, perhaps that is why it withstood the test of time (Graeff, 1983; Yukl, 1989). Northouse (2016) observed that situational leadership with its maturity dimension emphasised flexibility in leadership. This case encourages the leader to take time to learn further about the followers' needs and then adapt the appropriate leadership style according to the situation. Lastly, situational leadership theory laid the foundation for leaders to treat each employee as an individual based on the task at hand to find ways to develop the followers' skills and confidence (Yukl, 2013; Northouse, 2016).

Thompson and Vecchio (2009) observed that situational leadership theory was widely criticised for its failure to develop empirical support despite gaining substantial recognition in management training (Yukl, 2013; Northouse, 2016). Thompson and Vecchio (2009) argued that ascertaining the principles of situational leadership theory even after receiving a few updates from the various manifestations, is exceedingly difficult although it may possess an intuitive appeal.

2.3.2. Contemporary Theories of Leadership

Section 2.3.1 focused on the traditional theories of leadership, including trait, behaviour and contingency leadership approach. As Winkler (2010) noted, these theories were criticised for having inadequate perspectives that do not address the reality of leadership. Traditional leadership theories assume that leadership is unidirectional, and the leaders are presumed to be individuals with particular traits and behaviours that differ from those of their followers. Traditional theories also conceptualised the leader as a unique human being with the ability to influence the followers to complete tasks. Furthermore, leadership was viewed in terms of formal hierarchy, the leader had all the powers and the roles of the leader and followers were well established. Parry and Bryman (2006) observed that traditional leadership research lacked clear empirical evidence on the influence of traits on leadership and the effectiveness of leadership owing to certain behaviours. Lastly, Chemers (1997) conducted a longitudinal study on traditional theories. The author concluded that traditional theories are simplistic and emphasise general traits and behaviours but fail to explain the dynamics of the leadership process (Chemers, 2000; Winkler, 2010; Yukl, 2013).

The genesis of contemporary leadership theories is credited to James MacGregor Burns' seminal work entitled '*Leadership*' published in 1978 (Stewart, 2006; Komives & Dugan,

2011). Burns' work reconceptualised leadership as a process of developing and empowering the followers. Komives and Dugan (2011) noted that the book laid the foundation for other theories to emerge that viewed leadership through an alternative lens despite elements of traditional leadership theories in Burn's work. Rost (1993) observed that contemporary leadership theories reflected the post-industrial, leadership paradigm reflective of the perspectives of the late 20th century leadership thinkers.

Winkler (2010) differentiated contemporary leadership theories from traditional theories and observed that the former brings about a different view of leadership as they approached its complex, ambiguous and dynamic process. Contemporary leadership theories recognise the complexity of leadership, the interrelationships amongst environmental factors, the role of diversity and organisational changes. Thus, contemporary theories conceptualised leadership as a complex social process (Korukonda & Hunt, 1991). Heller et al. (2017; Gardener et al., 2024) observed that leadership can only be seen through the logic and dynamics of the social system in which it is embedded because the changes in the social and organisational environment require a multifaceted approach in which leadership occurs.

Most contemporary leadership theories regard leadership as a process of interconnectedness and interactions (Hollander, 2008; Yukl, 2013). These theories recognised the conventional role of the followers as cocreators and collaborators, which are essential to the leadership process. The key theories discussed in this chapter include servant leadership and transactional and transformational leadership theories. The latter is discussed in more detail as it is the main focus of this study.

2.3.2.1. Servant Leadership Theory

Robert Greenleaf developed the servant leadership theory in 1970. This theory emphasises service to others, and the role of the organisation is to create an environment where people can develop to become better leaders (Wang et al., 2018; Eva et al., 2019). Scholars and practitioners who felt that traditional theories of leadership had given leaders too much power to the extent that leaders had become self-centred welcomed the servant leadership concept. Therefore, servant leadership theory seemed like a viable approach that could help organisations meet the challenges of the ever-changing world (Spears, 2005; Bass & Bass, 2008).

Rachmawatia and Lantu (2014) observed that Greenleaf's servant leadership was a strong leadership paradigm, arguing that leaders should be selfless and lead beyond their interests

rather than exercise power or exhibit expertise. Luthans and Avolio (2003) also argued that servant leadership helps organisations in creating opportunities for employees to grow. Compared with previous leadership theories such as trait and behavioural approaches concerned with organisational goals, servant leadership focusses on the growth of the followers and their well-being.

Servant leadership is problematic as the two terms making up the concept—servant and leaders—are oxymoron considering that leaders play different roles of serving and leading simultaneously. Serrano-Quijan (2020) argued that it may not be accepted that leaders are servants who led and serve simultaneously. From another aspect, the complementary role of leading and serving and their dynamic conceptual relationships have gained attention from practitioners and academics in the leadership field (Spears & Lawrance, 2002; Anderson & Martin, 2009; Liden et al., 2014). Burns (1978) also recognised servant leadership when he asserted that:

'Transforming *leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality...But transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral (italics in original) in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, thus it has a transforming effect on both'* (Burns, 1978:20)

However, Bass and Bass (2008) observed that servant leadership was more popular with practitioners even though it existed for four decades, and interest amongst leadership scholars was limited. Servant leadership has also gained recognition in the media, and some leaders have praised its impact on employee satisfaction and organisational performance (see, for example, Covey, 1998; Senge, 2006; Wheatley, 2005). The argument amongst scholars of leadership is that servant leadership as presented by Greenleaf is more of a way of life rather than a management tool. This notion may explain the little interest it gained from the academics. Most studies on servant leadership have focused on developing measuring tools and establishing theoretical models for future researchers to explore further the concept of servant leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008; Serrano-Quijan, 2020).

Servant leadership has some recognised aspects that organisations may encourage their leaders to emulate, such as open communication, building a community and employee growth. Despite this, servant leadership has received criticism over the years, particularly from feminist scholars and the black community. For instance, Eicher-Catt (2005) argued that servant

leadership promotes patriarchal leadership approaches. Marina and Fonteneau (2012) pointed out that servant leadership provides little attention to the history of black servants who were enslaved, oppressed and mistreated. The term servant associated with leadership as one concept is problematic and insensitive when associated with people who have suffered mistreatment at their workplace, such as women and people of colour. Furthermore, Langhof and Gueldenberg (2021) questioned the reliability of servant leadership in promoting ethical behaviours amongst leaders because it focuses on individual leaders and their followers and is not based on openly negotiated standards.

2.3.2.2. Participative Leadership Theory

Another leadership theory that falls under contemporary theories is participative leadership, also called democratic leadership (Xu, 2017). The participative leadership theory encourages followers to participate in the decision-making process. Goertzen et al. (2019) also noted that leadership in the post-industrial paradigm involves interactions between followers and leaders. The followers are no longer passive people waiting for someone—the leader—to decide what to do. Instead, they are active individuals willing to be involved in the leadership process. Rost (1993) observed that the interactions between leaders and followers constitute the leadership process, which is the fundamental principle of participative leadership theory.

Participative leadership theory indicates that decision-making occurs after consultations with the group. In other words, the leader engages the followers in decision-making whilst maintaining control (Grimm, 2010; Xu. 2017). According to Xu (2017), the participative leadership process starts with the leader identifying the decision situations, including assessing the importance of the decision, identifying the relevant individuals with the subject knowledge and setting the time for the whole team to meet. In the second step, the leader must be a facilitator who motivates and inspires the people to participate and contribute ideas and then looks for ways to build on these ideas (Mountford & Webb, 2009). Lastly, the leader collates all the suggestions and synthesises them to develop a solution.

However, participative leadership theory is not new. In 1930, Kurt Lewin of the Michigan University examined the behaviours of a leader. The study identified the participative leadership style and its importance to organisations in terms of interactions with followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Grimm, 2010; Toufighi et al., 2024). In participative leadership, the leaders do not dictate what is to be done; instead, they are facilitators of ideas, where information is shared with the followers to determine the most effective and practical decisions.

Grimm (2010) studied leadership in nursing and found that people involved in the decision-making process were likely to perform team functions and take individual responsibility (Xu, 2017)

Studies on participative leadership indicated that organisations that practised this type of leadership have job satisfaction, strong organisational commitment and improved employee performance as followers perceive their leader is willing to consult them on important issues (Iqbal et al., 2015). Locke and Anderson (2015) observed that participative leadership allows followers to buy into the organisational objectives, thereby nurturing loyalty, involvement and commitment to organisational goals. Jain and Chaudhary (2014) also noted that when people are involved in the decision-making process, they are highly committed to the decisions and work towards achieving the tasks that emerge from them. Xu (2017) noted that participative leadership provides a foundation for building trust in leadership, enhancing collaboration and developing strong relationships between leaders and followers.

However, participative leadership has also received criticism as it is argued that it is a slow decision-making process. Moreover, when an urgent decision is required, participative leadership may not be the best leadership style to use (Wang et al., 2022). Furthermore, using participative leadership alone may lead to low motivation. Therefore, Xu (2017) noted that leaders must employ the participative leadership style with either transformational or transactional leadership to achieve effective results.

2.3.2.3. Transactional Leadership Theory

Max Weber was credited with discovering transactional leadership theory in 1947, which received wide recognition from scholars in the last two decades of the 20th century (Jones, 2001). Whilst studying leadership styles, Weber identified what he termed '*legal rational authority'* that eventually became transactional leadership theory (Dinibutun, 2020). Regarding transactional leadership, Weber argued that followers should be motivated to be highly productive (Keeley, 1995; Northouse, 2016). As transactional leadership theory evolved with time, Burns (1978) argued that transactions must apply three principles, namely, honesty, morality and responsibility, to be effective leaders. He also stressed that the foundation of transactional leadership is the idea of giving and taking.

Howell and Avolio (1993) further enhanced transactional leadership theory by introducing the concept of active management. In this concept, leaders allow followers to work freely as long as no significant issues arise. They also introduced the idea of rewards, where employees who

perform beyond expectations are rewarded with praise and recognition with financial rewards. Positive and negative rewards are used in transactional leadership theory, where positive rewards, such as recognition, are offered to followers who work within the leader's guidelines and expectations, whereas negative rewards, such as punishment, are given to those who fail to meet the leader's expectations (Avolio et al., 2009). Harms and Crede (2010) observed that transactional leaders believe they maximise the positive experiences and minimise negative experiences at the minimum using the reward system. In this approach, followers are willing to behave as leaders expect them to do, to maximise their experience through positive rewards.

Bass et al. (1996) conducted extensive research on leadership theory and identified three dimensions of transactional leadership, namely, active and passive management by exception and contingent rewards. Contingent reward entails that leaders reward individuals who have exceeded others in their performance. This type of reward is founded on the idea that employees who perform exceptionally better than others should be rewarded. Leaders using contingent rewards have a prior agreement with followers on tasks to be achieved and reward employees when tasks are completed within the agreed timeframe (Bass & Riggio, 2006). From another aspect, when employees do not complete tasks within the agreed time limit, they receive negative rewards, which can lead to disciplinary action. Regarding active and passive management by exception, Birasnav (2014) observed that transactional leaders who pursue active management apply strict supervision of followers when carrying out tasks. In this way, they can identify and deal with problems as they arise. Meanwhile, in passive management, the leader gives the employee the freedom to work with minimal supervision and interferes when problems arise.

Transactional leadership focusses on motivating followers based on the leader's interest and appeals to followers through rewards. Studies on transactional leadership theory have revealed that this approach is more popular with mid-level leaders and not so much amongst the top leaders in organisations (Lowe et al., 1996; Sun & Anderson, 2012). Piertese et al. (2010) observed that the popularity of transactional leadership amongst mid-level leaders was more associated with management than leadership. Some commentators have argued that transactional leaders are intensely interested in wielding power. These leaders understand their position of power and use it to influence followers through rewards, thereby gaining popularity amongst managers but not with the leaders (Avolio et al., 2009).

Transactional leadership theory assumes followers are obeying orders and that followers are motivated by positive and negative rewards. The theory also assumes that followers lack self-motivation; therefore, they are closely supervised when performing and completing tasks (Yukl, 2013; Northouse, 2025). Transactional leadership is remarkably effective in certain situations in the organisation. For instance, Jaqua and Jaqua (2021) noted that transactional leaders are highly effective when the organisation aims to cut costs and increase productivity because they are highly action-oriented and tend to have a transitory relationship with followers. Transactional leaders focus on short-term goals and work within standard procedures and rules, and such leadership is greatly effective when problems are simple and well-defined.

Transactional leadership is associated with some of the iconic leaders of the 21st century, such as Hewlett Packard, who used reward and punishment to build an international computer company (Jaqua & Jaqua, 2021). Other commentators have also identified the benefits of transactional leadership to organisations. For instance, Mahfouz (2019) observed that an advantage of transactional leadership is that it is simple and easy to apply. The reason is that the leader's position and authority are clear and they can be used to award positive or negative rewards to improve individual employee performances. Furthermore, proponents of transactional leadership have argued that it relies on well-known, tested and proven ideas. For instance, individuals are willing to work beyond expectations for rewards whilst reducing habits that could lead to negative rewards (Brevaart et al., 2014; Russell, 2017).

Transactional leadership approaches are also helpful when decisions must be made urgently because leaders do not need to consult others; they make significant and urgent decisions promptly, saving time and completing tasks quickly (Mahfouz, 2019). Transactional leaders tend to achieve their goals using rewards to motivate performers and punishment to discourage laziness amongst followers. However, Riaz and Haider (2010) noted that transactional leadership does not develop people, particularly in the short run. The reason is that followers are not encouraged to think and be creative. They must obey the leader's directives; otherwise, they will be punished. Hence, the leaders bear all the responsibilities of ensuring that tasks are accomplished and organisational goals are achieved.

More criticism is levelled at transactional leadership. For instance, Pieterse et al. (2010) observed that transactional leadership assumes that all followers are rational and will understand a particular task has to be accomplished. However, Riaz and Haider (2010) noted that not all people are rational, assuming that they ignore essential factors such as the social

values of their followers, as well as emotions and their role in determining personal choices and their influence on performance.

Furthermore, the assumption that followers are solely inspired and motivated by rewards ignores individuals' willpower to resist despite the possibility of being punished (Mahfouz, 2019). Transactional leaders have minimal tolerance for people who oppose them or bring in new ideas; they use their position and authority to impose their will and silence followers' voices. However, Walumbwa et al. (2008) observed that this approach to leadership may not be practical when there is a shortage of highly skilled workers. Threats of punishment may push workers out in search of greener pastures. They further argued that in a rapidly changing business environment, transactional leadership may not be very effective because reliance on a few people to make decisions may slow the organisation's response to the new changes as the followers are not well equipped to deal with new ways of work (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Reliance on one or a few leaders may also affect the organisation because there is a high level of centralisation and followers cannot address emerging problems. Therefore, if the leaders decide to leave, the organisation may not replace them internally and may need to outsource a suitable candidate (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Zagoršek et al., 2009).

Transactional leadership theory provides benefits to the organisation. The 21st-century organisations need dynamic and robust leadership that can deal with the rapid business environment and emerging global business challenges. The idea that followers will be rewarded when they work so hard and punished when they fail may influence their performance and affect their motivation positively or negatively, depending on the reward. However, for long-term benefits to the organisation, some commentators have proposed a dynamic, transformational leadership approach (Bass, 1997).

2.3.2.4. Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership is credited to Burns, who first introduced the concept in his seminal work entitled 'Leadership' in 1978 (Winkler, 2010; Yukl, 2013). Winkler (2010) noted that Burns (1978) described transformational leadership theory as a process of high morality that encourages leaders and followers to work together to achieve shared goals. Transformational leadership theory posits that leaders influence their followers by enabling them to understand the significance of the task and appreciate the organisation's vision and goals. In addition, leaders convince followers to rise above their personal goals and incorporate their development needs with organisational goals (Bass, 1997; Gong et al., 2009; Yukl, 2013).

Winkler (2010) observed that when Burns, a political scientist, introduced transformational leadership, the main focus was political leaders. However, over the years, the concept of transformational leadership has expanded to other fields of leadership, as scholars and practitioners have attempted to use this leadership theory to unearth the potential of their employees to work beyond expectations. Burns' original ideas attracted much academic interest, and Bass (1985) expanded on Burn's idea by including a psychological angle to transformational leadership theory.

Transformational theory was further influenced by Bass and Stogdill (1990) and Bass (1998), who attempted to differentiate transformational leadership from transactional leadership theory, considering that both focus on how behaviours influence followers (Yukl, 2013). By contrast, transactional leadership theory emphasises using rewards to motivate followers. Bass and Riggio (2006, 2010) argued that transformational leadership inspires followers to surpass their expectations and even more than they thought they could. In return, this approach builds relations, trust, admiration and loyalty towards the leader and the organisation. Bass (1990, 1997) attempted to differentiate transactional leadership from transformational leadership theory. Bass and Bass (2008) observed that transactional leaders focus much on the existing rules and procedures and also strive to work within the existing structure of the organisation, whereas transformational leaders focus on shaping the organisational culture, vision and mission through inspiration and motivation of the followers to commit to the organisation's future.

Bass (1985) and Bass and Stogdill (1990) focused on transformational leadership's influence on followers' motivation and performance (Vecchio et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2012). According to Bass and Bass (2008), the first principle of transformational leadership is the influence of leaders on their followers. Transformational leaders engender loyalty, build trust and are admired by their followers; thus, followers tend to be more productive than before and enhance organisational performance (Moynihan et al., 2012). Vecchio et al. (2008) argued that such positive outcomes occur because of the conducive environment that transformation leaders create by offering their followers something to work for, which is better than personal interests. Bennett (2009) observed that, in addition to motivating and inspiring followers to believe in the vision and mission of the organisation, transformational leaders are also aware of their followers' goals and encourage them to move from lower to higher levels of development.

Bass et al. (1996) argued that transformational leaders motivate followers by building awareness and emphasising the significance of the outcomes of the task, convincing them to rise above their self-interest to focus on organisational goals and finally, activating their higher-order needs (Yukl, 2013; Deichmann & Stam, 2015). The leaders demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours by articulating the organisation's positive, shared vision, setting high expectations for the followers and stimulating their intellectual capabilities (Deichmann & Stam, 2015).

Vecchio et al. (2008) argued that transformational leadership theory, in its most ideal form, develops a positive attitude amongst followers, builds commitment to the organisation and transforms them into future leaders. In addition, the literature posited that when transformational leadership is well executed, the followers will be inspired and motivated, thereby enhancing their morale and improving their performance (Bass, 1990; Cossin & Caballero, 2013; Sun et al., 2017; Shafi et al., 2020). One way that transformational leaders can influence their followers is by acting as a role models, taking followers as individuals, not just a group and giving them a sense of identity (Garcıa-Morales et al., 2008; Winkler, 2010; Wang & Howell, 2012).

In transformational leadership theory, the leader influences absorptive capacity (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008; Mendez et al., 2018; Shafique & Kalyar, 2018; Zadeh et al., 2020). The absorptive capacity of organisations involves the development of the skills and competencies of followers for the absorption of explicit knowledge that could encourage innovation (Mendez et al., 2018). Van den Bosch and Van Wijk (2001) argued that leadership promotes the absorption of individuals and that injecting additional resources into research and development departments strengthens absorptive capacity.

Transformational leadership draws on intellectual capability, influences a positive learning culture and encourages creativity and innovation (Bass, 1999; Garcia-Morales et al., 2008). Transformational leaders are conscious of all the operational and strategic processes of the organisation, foster absorptive capacity and stimulate knowledge sharing and innovation in the organisation (Zahra & George, 2002). Transformational leadership also encourages tacit and explicit knowledge sharing amongst individuals, teams and the organisation at large (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008). Senge (2006) argued that tacit knowledge is more strategic and essential to an organisation as it could create a sustainable competitive advantage and improve employee and organisational performance.

Bass (1999) argued that transformational leaders inspire and motivate their followers through four areas: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Through these four dimensions, transformational leaders can develop cordial relationships with their followers and an understanding of their followers' personal goals. They also encourage followers to develop their intellectual capabilities and aim higher (Bass & Bass, 2008). Hay (2006) observed that transformational leadership can be understood by accepting the four dimensions, which have been confirmed through several empirical studies on leadership (Bass, 1999). The four dimensions are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

2.3.2.4.1. Idealised Influence

Idealised influence is one of the four dimensions of transformational leadership, as proposed by Bass (1985). Within idealised inspiration, followers admire transformational leaders and would like to emulate them. Avolio and Bass (1988) observed that transformational leaders are role models who instil a sense of pride in their followers and gain their trust and respect. Transformational leaders work with their followers, enabling them to resonate with them. Their followers admire them for their achievements and how they deal with people, including how they approach problems (Wang & Howell, 2012).

The idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership theory is more concerned with leaders building trust and confidence and being role models to their followers (Steinmann et al., 2018). Transformational leaders are admired, trusted and respected (Bass, 1999). The positive relationship they develop with their followers lays the basis for them to accept any transformational changes the leader proposes because the followers believe in their leader and are not likely to oppose the changes.

Through idealised influence, transformational leaders are also regarded as charismatic because they can develop themselves as individuals with great symbolic power that followers want to be associated with (Covin et al., 1997). Barbuto (2005) argued that charisma, which is defined as a leader's ability to generate symbolic power, is a key factor in transformational leadership theory. Nadler and Tushman (1990) observed that charismatic leaders tend to build strong admiration and respect for their followers, inspire their followers and are willing and ready to make changes and embody a model of identification. Charismatic leaders are strong and inspirational; thus, they can influence their followers and motivate them to achieve beyond expectations (Waldman & Mansour, 2009). Charismatic leaders ideally influence their

followers to identify with organisational goals by developing emotional attachment with the followers (Bass, 1985; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

2.3.2.4.2. Inspirational Motivation

The second dimension of transformational leadership is a leader's ability to inspire and motivate followers to not only work towards the organisational goals but also develop themselves. Transformational leaders articulate the vision of the organisation's future that appeals to and inspires followers (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Bakker et al., 2022). Steinmann et al. (2018) argued that followers must have a strong sense of purpose. Transformational leaders motivate their followers to achieve high levels of achievement. They talk enthusiastically about the organisation's future and clearly explain the significance of the task. Communication skills are crucial for transformational leaders. The leaders can articulate powerfully and precisely the organisation's vision to followers through effective communication, showing them an optimistic future for the organisation.

Transformational leaders must have a good understanding of their followers' goals, be able to engage in activities that bring them out and then motivate them to work towards achieving a common goal to influence their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Monje-Amor et al., 2020). Gooty et al. (2009) observed that transformational leaders who focus on motivating their followers by setting high and interesting goals and articulating a positive future of the organisation are employing inspirational motivation in their leadership. Transformational leaders clearly explain the tasks at hand and their significance to their employees. Bakker et al. (2022) observed that transformational leaders who are visionary motivate their followers by ensuring that all parties understand the vision of the organisation. The leader and followers must have a purpose to encourage the followers to perform beyond what is expected of them (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

McCleskey (2014) argued that transformational leaders employing the inspirational motivation dimension influence the behaviour of their followers by making them feel that they have a purpose and challenging them to work towards a common goal. The leader encourages team spirit and develops enthusiasm and optimism amongst followers by communicating a glowing vision of the future (Gomes, 2014). The leaders also align organisational goals with the followers' individual interests to inspire and motivate them.

2.3.2.4.3. Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is the third dimension of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders challenge their followers to question the existing assumptions, take risks and devise ways of completing tasks (Sarro et al., 2008). When leaders use this approach, they not only stimulate and inspire their followers to be highly creative and innovative in approaching their daily tasks but also empower them to come up with new solutions to existing problems (Wang & Rode, 2010). Transformational leaders encourage followers to approach issues from different angles, think out of the box and be creative when solving problems (Bass, 1990; Bass, 1999). They clearly understand their followers' strengths and competencies and challenge them to push their abilities to develop new ways of working. This is achieved through the provision of a conducive environment that promotes creativity and innovation. Transformational leaders encourage their followers to be critical thinkers and independent and give them the freedom to develop new ideas (Bai et al., 2016; Tse et al., 2018; Mudd-Fegett and Mud, 2024).

Transformational leaders encourage their followers to ask questions and work either independently or in groups to develop better and novel methods of task management (Bass & Bass, 2008). The followers develop into independent critical thinkers and take on the responsibility of finding solutions that could enable their team to thrive. Transformational leaders who encourage intellectual growth and engender flexibility not only in their teams but also in the entire organisation can respond to changes in the internal and external environment. Shared knowledge is encouraged, which helps organisations obtain solutions faster and reduces bureaucracy as new ideas are generated from the bottom-up (Sarros et al., 2008).

2.3.2.4.4. Individualised Consideration

Individualised consideration is a key attribute of transformational leadership. The leader recognises that each of the followers is an individual with personal goals. The leaders, therefore, set out to understand the individuals in the team, identify their strengths and weaknesses individually and provide training to enhance their strengths and develop their personalities (Northouse, 2016). Sarros et al. (2008) advised that transformational leaders should interact closely with their followers to understand their individual goals, unique personal needs, aspirations and problems that may affect their performance. They should also develop their abilities and unlock their potential (Tucker & Russell, 2004). The leader acts as a mentor and coach to the followers, provides emotional support and encourages open communication to help individuals harness their full potential (Winkler, 2010).

Transformational leaders help their followers develop positive behaviours, motivate them to be optimistic and encourage them to be high achievers (Wang & Howell, 2010, 2012). Transformational leaders who show genuine interest in the development of their followers are trusted and have the opportunity to develop positive relationships with them. People are greatly productive when they trust their leaders, as they will develop the will to do better and aspire to higher positions. They will be highly motivated to complete their tasks, thereby increasing productivity. Transformational leaders have self-awareness and a high degree of emotional intelligence; hence, they do not need to use power to complete tasks, and they focus on developing relationships that benefit them, their followers and the organisation at large (Bass & Bass, 2008).

2.3.2.5. Critique of Transformational Leadership Theory

Charismatic and transformational leaders are visionary and inspirational, and they appeal to the ideological values and intellectual stimulation of their followers (Barbuto, 1997; Diaz-Saenz, 2011). However, some commentators have criticised the charismatic element of transformational leadership. For instance, Hay (2006) argued that charismatic leaders may abuse their power. They tend to appeal to the emotions of the followers and gain their trust and respect, but some leaders may possess narcissistic tendencies and abuse their powers by manipulating their followers, particularly those with dependent characters who believe in everything the leader does, even if it is affecting their well-being (Pawar, 2003; Hay, 2006). Bass (1999) observed that no checks can deter charismatic leaders from manipulating their followers for selfish reasons. Hence, some commentators noted that strong moral values of honesty, fairness, justice and the willingness to work for the betterment of the people are crucial to achieving an authentic transformational leader (Bryant, 2003; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter discusses leadership and how it has developed from a narrow view that is leader-centric, which focused on traits and behaviours, to a process that relies on the relationship between the leader and followers. This chapter has also discussed the traditional leadership theories, particularly the trait, behavioural and contingency approaches to leadership. In addition, contemporary theories have been discussed, focusing on servant leadership, participative, transactional and transformational leadership approaches. However, this study recognises that more leadership theories exist than those presented in this chapter, such as

leader–member theory and the role theory of leadership. The study focused on what are considered relevant leadership theories for this thesis.

This study focusses on transformational leadership within the DPF. Therefore, the next chapter focusses on leadership in policing organisations and leadership in the Arab world.

Chapter 3: Leadership in Policing Organisations

3.1. Introduction

Chapter 2 introduces the concept of leadership, focusing on key theories. This chapter discusses some of the major traditional and contemporary theories of leadership. This chapter is the second part of the literature review, discussing leadership in public organisations. The main focus is on the leadership in policing organisations. However, as policing organisations seem to be a part of the public sector, discussing leadership in public organisations in general before focusing on policing organisations makes more sense.

In the 21st century, globalisation has become normal, and the interdependence of economies has increased, which has heightened competitive forces. Issues such as downsizing and high operating instability are very common in the public service sector. In this case, leadership is crucial as organisations adapt to the ongoing challenges. Concerning private sector organisations, leadership is the key to implementing changes that lead to efficiency. Leadership in public sector organisations also needs to emulate the private sector to be efficient in their organisation.

The study is interested in transformational leadership in the DPF; therefore, this chapter discusses transformational leadership in policing organisations and how it affects the performance and perceptions of followers of transformational leadership in policing organisations.

3.2. Leadership in Public Organisations

Rosenbloom et al. (2022) observed that the public sector has defied a universally accepted definition. Organisations in the public sector can be understood as entities involved in the delivery of public goods and services. These organisations differ from those in the private sector in that the government has control over their corporate police and they are publicly funded to deliver services (Andersen, 2010; Hansen & Villadsen, 2010). Van Wart (2013) approached the public organisation leadership from an administrative perspective to define public sector organisations, which includes all the people at all levels of the organisation and the associated processes and networks that guide government agencies. Getha-Taylor et al. (2011) and Chapman et al. (2016) observed that leadership in public organisations includes the recognition of long-term consequences of policy actions, which are lead within the historical context of policies and provide a sustainable support strategic plan. However, for Ospina and

Foldy (2016), leadership in public organisations is a collective effort comprising policy elites, administrative leaders and elected officials.

Andersen (2010) observed existing debates on the challenges of public organisations that distinguish the public sector from the general management of private organisations. Despite similarities in the challenges that private and public sector organisations face, leaders in public organisations have to overcome distinctive challenges regularly (Hansen & Villadsen, 2010). Leaders in public organisations have to deliver within complex and varying performance criteria. Leadership in public organisations is characterised by goal ambiguity and complexity, and public sector leaders need to lead across and within a multitude of powerful professions in their organisations (Linsday, 2020).

Leadership in public organisations occur in a multidimensional system. The leaders are responsible for providing answers and solutions to several problems to create highly performing organisations (Diefenbach, 2009; Cristofoli et al., 2021). Van Wart (2013a) regard the leaders of public sector organisations as employees in the civil service with senior administrative positions. They are different from their counterparts in the private sector because they are entrusted with political and policy-making roles.

One of the challenges that public organisation leadership faces is that the leaders operate in a bureaucratic, self-serving environment. In this case, leadership is highly centralised, with authority coming from the top, and the leaders focus on maintaining the status quo (Pujiastuti & Darmadi, 2017). This form of leadership is considered effective in public organisations to avoid ambiguity and acquire rationality (Adler & Borys, 1996). However, Getha-Taylor et al. (2011) observed that public organisations operate in an environment with several stakeholders that have varying and sometimes conflicting values. Therefore, they face complex challenges. However, the literature argued that traditional bureaucratic leadership may not align with the 21st-century challenges of public administration (Getha-Taylor et al., 2011; Van Wart, 2016; Kettl, 2017).

Camilleri (2007) observed that organisations in the public sector have a specific structure that influences how employees work. The political associations in the government greatly control these organisations' strategic decisions, which are constantly scrutinised by the public. These political associations, rules and procedures on how the public sector organisations are led make these organisations highly controlled by the public and the government (Hansen & Ejersbo, 2002; Bozeman, 2007; Pesch, 2008; Rosenbloom et al., 2022). Moreover, the laws regulate the

operations of organisations in the public sector. Therefore, unlike organisations in the private sector, transparency in meeting the needs of the public is highly demanded (Pesch, 2008; Andersen, 2010).

Mendez and Avellaneda (2023) observed that public organisation leadership is complex and includes tensions, often contradicting goals between efficiency and responsiveness, preservation and change and self-interest and public good. This case highlights the complex and contracting demands that leadership in public organisations has to overcome (Ospina & Flody, 2016). Murphy et al. (2017) argued that owing to the complexity of public sectors, a leadership that balances public organisational practices to be aligned to the challenges of management is needed, including the adaptive practices required to respond to complex and dynamic situations.

Van Wart (2013a) observed that public sector leadership has followed the same trajectory to the leadership applied to the private sector. During the Great Man theory, leaders in the public service were appointed based on the images of successful political leadership. During the traits period, leaders were appointed based on their specific skills and traits (Bolden et al., 2003). The contingency period characterised the variables that leaders faced, such as cultural and structural effects and performance. Lastly, public service organisations adopt the transformational leadership theory, where leaders focus on an environment that nurtures creativity and innovation (Aziz et al., 2012). Aziz et al. observed that multifaceted theories of leadership practices influence leadership in public organisations.

Fernandez et al. (2010) observed that most leadership theories are generic and that they have not been developed considering the public sector organisation leadership. Villoria and Igelsias (2011) argued that the idea that leadership theories are developed for the private sector to be targeted to public sector organisations is erroneous. Public sector organisations have different objectives from those of the private sector; therefore, they cannot be managed in the same way. However, recent studies on public organisations have noted the importance of leadership and identified the key characteristics of public sector leaders (Villoria & Iglesias, 2011).

Fernandez et al. (2010) observed that the general leadership literature has new and innovative ideas on leadership that have emerged to address the new challenges of leadership, which may be appropriate to public organisations. Kellis and Ran (2013) identified leadership as promoting the core values of democracy in modern organisations, thereby enhancing the transformational focus. In addition, they found that recruiting, developing and retaining highly

skilled talent and encouraging a distributive nature of public office positions to characterise public service are some of the innovative ideas that should be incorporated in public leadership theory (Rosenbaum, 2007).

Kellis and Ran (2015) studied leadership in the public sector and found that the use of specific leadership behaviours has positive impacts on organisational effectiveness and performance. However, they observed some leadership approaches that were unsuitable for the public sector set up (Kellis & Ran, 2015). Leadership in public organisations is characterised by a sense of obligation, which influences the behaviours of individual leaders. Northouse (2016) observed that ethical theories are a crucial element of public organisation leadership, given the longstanding value tensions associated with public organisations. Leadership in public organisations has faced challenges with the dichotomy between bureaucracy and democracy, which often contrast each other (Villoria & Igelsias, 2011). Leadership in public organisations embraces the neutral competence value, efficiency, effectiveness and the economy (Getha-Taylor et al., 2011; Van Wart, 2014). In addition, public organisation leadership has embraced democratic values, including self-governance and public trust (Villoria & Igelsias, 2011; Vogel & Werkmeister, 2021).

Aziz et al. (2012) noted that understanding leadership characteristics is essential owing to the relationship between these characteristics and effective leadership of public sector organisations. This understanding is considered important because public sector leadership has not been regarded as a vital section of leadership in the Earley debates. The general belief was that, in practice, public sector leadership was less relevant, considering that the leader had a low level of control over the public service organisations' operations.

Samanta and Lamprakis (2018) observed that public organisation leadership started to receive recognition with the emergence of contemporary leadership theories, particularly in the debates on transactional and transformational leadership theories. Van Wart (2016) noted that public sector organisational leadership is gaining recognition for its practices that have a positive influence on individual and organisational performance, although the focus was on the differences in public and private sector leadership. Andersen et al. (2016) argued that public organisation leadership is not only different from the private sector in terms of corporate management, but it is also qualitatively different. Van der Voet et al. (2015) noted that understanding the complexity of leadership in public sector organisations is still limited.

Van Wart (2013) observed a growing recognition that leadership challenges and pressure in the public sector organisations are highly complex and specific to these organisations. Presently, public sector organisations have new leadership practices that focus on employee empowerment and satisfaction, including effectiveness (Villoria & Iglesias, 2011; Gul et al., 2025)). Public organisation leaders are perceived to be powerful but are also constrained by their organisational structural context. Public organisation leaders are powerful as they are responsible for determining the organisational processes that drive their followers to work towards a shared goal (Van Wart, 2013). However, Van Wart (2013) found that the organisational context constrains leaders, including working with strong trade unions and limitations to motivate and inspire their followers.

Rainey and Bozeman (2000) observed that powerful factors constrain leadership in public sector organisations, which is not observed in the private sector. For instance, leaders in public sector organisations do not have the ability to hire or terminate people for the efficiency of their organisation. The laws and regulations create a major obstacle in how people can be hired and greatly hinder leaders from terminating incompetent employees. Furthermore, the leaders do not have the power to buy or sell any product as these organisations have several rules that emphasise fairness and procedure or quality of service (Wilson, 1989: ix).

Tizard (2012) observed that in addition to the internal constraints associated with the political agenda of restructuring, reforms and budgetary issues, the current global context further challenges leadership in public organisations. Responding to these challenges requires leaders with a new set of skills and capabilities. Van Wart (2013) indicated that a different approach is needed, one in which public organisation leaders have to adopt private sector practices to overcome challenges faced by the public organisation leadership.

The public sector is wide and operates across industries with organisations that play important roles in the economy, such as the safety and security of the public (Rosenbloom et al., 2022). One of the key public sector organisations is law enforcement in the form of policing organisations. This study examines leadership in the policing organisations in Dubai, one of the emirates in the UAE. The following sections of this chapter focus on leadership in policing organisations.

3.3. Leadership in Policing Organisations

Focusing on policing leadership is essential for several reasons, particularly in the current global environment with diverse cultures and attitudes. Policing leadership needs leaders with

a global view, reinforced with ethical foundations that encourage efficiency in delivering policing services. This section discusses the literature on policing leadership. Pearson-Goff and Harrington (2013) provided a broad definition of policing as an act of enforcing laws and preventing and solving crimes, using legitimate force to promote the safety and security of the citizens and maintaining order. However, some commentators argued that several organisations, both in the private and public sectors, have undertaken these functions (Hunter, 1990; Prenzler & Ronken, 2001; Mawby, 2008; Newburn, 2008). For instance, Nalla and Newman (1990) observed that, in some countries, many government departments have a policing agency, such as the transport police, immigration police and tax police, amongst others.

Forst and Manning (1999) and Brodeur (2010) attempted to explain the difference between state-owned polices and other security organisations. They noted that in addition to other duties, such as protecting the public, the state police wield powers. Loftus (2010) further clarified the role of police from a governance perspective, emphasising that enforcing criminal law is only a small part of the police. Moreover, the noncriminal law duties, such as resolving minor conflicts and being the first responders to community disruptions, form a big part of the police, which is usually overlooked (Brodeur, 2010). Wright (2002) supported this notion, arguing that the role of the police has evolved to include a wide range of tasks that go beyond keeping law and order. Therefore, the duties of policing organisations are broad, including crime prevention and investigation, public reassurance, maintaining law and order and ensuring people's safety (Mawby, 2008; Newburn & Reiner, 2007; Mukherjee and Mathew, 2024).

Given that policing is a broad concept that goes beyond what the public does, Brodeur (2010) redefined policing. According to Brodeur (2010), the main function of the state police was legal lawlessness. He observed that:

'*Policing agents are part of several connected organisations authorized to use in more or less controlled ways diverse means, generally prohibited by statute or regulation to the rest of the population, in order to enforce various types of rules and customs that promote a defined order in society, considered in its whole or in some of its parts*' (Brodeur 2010: 130).

Approaching policing from the perspective of its power, Townsend (1993) argued that the police have many features that align with the military. For instance, the police and the military are structured in a bureaucratic hierarchy of ranks and are specialised in using force. Both organisations are founded on a command-and-control leadership style, where the subordinates

are not supposed to question their leaders' actions. However, Dunlap (2001) observed fundamental differences in the organisations' use of power. That is, in several countries, the police emphasise the use of minimal force when attempting to maintain law and order, whereas the military has to use force to subdue the enemy, including killing people—something the police, with a few exceptions, do not do.

This study, along with the discussion of policing in this chapter and throughout the thesis, focuses on state-sponsored policing organisations, particularly at the state and regional levels.

3.3.1. Police Culture

Charman (2017) observed that police culture is a complex phenomenon, consisting of elements that are implicit within the policing organisation but not yet visible to the public. Police culture is not the same as its structure; the former is more comprehensive and influenced by past events (Schein, 2010; Charman, 2017). Police culture is about values and the shared meaning of reality, in addition to the basic assumptions, norms, and common understanding (Schein, 2010). Moreover, police culture develops over time. As observed by Hatch (2001), the cultural dynamics, such as the symbols and the language, develop slowly and are eventually integrated into the organisation's practices. Therefore, culture influences and stabilises practice. Several commentators observed that police culture is strongly related to the mission of the police, which is symbolised by unwavering commitment and a spirit of collectivism (Paoline III, 2004; Workman-Stark, 2017; Filstad, 2022).

Policing is unique within the public sector (Mawby, 2008). Leadership in policing organisations is traditionally bureaucratic and is characterised by structures akin to paramilitary (Bruns & Shuman, 1988; Coleman, 2008). This notion is further emphasised by Vera and Koelling (2013), who argued that the police's organisational structure is built on military-style foundations with a top-down authoritarian model. That is, its structure demands obedience from the followers and assumes a superior/subordinate relationship. The police culture puts great emphasis on the rank structure and encourages strong and assertive leaders (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2014:224).

Studies on policing have analysed police culture in various ways and from diverse perspectives (Chan, 1996; Crank, 2004; Loftus, 2009; Bowling et al., 2016). Police culture has received recognition from academic and policy discussions (Bowling et al., 2016; Cockcroft, 2019). Some studies have approached police culture as a homogenous practice (Paoline III, 2003; Zhao & Hassell, 2005; Crank, 2014; Hameli, 2024). From another aspect, some studies argued

for the complexity of the culture, hinting at the variations in police officers' attitudes, changes owing to the new generation of police recruits, increase of policewomen and recruitment of university-educated officers (Chan, 1996; Bacon, 2013, Reiner, 2017).

Jerome. H. Skolnick is credited as one of the first people to theorise police culture in the first edition of his book *Justice Without Trial* (1966) (Cockcroft, 2020). Skolnick (2008) identified two key elements that shape police culture: danger and authority. These factors also influence the police officers' working personalities. Commentators such as Paoline III (2004) and Terrill et al. (2003) observed that police culture comprises a set of values and attitudes shared by police officers who collectively cope with the strains of their work environment. Terrill et al. (2003) further argued that the collective culture within the police and the tools applied to manage stress in the workplace may be related to the use of coercion within the police force.

Skolnick (2008) observed that the police have a discernible culture derived from the nature of the policing job, police behaviour and politics in the communities where the police operate. However, Skolnick also emphasised that despite the differences in cultures that influence policing organisations and changes in police culture, all policing organisations, regardless of the cultural background, have universal and stable features that do not change (Skolnick, 2008:35).

Filstad and Karp (2021) argued that leadership is influential in determining police culture. He theorised that at least three organisational styles within the police—the watchman, the legalistic and the service styles—influence police culture. Wilson (1989) stated that the watchman style emphasises maintaining law and order. This style is less aggressive as the goal is to focus on law enforcement activities to maintain peace in the community. Control over the ranks and file is less, and police officers have the most discretion. Next, the legalistic style emphasises the rule of the law, and everything has to be done by the book. This style is stricter and has only one standard, that is, the enforcement of the law. Police discretion is less as issues are resolved formally. Finally, the service style prioritises the needs of the community and deals with problems without differentiating between law enforcement and order maintenance (Wilson, 1989).

Manning (2006) reviewed two and a half decades of research on police culture and noted that occupational culture in the police is significant in shaping behaviours. Reuss-Ianni (1983) found two types of police cultures separating the leaders from the lower-ranked police officers, which she termed 'street cop and management cop'. The argument is that a clear demarcation

exists between the leaders and the police officers on the street owing to the quasi-militaristic nature of policing organisations. Policing leadership always relies on several policies and procedures to keep the street cops in line with the law. Although this approach brings about efficiency in the police, it has also led to uncertainty and delusion amongst police officers, thereby influencing their behaviour. Crank (2004) also observed that the police have an insular culture that is evident in all ranks, perpetuating a cultural mentality of 'us against them'.

The working environment of police officers, which is associated with danger, uncertainty and coercive authority, forms their occupational values and attitudes (Skolnick, 2008). How the police officers adapt to this environment shapes their culture. This police culture portrays the police as aggressive and tough-minded, whose primary role is to fight crime and enforce the law. This case may also lead to abuse of power, which will create tension between the police and the community (Paoline III et al., 2000; Hameli, 2024).

However, as argued by several commentators (see, for example, Paoline III, 2001; Crank, 2004; Terrill, 2014), these police cultures create barriers to police's efforts to detect and investigate nonviolent crimes, such as corruption and other misconduct (Paoline III et al., 2000). In recent decades, this cultural orientation has been challenged (Paoline III et al., 2000; Chappell and Lanza-Kaduce, 2010). Commentators, such as Skogan and Hartnett (1997) and Kelling and Coles (2017), called for new approaches to be adopted by the police. The response to these calls was the adoption of new frameworks, such as community policing and problem-oriented policing (POP) (Coleman, 2008; Chappell & Lanza-Kaduce, 2010).

Community policy is a response to the traditional reactive policing model, with its main goal being to build strong relationships with the community (Skogan & Hartnett, 2019). Some commentators have argued that no consensus has been reached regarding the meaning of community policing, but they agree on what it is not (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997). Community policing aligns with Wilson's (1978) idea of policing as a service because it rejects the idea that police are solely focused on law enforcement (Mastrofski et al., 1995; Miller & Hess, 2002). This approach encourages a proactive partnership between the police and the local community to identify and solve emerging problems. Many policing organisations globally have developed new initiatives, such as the implementation of community policing, to create a new culture of working with the people, thereby transitioning from an enforcement model to a service model (Cordner, 2014; Skogan & Harnett, 2019).

Other efforts that shape police culture include POP, a new policing approach that encourages policing organisations to identify, analyse and respond to factors that lead to crimes and then act on them as needed (Braga & Weisburd, 2006; Hinkle et al., 2020). POP is credited to Goldstein (1979), who challenged the police to abandon the reactive waiting for calls to deal with problems and adopt a more proactive approach. Goldstein (1979) argued that police need to capitalise on the new generations of police recruits who were highly educated with university degrees.

Cordner and Biebel (2005) observed that the POP framework empowers policing organisations to focus on the factors that lead to crime rather than focusing on incident-driven crime-prevention approaches. It is argued that policing organisations can develop interventions to prevent crimes by focusing on the factors that lead to crimes and disorder (Hinkle et al., 2020). Community policing and POP aim to integrate the police into the social fabric of the community (Goldstein, 1979).

This section provides a brief overview of the police and its culture, highlighting how the police culture has evolved from using coercive authority to building relationships with the community. This section also highlights how police culture has evolved from using enforcement models to adopting service-oriented models. This section focusses on leadership in the police. The next section focusses on leadership in policing organisations.

3.3.2. Traditional Views of Policing Leadership

In the last five decades, policing leadership models have gained considerable attention in the literature (Batts et al., 2012; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). Most of these studies attempted to understand policing leadership by focusing on those at the senior level using several leadership theories developed through business models. Traditional theories include traits, behavioural and situational theories, whereas contemporary theories include democratic and participative theories (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2011). These leadership ideas have progressed into transactional and transformational leadership theories over time, focusing on relationships and followers' empowerment (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2014; Sarver & Miller, 2014). Recent research on policing leadership focused on the influence of transactional and transformational leadership and their merits on policing, which are discussed in more detail in the later sections of this chapter.

Policing organisations in the public sector operate in a bureaucratic environment and function differently from private sector organisations (Hogget, 1991). However, the rise of globalisation

has created new challenges to policing organisations, pressuring leaders to not only focus on local problems but also have an international perspective and act expeditiously. In Western countries, this pressure is reinforced by constant media scrutiny (Reiss, 1992; Stenning & Shearing, 2015). In the current rapidly changing culture, policing is characterised by uncertainty and diversification of crime control problems (Ransley & Mazerolle, 2009). In the past, policing organisations were tasked to put more emphasis on well-known crimes and use reactive measures to respond to these crimes. New problems have become global and change rapidly; therefore, new leadership skills that foster innovation and flexibility are necessary for addressing the challenges faced by the police.

The leadership approach in policing organisations is linked to how their organisations are structured (Schafer, 2019). Batts et al. (2012) observed that policing organisations trace the origin of their leadership approaches to the industrial revolution. The most relevant then was the traditional autocratic leadership style. Policing organisations were structured similarly to the manufacturing plants, with top-down hierarchical authoritative leadership styles that clearly distinguished leaders from subordinates and exercised strict control over their subordinates' activities. This notion is emphasised by Davies and Silvestri (2020), who observed that policing leadership has been conceptualised through traditional leadership theories such as the trait theory. The trait theory characterised leaders as individuals who were born to lead. This theory focusses on individual characteristics and attributes, with behaviours being added later to these individual-centred principles (Benmira & Agboola, 2020).

The behavioural approach to leadership was suitable for policing organisation leadership because of its reliance on the quasi-military model (Schafer, 2019). The main argument for the behavioural approach is that leadership behaviours reflect a task orientation that focused on achieving objectives (Davies & Silvestri, 2020). Jermier and Berkes (1979) studied leaders' behaviours and the quasi-military models used in the police. They concluded that policing leadership using the behavioural approach may record success in tasks such as crime fighting. However, some of the practices of leadership in the police are not relevant to the current challenges and expectations.

Davis and Silvestri (2020a) observed that traditional leadership theories have been the dominant leadership discourse in policing organisations. Several studies on policing leadership emphasised the prevalence of behavioural leadership theories in policing organisations (Engel, 2001). The most important behaviours identified as indicative of effective leadership included

trustworthiness, integrity, decision-making and honesty (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Vito & Vito, 2015). Situational theories, which emphasise leadership adaptation to situational changes, have also been applied in the dynamic and complex environment of policing. For instance, Kingshott (2006) argued that leadership in policing originations must prioritise tasks depending on the situation. Proponents of the situational leadership theory in the police have argued that implementing community-oriented policing and problem-solving is appropriate (De Paris, 1997). In addition, the contextual characteristics of the behaviours affect how the police react. Policing organisations in areas with high crime rates may adopt a leadership style that differs from other areas with low crime rates (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Braga & Weisburd, 2010; Campbell & Kodz, 2011).

Although traditional leadership theories may have been effective in policing organisations, critics have identified at least two key issues when conceptualising leadership in policing organisations through these theories (Davis & Silvestri, 2020). For instance, traditional theories focus leadership on the individual, emphasising the individual's behaviour, characteristics and personality (Bolden et al., 2003; Davis & Silvestri, 2020). Leaders are assumed to be special human beings and are viewed as exemplary individuals with particular traits and behaviours, having the agility to adapt to contextual and situational factors. Policing leadership is often viewed through an individual-centric lens, focusing on particular skills, attributes and abilities that are believed to be possessed only by certain individuals. Therefore, they are privileged (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Filstad & Karp, 2021). For instance, in a study of police chiefs in the United Kingdom, Caless (2011) observed that the behavioural theories focusing on particular accessible behaviours greatly influenced policing leadership.

Batts et al. (2012) noted that although police adopted the leadership approaches of the industrial age, they did not follow the private sector in abandoning these autocratic, outdated leadership styles. In the latter half of the 20th century, organisations in the private sector realised the need to compete in global markets. This realisation forced them to abandon the traditional bureaucratic leadership models and seek new work structures that focus on flexibility, efficiency and profitability (Monteiro & Adler, 2022). Private sector organisations abandoned the traditional leadership approaches that emphasised hierarchy and used formal rules and procedures, but policing organisations did not. However, as Batts et al. (2012) noted, policing organisations of the 21st century have no choice but to change their leadership approaches considering the increasing use of technology and the emergence of a new generation of police officers.

The concepts of power and rank are necessary characteristics and features of policing leadership (Densten, 2003; Davis, 2020). Traditional leadership theories emphasise power and have a strong attachment to bureaucratic and hierarchical structures. This is prevalent in policing leadership, where a strong reliance on power relations exists within the policing leadership hierarchy (Adlam, 2002; Silvestri, 2007; Davis, 2020). Commentators have observed that in policing leadership, a dichotomy exists between leaders and their subordinates, where leaders are viewed as the initiators of actions; therefore, they are prioritised over their subordinates, who are considered passive recipients of instructions (Schafer, 2010; Davis, 2019).

Davis and Silverstri (2020a) argued that, in the police, there is an assumed understanding of the needs and interests of leaders and their subordinates. However, these assumptions fail to consider the tensions and negotiations in leadership. In policing organisations, issues such as centralisation of power at senior ranks, top-down communication through the chains of command and high respect for ranks are a norm (Adlam, 2002; Davis, 2018; Davis & Silvestri, 2020a). Relying on the traditional theories to understand policing leadership, we assume and accept the traditional bureaucratic and hierarchal power relations in policing leadership as normal. However, leaders in today's policing organisations need to respond to major changes in society and work in different environmental and situational factors where traditional bureaucratic power is no longer relevant (Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Batts et al., 2012).

Leadership in policing organisations is focused on getting results, and therefore, they are evaluated based on results. Leaders in the police force are often viewed as heroes with unique traits and behaviours that make them particularly effective in unstable environments. They are regarded as proactive and capable of managing uncertainty whilst delivering results (Stevenson, 2018; Davis, 2020). However, this leader-centric notion of leadership fails to consider leadership as dynamic and socially constructed (Davis & Silvestri, 2020). Davis and Bailey (2017) observed that leadership is viewed in simplistic terms, with a focus on one individual and categorised into typologies and dichotomies. This perspective failed to explore leadership as a complex phenomenon and contested social process that involves negotiating meanings and experiences. Filstad and Karp (2021) highlighted criticisms of the reliance on leaders-centric views of leadership. They called for a change in perspectives, focusing on the abstract notion of leadership from the sole domain of a few individual managers to processes and practices organised through interactions of people.

Davis (2020) argued that a fundamental rethink of the leadership structure that built on ranks, power and hierarchy is needed for policing leadership to become highly effective and efficient in the current dynamic and rapidly changing environment. There is now a call for policing leadership to reflect on their practices and how these are perceived by their followers (Davis, 2020). Furthermore, Rowe (2006) pointed out the urgent need for the leaders in the police force to work towards building the trust and legitimacy of their followers if any fundamental change is to occur within the police force. The issues of rank, power and authority need to be addressed if policing organisations are to change to meet the needs of the 21st century.

3.3.3. Contemporary Views of Policing Leadership

Practice and leadership studies showed that leadership is an exchange process involving at least two parties. Leadership is a transactional partnership between leaders and followers. The leader's main role is to identify the organisation's vision and objectives for the followers to implement. The leader will also clarify the objectives and provide directions on how to achieve them. The leader rewards the followers when they achieve the objectives, but when they fail to achieve them, the leader reviews and identifies the problem and ensures that past mistakes are not repeated. In the last three decades, two leadership theories have dominated leadership literature—transactional and transformational leadership theories. These two theories were a fundamental movement away from the traditional autocratic leadership theories of command and control as they redefined the leader–followers relationships.

Regarding policing organisations, the institutional and social nature of policing in the 21st century has transformed from mainly focusing on maintaining order and law enforcement to confrontation with international crimes and terrorism (Adlam & Villiers, 2003; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010). In addition to organised criminal enterprises and the effects of the new developments on providing safety and security, the rise of technology has also created new challenges for policing leadership (Adlam & Villiers, 2003; Green & Gates, 2014). Leadership in policing organisations has become highly demanding, implying that police leaders in the 21st century should have the skills to lead and motivate their followers (Schafer, 2010; Walsh & Vito, 2018). Moreover, policing leadership faces challenges in developing policing organisations with the skills and abilities to recognise and respond to global shifts, not only in culture but also in technology and how information is shared (Batts et al., 2012).

Police leaders work within organisations with a bureaucratic, hierarchical, controlling, stable and predictable structure when operating in an unpredictable and dynamic environment, which

requires more relational and independent practices (Aarset & Glomseth, 2019). Filstad et al. (2020) noted that policing leadership is about getting a balance between these conflicting logics and creating a leadership that, according to Mastrofski and Willis (2010), is characterised by a multiplicity of objectives and diffusion of power that sometimes goes beyond the confines of the organisation. Thus, Davis and Bailey (2017) stated that the contemporary policing environment requires new approaches to leadership, which is quite different from authoritative-based leadership.

Leadership in policing organisations have generated considerable debate on the effectiveness and professionalism of policing leadership and the effectiveness of the decisions made by senior leaders (Smith, 2006; Stone & Travis, 2011; Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019). Furthermore, Dobby et al. (2004) argued that the debates have also looked at how policing leadership could adapt to the new challenges of the 21st century. Some of these challenges include leading and managing structural change, including direct entry, centralisation and international crimes and leading evidence-based organisations, amongst others (Golding & Savage, 2011; Smith, 2016; Silvestri, 2018; Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019; Huey et al., 2018). The numerous challenges faced by the policing leadership require them to expand their skills and attributes to meet the complex and contradictory needs and demands of the modern globalised world (Davis & Bailey, 2018).

Leadership in the contemporary policing organisation now operates in a profoundly changed landscape (Silvestri, 2018; Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019). The once dominant bureaucratic and autocratic leadership styles have been abandoned over new transformational leadership models that are considered more people-oriented and encourage participation (Miller, 1994; Davis & Silvestri, 2020). Ramshaw and Simpson (2019) found that the limitations of the autocratic, command-and-control leadership styles that were popular in policing leadership have now been abandoned over contemporary leadership styles that encourage creativity, which motivate leaders and followers to work in partnership towards a shared goal (Yarlagadda et al., 2017). Moreover, Aarset and Glomseth (2019) observed that the policing leadership philosophy in several countries had a fundamental change owing to the developments in the organisational culture, new working ways, the emergence and adoption of new technologies and leadership focusing on results.

The debates on leadership in policing organisations have started to focus more on contemporary leadership theories. Haake et al. (2017) noted that presently, debates on policing leadership are

more focused on examining the merits of transactional and transformational leadership theories, which are favourable leadership models that allow leaders to enact reforms and change the cultures in policing organisations. Policing leadership is operating within multifaceted pressures and challenges, which, in some cases, hinder them from applying progressive development practices (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Davis & Silvestri, 2020).

However, police leaders also face competing demands of leading the organisation, directing followers through a difficult period of transition and embracing the global political and socio-economic factors that influence policing organisations globally (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2016; Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019; Davis & Silvestri, 2020). Huey et al. (2018) discovered that leadership in policing organisations is now promoting evidence-based practices where new police leaders are equipped with the skills and knowledge to address the challenges of the 21st century. Huey et al. (2018) described evidence-based policing as the use of tactics and strategies that have already been proven by science to be effective and reliable in detecting, reducing and controlling crimes. The argument is several practices have been researched and proved to be efficient in controlling and preventing crimes, which could work well for the police. In this case, there is a need to balance the competing demands of managerialism and a culture that is focused on performance, which has long been ingrained in policing (Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019). Therefore, the leadership skills set required by contemporary police leaders have to be fundamentally transformed.

Engel (2001) noted that police leaders can shape their followers and organisational performance. Policing leaders in the 21st century have developed skills to influence and shape the operations, tactics and outcomes of their organisations to be greatly acceptable to the public. Barth-Farkas and Vera (2016) revealed that policing leadership in many organisations is understood to be transformational, with leaders recognised for their role in transforming practices and addressing complex social problems and crimes.

Bartha-Farkas and Vera (2016) argued that some studies on policing leadership have recognised a shift, as many policing organisations have already adopted transactional and transformational leadership styles. In the study of police leaders in Norway, Gottschalk and Glomseth (2012) found that leaders were in favour of the more interpersonal and transformational leadership style. Moreover, Schafer (2010) reviewed research on policing leadership and demonstrated that police leaders prefer participatory and supportive leadership styles and use less of the traditional autocratic approaches of the past. Sarvar and Miller (2014) also studied police chief

leadership and found that police chiefs prefer to use democratic and shared leadership styles instead of authoritarian leadership approaches. Thus, police leaders of the 21st century are greatly open-minded and open to novel leadership styles that promote a partnership between leaders and followers (Schafer, 2010).

Walsh and Vito. (2018) and de Moura et al. (2023) observed that we are now in an empowering era where individual police leaders are embracing novel and participative leadership styles. Hence, police leaders are abandoning the outdated, authoritative, bureaucratic styles that were impediments to change. Karp et al. (2019) and Filstad and Karp (2021) found that police leaders in Norway focus more on building trust, thereby creating a conducive working environment and culture whilst also serving as role models for their followers. Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2014) suggested that effective leadership in the current dynamic environment is paramount, and staying adaptive is important to any leadership approach. Transformational leadership is proposed as the most suitable leadership approach for policing organisations. The strong relationship between change and transformational leadership style seems suitable within the police context (Silvestri, 2007; Bartha-Farkas & Vera, 2016).

3.3.3.1. Practices of Transformational Leadership in Policing Organisations

Bass and Avolio (1993) observed that effective leadership in policing is very important as senior leaders in organisations not only lead but are also role models. Rowe (2006) also argued that research on leadership in policing organisations is evolving, shifting from an emphasis on the perceived characteristics of leaders as visionaries and charismatic to a focus on the merits of the dichotomy of transactional and transformational leadership theories. There is a growing number of studies that advocate for the transformational leadership style as the key leadership model for policing leadership.

Since Bass's (1990) study on transactional and transformational leadership, consensus on the support for transformational leadership over transactional leadership has increased. In the past few decades, transformational leadership has become the main leadership model for leadership in policing organisations (Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019; Smirnov et al., 2019). The popularity of transformational leadership over transactional arises from the growing criticism of transactional leadership as a model that motivates task completion through rewards and punishment (Bass, 1990; Avolio et al., 1999). Cockcroft (2014) observed that one of the features of the police is dealing with 'here and now', which aligns more closely with the transactional leadership model. However, more policing organisations are now focusing on

achieving strategic change and have harnessed their potential to approach challenges differently, which is more in line with the transformational leadership model in policing organisations.

Bass (1990) highlighted the limitations of the transactional leadership model, criticising its principles of using rewards and punishment for tasks completed. By contrast, the transformational leadership model was about followers' inspiration, motivation and intellectual stimulation, which in turn encourages followers not to focus on self-interest but to look at the broader good for the organisation (Avolio et al., 1999). In this context, the philosophy of leadership in policing organisations is shifting from the dominance of the authoritative, hierarchical and transactional leadership models to embracing transformational leadership models that promote leader–follower partnerships and empowerment (Avolio et al., 1999; Bartha-Farkas & Vera, 2016; Ramshaw & Simpson, 2019).

The rise of transformational leadership in policing organisations is demonstrated by several studies globally, confirming that this could be the best leadership model in policing. For instance, Murphy and Ensher (2008) conducted a qualitative study in Canada and found that leaders connected transformational leadership with improved organisational performance and increased employee satisfaction and motivation. In another study of Australian policing organisations, Densten (2003) investigated the variations of transformational leadership based on ranks in the police and found that different ranks appreciated the four dimensions of transformational leadership differently. The study found that senior leaders valued inspirational motivation, whereas middle-ranked leaders appreciated individualised consideration and idealised influence. Sarver and Miller (2014) studied leadership in policing organisations in Texas, United States, and found that the leaders appreciated transformational leadership as a very effective leadership style. They also found that police leaders who practised transformational leadership style were energetic, open-minded and highly confident. In one of the few studies in the Middle East, Swid (2014) carried out a quantitative study on police leaders in two Middle East countries and found a strongly positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Their findings confirm that transformational leadership practices are recognised by police leaders in various countries as a mechanism to challenge the outdated bureaucratic, quasi-militaristic, authoritative culture of leadership in policing organisations (Batts et al., 2012; Cockcroft, 2014; Smirnov et al., 2019). Therefore, police leaders who adopt transformational

leadership practices have the answers to the calls for change in policing leadership, moving away from the traditional autocratic practices towards a more participative, supportive and empowering leadership model in the workplace (Davis & Silvestri, 2020).

Other studies on transformational leadership have introduced the gender factor in policing leadership. They argued that female police leaders were more likely to favour the transformational leadership model than their male counterparts (Silvestri, 2007, 2018). Silvestri (2007) pointed out that female leaders in the police force are more likely to be transformational compared with male leaders because they were promoted based on merit as one of the reforms in the organisational structure. Therefore, female leaders are more likely to challenge the existing traditional authoritarian leadership of command and control that male leaders tend to follow (Rosener, 1990). This notion is supported by Price (1974, cited in Roberg et al., 2015), who found that female leaders tended to have traits and behaviours, such as emotional independence, flexibility, self-confidence and intellectual aggressiveness, which their male counterparts did use. Similarly, studies on female leadership in policing found that female leaders lead with an open mind and are ready to challenge the existing status quo. Moreover, they share information with their followers, encourage consultation and participation of followers in decision-making processes and are transformational leaders (Eagly et al., 2003; Koeppel, 2014; Beaton et al., 2022; Silvestri & Tong, 2022).

Dobby et al. (2004) summarised studies on the transformational leadership model in policing organisations worldwide and concluded that transformational leadership behaviour practices in policing organisations had more positive effects on the followers' attitudes, strong commitment to work and job satisfaction than the transactional leadership approach. They suggested that, where possible, every police leader should possess transformational leadership skills as this will develop highly motivated teams and improve individual and organisational performance (Dobby et al., 2004).

Debates on the merits of transactional and transformational leadership dominated the literature on leadership. Some commentators have questioned the relevance of these debates, arguing that the transactional versus transformational approach is very simple. For instance, Yukl (1999) noted that transactional versus transformational leadership debates are not sophisticated enough to fully inform practitioners which of the two is more applicable in real-life situations. Yukl (1999: 4) further argued that although some leaders may apply most of the principles and behaviours of a particular leadership style, few leaders apply all behaviours in cases where they

are the most relevant. Davis and Bailey (2018) argued that leadership in policing organisations seeks to move away from outdated traditional autocratic models of command-and-control leadership. The complex nature of the environment in which the police operate is pushing them to explore novel and innovative leadership approaches to address new challenges. Both transactional and transformational leadership styles may be used as part of a continuum, applying each of the styles depending on the situational context (Murphy & Ensher, 2008).

Transformational leadership is widely endorsed as the approach that brings positive outcomes to the organisation. However, Currie and Lockett (2007) hesitated to recognise transformational leadership in public sector organisations. They argue that this model was developed for the private sector to solve problems. Although this study was done in the education sector, Barth-Farka and Vera (2016) argued that other public sector organisations, such as the police, should consider Currie and Lockett's (2007) observation because the bureaucratic nature of public sector organisations and the policing leadership structure rarely satisfy the transformational leadership principles. For instance, Wright et al. (2012) noted that factors such as lack of sharing information and hierarchical structure in policing organisations are quite the opposite of the principles of transformational leadership, making it challenging to implement within the bureaucratic structure of most policing organisations.

Cockcroft (2014) argued that transformational leadership promotes principles such as leader–followers partnership, participation of followers in the decision-making process and innovation, which conflicts with the structure of leadership in the policing context. For instance, Silvestri (2007, 2018) studied senior female police leaders and showed that although women have been promoted to senior positions, the culture of rank limits them from harnessing the full potential of transformational leadership. Cockcroft (2014) concluded that implementing transformational leadership practices in public sector organisations is difficult because their structural set-up and work environments are different.

Furthering the criticism of transformational leadership theory, Tourish (2013) argued that although this theory has positive outcomes, a critical analysis of the theory in real-life situations reveals that transformational leadership has negative consequences. This type of leadership is coercive and corrupts the behaviours of the followers, where the proponents of the theory have been overlooked. In transformational leadership, the followers are disempowered by making them participate in risky and unethical behaviour. Therefore, according to Tourish (2013:7),

before accepting any leadership theory, crucially examining its drawbacks is necessary before we attempt to entrench leaders' power through the theory.

Ghasabeh et al. (2020) observed that unlike the trait, behaviour and situational theories, transformational leadership enriched our understanding of the influence of followers in leadership. However, the proponents of transformational leadership theory failed to appreciate how situational factors affect the effectiveness of transformational leadership practices. Similar to the traditional theories of leadership that existed before transformational leadership, leadership is assumed to be context-free instead of context-dependent (Davis & Silvesti, 2020).

Moreover, Currie and Lockett (2007) and Wright et al. (2012) argued that applying transformational leadership practices in the public sector setting may be difficult. However, these practices should not be ignored as policing organisations are seeking new leadership models that allow them to face the challenges of the 21st century. As demonstrated by Dobby et al. (2004), several studies on policing leadership emphasised the benefits of the transformational leadership style over the transactional leadership style. However, Ramshaw and Simpson (2019) argued that transformational leadership may have positive effects. However, evidence shows that pragmatic leaders who provide exemplary policing leadership use different leadership approaches depending on the situation (Neyroud, 2019). For instance, although the mandate for police to control crime may require leaders to use the transactional approach, proactive community engagement police work is more suitable for transformational approaches of leadership (Silvestri, 2017).

Yukl (2013) argued that the combination of leadership styles encompasses a shared form of leadership that rewards individuals that produce results (transactional) and uses participative approaches that involve others in the decision-making processes (transformational). Other studies also emphasised that leaders should borrow from transactional and transformational leadership styles and use them depending on the situation for effective leadership (Vito et al., 2014; Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2016).

3.4. Pivotal Issues That Construct Leadership in the UAE

Leadership is an important aspect of an organisation, and it has been a subject of research in several academic disciplines in the social sciences (House & Aditya, 1997; Riggio, 2013). As leadership is greatly affected by culture, according to Hofstede (2001), we should acknowledge that organisational and national cultures differ across countries and regions. Leadership effectiveness and organisational culture are closely related concepts. According to Schein

(2010), a close link between leadership and organisational culture is necessary for any organisation to achieve excellence. Moreover, organisational culture is the mediator of new leadership styles, such as transformational leadership and creativity in the organisation (Prather & Turrell, 2002; Sarros et al., 2008, 2011).

In the UAE and Dubai, Islam plays an important role in the lives of UAE nationals (Hofstede, 2001). The country has a high power distance and less tolerance for uncertainty, ambiguity and unstructured situations. That is, similar to other Arab countries, uncertainty avoidance is a dominant characteristic in the country. Khan and Varshney (2013) argued that in the Arab world, leaders have to distinguish themselves from their followers and provide specific directives on the tasks to be completed. Moreover, followers are responsible for understanding and interpreting the directives correctly.

Leadership comes from the top and flows down in a centralised form where the leader is responsible for making decisions and looking after the followers. Leadership is power and authority in the Arab world, where even a small hint of sharing may be interpreted as a weakness. The followers trust and believe their leaders. They expect the leader to make all the important decisions and provide the directives for them to follow. Leadership is centralised and not challenged; it is rare for followers to challenge the leaders or to question their decisions (Robertson et al., 2001). Leadership is more personal; the leaders reward those who are loyal to them and can severely punish those who are disloyal (Arnold et al., 2009).

House et al. (2004) observed that in the Arab world, effective leaders had very low scores on charismatic, participative qualities and team-oriented when compared with those from other parts of the world. Similarly, Gregg (2005) observed that effective leaders in the Arab world scored highly on some traits, such as self-centredness, reliance on procedure, status consciousness and preserving dignity, which is considered a key value in traditional Arab culture. House et al. (2004) and Gregg (2005) focused on senior leaders, whereas Smith et al. (2006) studied senior and middle-level leaders in Saudi Arabia and found a difference in the responses of the two groups. Senior leaders were more likely to follow the formal rules and procedures than middle managers.

In Islam, the followers worship only one God, who is celebrated by His creatorship, omnipotence and holiness. Islamic values and standards, institutions, ethics and morals as well as legislature and laws are derived only from God (Allah). Separation of the state and mosque is limited as the Islamic religion influences people's thinking and how they view themselves in

their families, at work and in the community. For leaders in Muslim cultures, these values permeate life in such a way that non-Muslims may not easily understand (Arnold et al., 2009).

Islamic values have long played a significant role in shaping the behaviours of leaders in the Arab world. Contrary to what most people have written about leadership in Islam, Faris and Abdalla (2018) observed that leadership in Islam is meant to serve the people. In their discussions of Adamic Leadership, quoting the hadith from the Quran, they demonstrated that, in Islam, leadership is not a privilege bestowed on an individual but a trust and responsibility. Those who become leaders are accountable not only to God but also to their followers. Effective leadership is demonstrated through actions and not through words. Great leaders lead by example, exude humility, learn from their mistakes and empathise with their followers. According to Adair (2010), if Prophet Muhammad had shown arrogance and never listened to others, he would never have become a great leader. Some scholars argue that Prophet Muhammad portrays the qualities of a transformational leader.

Transformational leadership entails leaders motivating and inspiring their followers by encouraging them to give their best to achieve the organisation's vision and mission (Bass & Riggio, 2005). Leaders stimulate their followers by providing challenges that make them think out of the box and motivate them to build their confidence and enthusiasm, leading followers to achieve organisational goals (Wang et al., 2011; Yukl, 2013). These virtues are what Prophet Muhammad preached. According to Mohamed et al. (2016), Prophet Mohammad's concept of leadership emphasised several key values, including trustworthiness, honesty and openness, which encouraged creativity and innovation. Central to these aspects are honesty and integrity, which align closely with transformational leadership, where leaders inspire their followers to work towards a shared vision of the organisation. Ibrahim et al. (2016) noted that the Prophet's leadership transformed the lives of many people, thereby labelling him as a transformational leader. This notion aligns with Jamil (2015), who observed that Islam is fully compatible with transformational leadership theory because it supports the attainment of successful salvation for leaders and followers. These views encouraged the formation of this thesis on transformational leadership practices in the DPF.

Change in any organisation is inevitable, and implementing and managing such change is a key function of policing leadership. Schein (2010) stated that leadership is the ability to step outside of the culture that created them to initiate transformational changes that are greatly adaptive to the current needs of the organisation. Just like other policing organisations, DPF is striving for

excellence and professionalism in their operations. This goal was emphasised in 2017 with the appointment of His Excellence Maj-General Abdullah Khalifa Al Merri as the commander-in-chief. The new commander-in-chief of the DPF brought about changes that transformed the policing leadership of the force. Within this environment, the commander-in-chief introduced novel leadership styles in the DPF, including the transformational leadership approach.

This study builds on the discussion of the leadership of policing organisations in the Arab world, with a particular focus on the DPF in the UAE. The central thesis of this study is that policing in the DPF is shifting from the Arab authoritarian, based on clan hierarchy, to a more transformational leadership style. This change is influenced by the new generation of leaders, technology, and globalisation. This study focuses on transformational leadership and how it is practised and perceived in the DPF.

3.5. Conclusion

Several leadership theories, from traits, behavioural and situational to novel leadership theories, including transactional and transformational, have influenced policing leadership. All these theories were developed to work in the private sector, with limited consideration for public sector organisations. The public sector organisations and the police, in particular, are bureaucratic in nature. Therefore, the autocratic leadership style would seem to be more suitable. However, the changes in the global environment in which policing organisations operate have brought challenges for policing leadership worldwide. The role of the police has changed tremendously, including activities that require police to use people-oriented leadership approaches. Considerable studies highlighted in this chapter have indicated that policing organisations are shifting away from the bureaucratic, authoritative leadership styles that used command and control to more participative and collaborative leadership approaches such as transformational leadership. However, even this shift to transactional leadership received criticism. They questioned the relevance of transformational leadership in policing organisations that are built on a paramilitary-based model. Some commentators proposed the use of mixed styles to achieve effective leadership.

Although transformational leadership was developed for the private sector, several studies showed that this type of leadership can be applicable in public organisations. As discussed in this chapter, some studies have demonstrated that transformational leadership practices are working in policing organisations (see, for example, Densten, 2003; Murphy & Ensher, 2008; Sarvar & Miller, 2014; Swid, 2014; Silvestri, 2007; Bartha-Farka & Vera, 2016). Apart from

Swid's (2014) research on two Middle Eastern countries, the rest of the studies focused on Western countries from Europe, Australia and the United States. Considerable studies on policing leadership in the Middle East need to be addressed. The emergency of transformational leadership theory in policing leadership needs to be investigated from the perspective of Middle Eastern countries. Furthermore, the literature showed that when leadership in this part of the world is studied, it is done by individuals with a Western background, who tend to view the Middle East through a Western lens. Therefore, this study attempts to fill the gap in policing leadership in the Middle East, focusing on Dubai, one of the seven Emirates of the UAE. The study mainly focuses on the DPF and how it has adopted a transformational leadership model in an environment.

Chapter 4: Research Philosophy and Methodology

4.1. Introduction

Swanson (2005) stated that organisations are dynamic and complex entities, and therefore, studying them is challenging, including leadership in organisations. Leadership in policing is a key component of the managerial process (Li & Bowen, 2019). Leaders in the police force have to establish a leadership style that allows them to meet the needs of the officers and the community, for them to be more effective. This study examines the policing leadership style in the DPF, focusing on the transformational leadership style. The study is guided by the following objectives:

i. To evaluate the contemporary leadership styles espoused by various managers in the DPF.

ii. To determine how the employee's (police officers in the DPT) performance is affected in terms of performance and perception.

iii. To critically analyse officers and the staff in DPT's understanding of transformational leadership.

iv. To identify whether transformational leadership practised by managers leads to efficiency and effectiveness in staff performance.

v. To provide recommendations on how transformational leadership can improve performance in DPF.

Research in social sciences is guided by underlying philosophical perspectives about what constitutes knowledge and how researchers interpret reality, identifying the most appropriate methods for the construction of knowledge in a given research project. Creswell (2014) argued that whether researchers are aware of it or not, they bring certain beliefs and philosophical perspectives to their research. In some cases, these beliefs and philosophical perspectives influence how researchers frame their research questions and guide how they collect data. Therefore, researchers should know these philosophical assumptions and perspectives. The methodology section in this study is divided into two chapters. This first chapter discusses the main philosophical assumptions, including positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. Pragmatism was identified as the key philosophical perspective for this study, and the reasons for its choice are also discussed.

The second part of this chapter discusses the methodological choices of this study. This study was based on a case study (DPF) and used a mixed methods approach. This chapter briefly presents the case study, including a detailed discussion of case study research and mixed methods.

4.2. Philosophical Perspectives in Research

Although several philosophical assumptions have been developed over the years, Gephart (1999) identified three main research philosophies that guide most of the social science research, namely, positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. All these philosophical assumptions or perspectives, including the way they define reality and how they produce and assess knowledge, are discussed in this chapter. They all have a bearing on leadership research, although the pragmatism philosophical perspective guided this study.

4.2.1. Positivism

Positivism is one of the oldest philosophical perspectives, based on the philosophical ideas of scholars, such as August Comte, who argued that observation and reason are the best methods for understanding human behaviour (Pickering, 1993; Hammersley, 2012). Wright (2014) posited that true knowledge should be based on sensory experiences and obtained through experiments and observation. Ontologically, the positivists believe that the only reality is one that is measurable by tools, independent of the researcher (Hiller, 2016). They also assume that knowledge is objective and quantifiable. In other words, the philosophical perspectives of positivism are based on the assumption that the only reality is the one that can be identified and measured (Park et al., 2020). Furthermore, positivism is aligned with the hypothetical–deductive model of inquiry, which asserts that one is able to inform and advance science by verifying a hypothesis through experimentation and operationalise variables through testing (Park et al., 2020). Therefore, positivist researchers generally focus on identifying causal relationships using quantitative approaches, which favour empirically based large samples to discover the truth (Young, 2007).

Positivist researchers maintain that scientific knowledge consists of observable facts and assert that reality is independent of social constructions (Walsham, 1995). If the study has a stable and unchanging reality, then the findings are objectives. This positivism considers human behaviour to be passive and controlled by the external environment. Generally, positivism aligns very well with the Machiavellian model of leadership, which considers humans as lazy and passive.

At the epistemological level, positivists contend that knowledge can only be produced objectively without the values of respondents or the researcher influencing the research outcomes. Therefore, knowledge that is produced in a value-free way and is certain, accurate and congruent with reality is the truth (Levers, 2013). Therefore, a clear separation of the researcher from the research respondents is crucial to developing the truth. Hansen (2015) argued that positivist researchers operate in a dualism (i.e. separating the researcher from the research participants and objectivity) to maintain this separation (researched bias is eliminated by separating the researcher from the people).

This reliance on objectivity by positivist researchers determines their axiological perspectives as they dismiss the role of the individual's values and perspectives. Positivists consider subjective values and experiences unimportant. Therefore, a positivist researcher needs to stay objective and maintain no interaction at all with the research participants when collecting data (Levers, 2013; Park et al., 2020). However, some commentators argued that objectivity in social research may be difficult to maintain because it requires the use of rigid and strict study protocols that result in as little researcher bias as possible. For instance, Phillips (1990) argued that although the purpose of our research exists outside and independent of the human mind, we cannot perceive it solely through our observations. Therefore, what is claimed to be total objectivity is actually impossible to achieve. However, he suggested that it can still be pursued as an ideal to regulate our search for knowledge (Phillip, 1995).

The positivist methodology emphasises conducting research in a highly controlled setting where the variables can be manipulated (Maxwell, 2019). In leadership studies, the researcher needs to develop an artificial environment where other external factors outside the study variables can be minimised. In its purest form, positivism applies the same rigour as that of the natural sciences. Therefore, positivists favour methodologies such as experimentation and quantitative approaches. The findings from such studies are used to test and refine theories, which consequently can lead to new hypotheses. Hwang (2005) associated positivism with a broad range of theories and practices, such as logical positivism, empiricism and behaviourism.

Although most early studies on leadership were dominated by positivism, it faced increasing challenges and critics in the latter half of the 20th century. These critics came mostly from interpretivists and social constructivists owing to their lack of subjectivity in interpreting social reality. In response, they offered alternative theoretical and methodological perspectives to research (Gephart, 2004).

4.2.2. Interpretivism

Unlike positivism, which is closely related to the natural sciences principles, interpretivism argues that the tools used to produce knowledge that involves people and social sciences cannot be the same given its usage in the natural sciences (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The reason is that humans can interpret their world and behave according to this interpretation, which the world cannot do (Hammersley, 2012). Therefore, interpretivism research adopts a relativist ontology, arguing that a single phenomenon can have multiple interpretations. Therefore, the truth cannot be determined through measurement alone. Creswell and Clark (2007) stated that within an interpretivism worldview, researchers aim to gain a deep understanding of the phenomenon and its complexities in its natural setting rather than attempting to generalise the base of understanding to the entire population. According to Pascale (2016), interpretivism maintains that people construct knowledge through their experiences. Therefore, multiple interpretations are developed with interpretivism, thereby rejecting the positivist notion that truth is simply there to be identified and collected. However, Hammersley (2012) cautioned that interpretivism researchers should avoid bias to obtain the truth as they attempt to understand the phenomenon in many ways within different contexts and cultures.

At the epistemology level, from an interpretivism philosophical perspective, all knowledge is grounded in our particular experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Hiller, 2016); knowledge is subjective and is closely tied to the natural settings in which humans enact their lives (Alversson & Skoldberg, 2009; Greene, 2012). Hiller (2016) noted that the interpretivism philosophical perspective is based on the argument that understanding the social world may not be possible without interpreting the experiences of the people living there. Pascale (2016) noted that interpretivism does not only understand behaviours but also attempts to understand the meanings the event holds for the participants. The researcher has to grasp the meaning that participants attribute to the event. Therefore, unlike the positivist philosophical perspective that attempts to explain human behaviour by establishing a causal relationship between variables, interpretivism attempts to understand human behaviour by capturing the meaning and interpretations humans ascribe to the phenomenon (Johnson et al., 2007).

According to Greene (2010), knowledge in interpretivism is generated by the reconstruction of intersubjective meaning, understanding and interpreting the meanings constructed by the people living in the setting studied, and interrelating them to form the whole. Therefore, the interpretive reconstructions are bound by the time, place and politics in which the study took

place. This way, interpretivism is divergent and pluralistic, with multiple reconstructions that could sometimes be conflictual (Greene, 2010). Knowledge construction is developed based on the understandings generated from inside the meanings the participants ascribe to the phenomenon; therefore, it embodies the contextual meanings of these participants. From another aspect, these understandings also include the meanings that the researcher brings to the phenomenon. Interpretivism accepts that researchers as people get their beliefs and experiences into the interpretive process (Hiller, 2016). Therefore, there is the co-creation of knowledge from the interpretivist philosophical perspective through the interactions created by the researcher and the people researched (the participants).

At the axiology level, interpretivism is tied to our values, cultures and politics; as such, it is not universal. Therefore, interpretivism researchers cannot generalise their findings because they may not readily apply in an alternate setting (Ormston et al., 2014). Thus, the interpretivism philosophical perspective is focused on embracing the dynamics and complex quality of the social world and allows researchers to view the phenomenon directly from the people affected by it by entering their realities and interpreting their perceptions from their own words (Saunders et al., 2012; Ormston et al., 2014; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). This is achieved using methods that allow for the generation of thick and rich data from the description of events from the people who experienced them. This approach enables the research to uncover and preserve the meanings that participants ascribe to these events (Gephart, 2004).

The interpretivism philosophical perspective received criticism from some commentators. They argued that although interpretivism seeks to gain a holistic understanding and deeper knowledge of the phenomenon studied within its natural setting and complexities of the context, it fails to generalise the results to other people and contexts. This limitation creates a gap in verifying validity and, therefore, limits the research outcomes (Cohen et al., 2011; Pascale, 2016). Secondly, Mack (2010) argued that interpretivism ontological perspectives are more subjective than objective. Therefore, the researchers' and participants' beliefs, ways of thinking, interpretations and cultural preferences affect the research outcomes, causing bias. Lastly, interpretivism has been criticised for its lack of political and ideological social reality and knowledge (Crotty, 1998; Schwandt, 2014). The argument is that interpretivism focusses on understanding the phenomenon in the current settings rather than targeting the problems of power and agency in all societies (Mack, 2010).

The weaknesses inherent in positivism and interpretivism philosophical perspectives led some scholars to adapt to philosophical perspectives that attempt to integrate the strengths of positivism and interpretivism and overcome the weaknesses. That is the philosophical perspective of pragmatism discussed in the next section.

4.2.3. Pragmatism

Leadership is embedded in a complex and dynamic web comprising several factors, including the nature of reality, perceptions of the stakeholders and levels of analysis. Therefore, how leadership is studied is influenced by how one conceptualises leadership, which in turn influences the research philosophical perspectives and methodological approaches. However, the presence of a variety of conceptualisations could lead to confusion within leadership studies. As such, debates exist about interpreting reality and generating knowledge in leadership research. These debates have focused mainly on how leadership is obtained (Antonakis et al., 2004), which resulted from the paradigm wars in social science around positivism and interpretivism (Lincoln & Denzin, 2005). Therefore, in recent years, leadership research has been drawn towards a pragmatic philosophical perspective to create knowledge (Kelly & Cordoiro, 2020).

According to Mertens (2012), the pragmatism philosophical perspective is attributed to the contributions of 19th-century scholars, such as John Dewey, Arthur Bentley, William James and George Herbert Mead. According to Maxcy (2003), the pragmatism paradigm of research has its roots in the historical contributions of the pragmatism philosophy. From the perspective of a research paradigm, pragmatism argues that researchers do not need to focus on a single philosophical approach. Instead, they can use the best method for their study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Pragmatism researchers focus on the consequences of the study and the research question instead of the methods. Therefore, Clark and Creswell (2008) noted that a pragmatist researcher may use formal and informal rhetoric.

According to Morgan (2014a,) based on Dewey's work, he identified three widely accepted categories of pragmatism that demonstrate that, unlike other researchers who focused much on the philosophies and the nature of reality, pragmatic researchers emphasised the nature of experience. However, Morgan (2014a) also emphasised that pragmatism is now the philosophical approach of social research regardless of its methodological perspectives. Therefore, as a new research worldview, pragmatism does not focus on the traditional philosophy of knowledge, which is based on how ontology, epistemology and methodology are

defined (Guba Lincoln & Giardina, 2006; Lincoln, 2010). Instead, pragmatism is viewed as a philosophical system, particularly in research design and in adopting workable approaches to problem-solving (Morgan, 2014; Kaushik and Walsh, 2019).

At the epistemological level, pragmatism argues that it should not be based on metaphysical debates about the nature of truth and reality (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020). Instead, research needs to focus on the ‘‘practical understandings’ of concrete, real-world issues (Patton, 2015:153). This approach is similar to the interpretivism philosophical perspective that focuses on understanding the social construct of reality. However, pragmatism emphasises probing the value and meaning of research using tools that examine its practical consequences (Morgan, 2014; Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020). This approach is helpful in leadership research, which prioritises learning and knowing, where the practice is closely related to how knowledge is produced (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020). Therefore, using the pragmatism philosophical perspective, researchers on leadership go beyond the positivist conceptualisation of objectivism to explore and understand the relationship between knowledge and action in context (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Knowledge is the ultimate truth through which the study of the universe depends on and can be verified through science (Newton, 1997). This notion is summarised by Geilinger et al. (2016), who argued that knowing has the potential to transform practice.

At the methodological level, pragmatism implies that researchers can deal with complex and dynamic problems associated with leadership, where actions, even when well-planned, can have temporal and varied spatial outcomes (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020). Pragmatism researchers focusing on leadership and organisational studies recognise that individuals with a given community experience actions and react differently, thereby encouraging pragmatism researchers to be highly flexible in the choice of research techniques (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). Pragmatism goes beyond questioning the validity and intrinsic value of the research tools and methodologies, encouraging researchers to focus on the relevance and suitability of these tools and research methodologies used in the project.

Guthries (2010) argued that pragmatism’s philosophical perspective provides opportunities for researchers to utilise two different methodologies (i.e. qualitative and quantitative) in the same study by selecting the tools deemed more beneficial to the research problem. Furthermore, according to Scott (2016), pragmatism is not tied to any particular system or reality, as it allows the researcher to change and respond to specific situations. Thus, pragmatism emphasises the

importance of using various research techniques and evaluating their effectiveness (Scott, 2016). Pragmatism researchers are tasked with finding valuable points for integrating quantitative and qualitative data. Therefore, pragmatism is usually associated with mixed methods and multimethods where the focus is on the research question and the study's outcome instead of the methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Morgan, 2014a). Pragmatism is the chosen philosophical perspective for this study.

4.2.3.1. Philosophical Underpinnings of Pragmatism

The pragmatist epistemology is based on the idea that research does not get involved in the divisive debates on the nature of truth, reality and knowledge creation. Rather, research focuses on the practical understanding of concrete, real-world issues (Patton, 2015). This notion lends well to my research on leadership in its appropriate use of mixed methods research, whereby quantitative and qualitative data were collected and integrated within the study. This approach is helpful in leadership research and the organisational setting, where practice and consequences are intertwined with how knowledge is produced.

Moreover, pragmatism in settings such as policing organisations may help researchers move beyond the objectivist perspectives that have been the mainstay of research in leadership to explore and understand the connection and action in context (McCanney., Taylor and Morris 2024)

Therefore, knowledge generated from the pragmatism philosophical approach is most likely to transform practice (Kelly & Cordeiro, 2020; McCanney., Taylor and Morris 2024). In my research design, my approach was primarily informed by a pragmatist philosophy, which means that I prioritised the practical usefulness and applicability of findings over strict adherence to a single ontological or epistemological stance. This approach allowed me to select methods that best address the research question, considering the context and complexities of the situation whilst maintaining rigour and ethical considerations.

The use of the pragmatism philosophical approach in the study played a significant role in forming the research objectives. The fundamentals that underpin pragmatism epistemology is that knowledge is generated from experience (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). The study objectives were generated through experience working in the Dubai Police Department for over 15 years and witnessing the changes in leadership approaches. This experience was supplemented by searching theoretical and grey literature for gaps in knowledge of practical use to leadership

policing organisations in the UAE. The literature on leadership, particularly in public organisations, helped to refine the research objectives.

Pragmatism was also used to analyse and consider the research problem and identify some of the elements deemed helpful to the research questions and the participants in the study. Pragmatism philosophical approach emphasises experience and action, which were instrumental in refining the research objectives. From the literature and interacting with a few professionals in the Dubai Community, I repeatedly evaluated and adjusted priorities in the formulation of research questions and objectives. This process was crucial for the study as it helped improve the findings and the potential transferability of these findings, which is a key aspect of the pragmatism research philosophy (Morgan, 2007; Cordeiro and Kelly, 2019).

4.2.3.2. Pragmatism in This Study

This study examines leadership in the DPF, focusing on how police leaders practise the principles of transformational leadership and the impact of their practices on the police personnel in the DPF. The study context is complex as it requires gathering data from different groups to investigate their multiple perspectives. Hence, building variations using varied research techniques and analytical schemes is necessary. Given that pragmatism focuses on understanding human experiences (Morgan, 2014), understanding the multiple factors involved in the actions of the leadership of the DPF and the behaviours of the police officers was suitable for this study. Furthermore, the epistemological stance on the inquiry process and practicality espoused by the pragmatist philosophical approach was deemed more suited to this study than the traditional philosophies (i.e. positivism and interpretivism), which focused on the duality of objectivism and subjectivism. In the words of Feilzer (2010: 7), '*a pragmatic approach to problem-solving in the social world offers an alternative, flexible, and more reflexive guide to research design and grounded research'*. This research aimed to obtain perspectives on the leadership of the DPF and the researcher needed from the senior leaders and their followers. Hence, pragmatism is the most suitable philosophical approach for the study.

Secondly, as Morgan (2014:26) stated, '*actions cannot be separated from the situations and contexts in which they occur'*. Pragmatist researchers believe that we all have different beliefs and experiences linked to predictable outcomes (Morgan, 2014; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Morgan (2014:27) further noted that '*actions depend on worldviews that are socially shared sets of beliefs'.* The argument is that two people may go through the same events but not have precisely similar experiences. Therefore, their worldviews cannot be identical. These varying

degrees of shared experiences may lead to different degrees of shared beliefs. Hence, the likelihood of two people acting the same way and assigning identical meanings after experiencing similar events depends on the extent of the shared belief about that particular event. Morgan (2014) concluded that people's worldviews can be at the individual unique level and the socially shared beliefs.

Similarly, the DPF has several leaders and officers at various levels. This research wanted to determine how officers experience leadership styles within the police to ascertain the experience at the individual's unique level and shared beliefs. In addition, the same goal was to gauge the experiences of the policing leadership and identify the factors that affect their actions in their leadership positions. Therefore, a pragmatism philosophical perspective would be the more suitable approach for the study.

DPF is made up of 20,000 personnel, each with a unique experience shaped by their interaction with police leaders; therefore, instead of focusing on the universal truth, the researcher believes that the leaders of the DPF and the officers have developed their own beliefs through the decision they make and the outcomes they experience. Given that pragmatism advocates for a research design that considers the operational decisions based on what is the most appropriate research technique to answer the research question, pragmatism also allows the researcher to conduct research in a dynamic way to get views from leaders and their followers on the use of transformational leadership style in the DPF.

4.2.3.3. Positionality

The justification for choosing the pragmatism philosophical approach in this study is twofold: one stems from my perspectives as a person and a researcher, and the other is from a theoretical perspective. Creswell (2013) stated that all researchers have philosophical underpinnings that drive their research design and methods. These philosophical perspectives determine the methods of the research. Regarding epistemology in the pragmatism research philosophy, Kelly and Cordeiro (2020) argued that social experiences influence knowledge and how we perceive our world. Although these experiences are more personal and unique to each individual, most of the knowledge originates from our social experiences and is, in most cases, shared socially. In my case, I consider myself to be pragmatic. I approach tasks and problems from a practical and focused perspective. I believe that all problems have a solution, and I prefer to use what is tried and works.

I was born and bred in Dubai in the UAE. I received my higher education at the Dubai Police Academy, where I graduated with a law degree. In 2012, 3 years after joining the DPF, I travelled to the United Kingdom to study for a master's in business administration (MBA) at the University of Sunderland. When I returned to Dubai, I worked in the Human Resource Department of the central police. I have since been transferred to a different role. These experiences shaped my view of the world and the way knowledge is developed. My studies in the UK exposed me to Western culture, and my education there opened my mind to view things differently.

One of the key contentions of pragmatism philosophy is that it emphasises that the meanings of our actions and beliefs are within the consequences of our actions (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Furthermore, pragmatism contends that reality is not static, just like the world is not static, events and actions bring changes. During my time in the DPF, I witnessed many changes as the police tried to modernise. I have also seen changes in leadership at the top, which has influenced leadership at the departmental level and below. All these experiences shaped my ontological and epistemological beliefs about the world and influenced my research approach. These experiences allowed me to view the world pragmatically, seeking to solve problems with practical solutions rather than focusing on ideals. It is within these beliefs that I found myself when I embarked on this research. I wanted to find applied solutions that can help define transformational leadership and apply them in the Dubai Police.

4.3. Methodological Perspectives of This Study

The nature of leadership involves influencing others to agree on what has to be done and how to do it (Yukl, 2012). As such, leadership is a complex and multifaceted form of performance involving leaders and the people (Yuki, 2006). This multifaceted and complex nature of leadership makes it interesting to study. Most earlier studies on leadership applied quantitative methodological approaches, and a few more have been developed using qualitative methodological approaches. However, Wren (1995) suggested that a broadly conceived methodological approach is needed to study leadership. Thus, leadership needs to be addressed using more than one method; multiple theories and methodological approaches should be used.

Furthermore, Bass and Bass (2008) argued that methodological issues in leadership studies would broaden by introducing a new paradigm for leadership that integrates subjectivist and objectivist methodological views to understand leadership's dynamic and complex nature. McCusker et al. (2018) argued that knowledge-directing leadership practice is derived by how

one conceptualises leadership, where such conceptualisations will ultimately influence the methodological approaches used. Bryman (2011) also argued that solid knowledge within the leadership field should be generated based on the use of more than one method readily available to the researcher because many conceptualisations bring about confusion within the practice of leadership. From another aspect, Maxwell (2012) claimed that differences in methodologies are not necessarily based on method choices; instead, they are reflective of the philosophical assumptions of the researcher that guide the methodological choices.

Researchers in leadership studies have used different research techniques to produce insights for leaders keen on leadership research and using knowledge in their practice. According to Stentz et al. (2012), several leadership researchers use mixed and multiple research design methods to advance knowledge. The present study, in particular, uses mixed methods to understand the complexity of leadership in the DPF. Mixed methods are discussed in detail after the discussion on the case study.

4.3.1. Case Study Research Strategy

According to Harrisson et al. (2017), case study research is a popular and effective methodology for examining and understanding complex issues in real-world settings. Case study research design has grown into reputation and has been used in a variety of disciplines in the social sciences, particularly in education (Merriam, 1998; Grauer, 2012), health (Yin, 1999; Crowe et al., 2011; Bunton & Sandberg, 2016) and business (Farquhar, 2012; Farquhar et al., 2020) to investigate considerable research problems. Crowe et al. (2011) noted that case study research design is a beneficial methodology to gather in-depth data on a phenomenon of interest in its natural, real-life setting. Harrisson et al. (2017) noted that case study research had undergone new developments from parallel influences owing to exposure to several methodologies. The ontological and epistemological perspectives of the researcher engaging in case study research are key to these variations of case study research. The influence of various disciplines and their philosophical perspectives on case study research created a diversity of approaches.

The social science literature has widely debated the definition of case study research (Takahashi & Araujo, 2020). Creswell and Poth (2016) noted that some advocates of case study research refer to it as a research method, whilst other call it a research strategy. However, Stake (1995) argued that case study is not a method instead case studies are delineated by the specific cases themselves. A case study is a research approach that is used to generate an in-depth,

multifaceted understanding of a complex issue in its real-life context (Simons, 2009; Crowe et al, 2011; Stewart, 2014). It is an established research design that is used extensively in a wide variety of disciplines in the social sciences and is growing in management and leadership studies. Hartley (2004) defined case study research as 'consisting of a detailed investigation, often with data collected over a period of time, of a phenomena, within their context' aimed at 'providing an analysis of the context and processes which illuminate the theoretical issues being studied'.

4.3.2. Yin and Stake's Views on Case Study Research

Researchers engaging in case study research widely recognised the works of Yin and Stake. The two authors differ in their definitions of case study research. For example, Yin (2009: 13) viewed the case as a contemporary phenomenon that is studied in its natural setting; it is primarily useful when the boundaries between the context and the phenomenon are clearly defined, and the researcher has limited or no control over the context and the phenomenon. This definition of the case study research demonstrates support for the case study as a legitimate research method because it is assumed in Yin's definition that the other research methods, such survey and interviews alone, are not capable of inquiring into the case that the researcher is interested in. Therefore, the researcher needs a more robust research strategy—the case study. According to Yin (2009, 2014, 2018), a case study is an empirical inquiry that examines a single case or multiple cases by focusing on the how and why of the research question regarding the studied phenomenon.

Yin (2018) perceives case study research as a methodology and case study as a method of inquiry. Yin (2018) recognised the strength of case study as limited to answering the 'what' of the research and the 'how' and 'why' of the research question. Yin (2014) classified case studies into three categories: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. Exploratory case studies, as the name indicates, explore situations where the outcomes of the investigated case are unclear or more than a single set. Meanwhile, explanatory case studies examine casual relationships that are too complex for quantitative approaches (i.e. survey and experimental). According to Yin (2014), the purpose of the descriptive case study is to describe the phenomenon within the context in which it occurred. Yin (2018) also distinguished between a single case and multiple cases. The former is a holistic case with embedded units, allowing the researcher to explore the potential sub-units within the studied case. By contrast, the latter involves more than one, and

this research design is used to justify results that are more generalisable beyond the specific cases that are studied (Mills et al., 2014).

Stake (1995) is also considered influential in defining a case study as an approach to scientific inquiry (Crowe et al., 2011; Lucas et al., 2018). Stake (1995) identified three main categories of case study research, namely, '*Intrinsic, Instrumental and Collective'* (Stake, 1995: 8). The author noted that an intrinsic case study is conducted to understand a particular and unique phenomenon. Therefore, the study should clearly define the phenomenon's uniqueness, making it essential to be studied. According to Stake (1995), a case study is instrumental when it uses a particular case to understand a phenomenon. Meanwhile, a collective case study, similar to Yin's (2018) descriptive case study, involves more than one case (multiple cases), which are studied simultaneously or sequentially when researchers try to gain a broader understanding of an issue or phenomenon (Stake, 1995: 8).

Stake's (1995) perspective of a case study is that it has no precise definition, and defining a case or case study is difficult because it is unlikely to come to an accuracy encompassing all the disciplines that use case study research. Therefore, Stake (1995: 2) argued that researchers 'need to see the case as a bounded system or entity and investigate it as an object rather than a process'. Stake (1995) described a case as a specific, complex, purposive and functioning item within an integrated system with boundaries and working parts.

The difference between Yin and Stake is that Yin (2018) emphasises the development of the theory and the ability of the researcher to discover something beyond the specific case studied. Stake (1995), unlike Yin, does not link case studies to testing theories; instead, he argues that using the particularities of a case sheds light on the phenomenon and increases the understanding of the research question. Therefore, according to Stake (1995: 8) '*the power of case study is its attention to the local situation, not in how it represents other cases in general'*.

However, according to Lucas et al. (2017), regardless of the type of case chosen for a study, the case study research approach undoubtedly offers opportunities to explore the phenomenon through multiple lenses. This is one of the main reasons for selecting a case study research approach in this thesis, as these multiple lenses are essential when seeking in-depth and comprehensive issues in real-life settings (Pearson et al., 2015; Miles, 2015). Pearson et al. (2015), in particular, asserted that what is recognised regarding a case study is the use of multiple methods that enable the researcher to investigate. In addition, case study research offers the flexibility to explore the phenomenon carefully and unpack further complex

experiences and circumstances that may not have a specific or singular outcome (Crowe et al., 2011). According to Lucas et al. (2018), case study research has grown in popularity in many disciplines because it can produce rich and multilayered data.

4.3.3. Selection of Study

According to Rose et al. (2014), case study researchers have to make two decisions on case selection, that is, what case or cases are and how to study them. Secondly, case study researchers need to decide whether the study will be one case or more, that is, whether the data collected from one case are sufficient to answer the research question. Some commentators have argued that using a single case study can limit the representation of the chosen case and that generalisation is impossible (Kennedy, 1979). Ramenyi et al. (1998) also suggested that a single case study design could be risky for management and leadership researchers. This may be a risk if you are doing your case study on your organisation, as this particular study focuses on a single case (DPF). However, Yin (2009) suggested reasons for using a single case design; the case is critical in some ways, that is, either unique, revelatory or longitudinal, comparing cases at particular points in time.

Although the case in this study in the DPF aligns closely with Stake's (1995) second category of instrumental case study, there are also characteristics of intrinsic case study. However, as Stake (1995) asserted, the three categories are not mutually exclusive. A single study can have at least two categories' characteristics. The case for this study was not chosen to make a comparison but for its uniqueness.

4.3.4. Case Study—DPF

DPF views itself as a progressive and forward-thinking organisation, employing more than 17,000 personnel. As an integral part of the UAE police, the UAE police aims to oversee and improve the quality of life of the people in the country by working within the confines of the constitution of law enforcement and carrying its mandate to maintain the security and safety of Dubai residents.

Owing to DPF's robust and effective implementation of quality management frameworks across organisational work settings, it has obtained domestic and global recognition, such as ISO 2000:9001 and 'Dubai Award for Governmental Performance'. DPF is committed and seeks to be creative in adopting innovative technologies and frameworks to enhance overall departmental performance. Undoubtedly, DPF was the first and foremost policing organisation

to execute DNA testing to investigate crimes, adopt e-services and indulge in electronic fingerprinting. In addition, DPF was the first policing organisation across the region to adopt GPS to detect patrolling activities through satellite. DPF's focal strategy is to contribute to society by creating a 'Human Rights Department' within its organisational structure. The general department concerning e-services in DPF was initially created in 2001 to offer cutting-edge technological assistance to the entire DPF branches and headquarters (Seba et al., 2012).

4.4. Mixed Methods as a Research Design

Several designs and strategies have been advocated for carrying out case study research, emphasising considerations for achieving success. Case study research has evolved from a purely qualitative approach to embrace pragmatic and flexible research approaches combining qualitative and quantitative research methods (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005).

Stake (1995) and Merriam (1998) suggested that case study research is greatly suited to the qualitative research approach. However, mixed methods have recently established a foothold in case study research (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2010; Guetterman & Fetters, 2018). The literature suggests that case study research is well-suited to mixed methods. This approach allows the researcher to select and use several research methods from qualitative and quantitative approaches (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2010).

Johnson et al. (2014) identified mixed methods as the third methodological movement, following quantitative and qualitative approaches. Johnson et al. (2007) defined mixed methods as

the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (Johnson et al., 2007: 123)

However, rather than focusing on the definition of mixed methods, Greene (2008) focussed on what makes mixed methods distinctive and described it as a way of thinking, as demonstrated in the quotation below:

The mixed methods methodological approach is *an orientation toward social inquiry that actively invites us to participate in dialogue about multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished. A mixed methods way of thinking rests on*

assumptions that there are multiple legitimate approaches to social inquiry and that any given approach to social inquiry is inevitably partial. ... a mixed methods way of thinking actively engages us with difference and diversity in the service of both better understanding and greater equity of voice. (Greene, 2008: 20)

Here, Greene (2008) emphasised the logic of using mixed methods, suggesting that the disagreements resulting from diverse perspectives should be embraced as they provide new insights into themselves and by seeking their resolution.

4.4.1. Justification of Using Mixed Methods in the Study

The use of pragmatism played a crucial role in shaping the methodological direction of this study as it helped identify different aspects of the research question during the design stage. This study required a methodological approach that went beyond organisational documentation and statistics to capture the lived experiences of the senior leaders in the DPF. Hence, qualitative methods, such as semi-structured interviews, were used to compare the findings from the quantitative survey. In addition, the need to solicit the views of the middle-ranked officers in the DPF became evident, and hence, an online survey was included in the research design. The survey focussed on the principles of transformational leadership, seeking the perspectives of these officers on how they are led. This approach enabled the comparison of findings from the interviews with senior leaders.

The use of mixed methods in this study offered a framework to map and triangulate the data against diverse perspectives from leaders and followers in policing organisations. The use of diverse methods highlighted the multiple interpretations of leadership realities experienced by the leaders and their followers. Qualitative research helped unpack useful practical-based knowledge on leadership from various perspectives.

One of the key principles of pragmatism research philosophy is that it does not dictate the choice of methods (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). This philosophical approach provides a framework that guides researchers in selecting the most appropriate methods for their study. This study required methods that promote plurality and inclusion of the interests and agendas of diverse participants and respondents. Therefore, mixed methods research, rooted in the pragmatism principles that emphasise actionable knowledge, provided the methodological direction for this research. With senior leaders, data were collected using qualitative (semi-structured) interviews. Semi-structured interviews were the logical choice because obtaining insights on leadership through a quantitative survey was not possible. Quantitative methods

were used on followers (middle-ranked officers) using an online survey. The data collected from the survey helped to validate the data collected through interviews with the leaders. The choice of mixed methods and the subsequent qualitative and quantitative methods was driven by the initial scoping of the research question using the principles of pragmatism as a guide.

Leadership is a complex and dynamic phenomenon comprising multiple dimensions and individual and collective elements. With leadership's complex and dynamic nature, the theory-generating approaches (qualitative methodology) should complement theory-testing approaches (quantitative methodology). Therefore, leadership researchers who design studies for this complexity must use several research techniques, such as quantitative surveys and qualitative narrative inquiry (Ospina, 2004).

One of the key reasons for using the mixed methods approach when studying leadership is that combining qualitative and quantitative methodologies will lead to a better understanding of the research question than one would have achieved when using either methodology separately (Greene, 2008; Creswell, 2014). Within the context of studying leadership, focusing on using a quantitative approach only may fail to provide a full explanation of the findings; this is where qualitative methods could be used to enrich and help interpret the quantitative findings (Gardner et al., 2014).

Furthermore, Vogt et al. (2010) argued that qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches used independently in leadership are inadequate to capture the multilevel and socially constructed dynamism and complex processes of leadership. Therefore, Stentz et al. (2012) suggested that using more than one method is paramount to understanding leaders' complex processes and leadership development. Greene (2008) commented that leadership must be studied using mixed methods as this will generate more valid, reliable and richer data than research based only on qualitative or quantitative approaches. As for Ivankova et al. (2006), combining qualitative and quantitative data complements each other and provides a complete comprehension of the phenomenon.

The use of qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the same study is legitimised by the pragmatism philosophical perspective, which advocates for focusing on methodology integration of abstract levels of epistemology heightened by a hybrid exploration of a complex and dynamic phenomenon such as leadership (Morgan, 2007). Other commentators, such as Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010) and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), argued that using mixed methods to overcome the weaknesses and problems associated with using either qualitative or

quantitative methods separately is necessary. Sechrest and Sidani (1995) argued that qualitative and quantitative methodologies complement each other to increase the study results' validity, reliability and credibility and enrich our understanding of the phenomenon in its current context.

Commentators on mixed methods have identified several reasons for using a mixed methods approach in a study. For instance, Rossman and Wilson (1985) suggested three reasons for using qualitative and quantitative methods: confirmation of the data through triangulation of methods, sound analysis based on richer data gathered using both approaches and new ways of thinking through the use of mixed methods, attending to the paradoxes that emerge from integrating the data sets from qualitative and quantitative methods. Greene et al. (1989) examined the publications that used mixed methods. They identified five reasons for using mixed methods in the study: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion and development. The following section discusses the reasons for using mixed methods in this study.

Greene et al. (1989) identified triangulation as a key reason for combining quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches in the same study. The emphasis here is on the triangulation of methods, meaning the use of more than one method to investigate the different dimensions of the same research question. The goal is to achieve a convergence of data to enhance the credibility of the study's findings, which was one of the overarching reasons for using mixed methods in this study. The researcher aimed to fortify and enrich the study's findings and conclusions.

Some commentators in the leadership field called for a convergence of methods, thus advocating for a 'carefully planned research that includes a variety of methods, such as field experiments, simulations, and a greater use of qualitative methods' (Gordon & Yukl, 2004: 364). This call was derived from the assumption that, as an intellectual discipline, leadership is maturing and is now characterised by a set of codified theories and methods that are capable of directing research. In addition, in leadership, the convergence would be achieved by adopting a research approach that brings the commitment to theory building and the methodology that allows for testing the theory using methods that could allow the generalisation of the findings (Migiro & Magangi, 2011).

This study also aimed at complementarity of quantitative and qualitative methodologies using mixed methods. Using qualitative and quantitative in the same study is assumed to help the

researcher understand the transformational leadership style and its consequences within the DPF. The focus was not only on the statistical and narrative data that were collected but also on understanding the phenomenon in its entirety. According to Yauch and Steudel (2003), mixed methods were used in their study of organisational culture. They claimed that triangulation and complementarity of the data gathered using qualitative and quantitative methodological approaches in the same study provided further insights and a thorough understanding of the case studies in question.

Furthermore, the use of mixed methods in this study is driven by practical rather than philosophical considerations. That is, the study focussed on what is useful and will work and what is achievable. This case does not mean that the researcher ignored the underlying philosophies that give direction to mixed methods.

Lastly, pragmatism and leadership share principles, such as the focus on the central idea of knowing the world through actions and experiences. They agree that overt action and reflection are used to acquire knowledge and that the ideas, concepts and theories can only be tested through rational actions that emerge from observing and analysing the outcomes. For a pragmatism researcher, practical consequences served as the axial test for metaphysical and epistemic significance (Stentz et al., 2012). In this way, pragmatism and its use of mixed methods support the core value of leadership.

4.5. Research Designs in Mixed Methods

The development of mixed methods as a methodological approach in research has led to various typologies of how data are collected. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) argued that the mixed methods research approach has one of the highest degrees of variation in mixing the research methods and paradigm characteristics. In their analysis of mixed methods publications, the authors identified more than 40 designs used in mixed methods research. These are later summarised into four components: the research objective, types of data and operations, types of analysis and types of inference. They concluded that researchers adopting a mixed methods approach use qualitative and quantitative methods either concurrently or sequentially. Creswell (2007: 61) classified mixed methods research designs into four major types, namely, ‘the explanatory design, the exploratory design, the embedded design and the triangulation design’. Explanatory and exploratory designs are what Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) referred to as sequential, whereas triangulation and embedded designs fulfil the concurrent criteria.

4.5.1. Explanatory Design

Explanatory design in mixed methods is one of the most used designs (Ivankova et al., 2006) and is very popular in social and behavioural sciences. This design is done in two phases sequentially, using quantitative methods first and then qualitative methods in the same study. Regarding mixed methods, several authors have discussed the characteristics of explanatory design (Creswell & Clark, 2006; Creswell, 2014). The first phase in this research design is the collection and analysis of quantitative data (Creswell & Clark, 2006), and the second phase is the subsequent collection of qualitative data.

The explanatory design is used mainly because qualitative data's primary role is to help build upon the quantitative results from the data collected and analysed earlier (Creswell et al., 2010). Morse (1991) argued that explanatory design is most suited to studies that use qualitative data to explain significant, unexpected or surprising results. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) also noted that an explanatory design can be used when the researcher is interested in collecting data from groups. Based on the results after collecting and analysing quantitative data, the researcher may want to follow up using qualitative methods such as focus groups to gather data from groups. Creswell et al. (2010) noted that the researchers using this design may want to use the characteristics of quantitative respondents and purposeful sampling to collect qualitative data.

However, Ivankova et al. (2006) noted that although explanatory design in mixed methods is widely used, implementing it in a research study is not always easy owing to certain methodological issues. For instance, the consideration for the methodology involves prioritising and determining the weight given to quantitative and qualitative approaches in the study, as well as considering the point at which quantitative and qualitative phases are connected and results are integrated (Creswell et al., 2010). However, Creswell and Clark (2006) explained that an explanatory design starts with quantitative methods, and many researchers used them as the main method, focusing on the data gathered using this method rather than on the qualitative data.

The two methodological approaches are integrated in two stages in the research. This first integration could be when the researcher is developing the interview schedule whilst selecting participants for the qualitative phase to explore the quantitative results. The second integration takes place during the interpretation and discussion phase, where the findings of both methods are discussed to draw conclusions.

4.5.2. Exploratory Design

Exploratory design is similar to explanatory design, where both have two phases. Exploratory design is usually referred to as the exploratory sequential design (Creswell et al., 2010). In explanatory design, the first phase is the collection of qualitative data and analysis, and the results are then used to inform the second phase of quantitative data collection (Greene et al., 1989; Creswell & Clark, 2006; Ivankova et al., 2006). In this design, exploration is needed where the instruments for quantitative research are not available, where the variables are not clear or unknown and, in some cases, where there is no guiding theory or framework (Creswell & Clark, 2006).

Creswell et al. (2010) suggested that this mixed methods research design would suit studies because it uses the qualitative approach in phase one. This design is also functional when the researcher is interested in generalising the qualitative results. The researcher may want to explore the phenomenon in more detail or in depth and use qualitative data to measure its relevance. Researchers who use this design may want to build on the qualitative results, to develop instruments or identify the variables in cases where they were initially unknown before collecting and analysing qualitative data. Creswell and Clark (2006) noted that this design may be considered the main approach because it used qualitative data in the first phase. The integration of the two methods in the exploratory design is similar to that of the explanatory design. Integration can occur after getting the qualitative results, when these results are used to design the questionnaire for the quantitative phase, or at the discussion phase, where the findings from the qualitative and quantitative research are integrated.

4.5.3. Embedded Design

Embedded design in mixed methods is when the research uses qualitative and quantitative methods simultaneously (Creswell et al., 2010; Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). In this design, data sets from qualitative or quantitative research are used in a secondary role to support the primary data sets. The main idea for this design is that a single data set from one methodology is insufficient to answer all the research questions, and other methods are needed to answer the rest of the research questions. Therefore, this design is usually used when the researcher needs to include data from the other method to answer questions within a largely quantitative or qualitative study (Creswell and Clarke, 2006). For instance, the researcher may want to embed a qualitative component within a primarily quantitative research design. To accomplish this, qualitative data gathering and analysis are then embedded within the quantitative design

(Caracelli & Greene, 1997). The embedded design can be carried out in a single phase (where both data from qualitative and quantitative methods are collected simultaneously) or a two-phase approach. Hanson et al. (2005) noted that in the embedded design, qualitative and quantitative can be used to answer different research questions in the same study.

In the embedded design, there is a dominant method. The weight in embedded design is usually given to the predominant method that guides the study, and the other method is embedded (Creswell & Clark, 2006). Ivankova and Creswell (2009) argued that embedding qualitative data within a quantitative design is common, but embedding quantitative data within a qualitative design is less frequent. The data from quantitative and qualitative methods are integrated either at the analysis stage or separately, and then, the results are integrated at the discussion stage. Depending on timing, if data collection from qualitative and quantitative methods is done concurrently, then each data set will be analysed separately as both methods answer different research questions within the study.

4.5.4. Triangulation Design

Creswell et al. (2010) noted that the triangulation design is the most well-known and commonly used design in mixed methods. Researchers use the triangulation design to complement the data obtained using different methods to understand better the research question (Morse, 1991; Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). The triangulation design's primary purpose is to overcome the weaknesses inherent in qualitative and quantitative methods and bring together the differing strengths (Patton, 2015). This design is also used when the researcher is interested in comparing and contrasting quantitative data with qualitative findings. In some cases, this design could be used to expand or validate quantitative results with qualitative findings (Creswell & Clark, 2006).

The triangulation design is done in one phase, where data from qualitative and quantitative methods are collected simultaneously. Owing to this one phase, the design is usually called concurrent triangulation (Creswell & Clark, 2006; Creswell et al., 2010; Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). Data collection and analysis are done separately but concurrently, and both approaches carry the same weight. Mixing the two methods usually occurs at the interpretation phase or by transforming one data set to integrate the results. For example, data collected using qualitative methods can be analysed through content analysis, which converts it to quantitative data and then merges it with quantitative data to understand the research problem better.

4.5.5. Chosen Mixed Methods Research Design for This Study

The triangulation concurrent design was the chosen design for this particular research project. Besides the advantage of this design taking less time to complete compared with explanatory and exploratory mixed method research designs, this design also helped this research to gather data from two different groups of people. The leaders in the DPF used qualitative methods, whereas the officers in the force used quantitative methods. This design was preferred because, as Creswell et al. (2017) argued, it could result in strongly validated and well-substantiated results because it takes advantage of the strengths of each method and offsets the weaknesses. The next chapter on research methods discusses how this design was used in more detail.

4.6. Conclusion

This chapter discusses the philosophical perspective (pragmatism) that guided this study and highlights the main principles of positivism and interpretivism. The objective is to justify taking a pragmatism approach in this study. This chapter has also discussed methodological approaches, including case study research and mixed methods that guided the data collection for this study. The use of mixed methods in the study is justified, and the different designs in the mixed methods research are discussed. The next chapter is the second part of the research methodology, in which data collection and analysis processes are discussed in detail.

Chapter 5: Data Collection and Analysis in Mixed Methods Research

5.1. Introduction

Following the previous chapter, which is this study's philosophical and methodological perspectives, this chapter presents the methods used for data collection and analysis. The study uses mixed methods and discusses qualitative and quantitative methods used in the study. The chapter starts by discussing and justifying the use of mixed methods in data collection, followed by a detailed discussion of the qualitative semi-structured interviews and how they were used in this study. Then, this chapter discusses the quantitative questionnaire and how it was designed to gather data from middle-ranked officers of the DPF. The last section of the chapter discusses how data from the qualitative research were collected.

5.2. Data Collection in Mixed Methods Research

This study employed mixed methods to gather data that addressed the research question. Creswell et al. (2006) argued that mixed methods serve as both a methodology and a method. Chapter 4 discusses mixed methods as a methodology, focussing on its use for collecting data using qualitative and quantitative approaches. Mixed methods is an emergent mode of collecting data that encourages the systematic combination and integration of qualitative and quantitative data within a single study (Johnson et al., 2007; Creswell & Poth, 2016; Shorten & Smith, 2017). Using mixed methods in the study requires the researcher to integrate the methods of data collection, data analysis and interpretation of the findings to draw conclusions. The purposeful integration of qualitative and quantitative data allows the researcher to view the research questions using diverse lenses (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013).

The argument for combining qualitative and quantitative data in this study is that it allows the researcher to obtain complete and synergistic use of data, which may not be possible when qualitative and quantitative are used separately in data collection and analysis (Guetterman et al., 2018). Moreover, mixed methods engage the potential strengths of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods to allow the researcher to reveal a variety of perspectives as well as uncover the connections that may exist within the complexity of the multifaced research questions (Greene et al., 1989; Creswell & Plano-Clarke, 2007). This study on transformational leadership aimed at uncovering the relationships between the intricate layers

of leadership in the police. Thus, the use of mixed methods would provide the best mode of collecting data for this study.

A clear understanding of the research question using mixed methods can be obtained through triangulation of one set of data (i.e. qualitative) with another (i.e. quantitative) to enhance the validity of the implications of the study. Besides the triangulation of data, Greene et al. (1989: 255) identified other purposes for using mixed methods in the same study, and these include complementarity, development, initiation and expansion. This study used mixed methods to triangulate the data corrected for the Dubai police leaders, which was gathered from the middle-ranked police officers in the DPF. Another reason for using mixed methods was to better understand the links, connections and contradictions in how police officers and their leaders perceive transformational leadership within DPF.

Qualitative research provides data collection tools such as unstructured and semi-structured interviews, participant observation and documentation, whereas the quantitative side of the equation offers methods such as questionnaires and experimentation. Mixed methods also enable the researcher to employ probability (theoretical) and nonprobability (purposive) sampling techniques, thus covering inductive and deductive strategies. Using qualitative and quantitative research in the same study enabled the researcher to draw from various data collection methods. Irwin (2008: 415) argued that using different data collection techniques and gathering data from multiple sources uncover specific slices and layers of the research question in the study.

Creswell et al. (2006) stressed that the data collection procedures must align with the type of mixed methods design used in the study. Therefore, researchers using a mixed methods approach could use procedures either drawn from parallel forms of data collection where qualitative and quantitative data are collected concurrently or those drawn from the sequential forms of data collection where one form of data is collected first. Then, they can use its findings to design the collection of the second form of data. This study used concurrent procedures to collect data where quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously. The following sections discuss qualitative and quantitative research methods and how they were used in this study.

5.2.1. Use of Qualitative Research in This Study

Bogdan and Biklen (2007) argued that one of the key features of qualitative research is to help understand how people negotiate meanings. Therefore, when the qualitative approach is used

in mixed methods research, it provides insights into particular processes and practices that exist within a specific community. For this particular study, qualitative data were collected from the leadership of the DPF to get their insights on their leadership styles and their understanding of transformational leadership. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) argued that researchers seek to gain insights by attempting to extract meanings from their data. Qualitative research was used to extract meanings from the words of the Dubai police leaders on how they lead people under them. As a researcher, I wanted to study transformational leadership in the DPF and attempted to derive meanings or interpretations of the meanings the Dubai police leaders assign to their leadership styles.

Critics of mixed methods have questioned the role of qualitative research, arguing that quantitative data are more prominent in mixed methods research, and qualitative data are relegated to a secondary status (Howe, 2004). Hesse-Biber (2010) noted that mixed methods have tended to lean towards a more positivist methodological approach, given that quantitative data are only used in a supporting role to illustrate the quantitative results or to help in designing more informed quantitative questions for a survey.

From the perspective of leadership studies, Conger (1999) noted that unlike other fields, such as decision-making and strategic change, researchers in leadership studies consider qualitative research suitable for the exploratory stages of the research. However, as stressed by Conger (1999), this thinking needs to be challenged; qualitative research should play a significant role because of the complexity of leadership. Yukl (2009) argued that leadership research is still in the infancy stage, and thus, it should embrace all methodological perspectives accessible to researchers. Therefore, qualitative research plays an equally important role in this study as the quantitative phase.

Some critics of quantitative research in leadership studies argued that using a purely quantitative research approach limits our understanding of the complexity of leadership (Yukl, 2009). Therefore, the qualitative research approach is needed to understand the interactions and perceptions of the leaders. Leadership involves multiple levels of phenomena, possesses a dynamic character and has a symbolic component. According to Conger (1998), these are elements that are well suited to be addressed with qualitative methodologies. Steiner (2002) argued that qualitative data play a key and pivotal role in leadership research because leadership is context-dependent. In this study, the qualitative research phase was used to obtain the

experiences of leaders in the DPF and their understanding of the transformational leadership style.

Proponents of using qualitative research in leadership studies argued for its potential to generate highly rich and detailed insights and contextual explanations for the many challenges of leadership (Symon et al., 2000; Bryman, 2004; Lanka et al., 2020). The literature argued that qualitative research is well suited to study leadership, particularly when accessing tacit and intuitive understandings of a particular culture (Tracy, 2019). Meanwhile, Timans et al. (2019) argued that using qualitative research in mixed methods studies allows the researcher to consider carefully what the numbers generated from quantitative research mean. Therefore, when qualitative data are combined with data gained from quantitative research, the results help the researcher to understand leadership as a dynamic, transactional process (Yokishawa et al., 2008; Small, 2011).

In this study, qualitative research provided an opportunity to hear first-hand how leaders in the DPF lead. This approach helped the researcher understand the leaders' value-in-use and how they live this value in their daily work. The following section discusses the methods used to collect qualitative data in this thesis.

5.2.1.1. Qualitative Data Collection Tools Used in the Study—Semi-Structured Interviews

Barrett and Twycross (2018) argued that qualitative research provides holistic data generated using one of the numerous qualitative data collection tools to develop insights and understanding of leadership. These tools include individual and group interviews, participant observation, visual and textual analysis and documentation. This study used individual (semi-structured) interviews, which provided a detailed discussion of interviews (semi-structured) and how they were used in the study to gather qualitative data.

5.2.1.2. Qualitative Interviews as a Tool for Collecting Data

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) described interviews as guided questions–answer exchange of views between two or more persons discussing a mutual interest theme. Burgess (1988) referred to qualitative interviews as conversations with a purpose. Although Burgess (2006) referred to interviews as conversations, the difference is that interviews usually have a purpose and specific structure (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Rubin and Rubin (2011) observed that interviews offer opportunities for researchers to explore complex phenomena; the authors

concluded that conducting interviews is like having 'night-vision goggles' (page vii) that allow the researcher to discover information that may be hidden or not easily seen.

Interviews have long been used in social sciences as a key data collection tool in qualitative research (Briggs, 2007; Talmy, 2010). Qualitative interviews have increased in popularity in leadership research, particularly in studies investigating participants' experiences, beliefs and perceptions of the phenomena (Conger, 1998). This popularity is attributed to the numerous advantages of interviews to the researcher and the research process in general. For instance, Lindlof and Taylor (2011) argued that interviews provided the participants a platform to express their opinions, motivations and experiences. In addition, the participants can tell their stories about how they perceive their world. Therefore, interviews allow the participants to provide their accounts, explanations and justifications for their actions and opinions. This study opted to use semi-structured interviews with the leaders of the DPF to elicit their views and actions regarding their leadership style, particularly transformational leadership.

Moreover, qualitative interviews help reinforce and better understand quantitative data, given that the researchers can probe and ask participants to verify some issues that emerged from quantitative data (Kuper et al., 2008). Furthermore, qualitative interviews offer opportunities for mutual discovery and reflection. For instance, the interviews in this research enabled the researcher to ask questions that allowed the participants to defend or expand on issues that were raised in the quantitative phase of the research. The participants were willing to clarify leadership issues but also appreciated that some of these issues were discussed.

This study sought to gather data from Dubai police leaders. The study found semi-structured interviews to be greatly suitable than other methods. Semi-structured in-depth interviews are popular amongst qualitative researchers conducting leadership studies (Klenke, 2016). These types of interviews are useful for collecting data on various experiences. In this research, semi-structured interviews were used to collect open-ended data to explore the thoughts of Dubai police leaders, their feelings, beliefs and understanding of transformational leadership styles. Semi-structured interviews may not lead to the 'truth', but they do provide insights into what people think and do. This study aimed partly to investigate leadership practice in the DPF; therefore, semi-structured interviews were well suited for this purpose.

5.2.2. Data Collection Process

Qualitative data for this study were collected from the DPF leaders through semistructured interviews. Data were collected from 15 leaders ranging from the rank of Major to Lieutenant

General, all of them leading departments with groups of people working under them. Northouse (2016) attempted to conceptualise a leader and identified various ways leaders were defined in the literature. The author concluded that leaders are defined based on five perspectives. These include definitions that focus on group *processes*, *personality perspectives, act or a behaviour, power relationship* and *a transformational process*. The lowest rank of the participants in the study was a Major, which was based on the researcher's position with the Dubai police. The research holds the police rank of Captain, a rank below Major. In his capacity as a Captain, he is responsible for leading a department but is opposed to a Major who is responsible for leading several departments. Therefore, the criteria for selecting participants were based on their leadership position and power relationships rather than how the participants lead.

This study attempted to capture the perceptions and understanding of senior leaders in the Dubai police about transformational leadership. The participants were leaders who possess opinions, including experiences and characteristics related to this social reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Mason, 2006). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) argued that semi-structured interviews are useful when people's behaviours cannot be observed directly. The semi-structured interviews in this study were conducted with senior leaders in the DPF who are in positions to influence activities in the police force.

All participants were in a position of power in the DPF. They do not only influence the operations of the Dubai police but also have key roles in the strategic plans of the force. Below are the ranking of the Dubai police leaders.

The participants included four Majors (M1, M2, M3 and M4), two Lieutenant Colonels (LC1 and LC2), three Colonels (C1, C2 and C3) and four Major Generals (MG1, MG2, MG3 and MG4). In addition, an interview was conducted with an individual who is not in policing leadership but is providing leadership consultancy to the Dubai police (DC1). All the participants may be categorised as elites or experts within the Dubai police.

5.2.2.1 Researching the Elite

Harvey (2011) argued that there is no universal agreement on what defines someone as elite. Stephen (2007) observed that most researchers defined elites relatively, focusing much on their social position of power in the organisation or society in general. McDowell (1998) defined elites as professionally competent and highly skilled individuals, and in the case of organisations, she considered elites as those with high-status employees. McClure and McNaughtan (2021), who focused on higher education, viewed elites as people who hold strong

positions, in addition to having social capital and networks that offer them the ability to exercise power or influence those with power. McClure and McNaughtan's (2021) definition highlights elites as individuals with power and authority as well as people with influence within the organisation. The participants in this study were individuals in positions of power and authority. One may not have positional authority but may have influence over DPF leadership.

In particular, semi-structured interviews are considered the most suited tools for collecting data from elites (Schoenberger, 1991; Harvey, 2010). Harvey (2010) observed that the use of semi-structured interviews with elites is considered critical because elite leaders shape the policies and characteristics of the organisation. Schoenberger (1991) argued that semistructured interviews can provide different perspectives on how an organisation operates. However, Lui (2018) cautioned that interviewing elites is difficult; therefore, careful planning is necessary.

Initially, the researcher had to carefully design the interview questions. According to Aberbach and Rockman (2002), it is advisable to start with general questions that focus on a participant's background to create rapport. In this study, the interviews began with general questions that allowed the participants to talk about themselves. They discussed their journeys to their current positions. This experience also provided me with the opportunity to ask them about their roles and responsibilities. Furthermore, Aberbach and Rockman (2002) advised that researchers should ask questions that allow them to provide what they want to know. As I was designing the questions and even when I was conducting the interviews, I kept asking myself what information I wanted from the participants. This study focused on transformational leadership, and I wanted to determine leaders' understanding of this leadership style and how they apply it to their leadership. Therefore, I had to ask questions specific to the research questions. Lui (2018) noted that novice researchers should discuss question designs with more experienced individuals who can help them identify the technical aspects of interviewing. The interview questions for this study were discussed with the supervision team, and their suggestions regarding the question design for elite interviews were very useful and constructive. The interviews were also piloted on three majors in the DPF, all of whom were holders of doctoral degrees. This helped me refine my interview questions.

The next step when preparing for elite interviews is for the researcher to acquaint himself with the participants' professional biography, including their career history (Mikecz, 2012). Before each interview, I used the DPF library to investigate the participants' professional backgrounds. This helped me get acquainted with them and establish trust. In some interviews with the

leaders, they were pleased to learn that I knew their education and career history, which helped me establish rapport with the participants.

Gaining access to and being able to set an appointment are the challenges when interviewing elite participants (Breeze, 2023). Lui (2018) noted that although gaining access to elite participants can be achieved, this is just the beginning of the entire interviewing process because it does not mean that the researcher would be able to obtain the data required for their study. Therefore, although the elite participants may be fluent in English, conducting interviews in their native language is advisable to ensure that the elite participants express their perspectives and opinions freely. The interviews were also conducted in Arabic, which is the native language of the UAE. This helped to open up the participants and allow them to talk freely about their leadership styles. It also made it easy for me as a researcher to write field notes.

Another factor to consider for elite participants is the location of the interview. Elite participants usually have limited time to sit in interviews. Ma et al. (2021) posited locating a suitable venue that makes elite participants more relaxed and freer talk. Dowling et al. (2016) underlined the importance of location and spaces in shaping interviews and data collection. Sin (2003) argued that the choice of a suitable site for the interview may give interviewees confidence and make them feel that they have something important to contribute and that they are in control. In this study, eight of the interviews were conducted in the participants' offices, whereas the other interviews were conducted in the senior officers' mess.

The interviews were prepared in a way that gave the participants an experience; the interviews were not a one-way traffic as the participants also asked questions that helped create engaging conversations about transformational leadership. Stephen (2007) observed that elite interviews usually take as long as an hour and half. In this study, the interviews that were conducted in an officers' mess lasted for a minimum of 45–90 min, whereas those conducted in the participants' offices lasted between 30 and 50 min. Perhaps the difference in the duration of interviews between the officers' mess and that performed in the participants' offices could be attributed to the distractions that occurred during the interviews. In the officers' mess, there were more distractions than in the participants' offices where interruptions were necessary and important to participants' line of duty.

Sin (2003) further observed that a suitable location for the participant would make the interviewee feel more relaxed, and it can reveal important information and influence the

dynamics between the researcher and the participant (Elwood & Martin, 2000). The different approaches to the interviews, particularly in the different locations, produced interesting answers; for the interviews conducted in the office, the answers were diverse, and some participants came up with interesting ideas. However, the interviews conducted in the officers' mess were, at times, guarded. In this study on transformational leadership, I sought the opinions of the leaders and incorporated these abstract views into real-life settings. This helped me obtain a better understanding of what the participants were saying and what they meant. However, this was not easy in the officers' mess, unlike the offices which were well organised.

Ma et al. (2021) observed that elite participants are public figures; therefore, they are more concerned with their reputation; they are very careful in what they say and how it can affect their reputation. Therefore, I was surprised when all the police leaders who participated in the study allowed me to record the interviews. Goldstein (2002) argued that elites are used to being interviewed; therefore, they know what information to let out and how to state it. Perhaps, the confidence they had in themselves was the reason they allowed me to record their interviews. On my part, this helped me to focus on the questions I was asking and the answers the elite participants provided, allowing me to conduct the interviews in a more conversational form.

Harvey (2011) observed that elite participants have so many distractions during interviews, which could be their telephone ringing or secretaries entering rooms to deliver a message. This was true in my study at both sites (the offices and the officers' mess) where the participants had to stop either answering a phone call or talking to somebody (as in the case of the officers' mess). The location also affected the interview recordings (Edwards & Holland, 2013). The interviews conducted in the offices of the participants were easy to record as there were fewer interruptions; apart from a few phone calls, there were no external forces to disrupt the recording. However, the interviews conducted in a public place (the officers' mess) involved a few disruptions either from colleagues who wanted to say hello to the participants or noise from the diners.

However, as Lui (2018) noted, these interruptions should provide opportunities for researchers to catch up on their notes and reflect on how the interview is going. It is also an opportunity to observe these leaders in action, that is, how they respond to the phone when talking either to their bosses or subordinates. The interviews conducted in the officers' mess provided insights into how the participants talked to the people who approached them. All this information became valuable to the study as it helped me to understand what the participants were saying.

Phillippi and Lauderdale (2017) recommended writing field notes in qualitative research to enable researchers to capture and document contextual information. To not forget important details from the interviews, I wrote field notes during the entire interview process, which helped me to record and describe the things I heard and experienced during the interviews. I also transcribed the interviews immediately and provided a copy to the participant to approve what I had transcribed. Transcribing the interviews as soon as possible after, in addition to the field notes I wrote, helped me obtain a deeper understanding of the issues discussed in the interviews. This also helped me become aware of the context within which the research was happening and enabled me to grasp the moments as they were happening.

Elite participants are people with power who, in some cases, may not be easy to approach. In this study, the interviews I conducted with the leaders helped me to build relationships with some of them. On a few occasions, I had informal interviews (conversations) with the participants particularly MJ1, MJ2 and LC2. Apart from the interviews, these participants were able to provide more insights and talk more about the challenges of leadership in the police force in Dubai and the strategies they adopted to overcome these challenges. This information was added to the collected data, which helped me to understand the research question for this study.

5.2.3. Sampling in Qualitative Research—Purposive Sampling

Ospina (2004) observed a growing need for complementing quantitative standardised data with insights and perspectives from insiders in leadership research, which can only be derived from qualitative research approaches. Several authors have noted the importance of understanding qualitative sampling and its use (Sandelowski, 1995; Marchall, 1996; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Sampling is contextualised as selecting from a given population a number of participants that is considered adequate to answer the research question. However, Palinkas et al. (2015) noted that although quantitative sampling methods used in mixed methods research based on probability theory are well established, strategies for qualitative sampling are often less evident. Palinkas et al. (2015) further observed that sampling problems are always present in qualitative research, and researchers must address them to ensure the credibility of the findings of the study. This section discusses the sampling methods used in the qualitative section, focusing on the purposive sampling method.

Palinkas et al. (2015) observed that when planning qualitative research, researchers must determine who and how many people will participate, depending on what will be useful and

what will have credibility. Meanwhile, Collingridge and Gantt (2008) argued that the selection of participants for a given study must meet a specific purpose that aimed at answering the research question, as such qualitative sampling methods are usually referred to as purposive. In purposive sampling, the participants were selected based on their knowledge and experience of the topic under study (Palinkas et al., 2015; Patton, 2015). In this study, the participants were leaders who had worked for more than 10 years in the DPF; therefore, they had extensive experience and knowledge of leadership, capable of providing valuable data in answering the research question. Hence, 15 interviews with the 44 senior officers would constitute a representative sample.

According to Patton (2015), purposeful sampling is a widely used qualitative research method to identify and select participants capable of providing rich data to answer the research question. Such participants are likely to provide rich and focussed data on the research problem that allows the researcher to offer a clear account of the phenomenon under study (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Tongco, 2007). Bernard (2002) noted that experience and knowledge are not only the factors to consider, but the participants should also be available, accessible and willing to participate. However, Empson (2018) noted that access to elite participants may be a problem owing to the nature of their work and their lack of time to sit down and be interviewed.

This study used a purposive sampling method to select participants in the qualitative research phase. The participants have to be at least a Major, have worked in the DPF for at least 10 years and have to be leading a large department with at least three smaller departments working under them. All the participants in the qualitative phase of the study had worked in the DPF for more than 10 years, and they were in positions where they influence the activities of the police force. The minimum experience in leadership positions for the participants was 5 years, whereas the longest serving participant in leadership positions was 22 years. These police leaders were in a good position to discuss leadership and their experiences in these positions.

5.2.3.1. Ending the Interview Data Collection

The concept of saturation is a key concept in qualitative research. According to Saunders et al. 2018), it is the criterion when a researcher in qualitative research decides to stop collecting data as no new information emerges from the interviews. This research carried out 15 interviews with senior leaders in the DPF. After each interview, I produced an interview summary in which I noted the emerging themes, which helped me refine my questions as well as reflect on how

the interview progressed. I was new to conducting qualitative research interviews, and I was nervous in the first three interviews; however, I gained confidence as the research progressed. I noted the emerging themes, and by the 13th participant, I was not collecting any new information; however, I continued to do two more interviews ,as I had already scheduled them with appointments. The other reason for continuing with the interviews was that a participant was a female leader, and the other one was a leader in the police. I felt the views of these leaders needed to be included not only because of their positions but also for search of new information.

5.2.3.2. Reflexivity

Olmos-Vega et al. (2023) observed that qualitative researchers must engage in reflexivity to account for how they manage subjectivity in their research. Subramani, (2019) highlighted reflexivity as a concept in which qualitative researchers must acknowledge and disclose their selves in their research and expose their influence on the inquiry. Adler (2022) observed the trustworthiness of research through honesty and transparency in reporting how the biases were identified and addressed in the study. For this to be established, the researcher must acknowledge their role in the co-construction of knowledge. In this section, my position is to conduct research. I do so by researching leadership and transformational practice in the DPF from the perspective of a policeman of 17 years.

Finlay (2002) mentioned five types of reflexivity, that is, intersubjective reflection, social critique, personal intersubjective, mutual collaboration and discursive deconstruction. This approach adopts reflexivity as personal introspection through the subjective interpretation of my personal reactions to the research encounters with the senior leader in the DPF. Personal introspection is the preferred form in this study as opposed to the other forms because it allows me as a leader in the police to reflect on my interpretations of and conclusions about events, and it is also a means to understand the experiences and challenges of senior leaders in the police force.

I have been with the DPF for all my professional life as an adult, and thus, I am an insider. In this study, I find myself in the middle. When I started this research project, I was a Captain in the Dubai dolice. During this study, I was promoted to Major in the force. Both positions are at the borderline between senior leaders and middle-ranked officers. A Major is the lowest-ranked senior leader, whereas a captain is the highest-ranked middle officer. I consider myself an insider in both groups and also an outsider. I have held similar ranks as some of the middle-ranked officers in the quantitative phase of the research; however, the nature of quantitative

research where the research and respondents do not meet means that I had no direct contact with this group in the research. My position could not influence their responses because the respondents were anonymous. I also sent the entire sample of 460 potential respondents consent letters assuring them that they have the choice to opt out of the research at any time with no consequences attached.

Braun and Clarke (2013) observed that a researcher is an insider when they share some attributes with the participants in the study; however, a researcher is an outsider when he does not belong to the same group as the participants of the study. At first glance, I am an insider as I am a police officer in the DPF, conducting research in the same organisation where the participants are working. The qualitative phase of the research was conducted on senior leaders who share similarities with me as we work in the same organisation. However, I consider myself an outsider to this group. By the time this study was completed, I was a Captain and junior officer for all the participants in the study. My position in the police could not warrant me to influence the outcome of the interviews, and the people I interviewed were senior to me and wielded more power as they headed departments.

As I was studying for a master's degree in the United Kingdom, I was introduced to Western cultural values, which influenced my life to a certain extent. Notably, my cognisance of Western culture relies subjective perception of what Western culture entails. I appreciate certain values that are more connected to the west than in Dubai. These include my interest in leadership styles, which favour the rights of employees and social justice and motivated my research. Whilst conducting interviews with the senior leaders in the DPF, I was intimidated by their power; however, my previous Western educational influence and experience of dealing with different kinds of people in my life gave me the courage to ask the questions and remain calm when in front of these powerful people in the DPF.

My interest in leadership is also motivated by my career in the DPF. When I completed my course at the Dubai Police Academy, I was posted to the Human Resource Department of the DPF. Since then, I have been working in different aspects in this department. This area is directly related to the human resource challenges that the staff encounter in their careers, one of which is related to leadership. Part of my responsibility entails liaising with senior leaders and their followers. My interest in leadership originated from the changes I witnessed in the cases and challenges that inspired me to investigate the changes occurring in leadership in the DPF. My occupation in the police grants me insider status as I am fully aware of the changes

in the Dubai police, and I could easily get access to the participants, which would not be easy for an outsider. However, I might also be considered an outsider as the participants were senior leaders in a department that wielded considerable power.

5.2.3.3. Trustworthiness and Authenticity of the Data

Khalid Ahmed (2024) noted that qualitative research must provide an explanation to ensure the quality of the methods used as well as truthfulness and authenticity of the data collected. Johmsom et al. (2020) provided best practices for systematic development and conducting qualitative research, and they emphasised the significance of rigorousness and quality. Noble, and Heale (2019) proposed that the use of triangulation, that is, integrating data from different sources, is useful in validating the findings and enhances credibility.

I had no influence on the quantitative data, which were collected via an online survey and the respondents were anonymous. I also had no influence on the outcome of the qualitative research owing to the nature of the participants. These were people with power that I could not influence. The study used semi-structured interviews and triangulated the findings. After each interview, I created an interview summary in which I noted the emerging themes. These themes were used in subsequent interviews to ascertain the truth from different sources. Triangulation was also used when cimparing findings from qualitative and quantitative research.

Khaled Ahmed (2024) noted that techniques such as member checking may improve data reliability; however, there may be situations where performing these checks is not easy owing to factors such as power dynamics. This was the case in this study. Besides triangulation, to ensure the credibility of the data from qualitative research, I also used lengthy and expressive quotations and excerpts from the data sources. Reflexivity was also instrumental in reducing biases and ensuring that objectivity was maintained throughout the research process.

5.3. Quantitative Phase of the Research

This study used a mixed methods approach that combined quantitative methods with qualitative data collection tools. This section discusses the quantitative phase of the study. Muijs (2022) defined quantitative research using Aliaga and Gunderson's (2003) definition, '*Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods in particular statistics*.' Moreover, according to Creswell and Creswell (2017), qualitative research is defined as empirical research about a phenomenon that involves testing a theory with variables that are measured and analysed using statistics. Babbie (2013) observed

that quantitative research is guided by objectivist epistemology and attempts to explain social behaviour using statistics to measure what is considered a static reality. Quantitative research endorses the idea that the phenomenon studied has an independent objective reality for the subjects of the study.

Rahman et al. (2017) observed that quantitative research is not only objective but also formal and rigorous and uses systematic strategies to generate knowledge to solve problems. One of the main characteristics of quantitative research is that data are collected from many people and analysed using statistical methods, often using computer software (Antonakis et al., 2004). Furthermore, quantitative methods allow researchers to generate a broad set of data, allowing for the generalisation of the findings, and to present them concisely (Borgstede & Scholz, 2021). Researchers adopting quantitative methods usually apply a predesigned and standardised instrument with predetermined response categories that accommodate the varying experiences and perspectives of the respondents. However, the use of sets in predetermined, standardised responses based on theory is identified as one of the weaknesses of quantitative methods because this limits the respondents from providing detailed insights into their personal experiences (Yilmaz, 2013). Patton (2015) further emphasised this limitation, arguing that quantitative methods allow respondents to express their feelings and thoughts or describe their experiences using their own words. Therefore, researchers who want to use quantitative methods as well as generate further insights from the participants' perspective and experiences find mixed methods suitable. This case was one of the main reasons for using mixed methods in this study.

5.3.1. Quantitative Methods—The Questionnaire

Quantitative methods include tests, questionnaires and systematic measurements, which generally generate numbers. In return, the generated data are analysed using mathematical models and statistics to draw conclusions. The quantitative phase of this study used a questionnaire as the mail tool to collect quantitative data.

The questionnaire is considered the most popular data collection tool in management and leadership research. However, Rowley (2014) cautioned that given the prevalence of the questionnaire, novice research may easily assume that a questionnaire is simple to design and use, but this may not be the case. There is a need for considerable care and consideration to the design of a questionnaire, which will provide valuable data to the study. The questionnaire is used as a data collection tool to profile a sample in terms of numbers or to gather or count the

frequency of occurrences in perspectives, attitudes, experiences and behaviours (Rowley, 2014). The advantages of using a questionnaire in research are the ease of gathering information from several respondents and the ability to generalise the findings.

Transformational leadership researchers commonly use an already designed questionnaire—the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1996; Rowold, 2005; Schriesheim et al., 2009; Batista-Foguet et al., 2021). Since its creation by Bass and Avolio (1996) to measure the transformational leadership model, the MLQ has been widely adopted by leadership researchers in many studies to examine general leadership theory (Rowold, 2005; Schriesheim et al., 2009; Batista-Foguet et al., 2021). However, this study did not adopt the MLQ as this was designed to measure leadership from a leader's perspective. Moreover, this study's use of quantitative methods was to gather data on the perspectives of people being led (the followers) and not the leader.

The questionnaire for this study was designed based on the **four dimensions of transformational leader**ship (i.e. *inspirational motivation, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation and idealised influence*) from the perspectives of the followers (the led—the police officers) in the DPF. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leadership places more emphasis on followers' change and inspiration to embrace and commit to a shared vision and goal. It challenges followers to be innovative and developing. In addition to the four dimensions of leadership, two other variables were added—employee performance and organisational performance—to the perspectives from the respondents. This study used quantitative methods to answer the following three objectives of the study:

i. To critically assess the perspectives of middle-rank officers in the DPF on transformational leadership.

ii. To determine how transformational leadership in the DPF is affecting the middle-ranked police officers' employee performance.

iii. To assess the effects of the transformational leadership style on the overall performance of the DPF as a public organisation

The questionnaire was considered the best tool to use when gathering information from the lower and middle ranks of the DPF to answer the two objectives above. There are several ways to reach the participants through which the questionnaire can be distributed, such as post, email, face-to-face or online questionnaires and particularly web-based questionnaires.

This study used web-based questionnaires, which have gained popularity in quantitative research in recent years (Duffy et al., 2005; Wright, 2005). Web-based questionnaires are a reliable method for conducting online research (Wright, 2005). In web-based questionnaires, the respondents are contacted through email with a link that directs them to a secure online survey tool where they are able to fill the questionnaire online. Web-based questionnaires' advantage is that they are cost efficient, faster and can reach a large number of respondents (Evans and Mathur, 2005). This study used SurveyMonkey, a popular online survey tool that allows researchers to design surveys, distribute them to an audience, and collect and analyse the responses. 460 Police officers (between the ranks from Warrant Officer and Captain) of the DPF were sent personal emails introducing the study and requesting them to follow the link to answer the online survey questionnaire.

5.3.2. Questionnaire Design

Ganassali (2006) argued that the design of web-based questionnaires is essential, as poorly designed questionnaires can deter respondents and produce skewed answers. Reips (2006) observed that researchers designing web-based questionnaires need to consider two key goals, that is, the respondents will be motivated to complete the questionnaire minimizing measurement error and reducing nonresponse (Schleyer & Forrest, 2004). Therefore, when designing web-based questionnaires, the questions must be written simply and readable and the respondents must understand the questions and be motivated to complete the survey (Ritter & Sue, 2007).

Brace (2004) emphasised the significance of question encoding in the comprehension of web-based questionnaires, that is, questions are written to fit into the respondents' language, including their income, education and employment level. The questions used in the quantitative phase of this research were designed with best practices regarding the wording and order of the questions. The objective was to avoid ambiguity on the sample quality, motivate the respondents to complete the survey, and minimise nonresponse. The questions were also designed with the consideration of the respondents so as not to misinterpret the questions or deliberately lie.

The research used a Likert scale. Nemoto and Beglar (2014) described this scale as a psychometric scale comprising multiple categories; the respondents have to choose from these categories to indicate their perspectives, feelings or attitudes on a particular issue. Croasmun and Ostrom (2011) noted that the construct of the Likert scale depends on the research question.

The Likert scale is useful when the study aims to understand the respondents' perceptions of a single variable or the phenomenon of interest. Then, this variable is expressed by several manifested items in the questionnaire mutually addressing the different aspects of the phenomenon, which measures the whole phenomenon when put together. The Likert scale is very useful in mixed methods as the data gathered through this method can be combined, compared or contrasted with qualitative data (Nemoto & Beglar, 2014).

The questionnaire for this study was designed to motivate the respondents to complete it. The questionnaire was divided into sections. The first section comprised five questions on personal details, including education and career experience in the police. The second section comprised eight questions on organisational performance, and the third section comprised 10 questions on employee performance. The last four sections focussed on the four dimensions of transformational leadership—individual consideration (7 questions), idealised influence (15 questions), inspirational motivation (8 questions) and intellectual stimulation (7 questions).

5.3.3. Piloting the Questionnaire

Several commentators argue that a good questionnaire is a pretested questionnaire (see, for example, Reynolds et al., 1993; Diamantopoulos et al., 1994; Willis, 2014). As opposed to face-to-face interviews, web-based questionnaires depend on the respondent's understanding of the worded questions; there is no one to explain the questions to the respondent. Given that the respondents rely on the words that make up the questions, poorly written questions can lead to various interpretations of the same question. In some cases, some respondents may not understand the question, leading to noncompletion of the survey (Ball, 2019). Therefore, before sending out the questionnaire to the respondents, the researchers need to try it out on a few people (Geisen & Murphy, 2020). This study was piloted on 10 individuals: three lecturers from the University of Dubai, four police officers and three senior police officers at the level of Captain. The lecturers were involved in obtaining technical comments on the wording of the questions, whereas the police officers' comments were about understanding and ease of answering the questions. The comments received from the pilot was used to rewrite the questions. Initially, the questionnaire was made up of 72 questions. After receiving the comments from the pilot, the questions were reduced to 60.

Table 1: Summary of Factors Used in the Questionnaire.

Factor		Number of items
Employee performance	Employee performance (EP)	8
Organisational performance	Organisational performance (OP)	10
Transformational leadership	Individual consideration (TLS/IC)	7
	Idealised influence (TLS/II)	15
	Inspirational motivation (TLS/IM)	8
	Intellectual stimulation (TLS/IS)	7
Total items		55

Carious commentators also observed that the order in which the questions appear on the questionnaire could lead to context effects (Schobar, 1999; Stefkovics & Kmetty, 2022). The argument here is that prior questions may generate a context in which questions that appear later in the questionnaire are interpreted. Stefkovics and Kmetty (2022) observed that the visual design of web-based questionnaires may also influence the respondents' answers. Therefore, the pilot study was also intended to determine how the respondents perceived the questionnaire and if the ordering of the questions influenced the understanding of the questions. The comments from the pilot led to the reordering of the last four sections, starting with individualised consideration rather than intellectual stimulation, which had appeared in section 4 of the original questionnaire.

5.3.4. Data Collection and Sampling

Data for the quantitative phase of this research were collected using a web-based questionnaire from 283 police officer respondents from the rank of first warrant officer to Captain. These categories were chosen because these officers have a direct influence on the Dubai police leaders. They were well placed to provide their perspectives on transformational leadership and

its influence on their motivation and performance. The Warrant Officer is a rank above the Sergeant, whereas the Captain is a rank below Major in the Dubai police. Therefore, the quantitative phase of this research draws participants from the ranks of *Warrant Officers*, *Senior Warrant Officers*, *1st Lieutenants*, *Lieutenants* and *Captains*. Although the people in these rank categories could be considered leaders in their own capacities, they participated in this study as subordinates who work under senior leaders. Moerover, the study sought their perspective and views on their leaders and not the way they lead.

Before starting a research, one must know the population and the group of people from whom the researchers want to obtain data for the study (Sue & Ritter, 2007). This research was interested in the perspectives of lower and middle officers in the DPF and on how leadership influences their performance and that of the organisation. The selected population were police officers with ranks between Warrant Officer and Captain in the DPF. The total population of police officers falling into these ranks were 4600. Table 2 presents the subpopulation for each category.

Table 2: Number of Respondents by Rank and Gender.

Rank	**Number of officers**
Warrant Officers	1200
Senior Warrant Officers	980
1st Lieutenants	900
Lieutenants	720
Captains	650
Female officers	150

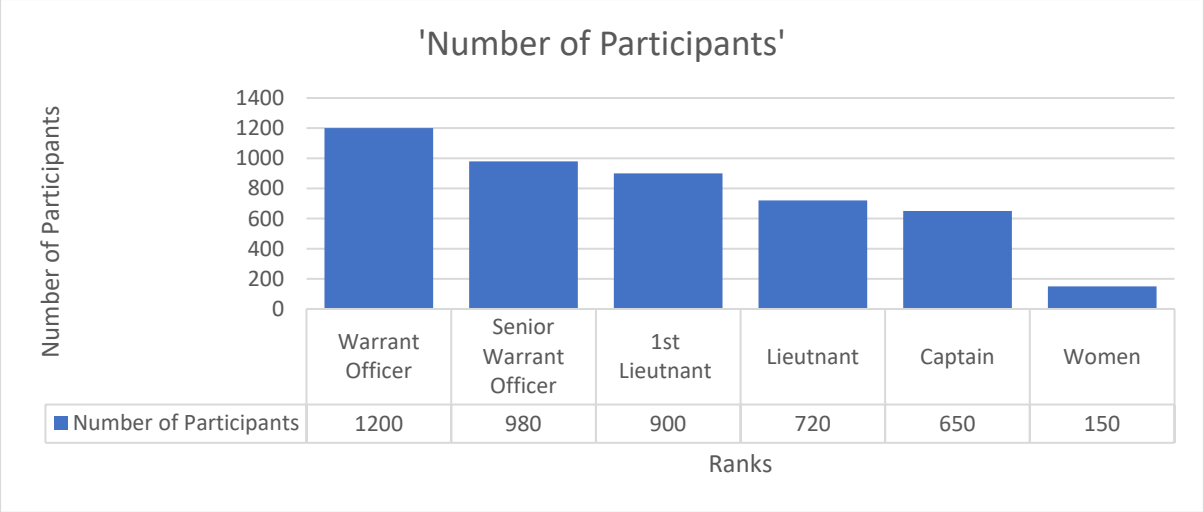


Figure 1: Number of Respondents.

In addition to the categorisation based on ranks, the female officers in these groups were categorised separately. The DPF has very few female officers, and it was assumed that they may not be well represented in the study through random selection of the participants. Therefore, female officers within the sampled ranks are included in the study as an additional category for sample selection.

5.3.5. Sampling

The methodology literature emphasized the need for sampling (Faugier & Sargeant, 1997; Singh & Masuku, 2014; Anderson et al., 2017). The argument is that studying the entire population would be impossible owing to limited resources, such as time and the availability of finance. In this instance, the population refers to all cases eligible to be included in the study, and the sample is the subset of this population selected to represent the entire population. The selected sample allows the researcher to efficiently study a relatively smaller and manageable population group. Sue and Ritter (2017) observed that the researcher needs to select a representative sample that would generate valuable data, allowing researchers to make inferences and generalisations representing the whole population (Saunders et al., 2016).

Etikan and Bala (2017) observed two ways of sampling: using the probability (random) or nonprobability (judgemental) methods of selecting participants for the study. Probability sampling is also known as ‘random sampling’, which permits every single item from the universe to have an equal chance of presence in the sample. Etikan and Bala (2017) stated that probability sampling used in quantitative research involves selecting a relatively representative number of units from the target population or, in some cases, from strata or subgroups within

the population. Unlike nonprobability sampling that selects participants based on what they can contribute to the study, probability sampling is based on random sampling, where every unit in the target population has a chance of being selected to participate in the study.

According to SurveyMonkey, the probability sampling method of a web-based survey software has two key requirements. Firstly, selection is random, which allows each unit to study the population to be selected. Secondly, each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected to participate in the study. Etikan and Bala (2017) observed that probability sampling focuses on external validity when working with issues of transferring the assessment to others. Probability sampling can focus on one group of homogeneous units, although it can focus on multiple sample sizes from a heterogeneous population (Daniels, 2011; Singh & Masuku, 2014). An important assumption in probability sampling is that the selected sample matches the main characteristics of the target population (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014).

This study followed Saunders et al.'s (2016) recommendation that the researcher should initially define the population. The target population for this study were low- and middle-ranked officers in the DPF. Within the entire police force, the target population was identified as police officers falling between the ranks of Warrant Officers and Captain. The study participants were from these groups of officers because they have experienced direct leadership from the qualitative participants who were senior leaders of DPF.

How the sample participants are selected determines the population to which the study findings can be generalised (Check & Schutt, 2011). Saunders et al. (2016) proposed that the researcher has to have full access to the list of the target population before selecting a sample. For this study, the research had to seek permission from the Dubai policing leadership to access the list of employees, the human resource department provided the most up-to-date list with all the names and emails of the officers in the target group. This enabled the researcher to have access to all units in the study's target population.

Moreover, Saunders et al. (2016) noted that after obtaining the list, the researcher has to decide on a random sampling method to use in the study. This research used stratified random and simple random sampling methods to obtain a sample that can provide valuable data. Taherdoost (2016) observed that in stratified sampling, the target population was initially divided into subgroups or strata, with each of the strata comprising participants with similar characteristics. Stratified sampling is used when the target population for the study has participants with different characteristics; therefore, putting them in subgroups before selecting the sample helps

to ensure that all subgroups in the population are well represented in the study. Stratified sampling was used in this study to select the sample because there were various groups of participants. The strata were based on the ranks of the participants. However, they were put in one group to form a stratum owing to the small number of female officers. Figure 2 depicts the different strata and the number of members in each.

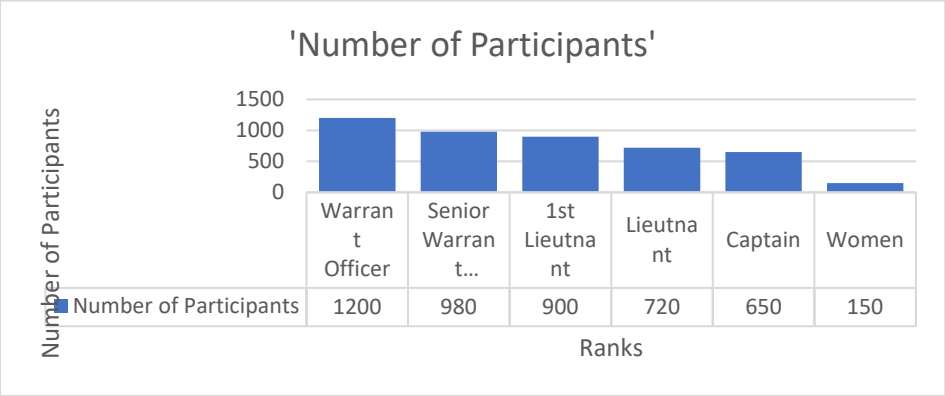


Figure 2: Number of Participant by Strata.

Check and Schutt (2011) noted that probability sampling is very useful and highly efficient because it helps the researcher to ensure the appropriate representation of all units across strata. After identifying the strata from which to draw the sample, proportionate stratified sampling is applied, and each stratum is then represented in proportion to the size of its population. In this study, the strata were manually developed based on ranks, and then, the Qualtrics software was used to determine and select the sample. Using Qualtrics, it was determined that the sample from the population was 365 police officers.

However, not all participants in the selected sample are expected to complete the questionnaire. Fricker (2008) observed that some participants may not complete the questionnaire because they are unreachable. In addition, others may not respond because they do not have the time to do it or they decide not to participate in the study even though they were selected. Therefore, for this study, the researcher decided that the number be increased to 10% (460 participants) of the entire target population to cater for nonresponses instead of going with the 365 units.

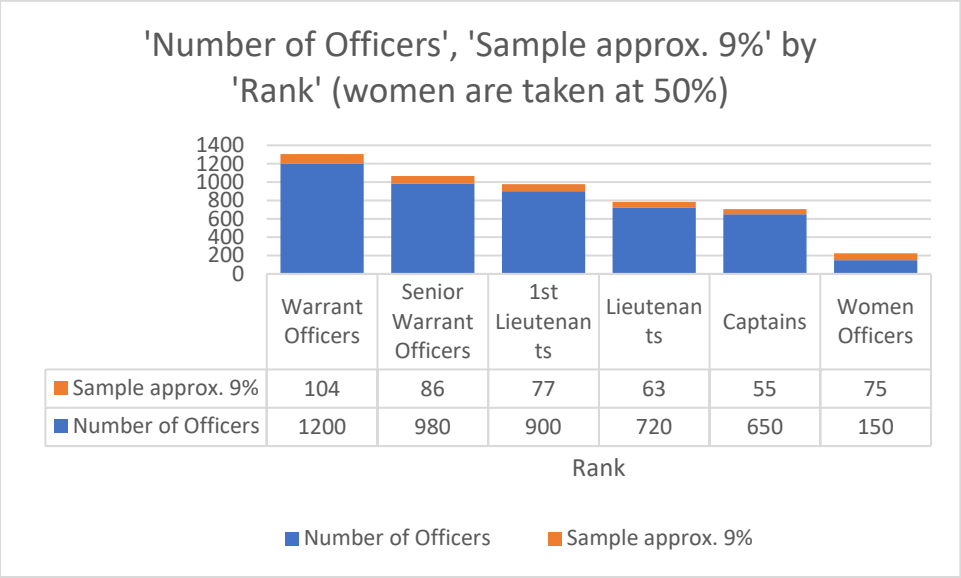
In stratified sampling, the study sample is obtained by selecting equal sample sizes from each stratum. However, Singh and Mangat (1996) stated that the selection of the sample from each stratum may not be proportional in some cases. This study used the proportionate stratified sampling, where 9% of the population in each stratum was selected for the sample. However,

considering the small number of female officers, it was decided to take 50% from this stratum. Table 3 presents the representation from each stratum.

Table 3: Total Population from Each Rank and Sample

Rank	Number of officers	Sample approx. 9%
Warrant Officers	1200	104
Senior Warrant Officers	980	86
1st Lieutenants	900	77
Lieutenants	720	63
Captains	650	55
Female officers	150	75 (50%)
	4600	460

Figure 3: Diagrammatic Representation of the Sample



After determining the sample size and the proportion for each stratum, a simple random selection was used to generate the sample. Then, each selected respondent was contacted via email, which included a participant consent form and a link to the questionnaire on SurveyMonkey. Another email was automatically generated by SurveyMonkey and sent to all the respondents in the sample. Collecting quantitative data was done in 6 weeks between

August and September 2022. The respondents were sent an email weekly to remind them to complete the questionnaire. After 6 weeks, the process was closed, and by then, 295 respondents had responded to the questionnaire.

5.4. Validity, Reliability, and Trustworthiness of Data

Validity and reliability are problematic in mixed methods. Although the two concepts are clearly recognised in quantitative research, their meaning is not clearly distinguished in qualitative research (Abowitz & Toole, 2010; Ihantola & Kihn, 2011). Lincoln (2001) noted that four conditions—truth value, consistency, applicability and neutrality—should be met for any research to be considered worthwhile. The nature of knowledge in quantitative research is different from that acquired through qualitative or naturalistic inquiry. Each of these approaches (quantitative and qualitative) requires a criterion specific to its requirements to address the question of rigour in quantitative research and trustworthiness in qualitative research.

Validity and reliability are more closely related to research rigour. Morse et al. (2002) observed that any research that is not rigorous is like fiction. The two concepts (Validity and Reliability) refer to , the extent to which the research questions have been measured thoroughly using the appropriate tools. If the measurement is repeated, the results will be the same (Drost, 2011; Haq, 2014). However, as Haq (2014) argued, the description above is more suitable for quantitative research but does not fit into qualitative research, where the overall aim of research is to explore rather than measure why a social reality is the way it is. Morse et al. (2002) argued that qualitative research should focus on trustworthiness to establish what is equivalent to validity and reliability in quantitative research. This section discusses the concepts of validity, reliability, and trustworthiness and how they were ensured in this study.

Validity is the way of determining whether the research under study truly measures what it intends to measure, that is, how truthful the results of the study are (Posner, 2006). Validity helps establish whether the research tools that are used in the study are suitable for answering the research question. Reliability is another concept in quantitative research that is used to measure quality. Posner (2006) referred to reliability as the extent to which the study's findings are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the population of the study. Regardless of the nature of the study, whether qualitative, quantitative or mixed, Kirk and Miller (2011) noted that the research has to explicitly document the research procedure to check the research's dependability.

Therefore, in this study, the following were performed to ensure validity and reliability in the quantitative phase of the study:

- The methods (questionnaire) and the research design employed in this study were considered most suitable for collecting data on perceptions from many middle-ranked police officers in the DPF.
- The questionnaire was pretested to ensure that the questions used reflected the study's objectives.
- Selecting the sample for the study ensured the presentation of all the rank categories chosen for this research. The study used proportional stratified sampling to ensure equal representation of the rank categories in the target population.
- Lastly, the data presented through diagrams and tables are the true reflection of the respondents in the study.

Quality in qualitative research is important but difficult to define, and less clear than quantitative research (Dörnyie, 2007). Kirk and Miller (2011) noted that the complexities associated with qualitative research require the researcher to apply rigorous and carefully designed methods to generate credible results. Lincoln and Denzin (1985) introduced the concept of 'trustworthiness' for assessing quality in qualitative research to develop an equivalent to the validity and reliability of quantitative research. This study adopted Lincoln and Denzin's (1985) perspective. Trustworthiness focusses on four key areas, that is, credibility (true value), transferability (applicability of the findings), dependability or consistency and lastly, confirmability or neutrality of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Dörnyie, 2007). In this study, trustworthiness was established as stated below:

- The interviews were conducted in a manner that allowed the participants to understand the questions and confidently express their views. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The recorded interviews were given to a specialist translator to ensure the meaning was retained.
- Morse et al. (2002) proposed the idea of member checking as a way of establishing rigour and increasing the credibility and confirmability of the study. The translated transcripts were given to a selection of study participants to verify the interview's completeness and accuracy and ensure that the transcribed notes represent the words they said in the interview.

- Clark et al. (2002) noted that the one way of establishing rigour in qualitative research is through triangulation of data, that is, the convergence of data from different methods and sources of data. This study used mixed methods to gather data from the leaders and followers. Interviews were conducted with the leaders, and a questionnaire was used with the followers to minimise bias and optimise accuracy in the data collection and analysis processes.

In conclusion, the necessary steps to establish rigour in this study were followed, and the data collected and analysed were valid, reliable and truthful.

5.5. Data Analysis and Interpretation

Data analysis is a crucial phase of the research process that helps derive meaning and understanding from unstructured data. This study used a mixed methods approach, using qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data. The main methods used to collect data for this study included semi-structured interviews and an online questionnaire. This section presents the analysis and interpretation of data from both methods. Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2011) observed that the researchers use qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques in mixed methods analysis. The first part discusses the analysis of data from qualitative semi-structured interviews, and the second part focusses on how the quantitative data from the online questionnaire were analysed to derive meaning from that data that informed the contents of this research.

5.5.1. Qualitative Data Analysis

Data for the qualitative part of this study were collected using semi-structured interviews with the senior leaders of DPF. Mertens (2012) observed that data analysis is a mysterious process, where the data findings emerge through a mystical relationship between the researcher and the data source. Researchers developed several data analysis models, each with steps to follow (see, for example, Miles et al., 2014). This study used thematic analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006: 79) defined thematic analysis as a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes within data. Based on this definition, using thematic analysis generates a general understanding of the coded data and the patterns or themes associated with these codes (Lester et al., 2020). In addition to doing thematic analysis by hand, the data were further analysed using the Nvivo software, borrowing insights from Jackson et al.'s (2019) book, *Qualitative data analysis with NVivo*.

The analysis started with the translation and transcription of data. The interviews were conducted in Arabic to allow the participants to express themselves comfortably in a more familiar language. The researcher and the participants were nationals of the UAE, where Arabic is the main language. I am very proficient in English as I spent 2 years in the United Kingdom studying for an MBA at the University of Sunderland. All the participants were also well-versed in the language. The interviews would have happened in English, but I felt it would be good to speak to them in Arabic as they were primarily conducted in the participants' offices.

I used member checking to verify that the translated transcripts represent exactly what the participants said. Lester et al. (2020) argued that member checking ensures that the data's credibility is established by giving the participants an opportunity to access data from their interviews. After transcribing the interview into English, I made sure that I sent it back to the participant so that the transcription could be reviewed for accuracy. Each recording and the interview notes were reviewed and compared with the translated transcript to ensure that meaning was retained and to understand the participants' perspectives. I also used this opportunity to get familiar with the data and identify some of the emerging patterns, and then, I developed a table summarising the ideas and experiences emerging from the data.

In addition to the mechanical handling of the data, the study also used Nvivo, a qualitative data analysis software. Salmona and Kaczynski (2016) observed that using computer software in data analysis offers an easier and more efficient way to sort, code and retrieve data. Given the amount of data collected from 15 interviews, Nvivo computer software was used to sort, organise and develop codes from the data. Jackson et al. (2019) observed that using the software helps the researcher to manage data and ideas, as well as query, visualise and report from the data. Nvivo helped this study search across the data to find the texts related to the specific codes and make queries on the associations and the relationships within the codes. Data from the research notes and data collected from documents were sorted, coded and retrieved using Nvivo software. The data generated using the software was compared with the manually generated tables. In the case of divergencies, they were analysed carefully using the original transcripts and interview notes to find the reasons for the differences. At the querying stage, the focus was on comparing the data and establishing the dependability and conformability of the results. Therefore, three types of queries were used: codes, text searches, and queries matrix.

Booth et al. (2013) observed that qualitative researchers should seek deviant cases in their data to establish trustworthiness. Maxwell (2012) observed that checking for deviant cases in the data is helpful as it may provide insights useful for the study. The data from Nvivo were checked for disconfirming cases and rechecked using the original recordings and transcripts for accuracy, and no deviant cases were noted.

5.5.1.1. Trustworthiness of the Data

Morse et al. (2002) observed that a research project that does not establish rigour is worthless and loses its usefulness. In quantitative research, rigour is established by verifying the reliability and validity of the data. However, this may not be possible in qualitative research. Therefore, Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the concept of trustworthiness as a parallel to reliability and validity. Trustworthiness in qualitative research has four aspects: credibility, transferability, confirmability and dependability of the data. Morse et al. (2002) observed that threats to research rigour can occur at any study phase. Therefore, researchers need to implement protocols to maintain rigour throughout the study. When establishing the trustworthiness of the research, within the four aspects are specific methodological strategies that help researchers demonstrate the study's rigour. These include member checking or confirming results with the participants at the transcribing, coding and categorising stages, triangulation of data structural collaboration and peer debriefing. This study used two methodological strategies: member checking (already discussed above) and triangulation.

5.5.1.2. Triangulation

In qualitative research, Patton (2015) defined triangulation as using more than one method or data source to establish a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Triangulation has also been discussed in qualitative research as a strategy to test the validity by converging data from several sources. Houghton et al. (2013) argued that triangulation has two key functions in a research project: to confirm data and to ensure the completeness of the data. In this study, triangulation was used at the methods and individual levels. This study investigated transformational leadership in DPF using qualitative semi-structured interviews with the senior leaders and a quantitative questionnaire that was distributed to the middle managers (the followers). Triangulation at the methods level was performed by comparing the data from the qualitative interviews with those from the quantitative questionnaire to confirm that the senior leaders align with their followers' perceptions. The transcription of the interviews and the results from the questionnaire were reviewed to establish consistency. At the individual level,

all the participants were asked the same questions, apart from the few questions that arise through probing. Each transcript was reviewed, and the responses were compared to identify any divergent cases. The process was repeated at the coding stage, and no deviant responses were observed.

This study's confirmability and dependability were established by developing an audit trail. Houghton et al. (2013) observed that the researcher's fieldnotes if kept well-updated and easily accessible, are enough to make the audit trail. In the study, I kept a diary of field notes relating to the whole research process, including the data collection process. I wrote a comprehensive contextual background of the data and kept a detailed trail of decisions made during data collection and analysis. Houghton et al. (2013) noted that the Nvivo software is also helpful in ensuring the dependability and confirmability of the data as it provides tools to develop a detailed trail of decisions made during the analysis phase. Nvivo was used to establish the data trail, which ensured that data analysis and interpretation that established the data's consistency was a true reflection of the responses provided by the participants. The software also allowed me to examine and review the codes at the nodes and establish the consistency of the applied codes. In addition to the audit trail, the technique of thick and rich data description was also used to test the external validity and transferability of the data. Details of data collection were provided, and quotations were used from the participants' responses throughout the study. This approach allowed me to draw inferences from data to demonstrate that the study results can be used in another research setting.

5.5.1.3. Ethical Considerations in the Study

The nature of qualitative research involves close interactions between the researcher and the participants, which can be challenging for the researcher in all stages of the study. The challenges include informed consent from the participants, anonymity, confidentiality, and the potential impact of the research on the participants or the other way around (Sanjari et al., 2014). Drew et al. (2007) observed that the researcher must establish specific ethical guidelines for the study.

The first step in establishing ethical concerns about the study was to seek approval from the University of Sunderland Ethics Committee, which the university required before collecting data for any study. The University of Sunderland Ethics Committee vet all the research done by university staff and students, particularly studies that include human participants. As this study involved human participants, particularly senior leaders and the Middle Manager of the

DPF, the study sought approval from the university, which was granted. Secondly, I had to seek permission from the DPF to conduct this research, I contacted the Human Resource Office for approval to conduct qualitative and quantitative research on the employees of the police force. The Human Resource Office ensured that the data collected would not negatively affect the employees and the organisation and verified that the study complied with the DPF guidelines. Thirdly, participants and informed consent forms detailing the purpose of the study and how data will be collected were provided. The informed consent letter provided to the participants clarified that their participation in the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time if they no longer wish to continue.

Fourthly, there were also ethical considerations regarding the recruitment of the participants and how to gain access to them. The participants in the qualitative phase of the study were senior leaders all above me by several ranks. None of them were coerced to participate in the study, and they were recruited through recommendations from other senior personnel with the help of human resources and my line manager. I sent emails to all the 44 senior leaders and received less than 10 acceptances. However, those who agreed to participate in the study made recommendations to others, allowing me to talk to them. Maintaining the trust of the participants is very important in the research process. Therefore, researchers have to be very sensitive to the rights of the participants (Guillemin et al., 2018). I am an AUE national and have lived in Dubai all my life. Being an officer in the DPF, I understand the culture. The interviews were conducted in Arabic to make the participants feel comfortable and talk freely.

Fifthly, confidentiality and anonymity were also considered ethical issues. Baez (2002) observed that confidentiality and anonymity are two concepts that differ in practice. The former involves disclosing personal information, whereas the latter is concerned with disclosing personal identity. Bresler (1995) noted that anonymity can be obtained, although we should not assume that the participants may want to guarantee both. In this study, the respondents did not seem to care about anonymity. During the interviews, the participants were asked if they were willing for the interviews to be recorded, and all of them agreed. However, they were assured that the information gathered from them will be used for this study and will not be shared by any other external parties. Anonymity was also considered in the study, I ensured that the data presented do not bear any names of the participants. Instead, I used codes to represent their quotes. I used coded names to represent the participants and ensure ease of identification when coding and entering data into the Nvivo.

The data collected from the interviews, field notes, and questionnaires were stored on my personal computer, with a backup on my personal external drive. Both folders are password-protected. The data will be discarded at a later date in the future, following the guidelines of the University of Sunderland and the DPF. Access to this data is only available to the researcher. These measures ensured the confidentiality of the data collected.

5.5.2. Quantitative Data Analysis

In the quantitative phase of the study, the data collected from the online questionnaire were analysed using the SPSS software. The data were collected and coded and then fed into the SPSS. Thompson et al. (1996) identified three ways of data entry. Firstly, data entry can be done using forms that are automatically read by the computer software; however, this method is expensive. Secondly, data can be entered by developing a computerised data entry form; although this is a user-friendly method, it is time-consuming. Lastly, data can be entered directly using a spreadsheet readily available with the SPSS. The advantage of this method is that it takes less time to create. This study used a spreadsheet to enter data. A more detailed description of the data analysis procedures used in the study is explained in Chapter 6.

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter has provided a detailed description of the data collection and analysis processes used in the study. The main purpose was to demonstrate the rigorous and systematic nature of how the data were collected and analysed. The study used a mixed methods approach; therefore, data were collected using qualitative and quantitative methods. This study conducted semi-structured interviews with senior leaders and an online questionnaire of middle-ranked officers of the DPF, which was uploaded on SurveyMonkey. The chapter details the collection of qualitative data and discusses the challenges of interviewing elite participants, including the strategy used in the study to gather data from this group of participants. Details of how quantitative data were collected are discussed, including the main decisions made during the design of the questionnaire.

This chapter has also discussed the analysis of qualitative data and how Nvivo software helped the organisation of the data to produce and present systematic results. The study considered thematic analysis principles, including data familiarisation, coding and theme generation, to ensure a systematic approach. The analysis of quantitative data is presented in the next chapter, along with a presentation of the quantitative findings

Chapter 6: Quantitative Findings

6.1. Introduction

This research used a mixed methods approach to examine the relevance and applicability of transformational leadership style in the DPF. This chapter presents the findings from the quantitative phase of the research. The primary purpose of using quantitative methods in the study was twofold. Firstly, the study wanted to determine how leadership in the DPF influences middle-ranked police officers' terms of employee and organisational performance. Secondly, the study wanted to critically analyse the perspectives of middle-ranked officers in the DPF on transformational leadership. The quantitative phase of the study aimed to answer the following objectives:

iv. To critically assess the perspectives of middle-rank officers in the DPF on transformational leadership.

v. To determine how transformational leadership in the DPF affects the middle-ranked police officers' terms of employee performance.

vi. To assess the effects of transformational leadership style on the overall performance of the DPF as a public organisation

The above objectives were used to generate testable hypotheses used in this study.

H1a: Transformational leadership in the DPF had a negative effect on organisational performance.

H1b: Transformational leadership in the DPF has a positive effect on organisational performance.

H2a: Transformational leadership had a negative effect on employee performance in the DPF.

H2b: Transformational leadership had a positive effect on employee performance in the DPF.

H3a: Organisational performance has no direct effect on employee performance in the DPF.

H3b: A strong relationship exists between organisational and employee performance in the DPF.

This chapter presents the findings collected through a web-based survey from 283 middle-ranked officers of the DPF out of the 460 respondents invited to complete the questionnaire, presenting a 61.5% response rate. Although 295 questionnaires were completed, 12 were deemed unusable owing to missing responses and identical answers throughout the questionnaire. Therefore, the data used in the study are based on 283 questionnaires that were considered valid. Baruch (1999) analysed several academic papers in management and behavioural sciences and concluded that a response rate (RR)of 60% $\pm$ 20 is acceptable. This study achieved a response rate of 61.5%, which falls within the margins proposed by Baruch (1999).

6.2. Preliminary Analysis of the Quantitative Data

Data analysis was done using SPSS 24. Initially, the responses were coded in the column section, and questionnaire items categorised under the variables were coded with numbers from 01. The responses on a Linkert scale were also coded as follows: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), average (3), agree (4) and lastly, strongly agree (5). Data were then screened and cleaned by performing a descriptive analysis test to assess the responses for each item and ensure that the correct figures were entered for each response in the column section of the entry.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was employed in this study to measure and evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire. The descriptive analysis considered the dispersion of the responses focusing on the mean and standard deviation of the three key variable (organisational performance [OP], employee performance [EP] and transformational leadership style [TLS]). In addition, the one-way ANOVA test was used to analyse the strengths of the correlation relationships amongst the key variables. Lastly, linear regression was applied to analyse the effect of the various variables on the research subject.

6.2.1. Screening of Data

The literature argued that researchers should ensure that the data actually capture the construct of interest via the observed variable before assessing if one construct influences another (Hair et al., 2013; Babbie, 2020). According to Osborne (2011), this process is referred to as data screening. Hair et al. (2013) stated that the process of data screening is an important stage of data analysis to be carefully considered in social and management research. Bloomfield and Fischer (2019) identified three key purposes for screening data prior to conducting a quantitative analysis: (1) screening collected data to confirm its accuracy to avoid reaching

erroneous conclusions, (2) identifying missing data and assessing its effects on the overall data and (3) identifying outliers or extreme data on one variable or a combination of variable.

Therefore, the researcher found that screening and cleaning the quantitative data are essential to ensure accuracy of the collected data. Babbie (2020) argued that data screening and cleaning are essential when the researcher is using multivariate analysis. He stressed that although the process is time-consuming and may be overwhelming in some cases, skipping this process can result in erroneous conclusions. Therefore, for this study, data were screened using SPSS version 24 to ensure that errors were identified and dealt with during data entry. Missing data and those out of range were identified using descriptive and frequency commands. A total of 12 questionnaires were removed from the data as they had unanswered sections. The descriptive analysis of the remaining 283 questionnaires revealed that the mean and standard deviation are within the appropriate range, indicating that data from these questionnaires were clean. A reliability test was also performed to screen data before making inferences.

6.2.2. Missing Data

Einola and Alvesson (2020) argued that despite researchers' efforts in designing easily accessible questionnaires, often there are some scores missing. According to Schafer and Graham (2002), missing data pertains to cases where the respondents miss out on some questions and leave them unanswered, which could be a deliberate action or unintentional in some cases. Field (2011) noted that missing data or values, particularly blank responses, could be a serious problem in quantitative data analysis. Therefore, the researchers need to determine and replace missing values or remove the incomplete questionnaire from analysis where necessary before analysing the data. Although Field (2011) cautioned that although missing data can create statistical difficulties, researchers do not need to ignore the data they have. For this study, of the 295 questionnaires with 17, 700 data points returned with responses, and 10 had missing data. In total, 356 data points were missing, and 32 data values were missing at random. Overall, the missing data represented 0.020% of the entire data point. In practice, there are no universally agreed standards for dealing with missing values in the data, although some commentators have advised that missing values constituting less than 5% can be tolerated as nonsignificant. Moreover, the researcher can replace them with the mean and inform SPSS with a particular value. In this study, the missing values were denoted with number 99, and 32 missing values were substituted with the mean. However, the remaining 324 missing values constituted more than 5%, and the questionnaires were removed from the sample.

6.2.3. Nonresponse Bias

Another issue noted in the sample is the problem of nonresponse. The literature noted that in quantitative research, particularly where the study is using a self-administered questionnaire, some individuals chosen for the sample may not be able to respond or may be unwilling to participate in the study (Field, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Berg (2005) noted that one of the most common reasons for nonresponses is the respondents' behaviour. Therefore, researchers using a self-administered questionnaire need to always consider that certain types of people may refuse to respond to the questionnaire. Reio (2007) noted that nonresponses are a common threat to quantitative research. Therefore, researchers need to account for nonresponse errors and take measures and select methodologies based on best practice and not on perceived ease. For this study, the sample size was determined to be 365 officers; however, considering nonresponses, the figure was rounded off to 460 to make 10% of the target sample of 4600 possible respondents.

Notably, some commentators argue that although nonresponses may not necessarily influence the significance of the study results, testing nonresponses is important (Lindner et al., 2001). Lindner et al. (2001) also stressed that the trend extrapolation method is the best approach to examining nonresponse bias. Using this approach, this study assessed the significance of nonresponses by dividing the study responses into two groups, including early responses and late responses, and then conducted a *t*-test on the three main variables to examine the nonresponse bias. Table 4 presents the results of the *t*-test.

Variable	Early/late responses	Frequency (*N*)	Mean	Levene's test for equality of variance	
				F	Sig.
Organisational performance	Early responses	154	4.24	0.39	.865
	Late responses	139	4.29		
Employee performance	Early responses	154	4.24	0.32	.933
	Late responses	139	4.29		

Transformational leadership	Early responses	154	4.66	0.52	.818
	Late responses	139	4.59		

Table 4: *t*-Test.

As shown in Table 4, no observable nonresponse bias exists, and the assumed equal variance levels of significance of the study variable at OP (0.864), EP (0.933) and TLS (0.818) are significantly greater than the recommended level of the significance in the Levene's test of equality of variance of 0.05.

6.2.4. Assessing the Outliers

Another important test was the assessment of the outlier. According to Montgomery et al. (2015), outliers refer to the points that deviate from or are inconsistent with the rest of the data. Hair et al. (2013) observed that one of the essential aspects of data screening is the careful assessment and treatment of outliers. Field (2011) noted that outliers could pose a problem in quantitative data analysis because some of the most widely used statistics, such as the mean, are not robust enough to withstand the effects of the outliers. This case could influence all the other statistics that depend on the mean such as standard deviation, leading to bias and errors in the statistics and tests of the data. The main sources of outliers are considered erroneous sampling techniques, errors in data entry, extreme responses on multipoint scales such as the Likert and missing values in calculation (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Outliers can either be univariate or multivariate, and Hair et al. (2013) argued that outliers in multivariate analysis must be identified and dealt with accordingly.

For this study, the next step in dealing with the data after screening and treating the missing values was considering the outliers, both univariate and multivariate. Univariates were analysed in the data set of the questionnaire using a standardised *Z*-score approach. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) noted that if the value of the *Z*-score is more than ±3.29, then the set of data can be considered an outlier. In this study, all the cases had a standardised value *Z*-score of less than ±3.29, indicating no outliers. The multivariate outliers were analysed using Mahalanobis distance (D^2) in all cases. Hair et al. (2013) proposed that in the Mahalanobis distance test, if the D^2/df (where df is the degree of freedom) exceeds a value of 2.5 in relatively small samples and falls between 3 and 4 in larger samples, then it can be considered an outlier.

In this study, based on the *Z*-score and the Mahalanobis distance tests, no cases in the univariate analysis were found to have more than ±3.29 *Z*-score. Similarly, in the Mahalanobis distance test, no item had a D^2 score of more than ±2.5, indicating that the data set has no outliers.

6.2.5. Testing Reliability of the Survey Instrument

In quantitative research, emphasis should be put not only on the results of the study but also on the rigour of the research process (Heale & Twycross, 2015). Rigour refers to the extent to which the instruments used could offer validity and reliability. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) argued that measuring the quality of the research instruments used in a study is vital because using inappropriate scales causes errors in the assessment of attitudinal variables, which will reduce the quality of the results of the study. Therefore, the researcher has to establish the validity and reliability of the instruments used in the study (Field, 2011). The reliability of the study instruments is established by testing the stability and consistency, whereas the validity is more concerned with determining the extent to which a concept is accurately measured (Field, 2011; Heale & Twycross, 2015; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

This study used Cronbach's alpha coefficient as suggested by various commentators to measure internal consistency and reliability (see, for example, Frenz et al., 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). When using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) to measure the reliability of the survey, the resulting α coefficient of reliability is between 0 and 1. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016), the higher the coefficients, the better the measuring instrument. The higher the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the more the items used in the survey shared covariance and probably measured the same underlying concept. Field (2011) noted that most studies considered the value of 0.7–0.8 as acceptable values for Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and any value below 0.5 indicates an unreliable scale. However, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) cautioned that no fixed value can be relied on to measure the consistency of all studies. Therefore, the correct value for a particular study will depend on its acceptance and the localisation of the measurement of the phenomenon studied, including the researcher's acceptance of the degree of reliability. For this study, Table 5 represents the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each of the categories studied and all the items in the survey instrument.

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Organisational performance	0.936	8
Employee performance	0.981	10
Transformational leadership	0.993	37
Total	0.992	55

Table 5: Reliability of the Survey Instrument.

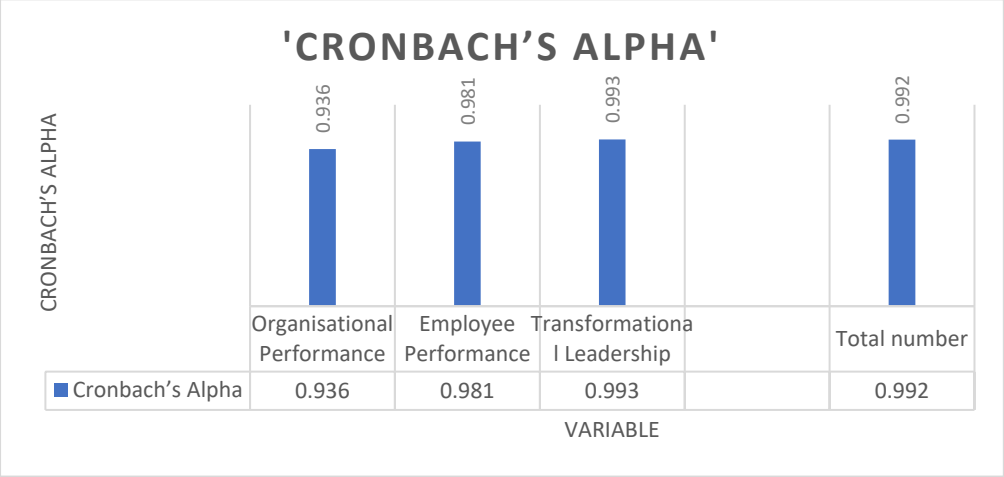


Figure 4. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the Study.

Table 5 and Figure 4 present the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency for this study, which ranged between 0.936 and 0.993, with an overall reliability of 0.992. This result demonstrates the high reliability of the instrument (questionnaire) used to collect data for the study, including the reliability of the findings on the perspectives of the study sample.

6.3. Demographic Data of the Respondents

The DPF comprises 20,000 officers, of which 4600 are officers between the ranks of Warrant Officers and Captains. These middle-ranked police officers were the subject of the quantitative phase of the study, of which 460 were selected for the sample and 283 completed the questionnaires that were deemed valid for the study. The questionnaire sought the demographic composition of the respondents, such as age, gender, experience, resident status and education levels. However, care was taken not to include any identifiable demographics that could reveal the identity of the respondents. The descriptive analysis of these demographic categories is

presented in this section to provide an overview of the study participants' profiles in this research phase.

6.3.1. Gender

Regarding gender, the DPF is predominately male; however, from the 1960s, the DPF started recruiting women into the force. Presently, female police represent approximately 10% of the total DPF found in all departments. A total of 150 women qualified to be in the study, and 50% were selected in the sample. The response rate for female participants was outstanding, with 53 out of the 75 selected for the sample (71%) completing the questionnaire. Meanwhile, of the 385, only 230 (43%) completed the questionnaire. Regarding the completed questionnaires that were valid, 25.1% were female, and 74.9 were male, as shown in Table 6.

Gender			
		Frequency	Percent
	Female	53	18.7
	Male	230	81.3
	Total	283	100

Table 6: Respondents by Gender.

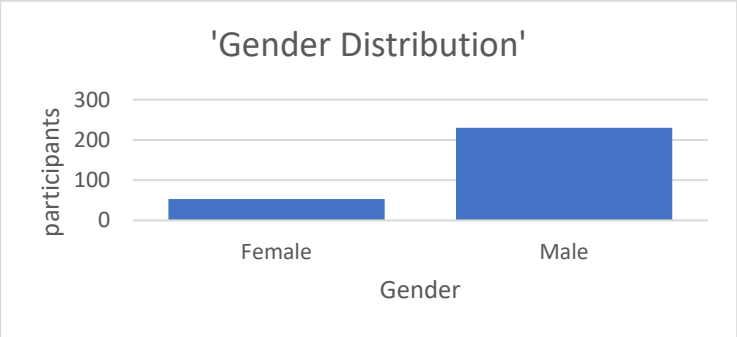


Figure 5: Gender Distribution.

Table 6 and Figure 5 show that female and male employees in the DPF were included to ensure that the perspectives of both genders are represented in the study. Most respondents were male, and few women participated in the sample. Although the DPF has recently recruited women in

the force, they are still underrepresented. Thus, their number is small in the sample. Nonetheless, their voices and perspectives were included in the study.

6.3.2. Residential Status

Another demographic factor that was included in the questionnaire was residential status. Notably, the UAE comprises seven emirates, and Dubai is one of them. The UAE labour force heavily depends on foreigners or expatriates to drive its economy (Haak-Saheem & Brewster, 2017); therefore, most of the population is foreign. In Dubai, at least 80% of the population are foreigners who migrated to the emirate in search of jobs, business, education and, for some, residence. Although one of the requirements for joining the police is a UAE national, other nationals from countries such as Sudan and Yemen can join the DPF. Nationals of other countries can also join the police as expatriates to work in various departments and ranks, including the community police. In the study, most respondents (74.9%) were expatriates, and the locals were just 25.1%. However, this corresponds with the actual composition of the Dubai police, where 80% of the force is foreigners and the locals make up only 20%.

Residential Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Local	71	25.1	25.1	25.1
	Expatriate	212	74.9	74.9	100.0
	Total	283	100.0	100.0	

Residential Status

Figure 6: Residential Status of Respondents.

6.3.3. Age

Regarding age, officers between 35 and 44 accounted for more than half (58%) of the respondents. This is expected as age in the Dubai police is closely linked with rank. In the DPF, officers are usually promoted based on experience. However, some officers are promoted at a young age based on their education and performance in training. Therefore, 21.6% of the

respondents were between 25 and 34 years old, whereas 15.5% were between 45 and 54 years old, and a small number were between 54 and 64 years old. Figure 7 shows the age distribution of the respondents.

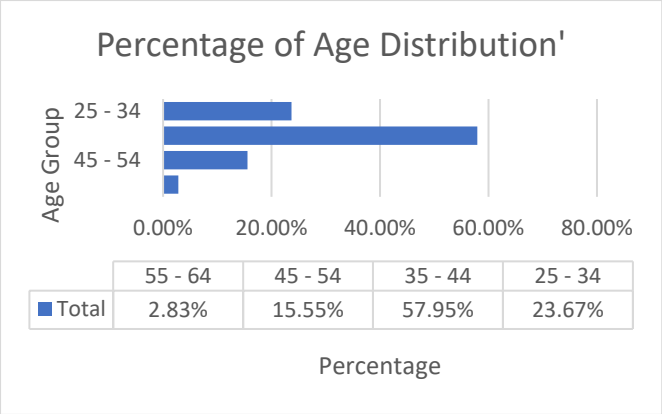


Figure 7: Age Distribution of Respondents.

6.3.4. Education

In terms of education, the minimum required for anyone to join the DPF is a high school diploma. However, several officers who joined the police have bachelor's and postgraduate degrees, and the police sponsors a few for doctoral studies. In this study, holders of a bachelor's degree represented almost 40% (112) of the respondents, whereas 31.5% (89) had a high school diploma. With a higher degree, 16.6% (47) were holders of a master's degree, 7% (15) had a doctoral degree and 5.3% (20) had other qualifications, such as a postgraduate diploma. The respondents' high level of education was good for this study as it showed that they could understand the questionnaire, thereby enhancing the quality of the data collected. Figure 8 illustrates the education level of the respondents.

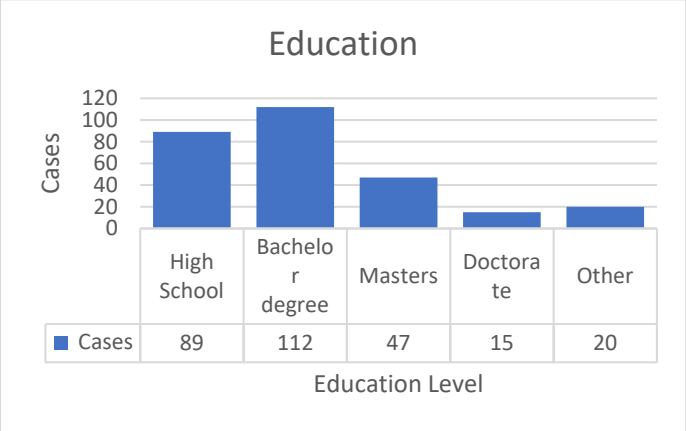


Figure 8: Education Levels of Respondents

6.3.5. Experience

Concerning experience, most respondents had between 10 and 30 years of experience. Among them, 33 (11.7%) had less than 10 years of experience, and 153 (54%) worked with the DPF for at least 10–20 years. A total of 79 respondents (27.9%) had between 21 and 30 years of experience, and 18 (6.4%) had more than 30 years. This distribution in experience shows that the sample was made of people with various experiences, and some of them have witnessed the changes in leadership in the DPF first-hand. Therefore, this mix of respondents' experiences provided a comprehensive view of transformational leadership in the DPF.

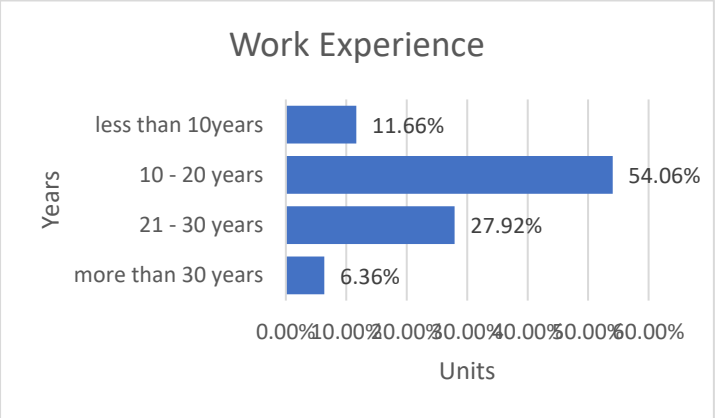


Figure 9: Distribution of Work Experience.

6.4. Descriptive Analysis of All the Respondents' Answers

This section summarises the descriptive analysis of the responses gathered from the study sample. The questionnaire for the study had three main components: employee performance (EP), organisational performance (OP) and transformational leadership (TLS). The latter is further divided into four sub-components that make up the dimensions of transformational leadership—idealised influence (II), individualised consideration (IC), inspirational motivation (IM) and intellectual stimulation (IS). These constructs were measured using 55 questions in total, and the respondents were required to indicate the degree of their agreement or disagreement with each statement in the questionnaire. The responses were put on a Likert scale starting with strongly disagree, disagree, average, agree and strongly agree, coded as 1–5, respectively. Strongly disagree and disagree indicated disagreement with the statement, whereas average showed no preference for agreement or disagreement with the statement, and strongly agree and agree indicated agreement with the statement.

Descriptive statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation	Variance
OP_Comp	283	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.2655	0.77830	0.606
EP_Comp	283	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.4961	0.80134	0.642
TLS_Comp	283	4.00	1.00	5.00	4.5275	0.75477	0.570
Valid N (listwise)	283						

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of OP, EP and TLS

6.4.1. Organisational Performance

Item	SD	D	Av	A	SA
Organisational performance How would you rate your organisation's (DPF) performance over the past 5 years?					
Quality of policing services has improved	09	04	12	71	187
Development and provision of new policing services is a major activity of DPF	10	02	19	66	186
DPF's ability to attract talented officers has improved	09	04	18	78	174
The ability to retain talented employees is a significant strength of DPF	12	03	117	83	68
Satisfaction of emirati nationals is a preferred concern of DPF	10	01	20	75	177
Management and employees of DPF have a trustful relationship	08	08	114	82	71
Our department is getting better because of its leadership	11	04	09	73	186
Leadership in my organisation has set up SMART target for employees	11	04	16	75	177

Table 8: Organisational Performance Responses.

Organisational performance was measured using eight items on a five-point Likert scale. As shown in Table 8, the respondents were asked to rate their organisation's performance over the last 5 years. A strong agreement was observed on almost all items, apart from two items (The

ability to retain talented employees is a significant strength of DPF, and the management and employees of DPF have a trustful relationship) where many participants were not decided. As shown in Table 9, the mean for organisational performance was 4.27, which is above the midpoint of three on the scale. Therefore, the statistics demonstrate a high agreement amongst respondents on the performance of the DPF. The standard deviation of responses on organisational performance was 0.778, showing a high variance in the responses. These results indicated that the participants agreed on how transformational leadership positively affects organisational performance in the DPF.

6.4.2. Employee Performance

Item	SD	D	Av	A	SA
Employee performance					
Quantity of employee work output has improved in the last 5 years	08	03	14	76	182
Coming up with new ideas is highly encouraged in my department	08	02	09	73	191
Most of the employees in my department achieved their individual and organisational goals in the last 5 years	08	03	11	80	181
Targets given to individual employees are more often met	07	03	10	81	182
Overall employee motivation has improved in the last 5 years	07	05	17	70	184
Employees feel happy when they work in teams	07	03	11	66	196
Majority of employees can enjoy working independently and give a high performance	07	04	23	61	188
Employees are capable of making effective decisions	08	05	26	62	182
Employee communication skills have improved in my department	08	03	24	61	187
Employees' competencies are in line with the organisational and strategic goals of DPF	07	02	17	73	184

Table 9: Employee Performance.

Employee performance was measured using 10 items. The respondents were asked to rate the performance of DPF employees over the 5 years. A strong agreement was observed on all items

in the employee performance category. As demonstrated in Table 10, employee performance had a mean score of 4.50, which is above the midpoint of 3 on the scale, indicating a high agreement amongst the respondents on employee performance improvement in the last 5 years in the DPF. Just like with organisational performance, the standard deviation of responses on employee performance was 0.801, again demonstrating high variance in the responses. The results indicated how transformational leadership in the DPF positively affects the employees and how their performance has improved in the last 5 years.

6.4.3. Transformational Leadership (TLS)

Item	SD	A	Av	A	SA
Transformational leadership: My team leader,					
Clearly communicates the positive vision of the department	06	04	16	60	197
Treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development	06	06	16	65	190
Gives encouragement and recognition to staff	7	3	18	62	193
Fosters trust, inclusion and cooperation amongst team members	6	5	14	63	195
Encourages employees to think about problems from all directions	7	5	18	60	193
Is clear about his/her values and practices, which he/she preaches	9	2	18	69	185
Instils pride and respect in others and inspires me by his/her competencies	7	5	14	66	191
Item	SD	A	Av	A	SA
Idealised influence: My team leader:					
Acts in a way that influences how I approach my work	6	2	23	60	192
Involves team members in the decision-making process	5	3	23	57	195
Instils confidence and pride to be associated with his/her team	5	2	9	69	198
Can be counted on to do the right thing	6	5	17	58	197

Is confident and displays a sense of power	6	4	21	53	199
Provides assistance before his team members have asked for it	7	6	13	66	191
Attempts to resolve problems immediately without disrupting others' work schedule	6	2	16	58	201
Item					
Individualised consideration					
Provides opportunities for staff members to participate in activities that showcase their strengths	6	4	13	60	200
Creates time to talk to each member of the team to understand their strengths and weaknesses	5	5	19	62	192
Develop opportunities for the individuals in the team to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to advance in their careers	6	4	11	69	193
Shows that he/she understands that I have different abilities, needs and aspirations in my career	5	8	28	53	189
Helps individuals to develop their strengths	7	6	20	65	185
Spends time coaching and mentoring others	10	12	24	49	188
Understands what motivates me and encourages me to perform better	6	4	19	58	196
Provides opportunities for staff members to get involved in new tasks	6	7	24	62	184
Item					
Inspirational motivation					
Talks enthusiastically about the future of the DPF	5	4	15	70	189
Set specific and achievable tasks for each individual in the team	5	8	20	57	193
Demonstrates a passion for excellence in every aspect of the work of DPF	6	9	22	58	188
Demonstrates enthusiasm for what has to be accomplished by our department	5	5	15	59	199

He clearly articulates a compelling vision of the future of the department	7	4	29	55	187
Is always confident that tasks will be achieved	5	2	18	65	193
Helps and encourages others to work through tasks with a smile	5	2	15	58	203
Expresses gratitude and appreciation for the contributions made by members of the team	4	5	20	58	196
Item					
Intellectual stimulation					
Encourages others to look at the problem from different angles	4	4	17	62	196
Encourages thoughtful risk-taking	4	4	17	62	196
Suggests new ways of looking at how to accomplish the task	4	5	11	87	196
Leads the discussions about the values of the DPF and encourages others to express their views	4	4	18	63	194
Stimulates officers to find new ways of solving problems	4	6	18	57	198
Encourages officers to think of ideas that have never been used before	4	8	18	55	198
Asks questions to prompt further discussion of the problem	4	2	22	51	204

Table 10: Transformational Leadership Responses.

As shown in Table 10, the respondents were asked to rate their leaders in five aspects of transformational leadership in the DPF. The first aspect was general transformational leadership behaviour, which was measured through seven items. Then, the respondents were asked to rate their leaders' behaviours on the four dimensions of transformational leadership: The first dimension is idealised influence. Seven items were used to measure the respondents' perceptions of how their managers model their leadership to the DPF's goals, and how their managers encourage the people working under them to have faith, a sense of pride and respect for themselves and the people working under them. The second dimension is individualised inspiration; the respondents were asked to rate how their leaders identify individual employee strengths and empower them to achieve their organisational goals and personal goals using

eight items. The third dimension is inspirational motivation; the respondents were asked to rate the behaviours through which their leaders attempt to stimulate and motivate the people working under them and how they talk about the future of the DPF in general and their departments in particular, using eight items. The last dimension is intellectual stimulation; the respondents were asked to rate their leaders on how they promote knowledge sharing and creative and innovative ideas and solutions to problems and issues encountered in their day-to-day operations using seven items.

Table 11 shows substantial agreement in all the dimensions of transformational leadership and the questions asked on general transformational leadership in the DPF. The findings returned a mean score of 4.53 for all 37 items on transformational leadership and a standard deviation of 0.755, demonstrating that most respondents believed that transformational leadership is practised in the DPF and has a strong effect on organisational and employee performance.

6.5. Inferential Analysis

This section presents an inferential analysis of the data to analyse further the independent variable's influence on the dependent variables.

Sekaran and Bougie (2016) observed that researchers use several statistical methods to test hypotheses in their studies. This study employed two statistical approaches to test the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational and employee performance. The two statistical methods included the Pearson test to measure the strength of the linear relationship between transformational leadership and organisational and employee performance. Moreover, the ANOVA test was performed to establish the significance of the survey results. According to Field (2011), the correlation coefficient attempts to explain the linear relationship between two variables, and for this study, it tests the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational and employee performance.

6.5.1. Pearson Correlation Coefficient

The Pearson correlation coefficient can be classified as a parametric statistic. Therefore, it is used to test a linear relationship between two continuous variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The values of the Pearson correlation coefficient vary from −1 to +1, where positive values of the correlation coefficient indicate a strong relationship between the two variables. From another aspect, a negative value of the Pearson correlation coefficient indicates that the independent and dependent variables move in different directions, whereas values of Pearson

correlation coefficient near 0 indicate a low association between the two variables (Field, 2011; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Therefore, a Pearson correlation was employed to determine the strengths of the relationship between transformational leadership organisational performance and employee performance to assess the effectiveness of transformational leadership in the DPF. Table 11 shows the relationship among the three variables.

6.5.1.1. Pearson Correlation Coefficient between OP and TLS

		TLS_Comp	OP_Comp
TLS_Comp	Pearson correlation	1	0.647**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	283	283
OP_Comp	Pearson correlation	0.647**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	283	283
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Table 11: Pearson Correlation Coefficient between OP and TLS.

Table 11 shows the Pearson correlation coefficient values between transformational leadership (TLS) and organisational performance at $R = 0.647$ and $P = 000$, respectively. The $R = 0.649$ is higher than −1 and nearer to 1. These results indicate that a positive and strong association exists between transformational leadership and organisational performance in the DPF. The *P* value is 0.000, which is less than 0.01. Therefore, practising transformational leadership in the DPF will lead to strong organisational performance. The results of the Pearson test reject the null hypothesis: *Transformational leadership in the DPF had a negative effect on organisational performance*, which accepts the alternative H1b: *Transformational leadership in the DPF has a positive effect on organisational performance.*

6.5.1.2. Pearson Correlation Coefficient between EP and TLS

The second hypothesis focussed on the relationship between employee performance and transformational leadership. The null and alternative hypotheses relating to the effect of transformational leadership on employee performance were: (H2a) *Transformational leadership had a negative effect on employee performance in the DPF.* (H2b) *Transformational leadership had a positive effect on employee performance in the DPF*.

A Pearson test was carried out to measure the strengths of the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance.

		TLS_Comp	EP_Comp
TLS_Comp	**Pearson correlation**	**1**	**0.858****
	Sig. (2-tailed)		**0.000**
	N	**283**	**283**
EP_Comp	**Pearson correlation**	**0.858****	**1**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.000**	
	N	**283**	**283**
****Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**			

Table 12: Pearson Correlation Coefficient between EP and TLS.

The results of the Pearson test indicated a strong and positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance. The *R* value was 0.858, which is near 0, indicating a positive and strong correlation between the two variables. Similarly, the *P* value of 0.000 is less than 0.0; therefore, based on the above results, transformational leadership positively affects the performance of employees in the DPF. The results of the Pearson test reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis: *Transformational leadership had a positive effect on employee performance in the DPF.*

6.5.1.3. Pearson Correlation Coefficient between EP and OP

A further Pearson test was conducted to examine the relationship between organisational and employee performance. Table 13 presents the results.

		EP_Comp	OP_Comp
EP_Comp	**Pearson correlation**	**1**	**0.757****
	Sig. (2-tailed)		**0.000**
	N	**283**	**283**

OP_Comp	**Pearson correlation**	**0.757****	**1**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	**0.000**	
	N	**283**	**283**
****. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**			

Table 13: Pearson Correlation Coefficient between EP and OP.

The results of the Pearson test in Table 13 show the relationship between organisational and employee performance. The *R* value is 0.757, and the *P* value is 0.000. The *R* value at 0.757 is higher than −1 and nearer to +1, indicating a strong and positive association between organisational and employee performance in the DPF. The results of the Pearson test reject the null hypothesis '*Organisational performance has no direct effect on employee performance in the DPF'* and accept the alternative hypothesis that a significant relationship exists between organisational and employee performance in the DPF.

6.5.1.4. Inter-Correlation of the Variables

The result of the Pearson correlation test on all three variables indicates that a positive and significant relationship exists between transformational leadership and employee and organisational performance, as shown in Table 12.

Correlations

		OP_Comp	EP_Comp	TLS_Comp
OP_Comp	Pearson correlation	1	0.757**	0.647**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000
	N	283	283	283
EP_Comp	Pearson correlation	0.757**	1	0.858**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000
	N	283	283	283
TLS_Comp	Pearson correlation	0.647**	0.858**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	283	283	283

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

Table 12: Correlations.

6.5.1. Regression

The regression analysis of all variables was conducted to assess the variances and identify the variable with the greatest impact. This study used regression analysis to explain the relationship between transformational leadership style (the independent variable) and the dependent variable (organisational performance).

Tables 13–16 show the results.

6.5.2.1. Model Summary

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	0.647[a]	0.419	0.417	0.59432

a. Predictors: (Constant), TLS_Comp

Table 13: Model Summary.

Table 13 presents the output of the variables with transformational leadership as the independent variable. The *R* value is 0.647, indicating a significant relationship or correlation between transformational leadership and other variables (Op and EP). The *R* square is 0.419, and the adjected *R*-square, which shows the generalisation of the study findings, is 0.417, which is not far from the *R*-square indicating good results.

6.5.3. ANOVA Test

The ANOVA test is the analysis of variance using independent variables, which is also a way to determine if the survey results are significant (Cuevas et al., 2004). The ANOVA *F* value can inform the researcher of the important relationship between variables (Mann & Lacke, 2010). A higher value for *F* indicates that independent variables are significant. ANOVA allows for analysing multiple groups to establish the variances between and within samples. Table 14 shows the results of the ANOVA test conducted for this study.

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	*F*	Sig.
1	Regression	71.569	1	71.569	202.619	.000[b]
	Residual	99.254	281	.353		
	Total	170.823	282			

a. Dependent variable: OP_Comp

b. Predictors: (Constant), TLS_Comp

Table 14: ANOVA Test.

The results of the ANOVA test returned an *f* value of 202.619, which is significant at the 0.01 level, and the analysis of the variance in the ANOVA test showed a significant value of 0.000, which is a value less than 0.01. Therefore, considering the statistical value generated from the ANOVA test, a significant relationship between transformational leadership (independent variable) and the dependent variable of organisational performance in the DPF is confirmed. Therefore, from this test, the model developed for this study is reliable and valid.

6.5.4. Coefficients

6.5.4.1. Coefficient OP and TLS

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	*t*	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.244	0.215		5.778	0.000
	TLS_Comp	0.667	0.047	0.647	14.234	0.000

a. Dependent variable: OP_Comp

Table 15: Coefficient OP and TLS.

As in Table 15, the coefficients demonstrate the influence of transformational leadership on organisational performance. The result of 0.667 is significant at the 0.001 level. Therefore, this positive B weight shows that if the organisational performance of the DPF is to be enhanced, then transformational leadership should be practised at all levels of leadership.

Therefore, based on the above results, the *t*-test values indicate a strong, significant regression relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance in the DPF. Furthermore, the coefficient beta value relates to improved organisational performance brought about by transformational leadership in the DPF in the last 5 years.

6.5.4.2. Coefficients EP and OP

Model		Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
		B	Std. error	Beta	*T*	Sig.
1	(Constant)	0.958	0.173		5.547	0.000
	EP	0.736	0.038	0.757	19.438	0.000

a. Dependent variable: OP

Table 16: Coefficients EP and OP.

In addition, data are regressed to test another proposition (employee performance is positively and significantly correlated with organisational performance). The analysis results revealed significant *F* and adjusted *R* square values ($F = 377.836$, Sig = 0.000; $R^2 = 0.577$). Table 16 portrays significant values of ($\beta = 0.736$, $p = 0.000$) for employee performance, which supports the argument of the substantial and significant contribution of employee performance toward organisational performance.

6.6. Mediation Analyses

For testing the mediation of employee performance, the data are regressed using the model of Baron and Kenny (1986).

6.6.1. Regression and Mediation Analysis

Model: 4

Y: OP_Comp

X: TLS_Comp

M: EP_Comp

Sample

Size: 283

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

EP_Comp

Model summary

R	*R*-sq	MSE	*F*	df1	df2	*p*
0.8585	0.7370	0.1695	787.3799	1.0000	281.0000	0.0000

Model

	coeff	se	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	0.3696	0.1491	2.4790	0.0138	0.0761	0.6630
TLS_Comp	0.9114	0.0325	28.0603	0.0000	0.8475	0.9754

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

OP_Comp

Model summary

R	*R*-sq	MSE	*F*	df1	df2	*p*
0.7573	0.5735	0.2602	188.2691	2.0000	280.0000	0.0000

Model

	coeff	se	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	0.9684	0.1867	5.1866	0.0000	0.6009	1.3360
TLS_Comp	−0.0111	0.0785	−0.1421	0.8871	−0.1656	0.1433
EP_Comp	0.7445	0.0739	10.0733	0.0000	0.5990	0.8900

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF *X* ON *Y* **********

Direct effect of *X* on *Y*

Effect	se	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
−0.0111	0.0785	−0.1421	0.8871	−0.1656	0.1433

Indirect effect(s) of *X* on *Y*:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
EP_Comp	0.6786	0.1148	0.3952	0.8642

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output: 95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000

Bollen (1992) suggested that the indirect effect is tested through nonparametric bootstrapping. If the null of 0 falls between the lower and upper bounds with a 95% confidence interval, then the inference is that the indirect population effect is 0. However, if 0 falls outside the confidence interval, the indirect effect is inferred to be nonzero. In this study, the indirect effect of employee performance (IE = 0.6786) is positive and statistically significant: 95% CI = (0.3852, 0.8642).

6.7. Conclusion

This chapter presents the quantitative findings, including descriptive and inferential statistics. Using a questionnaire, the respondents were asked to rate their leaders on organisational and employee performance, including transformational leadership (TLS), focusing on the dimensions of TLS. The descriptive results based on the mean and standard deviation indicated a strong and positive agreement across all six categories in the survey questionnaire. Before inferring the results, this study tested the reliability and validity of the instruments, and the measurement scales were all satisfactory. The *t*-test values were used to test the hypotheses. The findings indicated strongly significant relationships between the three constructs. Considering the inferential statistics, several tests to measure regression and correlation were carried out, including *t*-test, ANOVA and coefficient of determination to test the three hypotheses of the study. The results indicated a significant relationship between the variables. Therefore, transformational leadership has a strong and positive effect on organisational and employee performance in the DPF. The significant relationship between the variables, as shown in the quantitative results, was theoretically expected. A more detailed discussion of these findings is provided in Chapter 8. The next chapter presents the quantitative data collected from the leaders in the DPF.

Chapter 7: Qualitative Results

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative data collected as part of this study's mixed methods research approach. The qualitative data for this study were collected from the leaders of the DPF at various ranks ranging from Major General to Major. All the participants were senior leaders responsible for heading key departments in the DPF; the participants also included two female Majors of DPF. The qualitative data focused on two objectives:

i. Investigate contemporary leadership styles espoused by the senior leaders in the DPF;

ii. Critically analyse the senior leaders' perspectives on transformational leadership and its practices in the DPF.

The qualitative data analysis highlighted key themes, including leadership culture in DPF, leadership styles, transformational leadership and knowledge sharing, innovation, managing change, organisational performance, employee performance and challenges of leadership in DPF. The results are organised based on the key themes from qualitative data.

7.2. Leadership Culture in DPF

Schein (2004:224) stated, 'As organisations grow and evolve, so do their cultures'. This statement is true when referring to DPF. Based on their long-term transformational leadership experience, Lancefield and Rangen (2021) observed that this leadership style has to originate from the top. They argued that transformation is led by a CEO figurehead who has the courage to bring about significant structural changes, one who does not fear deploying new technologies and instilling cultural change. Perhaps in the case of the participants in this study, the image they have of this type of leader includes His Highness, the Prime Minister and ruler of Dubai, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, and Lieutenant General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri, the Commander-in-Chief of the Dubai Police.

In the last two decades, a cultural shift has occurred in the DPF, whose leaders have embraced contemporary leadership styles. The participants attributed this shift in leadership culture to the top management of the UAE and the DPF, particularly the Prime Minister, who is also the Leader of Dubai and the Commander-in-Chief of Dubai Police. Al-Alawi et al. (2007) observed that leaders are role models who bring with them knowledge and create opportunities for

knowledge transfer. This knowledge transfer from the top management is vital to the organisational culture.

Schein (2010) argued that the leader's beliefs, values and assumptions influence the organisation's culture. The influence of the Prime Minister and Leader of Dubai was highly emphasised in the interviews. One of the participants (MG2), a Major General in the DPF who has worked in the Police for over 20 years, mentioned that:

> *Leadership from the top has an outstanding role in shaping how the leaders in the organisation will work towards achieving its goals. We are lucky that we have a transformational leader at the top who is driving a learning culture in all government organisations, including us here at the Dubai Police. And the importance of a transformation leadership style is highlighted by Dubai Police leadership that emulates what His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum is promoting.* (MG2)

M4 focused much on the leadership of the Dubai Police in developing a transformational leadership style and indicated the influence of Commander-in-Chief, His Excellency Lieutenant General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri. M4 commented that:

> *The instructions of the government and His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief urge us to follow appropriate leadership styles, including the transformational leadership style and the open-door policy. For example, the Director of Administrative Affairs is our general manager; although he has an independent office, he sits in the offices of the heads of departments that are less ranked than him daily and checks on the other employees, which creates a friendly bond between him and the employees and breaks down any barrier.* (M4)

M3 has an interesting view of the traditional leadership styles that the police leaders were using when he started his career in the DPF. He pays tribute to the older leaders who built the foundation of Dubai police, stating:

> *The history of Dubai police is enormous, filled with many competent leaders and decisions taken by them to implement the vision of Dubai police the way it is today. Over the years, the leadership culture in the police has been changing and moving towards making the leaders more independent and less reliant on orders from the top, and the responsibilities of the leaders have changed to allow for such innovative leadership styles such as transformational leadership style that focus on developing*

new leader to work in the police. I am always excited when I get new officers because I know this is an opportunity to develop new leaders in the modern way of leadership; you know, these are the future leaders of the DPF. (M3)

MG3, M3 and M4 have all demonstrated that progressive leaders and the forces that put them in power can significantly influence how the people below them define and solve the organisation's internal adaptation and external integration problems. Bernard and Klein (2009) discussed leadership as co-created, emphasising that the leadership that emerges in a given location at a given time is a function that is derived between the leaders, appointing body which exerts influence on the nature of the proposed and exerted leadership.

This influence of the ruler of Dubai and the Prime Minister of the UAE on the leadership culture of the Dubai Police is clearly articulated by participant DC1, a consultant in the Department of Strategy in Reports and Research for Community Happiness in the DPF. He stated that:

The ruler of Dubai seeks to build foundations that contribute of the well-being of the people in the emirate in particular and the UAE in general, public organisations in Dubai including the police force are emulating the same principles of leadership, by establishing a leadership that contributes to such trends, which brings efficiency and effectiveness and increase productivity. Transformational leadership is the best style to harness the culture that His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum is trying to implement. I am happy to be part of it. (DC1)

DC1's comment resonates with what Schein (2010) observed: people in top management hold ideas and notions based on their own cultural history, experience and personality regarding how to achieve their ideas. Such leaders have high self-confidence and determination but also have strong assumptions about the nature of the world, human relationships and how to arrive at what they want to build. The leaders impose this culture on their followers. Therefore, it is unsurprising in this study to see that most participants relate their leadership to His Highness, the leader of Dubai, and the DPF Commander-in-Chief. The discussions from the participants highlighted the two leaders as exhibiting idealised influence (acting as role models that most leaders in the police force would like to emulate in their leadership) and inspirational motivation (seen as leaders who cultivate change that trickled down to the DPF leadership).

One of the female participants (M2) in this study also admired His Highness' influence on leadership. In her words, she said:

> *I learned a great deal from reading about His Highness and how he approaches leadership. I try to apply the same principles in my leadership. For example, I encourage the people working under me to think of new ways to solve problems and use logical thinking before undertaking any task or behaviour, as this represents the intellectual-behavioural impact of conviction promoted His Highness, and this effect continues even after the end of the leadership effect, to stimulate motives and direct them towards repeating disciplinary behaviour through increase mental awareness, and intellectual awareness towards work. (M2)*

M2's words are a clear example of an organisation that has changed its leadership culture to transformational leadership, which, according to Bass (1985), is a process that motivates followers by appealing to their moral values and are motivated to act in a way that sustains the greater good rather than their interests. It also aligns with O'Grady's (1997) observations that transformational leaders create an environment for employees to extend boundaries of thinking and doing, thus creating room for creativity to emerge and shared responsibility.

Another participant (C2) also referred to the top leadership in the Dubai government and the policing leadership as key to influencing the leadership culture in the DPF. He stated that:

> *Dubai Government and Dubai Police, in particular, seek to build foundations and initiatives that contribute to creating the appropriate environment for employees and a safe community for the residents of the community by establishing initiatives that aim to harness this convenience. The leadership that I use contributes to such trends, which brings out the effectiveness and efficiency of the transformational leadership style and increases productivity between departments.* (C2)

Regarding the influence of the top management on the leadership culture, M1 claimed that:

> *Transformational leadership style is successful, and I think that most of the leaders in the Dubai Police are adopting the same style, especially now that we are in line with the directives of the government and the directives of His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief of Dubai Police Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri, and we are following in their footsteps and directions.* (M1)

Developing a leadership culture in any organisation originates from strong leadership at the top, closely related to the organisation's mission and an authentic vision. It grows organically and is reinforced by a value system that brings all employees around a shared purpose. The

findings above indicate that the key leaders strongly influence the leadership culture in the DPF in Dubai, His Highness the Ruler of Dubai and His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief of Dubai Police Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri. Therefore, understanding leadership culture, what the top management wants and why it is such an important part of the organisation's performance is essential for all leadership positions. The Dubai Police have adopted a transformational leadership culture with a strong influence from the top management, and it seems to be producing good results, as demonstrated in the other sections of this chapter.

7.3. Transformational Leadership in the DPF

Another interesting issue from the data was the leadership style and the understanding of transformational leadership. The participants were asked to describe the leadership style they applied in their work. While they all claimed to be transformational leaders, some responses indicated that they consider participatory leadership part of the transformational leadership style. The participants' understanding of transformational leadership style also varied. Below are some of the responses provided by the participants.

On transformational leadership, LC1 stated:

> *The work system in the police is based on rules and regulations that must be followed and are required of all leaders and employees. In terms of leadership, communication and closeness to the officers and the individuals are the keys to solving any existing problem. The successful transformational leader has a broad view and notices all the employees' actions, either negative or positive, and rewards the successful employee, which leads to motivating and encouraging the rest of the employees. Thus, the importance of transformational leadership, and I would like it to be adopted by all leaders in the Dubai Police.* LC1

C2 observed that the transformational leadership style provides a wide range of successful tools for improving and adopting changes in the work environment. He further said that:

> *Transformational leadership style gives the opportunity for the leader to upgrade the mindset of the employees and tackle their weaknesses in the work environment. Moreover, transformational leadership intends to offer significant changes in performance practices, which are not restricted to awarding prizes or imposing consequences on staff but also include participation in the group growth process.* (C2)

C1 expresses a similar view to that of C2, stating his understanding of transformational leadership as follows:

> *Transformational leadership does seem to be a leadership approach that contributes to presenting a clear and justified organisational mission and vision by inspiring employees to perform forward into ideas through positive communication with employees, recognising employees' needs, supporting them in effectively exerting their ability, and engaging in organisational outcomes.* (C1)

M1, who has educational responsibilities in the DPF, also expressed similar views on transformational leadership. He observed that:

> *Transformational leaders are individuals that encourage and motivate their employees to accomplish great results whilst also strengthening their leadership potential. Transformational leaders assist people in growing and developing into leaders by reacting towards the requirements of individual followers, empowering them, and matching the aims and objectives of the team, the leader, the group, and the organisation in general. In the Academy, we introduced a leadership programme at the MBRCLD[i] and emphasis is on innovative leadership styles. This is a three to six months course aimed at people going into leadership positions.* (M1)

C2 and M1 indicated that transformational leadership involves performance management to identify employee weaknesses and create group dynamics that allow the tasks to be completed. Alessa (2021), citing Burns (1978), noted that transformational leaders use their personality and vision to inspire the people below them to change their perceptions and motivation to work towards a shared goal. Transformational leaders do this by defining and communicating the organisation's vision and goals and uplifting each individual's weaknesses to achieve the organisation's goals. MG2 believed that with transformational leadership, employees can understand the work environment's vision, principles and goals, leading to good decision-making.

C2 viewed transformational leadership as a style that promotes organisational talent development. He asserted that:

> *My leadership is dependent on leadership that encourages, collects, and extracts talents from every employee I have in the department since the department wherein we work is dependent on the development of ideas and intellectual minds generated by*

managers and employees. As a result, I follow transformational leadership when it supports these trends, which require ongoing growth in terms of maintaining a smart and modern work environment. (C2)

C2's leadership style has transformational leadership characteristics that identify the potential in employees and strive to develop their individual strengths and abilities to reach their potential in ways that benefit themselves, their colleagues, the organisation and the societies within which the organisations operate.

LC1's understanding of transformational leadership is defined as inspirational motivation. He observed that:

Transformational leadership is distinguished by inspired motivation, a passion for one's profession, and the ability to clearly convey mutual objectives. This leadership style necessitates promoting innovation, effecting good change, and empowering people to challenge the existing status on an individual level. This is in marked contrast to other leadership styles, which use a sequence of incentives and penalties to encourage better levels of performance. (LC1)

M3, one of the women who participated in this study, echoed views similar to those of LC1. She stated that:

I think that the leader usually shows this leadership style through their actions and orientations in the administration. I use a leadership style that works to motivate and empower employees and create a happy and appropriate environment for employees, especially for employees who have practical problems where I show them the positive side instead of the negative side that buries Talents and happiness, for example, the 'Happiness Hormone' initiative was established, which aims to raise employee happiness and job satisfaction through the participation of employees, specifically women employees, in their joys and sorrows, and creating a happy family atmosphere among employees. (M3)

The statements from LC1 and M3 show that these participants understood transformational leadership; they indicated that they had a clear vision and could articulate it to the working below them, and by empowering their employees, they are inspiring them to experience the same motivations to fulfil the goals of the DPF.

Conversely, other participants felt that transformational leadership alone could not achieve the goals of the DPF without applying the principles of participative leadership. For instance, MG2 observed that:

> *I'm willing to spread a transformational leadership style across my department by reaching the employees with many conferences and training, especially in such a sensitive sector I lead. Ensuring good decision-making and adaptation in the work environment for the employees is a key factor. However, in such a sector, I say that a transformational leadership style is missing without participation leadership style and knowledge to accomplish the requirements and needs of the job....Participation leadership style is very significant in the work environment at all levels of the administration because it builds positive and friendly relationships and also works to spread knowledge and consultation in the work environment*. (MG2)

M4 observed that he used three leadership styles, each of which suited the situation he was dealing with at that time. In his words, he said:

> *I use three types of leadership: the first of which is transformational leadership, the second leadership is delegation leadership, and the third leadership is participatory leadership. I use each of them depending on the situation; for instance, I use a lot of delegation because I believe it empowers the employees when they are given freedom to complete lead tasks. I usually invite the team leaders and we brainstorm problems and come to constructive solutions together. I reserved one day a week where I interact with individual officers to understand their problems and their goals. So you I'm a transformational and participative leader.* (M4)

MG2 seem to espouse the principles of participative leadership in the transformational leadership style. Conversely, Hwang et al. (2021) noted that though transformational and participative leadership may involve engaging and inspiring the followers, the two leadership styles have distinct characteristics. Transformational leaders are more focused on inspiring and motivating their followers to develop, improve themselves and achieve their goals and those of the organisation. In contrast, participative leaders are called democratic as they focus more on involving the followers in decision-making and encourage collaboration. Therefore, as Hwang et al. (2021) noted, transformational leadership emphasises individual motivation, inspiration and professional growth to achieve a shared vision. Participant leadership style emphasises collaboration and participation of followers in the decision-making process.

The leaders in the police force have demonstrated that they use several leadership styles, mostly transformational and participative. Whereas the former has helped inspire and motivate their followers to develop and work towards a shared goal, the latter has helped bring the followers into the decision-making process, thus empowering them to accomplish tasks and sometimes go beyond what they are expected to do. The following section focuses on how these leadership styles affect individual and organisational performance.

7.4. Transformational Leadership Style's Impact on Employee and Organisational Performance

One key issue for almost all participants is the importance of transformational leadership on employee and organisational performance. Boer et al. (2016) observed that transformational is for leader–follower exchange, with strong effects on outcomes in the organisation. Wang et al. (2012) also observed that transformational leadership is closely related to positive performance at both the team and organisational levels. In their meta-analytic study of transformational leadership, Wang et al. (2011) concluded that transformational leadership had an augmentation effect in predicting both individual-level contextual performance and organisation-level performance. The argument is that transformational leaders provide a better environment for the followers to achieve their tasks and surpass their abilities (Cheung and Wong, 2012). Iscan et al. (2014) argued that transformational leadership provides opportunities for the followers to focus on the organisation's long-term objectives and inspire them to be more ambitious, thus improving employee performance and, subsequently, better performance for the organisation.

Within public organisations like the DPF, transformational leadership is the antecedent for leaders to link managerial and operational activities with their organisation's vision and mission (Indrayanto et al., 2014). Therefore, leaders are considered the key drivers of performance at individual and organisational levels (Brewer and Selden, 2000; Bass and Riggio, 2006). The leaders who participated in this study felt that they were practising transformational leadership and believed that their leadership positively impacted both the individual (employee) and organisational level performance. The following section presents some of the participants' responses concerning performance; the section is divided into two subsections, starting with employees before presenting the results on organisational performance.

7.4.1. Employee Performance

Transformational leadership is closely related to improved employee performance. According to Riyanto et al. (2021), employee performance is measured by the quality and quantity of individual employee productivity based on the organisation's standards. Employee performance is considered very good if the individuals have the right skills for the job and go beyond expectations. Employees with high productivity feel obligated to help their organisation achieve its goals and strongly commit to its performance (Susanto et al., 2023). Conversely, it is also argued that leaders' and employees' perceptions of performance differ across cultures. This study's participants demonstrated their interpretation of employee performance and how the transformational leadership style in the DPF impacts it.

One participant (LC2) emphasised the role of transformational leadership, the continuous development of the employees, and the improvement in their productivity. He commented that:

> *The transformational leadership style allows the leader to review and develop the performance of administrators and employees in the organisations, especially in the centre here. We established close links between employees to make work close and unified and work as one team. The foundations of transformational leadership are included in all the departments in the centre; we have regular, continuous development at all levels at the Centre. This has improved the performance of all the workers here as they feel confident to carry out their tasks.* (LC2)

LC2 raises an interesting issue: continuous improvement of employees and performance. Some studies have indicated a strong relationship between the continuous development of employees and employee engagement, sound decision-making and organisational success (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Osbourne and Hammoud, 2017). LC2's approach to continuous employee development has led to positive performance results.

M4 also had high praises for transformational leadership in raising employee performance by providing an environment where employees feel their leaders care. He stated that:

> *I use a number of leadership styles depending on the situation; however, I have found the transformational leadership style to bring results out of people. For example, we would not have been able to achieve success had it not been for the work input of the Dubai Police employees. In this department, we strive to create an appropriate environment for the employees and work on joint decisions that involve the employees*

> *and their leaders. We develop their thinking and provide training and qualifications through courses and initiatives. Throughout my career, I have put my employees ahead and provided them with the right tools to do their jobs, and the results are for everyone to see. We have been voted the best section on productivity for two years in a row.* (M4)

What M4 said was true; his department won awards for high achievement in the Dubai Police in 2018. Yukl (2010) noted that transformational leaders could make employees feel secure—they could build trust and loyalty and motivate their employees to perform beyond expectations. M4's comments demonstrate that he is a transformational leader who has successfully built trust and loyalty in his team; the results are seen in the department being recognised by the Dubai Police for its performance and productivity.

C1's views focused on employee satisfaction, observing that increased employee happiness positively affects their performance. He said that:

> *I find it imperative and important to place employees under a leadership such as transformational leadership that contributes to developing the scope of work to become more in line with the changes that occur over time and creating an appropriate and integrated environment for employees so that they can increase productivity significantly. Through my practice of this leadership style Transformational leadership), I was able to raise job satisfaction and also raise the level of job happiness to 99.5%, which is a high percentage within a short period. This has also improved employee performance, thanks to the encouragement from Major General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri (*the commander-in-chief of the DPF*) and for providing an environment that enables us to be creative and generate happiness for employees.* (C1)

The positive relationship between employee happiness and productivity is well articulated in the literature (Harter et al., 2003; Thompson and Bruk-Lee, 2021; Oswald et al., 2022). Bellet et al. (2023) studied employee happiness in a UK telecom company, finding that happy employees increase their productivity by 13% because they work faster and generate more business. Therefore, C1's efforts are similar to findings in other studies. For C1, these efforts in creating an environment that promotes employee happiness have increased productivity in the department and the entire DPF as other departments copied C1's Approach.

However, performance was not restricted to employee performance alone; the participants also talked about how their use of transformational leadership style has had a positive effect beyond the individual and team levels, resulting in improvements in the performance of the entire DPF.

7.4.2. Organisational Performance

Arif and Akram (2018) argued that leaders are responsible for promoting and improving performance in their organisations; therefore, leaders play a significant role in encouraging and supporting their followers to discover new ideas and ways of improving work performance. This study's participants all claimed that their leadership style (transformational leadership) impacted how their departments performed and generally improved DPF performance.

For instance, M3, one of the study's female participants, expressed her views in favour of transformational leadership's influence on improving performance at the organisational level. She said:

> *I think that this leadership style (transformational one) is the best way to reach the goals of the organisation and work in the development of the organisation in a radical and continuous way, and I do not like a leadership style that works to limit the talents of employees and the strategic plans of managers. As a transformational leader, I allow the managers and employees to spread their wings of creativity and development in my department, and I have created an ideal work environment.* (M3)

Another participant (C3), who heads one of the key departments in promoting technology in the DPF, viewed the practice of transformational leadership in the Dubai Police as the key to its improved performance, with the DPF winning awards at both national and international levels. When talking about the importance of transformational leadership on the performance of the Dubai Police, he said:

> *This leadership style (*transformational leadership*) has provided many facilities that administrators and employees currently rely on, such as the continuous use of technology in all departments, police stations, and police patrols that ease the work system. These technologies cannot be obtained without wise leadership, as Dubai Police has received many awards that confirm this, such as the 'Smart Data Champion of the Year' for the Smart Police Stations (SPS) initiative by Dubai Police.* (C3)

For C1, transformational leadership's effect on organisational performance was described as providing a conducive environment that allows job satisfaction, claiming that a happy employee will surpass their tasks, which results in improved organisational performance. He said that:

> *The work environment is the most important factor in enabling organisational leadership, as it focuses on the creation of relationships between employees and managers, recognises the circumstances of employees from private problems and conditions, and meets their requirements. Where we have employees of different nationalities, it is important to create a connection between everyone, as this is not just constrained to my orientation but through the 'Employee Happiness Team' that I formed, from which we became the only department to lead the Dubai Police to achieve three years of job satisfaction. At both the government and the Dubai Police levels.* (C1)

C1's approach to improving productivity is supported by an experimental study by Oswald et al. (2022), who confirmed that employee happiness improves productivity at both individual and organisational levels. C1's initiative has seen his area of leadership growing and getting recognition at both organisational and national levels. To confirm this, he further articulated that:

> *The transformational leadership style contributed to the growth of the centre in terms of organisational and management development through multiple innovations and initiatives throughout the organisational units and committees that I formed; other departments considerably participated.* (C1)

Regarding female employees in the DPF, M2 also supported transformational leadership in improving productivity at both employee and organisational levels. She said:

> *I'm a transformational leader, and the leadership style that I use has returned many positives. I make sure that I create diversity in the work environment, remove all obstacles that female employees have in their work and personal lives and provide comfort and stability for them to perform at their best. These female officers have become a symbol of efficiency and enthusiasm when performing in roles that were initially restricted to men. I'm proud that the performance of women has improved productivity in the Dubai Police Force.* (M2)

M1's approach and comments support what Cordeiro and Stites-Doe (1997) stated: organisations hiring women in leadership positions directly affect their productivity levels and improve performance; however, those organisations that fail to put women in leadership suffer lower productivity and performance. The authors did not indicate whether these women's leadership style affects productivity. Nonetheless, Bass (1999) indicated that female leaders

tended to be more transformational than their male counterparts. M1's observations indicate that women applying transformational leadership style impact the organisation's performance.

MG4 viewed transformational leadership from the organisational vision and mission perspective, commenting that he interprets the Dubai Police's vision and mission to his subordinates and inspires them to work toward them. This situation has improved the police's performance. He said:

> *Transformational leadership does seem to be a leadership approach that contributes to presenting a clear and justified organisational mission and vision by inspiring employees to perform towards shared ideas through positive communication with employees, recognising employees' needs, supporting them in effectively exerting their ability, and engaging in organisational outcomes.* (MG4)

MG4's approach, through transformational leadership, to define the police's vision and mission aligns with other studies that indicate that it improves productivity. Several other studies have indicated similar results. For instance, Kopaneva (2019) argued that when employees understand the organisation's vision and mission, it brings them satisfaction, commitment and better performance (Ahiauzu and Peniel, 2012; Fritz et al., 2013).

From the above insights from participants, it is clear that the transformational leadership style practised by the leaders in the Dubai Police has improved the performance of the people working under them and that of the police force in Dubai and the UAE, as well as regionally in the Middle East.

7.5. Knowledge Sharing, Employee Innovation and Transformational Leadership

The literature has recognised transformational leadership as essential in promoting innovation and knowledge sharing in organisations (Al-Husseini et al., 2019; Lim and Moon, 2022). Transformational leaders can create opportunities to develop an innovative culture in their organisations (Jung et al., 2003; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009). Faraji et al. (2014) noted that transformational leaders' tools, such as idealised influence, could encourage and stimulate employees to innovate and bring new ideas to the organisation.

In addition to idealised influence, intellectual stimulation is another dimension of transformational leadership that encourages employee innovation. According to Sarros et al. (2008), intellectual stimulation is the ability of a leader to create an environment where the employees can challenge the status quo, take risks, and develop new ideas. Transformational

leaders empower, stimulate and encourage the people working under them to be creative and innovative in how they approach problems and develop new ways of solving them (Wang and Rode, 2010).

Within the police, innovation offers opportunities for promoting public safety and community well-being and improving trust in the police (Weisburd and Braga, 2006). From the qualitative data, this study identified innovation as a factor the participants consistently referred to as transformational leadership. This section presents some participants' views on transformational leadership and its ability to stimulate innovation.

One of the participants interested in innovation was LC2; he acknowledged the role of transformational leadership in extending communication and knowledge between leaders and the people working below them. For LC2, transformational leadership encourages employees to adopt new approaches to work. He observed that:

> *I strive to create an atmosphere that inspires employees and contributes to keeping with digital transformation by developing tools for all employees, such as innovation laboratories, human resources, data laboratories, etc. Furthermore, establishing a shared atmosphere with all employees, meeting with them to understand their needs and developing connectivity and interactions at all levels in my area of leadership. This way, the officers always approach me with new ideas on how we can work in our areas. One of the most innovative ideas that the department initiated in the Dubai Police Force is the use of body cameras for the patrol police. Now, the whole police force has adopted it, and other police departments in the UAE have been contacting me about the use of these devices.* (LC2)

Organisations worldwide have benefited from their employees generating new ideas and innovations to improve processes and products. Salvador and Sting (2022) referred to this approach of letting employees generate new and innovative ideas as the Kaizen approach, referring to the Toyota production system. This approach is widely adopted in the manufacturing sector. Furthermore, the service sector is also known for encouraging employees to develop innovative ideas because it is assumed that the employees, particularly those on the frontline, understand the services that require improvement and how they can be improved (Sugimoto, 2018). LC2's comments on how he works with his employees and the room he gives them to be more creative and innovative demonstrated the Kaizen approach; according to him, it has been successful.

However, LC2 is not alone in recognising the role of transformational leadership in knowledge sharing and innovation. According to C3, transformational leadership positively and substantially affects workforce productivity. This situation allows employees to apply what they have learned and gain knowledge to organisational tasks, particularly in the police force. He further said:

> *I have an open-door policy in my leadership; the whole idea is that anyone in the department with an idea can come to my office and talk about it. As a transformational leader, I always challenge my employees to come up with new ways of doing things; our department is responsible for innovation in the Dubai Police. We work like a family here; we support each other as well as challenge each other to come up with new ideas. I created teams, and we have a competition in which we will come up with the best and most practical ideas. Dubai Police Force rely on my department to bring in new technology and innovation that will support how the police work with the community.* (C3)

Like C3's approach, M4 explained how he works and has encouraged innovation and knowledge sharing in his department. His comments were:

> *I'm aware that in today's world, whether you are in a private or public organisation, you have to stimulate your employees to be creative and innovative. I always look for ways to stimulate the people working in my department to inspire them to work creatively and innovatively. We share our ideas with other departments because, as the modern police force, we have challenges. We need to have an informed approach to overcome these challenges; otherwise, we risk using tools that may not be appropriate for our people. Who is better to come up with good ideas than the people facing these challenges on a daily basis? That is why I prefer transformational leadership style; it opens opportunities for everyone to contribute new ideas.'*

Other participants, such as MG2, viewed transformational leadership as an enabler of knowledge sharing. He emphasised how he encourages employees to share their knowledge to develop the department. He said that:

> *I encourage the employees to administer what they learned or what they should learn in their work environment and invest in the knowledge gained from their work. The strength of learning at all levels strengthens the organisation and supports the employees to achieve both their and organisational goals, to keep the peace and safety*

of our community with confidence through diligence in development and knowledge by being proactive in learning new things and strategies that help them in their job and share what they knew with others. (MG2)

M2's views rotated around the policewomen in the police. She voiced her opinions on how transformational leadership empowers female officers to be creative, which has earned the Dubai policewomen several awards in the Middle East. She said that:

Transformational leadership is very important in empowering women leaders and employees to maximise their capacity to innovate. It helps us to focus on our abilities, become confident in our activities, develop our self-esteem and even be able to take risks. Transformational leadership in the Dubai Police has given women the power to formulate a new way of operation. For instance, we now have a female-only SWAT police, and the idea originated from women police officers because they were given opportunities to think about how they would like to operate. And I believe this is the only female SWAT team in the whole of Middle East. (M2)

MG3 talked about his strategy to generate new ideas from the employees. He observed that:

At the beginning of my engagement at the centre, we received very few employee suggestions, hardly more than 30 for the entire year. When I first started working, I realised that I needed to increase the number of employee suggestions to reach more than 5,000; thus, I was able to gather such a huge number of employee suggestions. Suggestions from the employees are hugely vital in bringing in new and innovative ideas to the centre, and from these suggestions, we were able to develop new programmes that enhanced the Centre's productivity. What is interesting is that one of our programmes won awards in the Middle East and the world. (MG3)

Transformational leadership can enhance innovation in an organisation through knowledge sharing. For instance, Hsiao and Wang (2011) noted the power and influence of transformational leadership in boosting knowledge sharing and inspiring innovation. In other words, transformational leadership can inspire creative and innovative behaviour among employees (Hsiao and Wang, 2011). Eisenbeiß and Boerner (2010) support this observation, claiming that transformational leadership facilitates knowledge sharing and motivates employees to be innovative because transformational leadership motivates employees to focus on the organisational vision and goals and become more innovative to improve processes.

One of the key aspects of transformational leadership is communication. Transformational leaders influence communication, and communication influences knowledge sharing, resulting in people becoming innovative; therefore, transformational leadership is one of the most important ways to foster innovation. The observations from the participants in this study indicate that both the leaders using transformational leadership were able to instil a creative and innovative culture in their employees. The result is that both the leaders and the employees generated ideas that improved the performance of the DPF; however, as with any other leadership style, transformational leadership practice in the DPF also had challenges. The following section will discuss some of the challenges faced by the participants in this study.

7.6. Challenges of Transformational Leadership in the DPF

Transformational leadership is promoted as a style that motivates and inspires employees to perform beyond their expected levels of performance, be committed, and become creative and innovative (Boer et al., 2016; Bush, 2019). This assumption is based on the idea that transformational leaders transform their values and beliefs, influence their followers and change their attitudes and values to align with the organisational vision and goals. However, bringing that change and implementing transformational leadership pose challenges and require patience and adaptation, particularly in the police force environment (Cockcroft, 2013).

This study's participants claimed to be transformational leaders and talked a lot about leadership and how they have implemented a transformational style; however, they also talked about the challenges they face in their work. Interestingly, the challenges do not come from the top; instead, they emanate from the people they lead and the process within the Dubai Police. The key challenges mentioned included attracting and relying on foreigners, implementing change in their departments, using new technologies and their military background interfering with transformational leadership. The following section highlights some of the comments from the participants on challenges when implementing transformational leadership.

7.6.1. Reliance on Expatriates

One of the main challenges in the Dubai police and perhaps the whole of the UAE is a heavy reliance on foreigners to provide the required workforce. The UAE, in general, and Dubai Emirate, in particular, rely on foreigners to fill most available jobs. Similarly, the DPF heavily relies on non-nationals, challenging some participants. For instance, C2 expressed views on having many people from various cultural backgrounds and how this challenged him in implementing transformational leadership. He said that:

> *One of the challenges I encounter in my leadership is having many people with diverse cultural origins who enter the academy. It is difficult because some of them do not speak fluent Arabic or English, the main languages we use at the academy. Communicating to them is a challenge. And many of them come from cultures that do not allow them to talk upright or take initiative. I would like the people working for me to take the initiative to carry out tasks without waiting for me to tell them what to do. But the people I get from Southern Asia always wait for you to tell them what to do. They are good at what they are doing, but it takes a lot of time and patience to mould them into good leaders. Sometimes, I have to be authoritative to get them to be effective in what they do.* (C2)

The diversity of followers is one of the challenges of transformational leadership. The whole idea of transformational leadership is recognising and addressing the employees' individual and collective needs to provide support, opportunities for personal growth and development, feedback and recognition (Garcı´a-Morales et al., 2008; Boer et al., 2016). However, in an environment with a multicultural workforce, these needs may change or sometimes conflict with each other or even the organisational goals (Shafi et al., 2020). For instance, some employees may need more autonomy and flexibility, while others may need a lot of guidance and stability. This issue is the challenge faced by C2; however, he also talked about overcoming the challenge.

> *I regularly assess the needs of each employee and use different leadership styles to accommodate them. I have also trained the leaders in my department in skills such as emotional intelligence, building trust, respect for diversity in culture and values, collaboration and respect for the contribution of each of the members of their teams. This seems to be ripping results as my department scored 98% in the most recently concluded Happiness Survey of employees in the police force.* (C2)

For MG1, the challenge is that of employees trusting their leaders. MG1 talked about his initiative of using the family analogy in his department, where he formed teams and tried to treat them like families. He had problems identifying suitable leaders as he assumed that the directors of the departments under his leadership would be suitable family heads; however, this did not work.

> *One of the challenges I have faced when implementing transformational leadership is getting people who are willing to grow into leaders. Initially, I used the Directors of the*

Departments as heads of the families, but they were not effective because I found out that this was not fair to the employees. So, I gathered all the employees and asked them how this idea of families could work. It was suggested that willing candidates put up their names and they are voted, and the winner becomes the head of the family; however, this also failed as I did not get many volunteers. So, I decided that I would nominate the candidates based on the annual performance review because this is where people usually express their ambitions, this worked, but there are people from some cultures that find it hard to lead. They are either too timid to lead others or too harsh to be regarded as leaders. So now what I do is nominate the candidates, let them campaign if they are willing to lead, and the employee vote on them, and the winner becomes head of the family for one year. (MG1)

7.6.2. Managing Change (New Technologies)

Another challenge that the participants raised was managing change. Leaders in the 21st century lead in a constantly changing environment; sometimes, this change could be stressful and disruptive. For instance, Dubai Police has been changing its leadership and organisational culture and embracing technology. Dubai Police relies on its police officers, using cutting-edge technology and artificial intelligence to police the emirates; however, introducing these technologies is disruptive to some people. Though there is no open resistance, the leaders who participated in this study identified it as a challenge to their leadership, particularly when they attempt to be more transformational.

LC1 observed how the new technologies were very good for the Dubai Police as it attempts to become a smart policing organisation, which is disruptive and sometimes threatens some employees. He said:

The biggest challenge I have, and maybe others in similar positions as mine may have, is the new technologies we are using in the Dubai Police Force. The workforce we have sometimes lack the skills and knowledge to use these technologies. We have had a lot of employees moving from one department to another as we are trying to accommodate them in areas where their skills may work better. We also have a lot of questions from people who fear that they may lose their jobs because of the new technologies. For instance, when we introduced the smart police stations in 2017, there was passive resistance from some employees for fear of losing their jobs. But being a transformational leader, I set time aside and talked to each individual, understood their

fears and concerns and addressed their concerns with empathy, respect and transparency. I assured them they would not lose their jobs; instead, all these changes were there to make their jobs easier. This settled that issue, but whenever there are new changes, I prepare for the uneasiness and anxiety that some employees get when they hear the news. (LC1)

MG4 had similar challenges as LC1. When asked about the challenges he encounters when implementing transformational leadership, he said that:

Some of the challenges I face are constantly changing training courses for staff to acquire new skills. My team keeps on updating these courses and refining them to develop the skills and knowledge required by the staff, especially in this era characterised by rapid developments and technology. Another challenge is the establishment of workshops for other stakeholders, such as other government agencies within the Ministry of Internal Affairs and other agencies, to link ideas and generate new ways of collaboration. In such situations, I find myself being more of a participative leader and less of a transformational leader. (MG4)

Tyrrell (2019) observed that law enforcement organisations are constantly experiencing changes in their effort to combat crime and keep the general public safe. He argued that it has become difficult to accurately predict what law enforcement will look like in two decades, and only changes are guaranteed. Transformational leadership style is well positioned to manage change because the whole concept of this leadership style is dependent on successful change management. What LC1 applied in his leadership is the real essence of transformational leadership: to prepare, experience and institutionalise changes with the employees.

7.6.3. Interference of Military Training in Transformational Leadership

A challenge raised by a few participants is the military background of some leaders who participated in this study. For example, C2 has a military background and found it challenging to lead using a transformational leadership style. He said:

I support the transformational leadership style exceptionally, but by virtue of my work in a military setting, I must be authoritarian at times to communicate the idea of the military system and adhere to the banner of instructions and laws associated with the government. You know, in the military, leadership is very important, and effectiveness is the key because, as a leader, you have to make decisions sometimes in a stressful

situation that impacts many other people. I found myself being authoritative. My line manager noticed this and invited me for a chat. I went for a course on leadership that helped me. I now use transformational and participative leadership styles, but it is a big challenge and hard work not to be authoritative. (C2)

C2's dilemma and challenges are common in the military and law enforcement agencies that require effective decision-making. This situation poses the question, can people in law enforcement and military agencies be transformational leaders?

Law enforcement agencies are now adopting transformational leadership mainly for organisational enhancement, to support employees' individual growth and development and to foster change and inspiration. In transformational leadership, instead of ordering the followers to take on a task without explaining why they are doing it, transformational leaders use inspiration and motivation to help their followers understand the purpose and importance of the task they are undertaking (Hamad, 2015). In return, the transformational leader will seek feedback from followers.

Hamad (2015) stressed that it is difficult to impose a single leadership style on people with a military background because they undergo a series of training and experiences that they are expected to use in a particular situation. Therefore, while they are expected to be transformational, their military background may require them to use transactional leadership styles, considering the situation. According to Hamad (2015), three factors can make a military leader more transformational: training, organisational power and self-confidence. This approach is what C2's leader did: he identified the problem, discussed it with C2 and agreed on training, which gave C2 self-confidence and the organisational power that comes with his role.

7.7. Conclusion

This chapter presents the findings from the qualitative phase of the mixed methods study regarding the effectiveness of transformational leadership on employee and organisational performance in the DPF. The data from interviews with the leaders in the DPF highlighted a few themes, including Leadership culture, leadership styles, the effect of transformational leadership on performance, knowledge sharing and innovation, and the challenges leaders encounter when implementing transformational leadership.

What is to note is that today, organisations, including public agencies such as the DPF, operate in a vibrant environment amid unprecedented transformation, with rapid developments in new technology, vehicles and most importantly, people. Therefore, understanding the relationship between people (followers) and change is challenging and requires charismatic leaders with transformational skills. The data above demonstrated that the Dubai policing leadership has embraced the transformational change that originates from the top leadership, which has influenced a change in the leadership culture of the police. Transformations in the leadership culture are driven by internal and external conditions that create the environment for urgent and radical change. The top leadership developed that environment and also developed leaders who were open to new ideas and perspectives and were capable of directing others within the police to focus on the vision and missions of the police.

As one participant commented, the role of the police officer has changed over the years. Whereas the primary duties of the police were to respond to emergencies, today, a police officer is a coordinator, analyst, mediator and security officer responsible for keeping the public safe. This transformation of the police role requires the leaders to keep pace with the changes; therefore, it is essential to consider the ideal leadership style that helps the police in the 21st century, and transformational leadership seems to be the ideal leadership style.

Transformational leadership is rooted in personal growth and self-awareness. The participants in this study demonstrated that they were willing to learn and grow. They also encourage their followers to learn and improve because they believe leaders do not have to wait for change but should be proactive and make bold choices and decisions that can set the tone for others to follow.

The next chapter integrates qualitative and quantitative data and discusses the findings from chapters six and seven. It also provides the implications for this study, particularly on leadership for the regional police.

Chapter 8: Discussion and Integration of Findings

8.1. Introduction

This study contributes to transformational leadership in the police by critically analysing how senior police leaders in the DPF understand and apply it in their leadership. This study also examines the followers' perspectives on transformational leadership. This research uses a body of empirical evidence gathered from the senior police leaders and middle-ranked police officers of the DPF using a mixed-methods research approach. The quantitative findings confirmed the reliability and validity of the survey questionnaire used in the study, and the credibility of the qualitative data was established through triangulation of the questions. This study's qualitative phase focused on the leaders' perspectives on transformational leadership, their understanding of the concept, the factors influencing them to practice it, the challenges of transformational leadership in the police and its impacts on employees and organisational performance. This study's quantitative phase investigated the followers' (middle-ranked police officers) perspectives on employee performance, organisational performance and transformational leadership. In the quantitative phase, transformational leadership focuses on the four dimensions: idealised influence, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation.

This study's results revealed that transformational leadership is thriving in the DPF due to the top leadership, including the leader of the Dubai Government and the Commander-In-Chief of the Dubai Police. These two top leaders in Dubai created a culture that enabled the senior leaders in the police force to practice transformational leadership. The study also revealed that transformational leadership has improved employee and organisational performance. The results are discussed in this chapter.

The results are discussed by revisiting this study's main objectives:

i. To evaluate the contemporary leadership styles espoused by different managers in the DPF.

ii. To critically analyse the senior leaders' understanding of transformational leadership and its practices in the DPF.

iii. To critically analyse the perspectives of middle-ranked DPF officers on transformational leadership.

iv. To find out how transformational leadership in the DPF affects the middle-ranked police officers' terms of employee performance.

v. To assess the effects of transformational leadership style on the organisational performance of the DPF.

8.2. Mixed Methods Integration

This study applied a mixed-methods approach, using qualitative and quantitative research to collect data. This chapter integrates the findings from both qualitative and quantitative data. Creswell and Plano-Clarke (2017) observed that integrating qualitative and quantitative findings is essential to mixed methods research. Integrating qualitative and quantitative data is an intentional process in which the research combines the data collected using different methods (Creswell, 2014). Data from both qualitative and quantitative methods will then become interdependent to address the research questions (Jackson et al., 2019). Fetters and Freshwater (2015) argued that meaningful integration of qualitative and quantitative data will produce findings greater than the sum of the individual qualitative and quantitative parts.

Qualitative and quantitative data integration can happen at four levels (Fetters et al., 2013). First, quantitative results can be explained with a qualitative approach. Second, the research can build from qualitative results to a quantitative component. Third, the results from both qualitative and quantitative data can be merged at the discussion level. Fourth and finally, one approach (e.g. qualitative) can be embedded within the other (e.g. quantitative) (Fetters et al., 2013; Fetters and Freshwater, 2015). In this study, consistent with the mixed methods case study research, integration occurred by merging the results of qualitative and quantitative findings at the discussion level to better understand the research question. At this level, we merged the themes from the qualitative data with data from the survey questionnaires. Integration involved considering the significant results from the qualitative findings and merging them with the responses from the survey. The merged results helped to develop key insights on transformational leadership in the DPF and how it influences organisational and employee performance, which is presented in this chapter.

Qualitative data was collected from 15 leaders out of the 44 senior police leaders who are Heads of Departments in the DPF. Quantitative data were collected from 283 respondents out of the potential target of 4,600 middle-ranked officers between the ranks of Captain and Warrant Officer in the DPF. The responses from the interviews and questionnaire provided insights into the leadership culture and attitudes of the senior police officers as well as the perceptions of

their followers concerning the transformational leadership practices in the DPF. The results from both qualitative data shared many similar opinions on transformational leadership culture, and the questionnaire demonstrated strong agreement concerning the views of the senior leaders, confirming the validity and reliability of the instruments used in this study.

8.3. Contemporary Leadership Styles Espoused by Different Managers in the DPF

Leadership research has evolved since the beginning of the 21st Century. Benmira and Agboola (2021) observed that leadership is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon; although it has been widely studied, it continues to generate captivating and confusing debates due to its complexity. Bennis (2009) noted that leadership is widely studied and poorly understood as it offers many new models and frameworks, which help to understand what it means to be a leader and how leaders practice leadership. This section on contemporary leadership styles discusses the key themes that emerged from the data, including how leaders lead and what influences leadership styles.

8.3.1. Leadership Styles in the DPF

The DPF has matured into a large, complex organisation with established processes and structures. The leaders in the police force work to achieve the organisational vision and objectives of the DPF; however, they have also acquired an autonomy that allows them to use contemporary leadership styles, such as transformational leadership and other inclusive leadership styles, to achieve shared goals. This study aimed to discover how the leaders in the DPF have embraced contemporary leadership styles, particularly transformational leadership. The results showed that leaders used transformational leadership but combined it with other contemporary leadership theories, such as participative and creative leadership styles.

Traditional perspectives on policing leadership tended to view leaders working within a restricted range of styles, creating tense relationships with followers (Manning, 1997; Rowe, 2006). Recent studies on leadership framed leaders as using approaches that exceeded the traditional autocratic style that in the past dominated policing leadership (Brewer and Selden, 2000; Adlam, 2002; Engel, 2002). Today, leadership in the police can no longer focus on one aspect of leadership as this approach cannot meet all the demands and complexity of the phenomenon (Flynn, 2019; Benmira and Agboola, 2021). The policing environment has become more complex and challenging. Police leaders now seek leadership styles that support the rapidly changing environment, increasing globalisation and never-ending disruptive technological innovations (Batt et al., 2012; Outram et al., 2014; Gkougkoudis et al., 2022).

The participants in this qualitative study showed that they were using more than one leadership style to achieve the organisational goals of the DPF. In addition to transformational leadership, the participants also used participative and creative leadership styles. The leaders used transformational leadership to inspire and motivate followers to develop and work towards a shared goal. In comparison, participative leadership was used to bring together the followers in the decision-making process within the departments and develop a togetherness to achieve the police's vision and objectives. Creative leadership progresses naturally from transformational and participative leadership theories; it incorporates moral values and influence, inspires employees and pushes them into inter-enterprise collaboration. (Delegach et al. 2017; Van Dijk et al., 2021). The participants' views indicated that creative leadership was used to support and encourage innovation amongst the DPF employees.

The mixing of transformational with other leadership styles in the DPF has been discussed in the literature. For instance, Van Dierendonck et al. (2014) and Breevaart et al. (2014) observed that leaders who combine two or more leadership styles are successful as this enables them to engage all their followers, create more commitment to the organisation and enthusiasm about their tasks. In another study, Lipley (2004) found that leaders who combined transformational and transactional leadership styles had high chances of motivating their staff, and the followers felt more supported and enthusiastic about their work.

Lipsey's (2004) study focused on mixing transformational leadership with transactional leadership style, arguing that when the two leadership styles were mixed, they created enthusiasm and positively contributed to the well-being of followers. Dierendonck et al.'s (2014) study focused on mixing transformational and servant leadership styles. They concluded that though both styles exerted their influences differently, transformational and servant leadership styles used together led to organisational commitment and employee engagement. In this study, the senior leaders in the DPF mixed transformational leadership with participative leadership styles, which improved employee innovation and creativity.

Wang et al. (2022) observed that participative leadership's foundations are based on several theories from social science with significant effects on the organisational employees through various mechanisms. For instance, Usman et al. (2021) argued that participative leadership promotes job satisfaction through the social exchange theory and builds a work-together spirit amongst employees. From the social cognitive theory, Zou et al. (2020) and Khassawneh and Elrehail (2022) observed that participative leadership improves employee security and self-

efficacy, which may result in high performance and innovative habits. Lastly, Lam et al. (2015), focusing on implicit leadership theory, noted that behaviours such as information sharing practised by participative leadership can improve employee performance.

Transformational leadership is a multidimensional leadership style that motivates followers to surpass expectations (Yukl, 1999; Bass, 2005). Transformational leadership is associated with performance effectiveness as it motivates and leads to job satisfaction and innovation (Steinmann et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2020; Lai et al., 2020). In the literature, transformational leadership is associated with transactional leadership style (Lipley, 2004) and servant leadership (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). The transactional leadership style focuses much on the exchange relationship between the leaders and the followers and emphasises setting and achieving goals. In contrast, servant leadership is mainly oriented to the needs of employees (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Within the transformational leadership style, there is an emphasis on group values and needs rather than focusing on individual values and the followers' needs. The focus is on organisational goals, and the leaders encourage and inspire their followers to work towards the organisation's good. Therefore, it is more convenient for transformational leaders to encourage collaboration in the decision-making process to achieve organisational goals, applying some elements of the participative leadership style.

The participants in this study used more than one leadership style, but instead of transactional or servant leadership, they mixed transformational leadership with participative leadership theory. Perhaps participative leadership with transformational leadership styles is the ideal way of leading in the current era, given that the DPF is strongly modernising. The DPF is at the forefront of smart policing, as it has taken initiatives such as the SPS and is advanced in its use of artificial intelligence. Several commentators observed that the rapid advancement of digital technologies, such as artificial intelligence and smart technology, has led to the bottom-up flow of information in organisations. Therefore, now cross-level multidimensional opinions from employees arise that are now influencing leaders in decision-making (Trenerry et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022).

In this study, it is easy to see why leaders use a transformational leadership style and engage their followers' participation in decision-making. This key factor influences their departments to adapt to a new environment in the DPF while improving their effectiveness in completing important tasks. The 21st-century police force operates in a dynamic environment and faces several challenges; therefore, it is appropriate for leaders to use various leadership styles that

motivate and inspire followers. The DPF leaders have adopted various leadership styles, including transformational and participative, to motivate their followers to achieve the DPF's vision and goals in a rapidly changing society.

Mansoori's (2017) study on leadership in Abu Dhabi (another UAE emirate) found that the Arab culture significantly affected the leaders' leadership style in the police force. The leaders of the Abu Dhabi Police were unafraid to take on new initiatives because they could make mistakes or be blamed for things going wrong. In contrast, the senior DPF leaders were bold, confident and willing to take risks for the organisation's good.

Therefore, this study argues that leaders must emphasise real-time to engage their followers in decision-making, particularly in the DPF where power distance culture is high. However, the leadership styles used in the study were also influenced by the leadership culture developed by the top leaders in the DPF, as discussed in the next section.

8.3.2. Influence of Leadership Culture in the DPF on Transformational Leadership

Leadership studies have established the influence of leadership on organisational culture (Pennington et al., 2003; Hasler, 2005; Tuan, 2010). This study's findings showed that leaders were influenced by the top leadership of two key personnel in the emirate of Dubai, His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, the leader of Dubai, and His Excellency Lieutenant General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri, Commander-in-Chief of Dubai Police. His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum's influence is acknowledged throughout Dubai and the UAE. However, this discussion focuses on His Excellency Abdullah Khalifa, the commander-in-chief of the Dubai Police, because his transformational vision led to the change in leadership culture in the police.

Schein (2010) observed a need to understand cultural issues in organisations to work out what is happening and identify priority areas for the leaders and leadership. This approach is important as organisational culture is created by leaders, or as Schein (2010:2) explained, culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin; neither side can be understood without the other. Schein (2010) further proposed that the key function distinguishing leadership from administration and management is the concern for culture. Schein (2004: 209) emphasised the role of leaders in organisational culture creation as he stated that 'leaders create culture'. Culture starts with the leaders imposing their values and assumptions on the people they lead.

Regarding the DPF, Schein's (2004) observation has come to be true. The participants in this study emphasised the influence the top leadership had on their leadership styles. This influence originates from His Excellency Lieutenant General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri, appointed DPF's commander-in-chief in 2017. He embarked on changing the police force from solely focusing on keeping law and order to becoming a force of excellence, innovation and community-oriented.

Since his inception as the commander-in-chief in 2017, the DPF vision and mission transformed into *Pioneer Policing and Innovative practices of Smart Security Services*. The mission reads: *We strive to place Dubai within the world's most secure and safest cities. Through smart, innovative services, global organisational excellence, and professional development, following the latest techniques within a motivational environment for innovation and creativity to achieve community happiness.*

Tuan (2010) observed that a positive organisational culture has essential elements. First, it is nurtured by the organisation's vision and mission, both of which provide what Bennis, Nanus and Dobbs (1999) referred to as a 'mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organisation'. Furthermore, according to Sadri and Lee (2001), the organisational vision and mission are more effective when clearly defined by the top leaders of the organisation, who are dynamic and charismatic. This approach is what His Excellency, the Commander-in-Chief of the DPF, did. He clearly articulated the vision and mission of the DPF, and in doing so, he influenced the leadership styles of his followers.

Second, organisational vision and mission are not limited to the leaders; they are shared at all levels of the organisation and constantly updated by top management to meet the new environmental changes (Clemente and Greenspan, 1999; Schein, 2010). In the DPF, implementing the above mission and vision is not limited to the top leadership; it is shared by all leaders and their juniors, up to the officers and down to the community level. Third, as observed by Ahmed et al. (1999), culture is consistent and adaptable, constantly adapting to new changes in the environment and behaving favourably to all employees. All these elements must be understood by the top management in the DPF to create an organisation that can survive all the challenges that come with law enforcement, particularly in the Middle East.

Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016) argued that combining the organisation and the leader's conception of leadership and how the leader leads helps explain their leadership style. The leader's characteristic is often seen in the relationship within the organisation, among the

leaders and their followers, the top leadership, and the policies and procedures (Schein 2010). New organisational leaders are sometimes expected to sustain the status quo; however, transformational leaders do not follow the status quo; they usually shake up things to foster change and support change.

His Excellency, the Commander-in-Chief, is a transformational leader; when he assumed the leadership of the DPF, he brought in changes, and the participants in this study confirmed these changes. For instance, C2 and M1 emphasised the role of Dubai leadership in creating an environment where leaders can use contemporary leadership styles that focus on achieving the organisational vision and mission of the police force. Moreover, all the participants were enthusiastic about emulating the leadership style espoused by the top leadership of the police.

One of the characteristics of transformational leaders is inspiring their followers to dedicate themselves to the organisational vision, mission, and goals and motivating them to perform beyond expectations. Bass and Riggio (2006) noted that leaders achieve this action by first inspiring, motivating and transforming their followers, creating an awareness of the organisational vision, mission and goals, and second, by being supportive and giving their followers the confidence to exceed their individual needs to focus on the good of the teams and the organisation. Using their charisma, transformational leaders can influence their followers to personally identify with them and accept their ideas. Therefore, developing an emotional attachment within followers encourages them to emulate their leader; in the process, the leader becomes a role model (Bass, 1985; Bass and Riggio, 2006).

8.4. Understanding of Transformational Leadership in the DPF

This study aimed to discover how transformational leadership is perceived and understood by the leaders and the officers in the DPF. Transformational leadership is a supreme leadership style where leaders inspire and encourage their followers to generate awareness and develop interest and acceptance of the organisation's vision, mission and goals (Yukl, 1999; Jung et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio (2006) argued that the foundation of transformational leadership is the ability of leaders to inspire their followers to think critically, increase their commitment to the organisation’s vision, and motivate followers to think innovatively.

The meta-analyses on transformational leadership demonstrated that transformational leadership positively impacts followers’ attitudes (Fuller et al., 1999; DeGroot et al., 2000). However, this study aimed to exceed the positive consequences associated with

transformational leadership to determine how the leaders and the followers perceive and understand the concept of transformational leadership. The leaders were asked a direct question on their understanding of the concept. However, the data for the followers were collected using a survey focusing on transformational leadership and Bass and Avolio's (1994) four dimensions: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration.

8.4.1. Leaders' Understanding of Transformational Leadership

The leaders who participated in the qualitative phase were asked a direct question to determine if they understood the meaning of transformation and practised it. For instance, C1, the head of one of the key departments in the DPF, stated:

> *I understand what transformational leadership is, and I do practice it in my leadership. I'm my team; I do not lead alone. We have a leadership team with representatives of all the units in the department. As a team, we strive to articulate not only the department's vision but, most importantly, that of the whole Dubai Police Force. We do not focus on individual goals. Instead, we work as a team to achieve the department's goals. Everyone has a contribution to make; we support each other to complete tasks. When a member of the team has a problem, the department provides support and makes them feel they belong to a larger family. I personally challenge my team to go beyond their expected levels of performance. The best employees, voted for by their peers, are rewarded every month.* (C1)

Another comment about transformational leadership comes from MG4, who works in another key DPF department. On his understanding of transformational leadership, he responded that:

> *Transformational leadership, to me, is when the leader motivates the people working under him to achieve the team's objectives, which in return works towards the police's vision. As a leader, I developed a sense of family in my team; we work together supporting each other to carry out tasks. I would say that the people in my team feel like they are part of a larger family. I inspire my subordinates and encourage them to inspire the people working under them. This way the department has become a leader in innovative ideas, which are later adopted by other departments.* (MG4)

These responses and others from the participants articulate the leaders' understanding of transformational leadership. MG4 and C1's actions are similar to what Montuori and Donnelly

(2018) observed: when it comes to transformational leadership, everyone can lead because every team member contributes and cocreates to the team's vision. Transformational leadership suggests that every team member reflects on where they want their organisation to be and what kind of person they would like to be (Montuori and Donnelly, 2018; Steinman et al., 2018; Bakker et al., 2022).

MG4 and C1 demonstrated in their responses that in their teams, everyone has a role to play in achieving their departments' goals and the vision of the DPF. Transformational leadership is also viewed as a participatory process involving all team members in creative collaboration and transformation for the benefit of the whole organisation. It is not limited to individual leaders showcasing their achievements, as it involves the small actions of every individual in the team, recognising their cumulative effect and the 'butterfly effect' potential (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Montuori and Donnelly, 2018). The leaders in the DPF who participated in the study, as demonstrated by C1 and MG4, had the vision of involving their members in the activities of their departments. For instance, MG4 developed a sense of family in the team, meaning each team member has a small contribution, and the cumulative achievement brings a sense of pride and belonging to the team.

The result of this study's finding that the leaders understand transformational leadership has similarities with other studies. From a theoretical perspective, it is assumed that leaders in top positions of an organisation can demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours because they usually have a strong commitment to the vision of the organisation; they usually have a high degree of autonomy that enables them to encourage their followers to work towards achieving their organisational goals (Díaz-Sáenz, 2011; Bakker et al., 2022). For instance, Jung et al. (2008) investigated Taiwanese leaders in the electronics and telecommunication sector. They found that the leaders had a substantial impact on their organisations' levels of innovation because they developed a community environment where their employees felt like part of the community and worked towards its improvement, thus becoming more innovative. Similarly, Colbert et al. (2008) examined leaders in credit unions, similarly finding that goal importance agreement moderated the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours of leaders and organisational performance within teams.

Some commentators argue that leadership styles imported from other cultures may not be suitable in high cultures such as the Arab culture as these leadership styles will fail to achieve the purpose. Therefore, according to Al Mansoori (2017), a suitable leadership model must

emerge within the UAE; this model will consider the political and socio-economic contexts of the Arabian culture and will be relevant to the organisation's goals. Perhaps this approach is applicable in other areas of the Arab world; however, Dubai depends on foreigners from various cultures. Therefore, leaders must find a leadership style that not only focuses on the Arab culture but also considers the largest number of employees who come from non-Arab cultures. This approach may be the vision the Commander-in-Chief had to adopt transformational leadership, a more collaborative leadership model than the traditional autocratic leadership style.

One reason that can be attributed to the leaders in the DPF having a clear understanding and exhibiting transformational leadership behaviours is the levels of education among the participants. Four participants had doctoral degrees; the rest had at least studied up to a master's level. DPF has been changing—in the past, promotion to a leadership position was based on the years served in the force; however, today, education has become paramount in determining promotion. The force has sponsored the leaders to go for postgraduate studies in Europe, and many of these leaders come back with new ideas for improving their work environment.

Pastor and Mayo (2008) found that the level of formal education is reflected in the leadership behaviours exhibited. Leaders with a university degree exhibited more value in learning goal orientation than those with no academic degree. University graduate leaders with degrees exhibited tendencies associated with McGregor's theory Y of management and were more likely to be transformational leaders than through lower levels of education. Furthermore, all these leaders had their education in Western democratic countries, which may have influenced their leadership thinking.

8.4.2. Followers' Perceptions of Transformational Leadership

This study also collected data from middle managers who were direct recipients of the effects of transformational leadership behaviours exhibited by the leaders who participated in this study's qualitative phase. Through a web-based survey, the respondents were asked to answer questions on transformational leadership and the four dimensions.

One of the key objectives of transformational leadership is to inspire followers to take initiative and encourage them to be proactive and lead themselves (Dvir et al., 2002). As Bass and Roggio (2006) observed, transformational leaders challenge themselves and stimulate and empower their followers to work independently and be team players (Bass, 1999; Schmitt et al., 2016). This study demonstrated that the respondents had a clear understanding of transformational

leadership and were in substantial agreement about the behaviours of their leaders. They strongly agreed on all seven elements of transformational leadership, including their leaders being able to communicate the DPF's vision to their team and their leaders fostering trust, inclusion and cooperation among team members. To establish the followers' understanding of transformational leadership, we asked for their perspectives on the four dimensions of transformational leadership.

8.4.2.1 Idealised Influence

The participants in the survey phase were asked to respond to questions related to idealised influence, such as the behaviours of their leader in instilling confidence and pride to associate with their team. In addition to influencing how the respondents approached their work, they strongly agreed that their leaders' behaviours influenced their performance and motivated them to complete their tasks. Out of the 283 questionnaires considered for analysis for this study, 267 (94.3%) of the respondents agreed with the strong influence of their leaders in acting as the followers' role models, demonstrating a strong belief by the middle managers of the DPF and admiration for their leaders. The data from the leaders also indicated that they were genuine in their beliefs of transformational leadership. They were not using it for their own benefit; instead, they had the best interests of the DPF.

Transformational Leaders demonstrate charismatic behaviours and inspire their followers to work towards a shared goal (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Conger, 2011; Bakker et al., 2022). The followers of transformational leaders express their admiration and demonstrate appreciation, respect, and trust towards their leader (Yammarino and Avalio, 2002). Bass (1985) stated that this charismatic behaviour is an idealised influence where the leader attempts to develop a shared vision and create good relationships with followers. For this to happen, the leader has to be a role model to the followers; this way, if the followers admire the leader, they are more likely to accept new initiatives and work towards the greater good of the organisation (Kerfoot, 2002; Wang et al., 2011). The respondents in this study strongly agreed on their admiration of their leaders and how they would like to emulate them.

This idealised influence is summarised in the vision and mission of the organisation when the leaders involve their followers in designing and implementing these two statements (Steinman et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2020; Alessa, 2021). Though the respondents in this study did not participate in formulating the DPF's mission and vision, they confirmed their leaders' charisma.

The leader clearly articulated the organisational goals, and their followers understood what their organisation wanted to achieve.

Nonetheless, the literature has argued that charismatic leaders may not necessarily be transformational (Barburto, 1997; Yukl, 1999; Antonakis, 2012), suggesting that charismatic leaders rely on unquestioned obedience and commitment and nurture a dependency relationship with their followers (Gibson et al., 2009; Wang and Howell, 2012; Fragouli, 2018). To differentiate between transformational leaders and those who use charisma for personal gain, Bass (1999) referred to the latter as pseudo-transformational leaders. Pseudo-transformational leaders are different from transformational leaders; the former use their charisma to exploit the emotional appeal of the followers negatively, while the latter's essential characteristic is moral development and not exploitation (Bass 1999).

8.4.2.2. Individualised Consideration

Transformational leadership addresses the individual differences in the team to foster their development, ultimately enabling them to participate in organisational change (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008; Carter et al., 2013). This transformation occurs when leaders do not focus on individual self-interest; instead, they focus on the interests of others and, ultimately, on the principles that guide the leader in doing what is best for the team (Fayaz and Shah, 2017; Shah et al., 2020). Transformational leadership is largely interactive—the leader and the followers attain a high degree of interrelation through which they work together to achieve a shared goal (Bass, 1999). Transformational leaders work towards getting the best out of their followers by demonstrating genuine concern and authentic respect. Avolio and Bass (1995) observed that it would be difficult to fully understand transformational leadership without apprehending the role of individualised consideration in developing individuals, groups and the organisation.

The results of the interviews with the leaders in the DPF showed that many of them cared for their followers. This situation is reflected in C1's observation when he mentioned the support each team member receives when they have problems. Moreover, MG3 started an initiative to ensure social happiness in the DPF, stating:

> *Transformation, together with Participative leadership styles, unify the employees with the leaders to bring about a collective mind and discussions that involve the employees in decision-making. These two leadership styles help me to develop a cognitive relationship with my managers and their followers in my department; this way, we are on top of each individual concerns.* (MG3)

Similarly, LC1 talked about her initiatives to get closer to her followers, stating:

> *The 'Happiness Hormone' initiative was established, which aims to raise employee happiness and job satisfaction through the participation of employees, specifically women employees, in their joys and sorrows and creating a happy family atmosphere among employees* (LC1)

The above comments show that the participating leaders understand the importance of individualised consideration. What MG3 and LC1 demonstrated is similar to what Avolio and Bass (1995) asserted: leaders who care about their followers focus on the specific needs of the individuals in their teams and work towards the greater good of the organisation. Bass et al. (2003) and Loon et al. (2012) further noted that individualised consideration fosters a learning culture because it develops a supportive and trustful environment that gives rise to knowledge sharing in the organisation. This approach is what MG3, LC1 and other leaders in the DPF are doing; they have developed a culture of interaction and sharing that has fostered learning and personnel development.

The DPF's reliance on foreigners in most departments requires leaders to consider and accept individualised differences. Avolio and Bass (1995) suggested a two-way exchange of information personalising interactions with followers. The participants also demonstrate this as MG2 mentioned how he knows all his team managers and interacts with the other employees by taking walks and greeting individuals in the department. These actions show that he pays attention to the individuals in his team and their concerns. Avolio and Bass (2004) noted that such leaders become aware of their followers' strengths and work towards enhancing them through mentorship and coaching.

Much has been written on transformational leadership and individualised consideration (Avolio and Bass, 1995; Bass, 1999; Bass and Avolio, 2006). The focus is on leaders and building relationships with their followers; however, the followers' perspectives are not considered in the literature. In this study, the followers' perceptions were solicited through a survey. The results on the followers' perspectives on Individualised consideration showed there was a strong agreement on all the eight elements of individualised consideration with statements such as '*my leader provides opportunities for staff members to participate in activities that showcase their strengths'* and '*creates time to talk to each member of the team to understand their strengths and ambitions*'. As many as 200 respondents strongly agreed with these two questions, suggesting that the followers were aware of their leaders' efforts to support them.

From the followers' perspectives, almost all the respondents (92%) believed that their leaders in the DPF treated them as individuals and not just some members of certain groups. This high score on individualised consideration reflects the interrelationship between the leaders and the followers in the DPF. This study's results are consistent with previous research that found that using a leader–member relationship positively influences followers' innovation abilities (Dar et al., 2023; Yin et al., 2023). The significantly positive confidence of the followers perceiving that individualised consideration is practised in the DPF can be credited to the senior leaders who develop individuals to pursue their strengths.

This study's findings showed that individualised consideration was a key factor for the leaders in the DPF. That is, the senior leaders in the DPF put the interests and well-being of their followers at the forefront of their leadership. For instance, the followers felt that their leaders created an environment for individuals to develop skills that could help them advance their careers, thus allowing them to be more creative. This study's results are consistent with other research that indicated that when individual employees feel that they get unconditional support and their needs are considered by their leaders, they become more innovative (Jung et al., 2003).

The results also indicated that many respondents agreed that their leaders take time to mentor and coach their employees to help them enhance their strengths. Past studies have associated coaching and mentoring employees as factors that increase commitment to the organisation's goals. This commitment motivates the employees to perceive a sense of belonging and develop knowledge-sharing habits.

8.4.2.3. Intellectual Stimulation

Bass (1999) highlighted intellectual stimulation as one of the four dimensions of transformational leadership, arguing that it is a situation where the leader supports the followers in developing into more creative and innovative individuals. This situation is achieved when leaders encourage their followers to approach problems from different angles, think out of the box, and be creative when solving these problems (Bass, 1990; Bass, 1999). This study's survey of the followers' perspectives included seven elements of the intellectual stimulation behaviours of their leaders. All seven elements included a strong agreement that the leaders in the DPF encouraged their followers to think creatively, enabling them to develop new solutions to existing problems in their areas of operation. This situation was precisely what Avolio and Bass (2006) observed: transformational leaders encourage their followers to be creative and

innovative by encouraging them to question the status quo, be able to reframe the problems and develop new solutions.

Intellectual stimulation practices by the leaders who participated in the qualitative phase of the study were also noticed, as participants talked about how they have created environments that allow their followers to be more creative and innovative. Indeed, innovation is central to the vision and mission of the DPF; therefore, the leaders practising transformational leadership have created situations where employees' creative abilities can thrive. For instance, C3, who has a key position in using artificial intelligence in the DPF, observed that innovation, knowledge sharing and creativity are the pillars of his department. As a leader, he developed spaces that allowed his followers to be critical thinkers and develop innovative ideas on how the police in Dubai could progress with the new technology. The followers are given room to think, and their ideas are not criticised; instead, as a team, they brainstorm these ideas and refine them. His actions resulted in *noticeably high productivity and the launching of new systems and apps that ease the work for the employees and community*. This study's results are supported by Bass (1999): when followers are given an environment where they can be innovative, new ideas and creative solutions are developed.

The respondents in the quantitative phase of the study agreed with the views of their senior leaders. The findings showed that most respondents (91% of the sample) perceived the leaders' ability to stimulate their intellectual capabilities as high. The respondents indicated that their leaders encouraged them to be open in their thinking when dealing with daily work issues. This study's results were consistent with previous research on transformational leadership and its impacts on stimulating creativity and knowledge sharing among the followers in an organisation (Bryant, 2003; Crawford, 2005; Han et al., 2016). Farrell et al. (2005) were also consistent with the results of this study on transformational leadership's ability to stimulate and enhance the followers' capabilities to develop new ideas and create room for them to develop new ways of approaching problems and developing new solutions.

Furthermore, the leaders' efforts to develop the strengths of their followers are evidence of the collaborative leadership in the DPF that nurtures employees' creativity and innovation. In this case, the leaders demonstrating high consideration for their followers are considered transformational and act as examples to others when considering other team members. This study's results are consistent with the transformational leadership literature that views a

transformational leader as a catalyst, teacher, trainer, facilitator and mentor to the followers (García-Morales et al., 2012)

Furthermore, Yang and Konrad (2011) support our findings that employee creativity and innovation are positive when employees' abilities are well nurtured. The results of this study indicate that the leaders in the DPF are indeed practising transformational leadership and treat their followers as individuals with specific abilities and ambitions. There are efforts to ensure that the followers have the right attitude to work and the organisation, meaning that the leaders in the DPF have created a favourable environment for the followers to thrive and be more creative and innovative to help the police achieve its mission.

8.4.2.4. Inspirational Motivation

One of the central tenets of transformational leadership is the ability to inspire and motivate followers to work toward the organisation's shared goal (Sun and Henderson, 2016). Public organisations, such as the DPF, have changed to operate like commercial organisations. They also have visions. One of the leaders' key functions is to formulate and communicate the vision to the rest of the organisation. Though the vision is formulated at the higher level of leadership in the organisation, it is operationalised at the individual level. According to Bass and Avolio (1998), the process of vision formulation considers the individual capabilities and how they can contribute to the vision while meeting their personal goals.

Transformational leader behaviours motivate the followers by providing the meaning of the vision and challenge them to work towards achieving the organisation's vision. The leaders create an attractive vision for the organisation's future and use emotional and persuasive actions to convince the followers to believe in the vision and commit to the organisational goals (Avolio & Bass, 2006; Castanheira and Costa, 2011). These leaders use persuasive language to stimulate individuals to develop team spirit and envision the organisation's future as attractive by giving their followers the confidence to believe they are in the right place to develop their careers (Avolio and Bass, 2006). The organisation's vision is communicated, and its expectations are presented to make the followers believe in them and commit to these goals and the shared vision. This dimension is usually combined with idealised inspiration to motivate the followers to work towards the organisational goals.

This study's results from the qualitative data indicated that the leaders cultivated team spirit and motivated their followers to develop optimism and pride for being associated with DPF. For instance, one of the participants, LC1, talked about how he motivates his followers to

develop a passion for their profession and be able to communicate the department as well as the police's vision and goals. MG3 observed that his role as a leader is to influence and inspire his followers to achieve common objectives. To him, the social establishment of the DPF is key to helping the employees work for the good of the DPF.

The survey results showed that the middle-ranked officers in the DPF perceive their leaders as people who have created an environment for the followers to develop autonomous work based on their competencies. The results also showed that the followers (the survey respondents) felt their leaders motivated them to accomplish common tasks for their departments and the police force.

Shim et al. (2015) noted that proposing transformational leadership in the police, particularly its element of inspirational motivation, is interesting given that in the police, a perceived cultural divide exists between the leaders and the low-ranked officers. Cockcroft (2014) observed that low-ranked police officers and their leadership may have divergent agendas since they are subjected to different pressures. Therefore, this study's results concerning the followers may seem surprising in the police, as policing organisations are usually associated with leadership systems that are bureaucratic and with rigid regulations. However, this finding may be associated with the fact that the DPF has been changing to adopt participative leadership styles that encourage interconnectedness between leaders and their followers since the leaders include men and women.

The implication is that in the DPF, leaders and followers clearly understand the meaning of transformational leadership. Previous studies have focused on applying transformational leadership without questioning whether the leaders and their followers understand it. Previous studies also failed to question whether the followers can identify the leadership behaviours of their leaders and associate them with transformational leadership. However, as this study found, leaders and their followers in the DPF understand the meaning of transformational leadership. The followers perceive the transformational leadership behaviours of their leaders.

8.5. Effectiveness of Transformational Leadership on Employee Performance in the DPF

One area this research explored was transformational leadership's effectiveness and its impacts on employee performance. This exploration was done by soliciting the leaders' views on how their leadership style influences employee performance and using the survey to get the followers' perspectives on employee performance in the DPF.

Bass (1999) observed that leaders who demonstrate transformational leadership behaviour are more effective regardless of culture than those who use less transformational leadership behaviour. He further suggested that leaders who develop a clear vision for the future of their organisations could inspire and motivate their followers to accept the vision and work collectively to achieve this vision and can influence the performance of their employees positively (Bass, 1999; Buil et al. 2019; Khan et al., 2020).

Transformational is recognised as a motivational and inspirational leadership style that focuses on the organisational vision, which is achieved by creating closer relationships between the leaders and the followers (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010; Steinmann et al., 2018). Transformational leaders focus on the needs of their followers to help them uncover their potential. Bass (1999) observed that transformational leaders use four elements to facilitate their followers' performance and goal attainment: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. With idealised influence, the leader acts as a role model and inspires the followers to be like the leaders. In contrast, with inspirational motivation, the leader uses their abilities and competencies to instil confidence in his followers and motivate them to develop a sense of purpose. This approach is achieved by the leaders communicating a vision for the organisation's future, genuinely showing a commitment to achieving this vision, laying out the plan and motivating the followers to work towards a shared goal (Steinmann et al., 2018). Transformational leaders inspire their followers to become creative and innovative in finding news when dealing with tasks; they show genuine care and support to develop their followers (Avolio and Bass, 2006; Shin and Zhou, 2003).

The results of this study from the qualitative phase indicated that employee engagement improved employee performance in the DPF. The participants were leaders who had worked with the DPF for a long time. For instance, MG3 had been in the police for over 30 years, and he claimed to have witnessed all the changes that had taken place in the police. He has been advocating for the welfare of the police employees and improvement in the work environment. In the interview, he was optimistic that employee engagement has dramatically improved in the last five years, enhancing employee performance. Younger leaders also commented on the improvement in their followers' performance. This improvement was attributed to the leadership culture from the top and the leadership styles that made it possible for their followers to become creative.

The findings of the qualitative phase of the study are similar to those of previous studies on employee engagement and performance. From a theoretical perspective, employee engagement has articulated the significance of flexible leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, on employee performance. Similarly, previous studies like Liang and Chi (2013) indicated that transformational leadership positively correlates with task performance behaviour and employee productivity. Shin and Zhou (2003) also demonstrated that transformational leadership's ability to inspire followers to think critically is closely related to the employees' creativity. Dvir et al. (2002) also indicated a positive correlation between followers' performance and transformational leadership behaviour.

From the followers' perspective, the result indicated a strong correlation between transformational leadership and employee performance. Employee performance was measured using 10 items. The respondents were asked to rate the performance of employees of the DPF over the 5 years. Employee performance had a mean score of 4.50, and a standard deviation was.801, indicating a high agreement amongst the respondents on employee performance improvement in the last five years.

The Pearson test on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance in the DPF indicated a strong and positive relationship. The findings of the study are consistent with those of other studies. For instance, Ehsan et al. (2009) studied the relationship between leadership styles and employee performance in Malaysia, finding that transformational leadership had a more substantial impact on employee performance than other leadership styles. This study's results are also consistent with those of Alameri and Alrajawy (2021), who examined transformational leadership and employee performance in the Abu Dhabi public sector in the UAE. They found that transformational leadership had a significantly strong influence on employee performance.

Other studies, such as Thamrin (2012) and Patiar and Wang (2016), support the results of this study, as they confirmed that transformational leadership behaviours have a significant and positive relationship with job performance, employee satisfaction and organisational commitment. Wang et al. (2012) focused on followers in the health sector in China, concluding that transformational leadership has a positive association with task completion and job performance, as well as commitment to the organisation's vision. Judge and Piccolo (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of more than 50 studies and concluded a robust relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction, positively affecting

employee performance and organisational commitment. The extant research confirms this study's findings that transformational leadership's influence on employee performance is well established.

Most DPF employees have confidence in their leaders and feel they are treated as individuals rather than just one of the team members. The very high score on individualised consideration indicated that the leaders had adopted leadership styles that promote team relationships. The findings also indicate that a high incidence of leader–follower relationships is more personalised in the DPF. Similar to the findings of this research, Garcia-Morales et al. (2012) demonstrated that central to transformational leadership is the interpersonal approach the leaders apply, and this positive leader–follower relationship strongly influences the followers' creativity.

It can also be argued that followers come to the police force with various abilities and competencies; therefore, a leader who can cultivate credibility and build trust amongst the followers can tap into their innovative sense. Past studies such as that of Kesting and Parm (2010) observed that different employees come to the organisation with several creative skills; therefore, leaders (such as the participants in this study) who consider individual needs and abilities can nurture their creative and innovative talents.

The qualitative and quantitative results show that transformational leadership strongly influences employee performance in the DPF; therefore, we can conclude that the leaders of the DPF give their followers a sense of pride and put their department goals above self-interest. Furthermore, the leaders' behaviours are admired by their followers. They clearly articulate the vision for a bright future and show enthusiasm. They think out of the box, encourage their followers to do the same to solve problems and develop innovative ways of completing tasks. Furthermore, the leaders recognise the multiple nationalities in the Dubai police and recognise their followers' different needs and abilities, which improved employee performance in the past few years.

8.6. Transformational Leadership's Influence on Organisational Performance of the DPF

The last aspect related to transformational leadership, which was a focus of this research, is the influence of transformational leadership style on the performance of the DPF as an organisation. The results are from the interviews with the leaders in the DPF and the data collected from survey responses from the followers (middle-ranked officers in the police).

Transformational leadership impacts organisational culture and, in return, affects organisational performance. Bass and Avolio (1995) observed that transformational leaders inspire and motivate their followers to achieve organisational goals by using persuasive language to convince them to look at the organisation's future. Previous studies have indicated that transformational leaders' behaviours positively impact task performance, employee satisfaction and performance, which translates into positive organisational performance (Barling et al., 2000; Dionne et al., 2004; Nguni et al., 2006). Tepper et al. (2018) observed that transformational leaders anticipate the stress involved with the job task and prepare their followers by making the work more meaningful and satisfying to lessen the stress. Previous research on transformational leadership has attempted to understand its consequences on work performance and the organisation's overall performance (Judge and Piccolo. 2004; Walumbwa and Hartnell, 2011; Kovjanic et al., 2013; Buil et al., 2019).

Several participants in the qualitative phase of the study expressed their perspectives on how their application of transformational leadership in their teams positively impacted the overall performance of the DPF. They talked about how they have seen a significant change in the police's performance, and some of them referred to the numerous awards (national and international) the DPF has received as evidence of the force's performance. One of the participants, MG2, attributed this performance to the leadership culture espoused by the leaders in the police force. He said that:

> *This police leadership in Dubai has become transformational in the last few years. This has increased the efficiency and productivity of the organisation and provided opportunities for employees to participate in activities that enhance their well-being. One of the areas the Dubai police has focussed on is innovation. The leadership at the top have created an environment that makes it possible not only for the leaders to be creative but also for the employees to become more innovative.* MG2

Transformational leaders can inspire their followers to become more innovative through intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. MG2's comments on leadership encouraging people to be creative and innovative agree with the literature. MG2 is not alone in believing that transformational leadership practised by the Dubai police leaders has influenced the followers to develop innovative behaviours that have contributed to improving the police's performance. Other participants, including LC2, C3, M4, M2 and MG3, expressed similar views to that of MG2 that their transformational behaviours have encouraged knowledge

sharing and innovative behaviours in the police that have contributed to the performance of the DPF to become a key pillar in the Dubai and the entire UAE.

The results of this study are similar to the views expressed in the literature. Previous studies have pointed out that transformational leadership is a strategic factor influencing creativity and innovation (Nonaka et al., 1996; Gumuslouglu and Ilsev, 2009; Hsiao and Chang, 2011). Transformational leadership is also reported to stimulate and inspire innovation to improve organisational performance (Noruzy et al. 2013). Transformational leadership draws on the organisation's intellectual capital and knowledge sharing to create a learning environment, challenging the existing structures to influence innovation and improve performance (Noruzy et al., 2013).

The leaders who participated in this study demonstrated that their transformational behaviours encouraged their followers to become creative and improve the performance of the DPF. These leaders had the vision to stimulate their teams to exploit their enthusiasm, exceed expectations and nurture innovative perspectives for the good of the DPF. Several studies support this association between transformational leadership and innovative and creative behaviour among followers (Hsiao and Chang, 2011; Noruzy et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2021).

In addition to the results from the qualitative phase, this study also collected data using a survey on the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. The data from the survey were collected from 283 DPF officers at the ranks between Captain and Warrant Officers. The respondents were asked to rate their organisation's performance over the last 5 years. The results indicated a strong correlation between transformational leadership practices in Dubai and organisational performance on all items; however, while most items scored high on the agree and strongly points, two items on talent retaining and trust between leaders and followers received a sizeable number of undecided respondents. The mean of 4.2655 and the standard deviation of 0.77830 were consistent with the other variables tested in the study.

Other tests, such as Pearson and regression, also showed a strong relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. A further Pearson test examined the relationship between organisational and employee performance. The coefficient Beta value relates to improved organisational performance by transformational leadership in the DPF in the last five years. The results also indicated a strong and positive association between organisational performance and employee performance in the DPF. Overall, transformational

leadership and employee and organisational performance have a positive and strong relationship. We can infer from these results that if the DPF's organisational performance is to be enhanced, then transformational leadership should be practised at all levels of leadership.

As the findings of this study indicated, the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance is strong and undeniable—organisations that develop a transformational culture create a positive work environment that promotes high employee productivity. The views in the literature support the results of this research, as many studies have focused on the influence of transformational leadership and organisational performance. For instance, Rao and Kareem (2015) collected data from 182 followers in 10 organisations in the UAE, determining that transformational leadership positively influences organisational performance.

Other studies, such as Sparks and Schenk (2001) and Gong et al. (2009), found a relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance, linking it to leadership effectiveness, strong motivation as well as satisfaction and high productivity of employees, in addition to lower employee turnover rates. The first three elements (leadership effectiveness, strong motivation and satisfaction, as well as high productivity) agreed with the findings of this study; however, the last element did not entirely agree with the result of this study. Failure to retain talented employees in the DPF received the lowest score in all the items surveyed. Perhaps the police's failure to retain talented employees is related to the fact that the DPF, like other organisations in the UAE, relies on many foreigners who usually work on contract-based agreements; when these contracts end, many workers may not want to renew their stay in Dubai leading to high turnover of talented employees.

Trust also had a low score compared to the other items. Perhaps the lack of trust in the leaders can explained by transformational leaders. In their quest to stimulate their followers to bring out the best in them, the leaders may develop ambiguity in their followers' job roles, resulting in anxiety and stress. Podsakoff et al. (1990) examined transformational leader behaviours on organisational citizenship behaviours. They found that intellectual stimulation negatively affected employees in terms of attitudes, including job satisfaction and trust in their leaders.

This study's qualitative and quantitative results show a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational performance. Law enforcement organisations such as the DPF need transformational leadership not only to motivate their employees' productivity but also to inspire them to think creatively and innovate to contribute to the

improvement of the performance of the organisation. Other studies also confirm this research's results (Garcia-Morales et al., 2012; Noruzy et al., 2013). This study established a strong relationship between transformational leadership, employee performance and organisational performance; therefore, organisations that want to improve their performance may need to consider a transformational leadership style.

8.7. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the findings from the collected data using a mixed-method approach. Qualitative data was collected from 15 leaders in the DPF using semi-structured interviews. At the same time, qualitative data was collected using a web-based survey based on three key variables, including transformational leadership, employee performance and organisational performance from middle managers in the police. This study is on policing leadership styles in the DPF, focusing on the transformational leadership style. Four objectives were generated to answer the main research question of this study, focusing on leadership styles, understanding of transformational leadership and its influence on employee and organisational performance.

This chapter integrated the qualitative and quantitative results and discussed the findings in a logical sequence to address all four objectives. The insights from qualitative and quantitative findings were discussed under the four objectives in Sections 8.3 to 8.6. Furthermore, possible reasons for the findings were presented, and new understandings and insights emerged and were discussed.

The findings in this chapter provide new insights into the new developments in leadership in Dubai and the spread in the Middle East. Primarily, these findings revealed leadership changes, and all the participants were positive about people-oriented leadership styles. This outcome is a new insight realised from this study, considering that most participants have undergone various leadership changes, including authoritarian and military leadership styles; however, they adopted contemporary leadership styles. It is not for people to change; however, if the change is well presented and the vision is well articulated, change is possible even in a tradition-oriented country such as the UAE.

The following chapter summarises the findings of each of this study's objectives and the implications of this research to academia and practice, highlighting the contribution of this research. Lastly, limitations, a personal reflection and recommendations for future research are provided.

Chapter 9: Conclusion

9.1. Introduction

This study contributes to the literature on transformational leadership in the police by investigating how senior DPF leaders practise transformational leadership styles, how their followers perceive them, and how they influence organisational and employee performance. This is done through a body of empirical evidence, which will be helpful not only for the Dubai Police but also for other policing organisations, particularly in the UAE and the Middle East. The data presented are also expected to be valuable for policing organisations and contribute to the literature on police governance. These data will also be helpful to academics and researchers interested in leadership in public organisations, such as the policing organisations in the Middle East.

9.2. Revisiting the Research Objectives

This study aimed to understand the transformational leadership style in the DPF. It had five objectives to achieve:

i. Investigate contemporary leadership styles espoused by senior DPF leaders.

ii. Critically analyse the senior leaders' perspectives on transformational leadership and its practices in the DPF.

iii. Critically assess the perspectives of middle-rank DPF officers on transformational leadership.

iv. Determine how transformational leadership in the DPF affects the middle-ranked police officers' terms of employee performance.

v. Assess the effects of transformational leadership style on the overall performance of the DPF as a public organisation.

The results of the study are summarised based on the research objectives.

9.2.1. Objective 1: To Investigate the Contemporary Leadership Styles Espoused by Different Managers in the DPF

The results from the participants suggest that transformational leadership is more effective when mixed with other contemporary leadership styles. In this study, the participants mixed

transformational and participative leadership styles, and collaboration between the leaders and the followers resulted in trust, loyalty, creativity and organisational commitment in the teams.

Though leadership in the DPF is still centralised with a top-down structure, heads of departments can lead their teams using the leadership style that suits them best and learn from each other. As shown by this study, transformational leaders are well positioned to mix their leadership with participative elements because many of them have developed decentralised influences within their teams. Transformational leadership helped leaders foster organisational commitment and engagement amongst their followers more effectively. Participative leadership helped to nurture organisational citizenship behaviours amongst followers. Participative leadership encouraged the followers drawn from the middle-ranked officers in the DPF to participate in the decision-making. The senior leaders in the DPF developed family systems and allowed their followers to participate in the decision-making process and become leaders. This situation empowered the followers and fostered trust amongst the followers in their leaders and confidence to bring new ideas on how to overcome the challenges they face regularly.

The mix of transformative and participative leadership styles mediated the followers' ability to become innovative and creative, helping DPF develop into the most innovative and smart police force in the world. The family system developed by the senior leaders created mutual influence and interactions among the team members in the police, resulting in knowledge sharing and stimulating creativity. Therefore, this study concluded that the mix of transformational and participative leadership brings about effectiveness in the leadership and encourages innovation and creativity amongst the followers in the DPF. Furthermore, transformational and participative leadership styles overlap and create different ways through which the leaders in the DPF influence their followers' perception of the policing organisation.

Another interesting result was the influence of the top leaders in the Dubai government and the police force in creating an environment where transformational leadership can thrive. The Commander-in-Chief of the Dubai Police is a leader who had an idealised influence on his followers. Since his appointment in 2017, he has led the DPF and its people toward the greater good. He created an environment of transformational change, and his influence has affected his followers, particularly the senior leaders in the police force. There are several contexts within which leadership is practised; the leadership style is consistent with behaviour, which in return is influenced by the setting and culture of the organisation.

The findings of this study demonstrate that the top leadership of the DPF is instrumental in developing a transformational culture. Law enforcement organisations are complex systems where some elements could be visible, but much of the police work is done in the background. The organisational culture within the DPF comprises several layers; these layers affect the lives of the police employees, as demonstrated by their behaviour. Police officers generally work in stressful environments, requiring them to resolve conflicts while strengthening the relationship between the police force and the community. Amongst the transformational changes in the DPF is the relationship with the community; through a new initiative, the police created the community police and made themselves accessible using technology.

Leadership is challenging, particularly today, where police forces are not only made up of police officers but also many civilians carrying out administrative activities. The DPF also faces these challenges since it predominately relies on foreigners with various cultural backgrounds. Nonetheless, the top leadership has created an environment that enables transformational leadership to thrive by getting the heads of departments to accept the organisation's vision and mission and emulate the top leader to achieve the goals of the DPF.

The extant literature highlighted that one of the key challenges of implementing a cultural change in a public sector organisation is that the public sector is usually synonymous with a bureaucratic model of leadership. Public sector organisations such as the DPF are, in theory, hierarchical, and the leadership focuses much on internal stability. Therefore, implementing something as radical and adaptive as cultural transformation in an Arab state may be a strong challenge to the leader. The focus on internal stability is a block to creating the right environment for innovation change to occur.

However, this study's findings showed the strong and visionary leadership of the Commander-in-Chief of the DPF. According to this study's participants, the Commander-in-Chief led by example to initiate a cultural change in the DPF. Based on the observations from the participants, the commander-in-chief's efforts motivated the senior leaders to develop leadership styles that enabled their departments to work as teams. Moreover, their followers were committed to seeking opportunities to assist each other and display pride in being part of their departments.

The study found that the beliefs and behaviours exhibited by the senior DPF leaders had a strong relationship to goal congruence with the Commander-in-Chief and the organisation. The DPF has experienced an impressive transformation in the last few years, which is attributed to

the Commander-in-Chief. The Commander-in-Chief focused on change using the culture embedding mechanism to change the visible organisational structure and processes and create an environment for transformational leadership to thrive by changing the underlying values of the DPF's culture.

It may seem paradoxical that top DPF leaders lead by example and have created an environment to inspire and encourage their followers to be proactive and innovative in a political environment where many in the West are sceptical of leadership in the Arab world; however, this study's findings are encouraging. The results showed that the top DPF leaders are open to contemporary leadership styles that advance innovation, employee innovation and creativity. Therefore, based on the above results, this study concluded that contemporary leadership styles in an organisation depend a lot on the top leadership beliefs and behaviours as well as the leaders willing to take new initiatives and lead by example, regardless of the cultural background.

9.2.2. Objective 2: Senior Leaders' Understanding of Transformational Leadership and Its Practices in the DPF

The second objective of this study was to determine if the senior leaders indeed led by example. Theoretically, an organisation's top leadership would be more oriented towards transformational leadership since they are the architects of the organisation's vision and mission and are positioned to influence their followers' behaviours. However, this study asks whether they understand its underlying principles when the leaders talk about transformational leadership.

The result showed that the senior leaders in the DPF are not just claiming to be transformational leaders—they understand this leadership style and are well conversant with its principles. This outcome may be attributed to their levels of education; the senior leaders were educated to master's level, and some hold doctorate degrees from Western institutions. As the results of this study show, these leaders with Western influence on leadership practices have not abandoned traditional leadership thinking. They have a way of leading by embracing contemporary leadership styles such as transformational and participative leadership because they understand the benefits to the employees they lead in their departments and the entire DPF.

This study concluded that a transformation in leadership culture starts from the top and trickles down through the ranks. Leaders with higher levels of education have a strong understanding of transformational leadership; therefore, they are well-positioned to spread novel leadership

thinking throughout all the ranks. These leaders have a higher learning goal orientation; they ally with their followers to help their development instead of focusing on personal achievements and performance.

9.2.3. Objective 3: Perspectives of Middle-Ranked Officers in the DPF on Transformational Leadership

Objective three of this study was formulated to support the findings from objective two. The data for objective two were collected from the senior leaders in the DPF through qualitative semi-structured interviews. In contrast, the data for objective three were collected from the followers (middle-ranked officers) through a questionnaire focusing on their perspectives regarding transformational leadership and the four dimensions. The research instrument for this objective was designed to determine their perspectives on the leadership style of their superiors.

The first dimension to consider was idealised influence. Leaders who exercise idealised influence build trust and respect amongst their followers, share risks and build confidence and commitment to the organisation's vision and goals. Idealised leaders are respected and admired by their followers—this study's respondents showed that they respected and admired their leaders. This study showed a strong agreement amongst the followers on idealised influence. Less than 10% of the respondents disagreed or were undecided, indicating that the middle-ranked officers in the DPF perceived their leaders to exhibit idealised influence behaviour.

Sabri (2007) noted that most studies in the Arab world indicated that leadership in the region faces several challenges due to the prevailing power culture and the bureaucratic nature of the organisation's leadership. This study's result on idealised influence showed a strong and positive perspective on the leaders in the DPF being idealised and admired by their followers. Nonetheless, critics of the Arab political systems may argue that these positive views of the followers present a contrary reality and that the respondents responded positively because they feared criticising their leaders.

Notably, a shift in the DPF and the entire UAE is underway from the more conventional individualistic leadership styles to more collaborative ones; this is partly due to the nature of leadership at the top and partly due to the complex nature of today's global environment. In the 21st century, societies, regardless of their cultures, expect their leaders to drive the organisation to achieve its goals. In the context of DPF, the results of this study indicated that the leaders are open and exhibited idealised influence behaviours that their followers positively perceived. Perhaps this may be explained by Maktoum (2015), the Prime Minister of the UAE and leader

of Dubai. In his book *FLASHES of THOUGHT Lessons in Life and Leadership from the Man behind Dubai*, he argued that leadership in the UAE and Dubai, particularly, should prioritise Dubai by building a sense of pride in their followers and a sense of accomplishment as the dominant theme. Some studies have labelled the UAE's Prime Minister and the Dubai leader a transformational leader (Davidson, 2005; Ahmed, 2018; Ahmed and Amiri, 2022).

This study also examined individualised consideration, which had the highest mean among the four dimensions. This outcome implies that the followers perceive that their leaders in the DPF consider it important to nurture the individual's strengths to enhance their productivity and creativity and their pride in being part of the DPF. Besides the followers' perspectives, the leaders' views also showed that they considered the individual needs of their followers and ensured that they felt like part of the team. This individual consideration by the leaders in the DPF has created a suitable environment for the followers to be creative and work towards achieving the police's goals.

The results of the study indicated that the leaders in the DPF take time to consider individuals as people with a particular set of skills and work towards exploiting these skills to better the individuals and the organisation. When considering the complexity of leadership in the modern world, leaders have to understand that the people working for them are complex adaptive systems with individual needs. Therefore, the followers who perceive that their leaders care about them and attempt to be flexible, fair and considerate of their needs at work will trust the leader and commit to the organisation's vision.

This study also argues that leaders who take steps to get to know the people working for them and remain committed to the creative process tend to positively influence their followers. In this study, the respondents seemed to have clear perceptions of their leaders' care for individuals and their ability to understand what motivated the followers and encouraged them to better themselves. There was also a strongly positive perception of the leaders' consideration of individuals in their teams by allowing them to participate in activities that best showcase their strengths.

This study concluded that leaders who are sincere in their deeds and flexible towards individuals in their teams have the potential to harness the strengths of their followers and develop trust in their teams. Leaders who consider individuals and develop their strengths support them in overcoming internal scepticism to the changes in the organisation that come

with a lack of confidence in leadership, encouraging them to utilise their innovative abilities and skills.

Leaders must interact with the individuals in their teams and communicate openly with them; this can catalyse the organisation's opportunities for transformation. Open communication with the followers will give the leaders insights into the issues and the strengths the individuals bring to the team. Leaders also need to be aware that we live in a complex world, and people's lives and needs change, but through open discussion, they can keep themselves updated on the lives of their followers.

Regarding intellectual stimulation as another dimension of transformational leadership, the results were overwhelmingly in favour of the leaders creating an environment for the followers to develop creative thinking. The results of this study indicated a strong recognition amongst the middle-ranked officers in the DPF of their leaders' abilities to stimulate the followers' intellectual capabilities and to support them in using different and constructive methods to deal with tasks at hand. The mean for all 7 items used in the questionnaire on intellectual stimulation was 4.5 (greater than the midpoint of 3.5), indicating a very strong perception of the respondents of the leaders' abilities to develop environments for creativity and innovation in the DPF. Intellectual stimulation was also apparent in the interviews with the senior leaders, who indicated that they have policies allowing free thinking to encourage their followers to develop their creative abilities to solve problems using the most appropriate methods.

The strong perceptions of an environment that enhances intellectual stimulation in the DPF are encouraging because, as a policing organisation, the police officers encounter new challenges and problems regularly, which sometimes require novel ways to solve them. The practice of transformational leadership by the DPF leaders encourages the police officers to be creative, 'think out of the box' and explore new ways to solve existing problems. In doing so, the officers also seek feedback from their leaders and colleagues.

This study concluded that transformational leadership is important in a police setting; it stimulates the intellectual capabilities of the police officers to think creatively to overcome challenges they encounter daily. The leadership in policing organisations like the DPF must create an environment where knowledge creation and sharing are encouraged rather than stifled, as has been identified in the literature (Hashemian and Mahadizade, 2008). Transformational leadership in policing organisations allows knowledge to be created and shared through the ranks, particularly in investigating critical cases.

The last dimension considered in this study was inspirational motivation; the questionnaire sought the respondents' perceptions of their leaders inspiring and motivating them in the DPF.

Through inspirational motivation, transformational leaders create an environment where the followers can realise the significance of their work. The senior leaders in this study articulated how they developed approaches to ensure that the departments' people were happy and felt they belonged to one family. From the followers who responded to the questionnaire, there was a strong agreement that the leaders clearly articulated a positive vision of the DPF's future, which appealed to the followers and developed a commitment to the police.

The results of this study showed that the DPF as an organisation has put in place practices aimed at inspiring and motivating employees. Employee motivation in the DPF is influenced by Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum's (the Prime Minister and Vice President of the UAE and the Ruler of Dubai) (2015:14) philosophy, which argues leaders to create an environment in the workplace that enables the employees to grow and to instil in them the confidence to develop their abilities and potential. Maktoum (2015:14) believed that positive people are confident and that no challenges will stand in the way of achieving their goals and those of the organisation.

This study concludes that inspirational motivation originates from the organisation's top leadership and trickles down through the ranks. A thriving environment developed by the top leadership in the DPF has trickled down through the ranks to enhance the happiness of the force. In recent years, the DPF has developed a family spirit and positive attitudes that are now recognised both by employees and at the national and global levels.

In conclusion, this study argues that when an organisation's top leadership understands transformational leadership and adheres to its principles, it is recognised and appreciated by the followers. This study's findings support previous works on transformational leadership, which observed that positive perceptions of the leaders lead to employees' commitment to the organisational goals and develop strong agreement with the organisation's strategic goals (Bono and Judge, 2003; Berson and Avolio, 2004).

This study considers Howell and Shamir (2005) that leaders and followers are active players in developing mutual relationships and shaping the organisation's outcomes. Therefore, this study argues for a leader–follower fit in the police force in Dubai and the entire UAE.

9.2.4. Objective 4: To Find Out How Transformational Leadership in the DPF Is Affecting the Middle-Ranked Police Officers' Terms of Employee Performance

The fourth objective of this study focused on transformational leadership's influence on employee performance in the police context. Employee performance as a construct is widely studied, and the link between employee performance and leadership style has recently gained much attention from scholars. This study aimed to add to transformational leadership's impact on employee engagement in the police.

This study showed that the followers were happy with the workplace, and their productivity increased in the last five years. The findings indicated a strong agreement on all items in the employee performance variable, scoring a mean of 4.50, far above the midpoint of 3. The results showed that the respondents were happy at work; although they appreciated working in groups, they felt satisfied when they had to work independently.

The results of this study are consistent with the numerous studies on employee performance and leadership behaviour. Previous studies recognised that transformational leadership positively impacts an organisation's employee productivity. This study's findings on how the employees in the DPF and how happy the followers feel about their work confirm and strengthen the existing observations of transformational leadership and positive employee performance. Thompson and Bruk-Lee (2021) and Bellet et al. (2023) observed that employees' happiness is crucial in enhancing loyalty to the organisation and improving performance. Therefore, leaders who seek to increase their followers' productivity need to create an environment that allows them to be happy and unleash their creative and innovative capabilities.

Another factor from this study is that transformational leadership increases work commitment in policing organisations. This study showed that transformational leadership is a catalyst that drives employee productivity. Transformational leaders can help individuals in their teams to align their goals with those of the organisation, which leads to organisational commitment, loyalty and improved productivity. Furthermore, the social bonding between the leaders and their followers defines employees' productivity and the team's general performance.

This study's results suggest that it is beneficial for policing organisations to adopt transformational leadership practices because they will help motivate employees to perform beyond expectations. Transformational leadership practices, particularly in policing organisations, help employees to be more creative when dealing with challenges they encounter

in the execution of their duties. Therefore, this study suggests that leaders at all levels of the police need to develop strategies that will help to create an engaged police force, which can help overcome some of the challenges faced by the police and increase productivity.

9.2.5. Objective 5: To Assess the Effects of Transformational Leadership Style on the Organisational Performance of the DPF

The findings from the qualitative phase indicated a sense of pride from the senior leaders in the performance of DPF, referring to some of the awards the police achieved at the local, national and international levels. For instance, in 2021, the DPF scored highly in community happiness, partner happiness, satisfaction with community initiative and satisfaction with the publication of information. The results from the quantitative survey also showed a firm agreement on how the DPF's performance has improved over the last few years. The organisational performance variable achieved a mean of 4.27 and a standard deviation of 0.778. These results indicated that the respondents agreed on how transformational leadership positively affects the performance of the DPF. The Pearson test on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance and between employee performance and organisational performance showed a robust relationship on both occasions.

The study results indicate that transformational leadership practices of the senior leaders in the DPF have a direct positive impact on performance. Moreover, a direct relationship exists between employee performance and organisational performance. This strong relationship between transformational and DPF employees can be interpreted to mean that they clearly understand the organisational goals and vision of the police. The leaders in the police force set clear goals for the followers, and a conducive environment enables people to be more creative when carrying out their tasks.

Based on the results of this study, transformational leadership has an enormously positive impact on employee creativity and innovative behaviour, which in return leads to better performance of the policing organisation. Therefore, leaders must develop a climate where employees' innovativeness and creativity can thrive through transformational leadership. Senior leaders need to mentor and coach the young leaders below them on effective leadership styles that motivate and inspire employees' high productivity, which can enhance efficiency and effectiveness as well as organisational performance. Thus, the results of this study indicate that policing organisations need to develop a conducive environment for transformational

leadership to thrive, and in return, organisational performance will improve through employee commitment, innovation and creativity.

9.3. Contributions and Implications

Transformational leadership has become one of the most popular leadership theories in the last four decades. The literature on transformational leadership is diverse and extensive; however, questions remain unanswered regarding this leadership style, particularly in the Middle East. The 21st century has witnessed transformational changes from the purely Arabic leadership culture to the levels where society expects their leaders to be motivators, facilitators and catalysts for both employees and organisational growth and performance.

This study recognised that local cultural settings significantly influence leadership styles, and in return, leadership also influences the organisation's culture. Most of the extant literature focuses on business, educational management, political and military psychology sectors; there is limited research focusing on the public sector in the Middle East and much less on the police.

The main purpose of this study was to analyse transformational leadership in the DPF. This study analysed transformational leadership practices in the DPF as well as the perspectives of the followers on the leadership practices of their leaders. The data for this study were collected from senior leaders and middle-ranked officers of the DPF; therefore, the findings are unique to the police sector. Consistent with the literature, the results of this study confirmed that the transformational leadership approach is the most effective in inspiring and motivating followers to believe in the future of the organisation and support its vision, mission and goals. Transformational leaders focus on building and sustaining trust, loyalty and commitment to the organisational goals amongst their followers. The contributions of this study are discussed here as theoretical and practical.

This study focused on transformational leadership; however, it is not the only leadership style senior leaders use in daily operations—the leaders confessed to using other leadership styles. For instance, the participants mentioned authoritative and participatory leadership styles. Transaction leadership style was also mentioned and is prominent in the DPF as an organisation; however, the dominant leadership was transformational, hugely influenced by the top leadership in the DPF and the Dubai government.

9.3.1. Theoretical Contributions

From a theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the limited research on transformational leadership within the public sector, particularly in the police in the Middle East. This research is also contributing to previous studies on leadership in the UAE. For instance, Busanad (2016) focused on knowledge management in the DPF. Other studies focused on change management and management models in the DPF (Almansoori, 2020) or the characteristics of leaders in the UAE Ministry of Interior (Abdouli, 2017). The only study focusing on transformational leadership was Aldermarki (2017), who investigated the impacts of transformational leadership on innovation and knowledge sharing. Focusing on the broader region of the Middle East, there is little research on transformational leadership in the public organisation and the police in particular.

This study contributes by bringing in new insights into transformational leadership and its relevance to the public sector, particularly for policing organisations in the UAE and the Middle East in general. The study contributes to the debate and expands the literature on leadership in the Middle East. The findings from this study can help the leaders in the DPF continue their leadership with confidence. The results can also help the upcoming leaders in the force to recognise the benefits of transformational leadership style to the employees and the policing organisation. The study set a foundation for future studies on leadership in policing organisations in the UAE; it is one of the few research projects that has gathered the perspectives of senior leaders and their followers. Most studies focus on the leaders' behaviours or the followers' perspectives, which are studied separately; however, this study has gone beyond dichotomy, including the two groups' perspectives, to contribute to our understanding of transformational leadership in Dubai.

It is anticipated that this study's findings will benefit future research on leadership in the UAE and provide the foundation for future studies on employee commitment, development, leadership and work practices, particularly in cross-cultural organisations in the UAE. This study provided valuable insights into transformational leadership in policing organisations and how these organisations can implement this leadership style.

From a methodological perspective, this study is one of the few using mixed methods data collection tools. One limitation of previous studies on leadership is that they focus exclusively on using MLQ developed by Bass and Avolio and ignore other measures. Second, studies on transformational leadership rely much on quantitative measures such as survey questionnaires;

however, as Yulk (2009) argued, relying on quantitative research only limits our understanding of the complexity of leadership. An emerging body of literature on transformational leadership uses qualitative research tools; however, few studies have adopted mixed methods. This study adopted mixed methods, which helped gather senior leaders' and employees' perspectives on transformational leadership in a policing organisation in Dubai. Therefore, this study provides new insights gathered not from one methodological perspective but from qualitative and quantitative methods.

9.3.2. Contribution to Practice

This study's outcomes contribute directly to the knowledge of transformational leadership style in the DPF and other policing organisations in the UAE and worldwide. Past research on leadership in the Arab world depicted it as autocratic, where the distance between employees and leaders is wide, with boundaries characterised by professional hierarchies and the leader's words being final. Though this leadership style still prevails in some areas of the region, leadership in Dubai and the UAE (in particular) and the Middle East (in general) is being redefined, and a new meaning of leadership is being developed in the region. Indeed, as this study demonstrated, public organisations with visionary leaders can benefit their organisations by gradually adopting a transformational leadership style.

This study provides practical knowledge to leaders in the DPF, the organisation that employs the researcher. Insights on best practices highlighted by this study can benefit the DPF and other public organisations in Dubai and the UAE. Furthermore, this study's findings can potentially guide leaders in policing organisations in the UAE in implementing change in their organisations. Therefore, this study has practical implications for public sector leaders in Dubai, the UAE and the Middle East. This study's findings were based on insights from senior leaders, indicating a need to develop a mechanism through which the current leaders can transfer their knowledge and expertise to the younger generation of leaders in DPF. Therefore, the DPF leadership must develop a leadership succession framework to enable senior leaders to pass on their knowledge and expertise to the younger generation before retirement.

Furthermore, most studies on transformational leadership have been studied with strong influence from Western countries, and their conclusions are based on their cultural backgrounds. However, this study was conducted by an Arab researcher who understands cultural and organisational traditions. Therefore, the findings of this study have considered the

Arab leadership culture, and the conclusions are adaptable to other public organisations in the UAE.

9.4. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The results showed that the followers need to be inspired and motivated by work towards achieving their individual and organisational goals, and the leaders in the DPF, through transformational leadership, are well positioned to achieve the vision and goals and to take them into the future.

However, as with any research project, some limitations must be recognised. First, the data for this study was collected from only one policing organisation in the UAE. The findings are relevant to the DPF; thus, they may not apply to other policing organisations in the UAE. Therefore, these findings are taken beyond the Dubai case study, and generalisation should be made with caution, as they may fit all the policing organisations in the Arab world. Dubai, as an emirate, has been fortunate to have visionary leaders who introduced the transformation gradually; however, this may not be the case for other public organisations in the UAE and the Arab world at large. Second, the data for this research was collected from senior leaders and middle-ranked officers who are also leaders in their capacity as police officers; therefore, the findings are not representative of all the ranks in the DPF. The people who contributed to this study are all leaders; thus, there is a need for research to look into the perspectives of the lower-ranked officers in the DPF to ascertain that transformational leadership is experienced throughout the whole organisation. Third, this research did not evaluate the findings based on the participants' demographics. Therefore, the results do not represent any specific gender, level of education, country of origin or experience in the police. Future research may need to compare the perspectives based on some of these factors to see if people with different cultural backgrounds and levels of education view transformational leadership the same or there may differences which will help leaders manage individuals.

Further research may aim to compare leadership in the various policing organisations in the UAE and see the similarities and differences in how they have embraced transformational leadership. In the DPF, transformational leadership is influenced by the leadership culture at the top and the leadership change in 2017; however, other factors may influence its practices in other policing organisations in the UAE that need to be investigated. Lastly, a few factors emerged from transformational leadership, such as trust, organisational commitment and

creativity, which may need further study on their mediation to both employee and organisational performance.

9.5. Personal Reflection on the Research Journey

The idea for this research started when I attended a leadership seminar organised by the UAE Ministry of Interior for junior leaders in all organisations under its jurisdiction. In this seminar, I was introduced to the concept of transformational leadership and was intrigued to learn more about this leadership style. There is little information about transformational leadership in Dubai or the UAE; however, I managed to get information from one of the universities in Dubai. One of the requirements of the course was to do research in the organisation where one works to contribute to practice; therefore, I decided to research transformational leadership in the DPF where I work.

During my study at the University of Sunderland, one of the modules introduced me to reflective practice and challenged us to reflect on our experiences, which has helped me reflect on all the activities in this study. This section presents my reflections on the whole journey. Throughout studying for this doctorate, I have gained much invaluable experience. Firstly, the university provided the courses, seminars and workshops in the first 18 months of the programme. I learned to formulate the research question and set the study's aim and objectives. In the process, I realised that the whole research journey comprised choices that I, as the researcher, must make from time to time. These decisions included tasks such as what literature to include in the study, which one to leave out, what philosophical and methodological perspective to use, and the methods to collect the data for the study.

I faced two main challenges during this study. First, the geographical distance between me and my supervisor meant that supervision had to be done online—I was in Dubai, while my supervisor was first in the UK and later relocated to Uganda. However, online supervision proved to be an advantage as the relocation did not disrupt the supervision process. The second challenge came from within the DPF. During this study, I realised that it is not easy to research in your own organisation. The policing leadership welcomed my research, but as a policing organisation, it has its cultures; though DPF has changed in the last few years, it is still heavily centralised. As a junior officer, I found it difficult to access the senior leaders. I was prepared for that; however, I did not plan for the busy schedule of the participants. I had a few cancellations of the meetings; in some cases, the meetings were interrupted either by the participant getting a long call or someone dropping in to converse with the participant.

However, I learned to be flexible and adaptable, and I also realised that as a researcher, these interactions between the participants and the visitors were an opportunity to witness the leadership first-hand. I also realised that I had to carefully plan the data collection process to get useful information. Another challenge discussed in Chapter 6 in more detail is collecting data from the elite participants, especially when you are a junior officer interviewing senior leaders with substantial power in the organisation. However, the participants were very receptive and were willing to talk to me freely; they even allowed me to record the interviews.

Furthermore, when data were collected, they were challenging to analyse. In my previous studies at the master's level, I was introduced to Nvivo and SPSS data analysis software. Though I used the latter, I had to learn the former afresh because this was the first I had to use it in a research project. Besides the instructions I received from my supervisor, I also had to watch several video tutorials to get to grips with Nvivo. Using Nvivo and the general analysis of the qualitative data was very informative and a significant learning curve for me, as this was a hands-on practice of using the software.

This study has enhanced my confidence as a leader, a police officer and a student of leadership. I feel that I am ready to earn the doctorate, but I have also become a better leader. I have enhanced my writing skills and improved my English; I can talk to senior leaders confidently, and I have also realised that perspectives on leadership depend on where you stand. Those at the top of the ladder see very far, whilst those on the lower rungs see things from a shorter distance; therefore, leaders make decisions based on how far they can see based on the level of the ladder where they are positioned.

9.6. Concluding Remark

This research's conclusion is consistent with other studies that observed that transformational leadership positively impacts both employees and organisational performance and a strong commitment to the organisation. Western scholars may question the significance of transformational leadership in policing organisations in Arab countries, but this is because they do not clearly understand the culture of Arab leadership. It is common for anyone viewing a new culture as an outsider to assume, frame and react to what they see based on their own cultural background. They may not realise that the Arab leadership culture is centuries old and has been shaped by factors such as family, reputation, religion and, most recently, modernity that have continued to influence the decision-making process.

Hofstede (1995) observed that organisational leadership is culturally contextual and that leaders are part and parcel of their culture. Previous studies on leadership in the Arab context implied that the leaders in Arab organisations tended to be authoritative and were not ready to take risks; they tended to avoid responsibility and had little consideration for the organisational goals and performance (Ali, 1996). Furthermore, according to Al-Hegelan and Palmer (1985), Arab leaders feared change and preferred a stable lifestyle over changes that may disrupt the status quo. Gregg (2005) observed that Arab leaders were status-conscious and self-protective; therefore, they were keen on taking action to save face. The results of this study proved different, showing that the leaders have adopted contemporary and collaborative leadership styles and have become more transformational. The evidence of this new leadership philosophy is evident in the DPF.

This study aimed to contribute to our understanding of transformational leadership in policing organisations by investigating and analysing the use of transformational leadership, a Western philosophical construct adopted in the Arab leadership culture. The data was gathered from both the senior leaders in the DPF and their followers, focusing on middle-ranked officers in the police. The results indicated that transformational leadership is now recognised as an important leadership culture in the police in Dubai. The study's results also indicated that adopting transformational leadership behaviour in the police emanates from the influence of two key leaders in Dubai and the police: His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum is the Prime Minister and Vice President of the UAE and leader of Dubai and His Excellency Lieutenant General Abdullah Khalifa Al Marri, Commander-in-Chief of Dubai Police. These two leaders are visionary and strategic; they both brought about transformational changes in Dubai, and their leadership cultures influenced the senior leaders in the DPF to emulate them. In doing so, the senior leaders have become transformational; their leadership has influenced the well-being of the employees, encouraged creativity and innovation and significantly improved both employees' performance and the DPF.

The results also suggested that employees feel more confident when they understand their roles and have to work as one family. Furthermore, the leader's interaction with the employees develops loyalty and trust in the leader. Transformational leadership in the DPF also helped to create an environment where the followers are encouraged to be creative, make improvements and get feedback from their leaders. There is a clear flow of information in the DPF, and the followers receive enough communication, one key ingredient of transformational leadership that has nurtured the followers to be proactive and take the initiative. This study suggests that

such a leadership model should not only be limited to the DPF but must be encouraged throughout all the emirates in the UAE.

This study has demonstrated the importance of transformational leadership in the police, showing its significance to the senior leaders and their followers. The study has also revealed that leadership in the DPF, in particular, and the UAE, in general, is changing from the traditional Arabic authoritative leadership culture to novel, contemporary and collaborative leadership styles that put the employees and organisational goals before self. Adopting new leadership theories has transformed the DPF into a world leader in innovation and technology pioneer in the police force. This study argues that policing organisations have been affected by global events, such as terrorism and international gang crimes; therefore, they constantly search for more efficient means to lead efficiently and effectively. Thus, the successes registered by the DPF through transformational leadership could help other policing organisations in the UAE and the Arab world to adopt contemporary leadership styles when dealing with police challenges in the future. As the results of this study indicated, the transformational leadership style is important to the followers and the organisation. The transformational leader mediates between the ambitions and expectations of the employees and the organisation.

[i] The Mohammed Bin Rashed Centre for Leadership Development (MBRCLD) was created in 2003 as a collaborative effort of a number of government organisations with the purpose of creating leaders for tomorrow. The centre has produced some of the senior leaders in the Dubai Police Force.

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Appendix 1: Qualitative Questions

Interview Schedule

1. What leadership style do you use in your work/position?
2. Why do you prefer this leadership style to other styles?
3. How efficient is your leadership style?
4. What is your understanding of transformational leadership style?
5. Do you see yourself as a transformational leader? Give examples please
6. What factors make it possible to lead in this organization?
7. What challenges do you face in your leadership position?
8. What are your perspectives/views on transformational leadership style bringing effectiveness among employees?
9. Has it worked for you? Please provide a few examples
10. What about efficiency? Do you think transformational leadership leads to efficiency among the police officers?
11. What is your opinion on transformational leadership being adopted by all leaders in the Dubai Police?

Research Survey

Dear Respondent!

I **am conducting a research on 'A Study to assess relevance and applicability of Transformational Leadership style in Dubai Police Force" and have designed a questionnaire to collect data from employees working in Dubai Police. The data collected will be used and reported in aggregate form; no individual responses will be referred to or quoted. The information you furnish will be treated as confidential. You are requested to take 15-20 minutes out of your busy schedule to fill this questionnaire t.** If **you need findings of this research, please send a request at: rash-Ol@hotmail.com**

Rashed Salem AlMazrouei

1. What is your gender?

Q Female
Q Male

2. Your Residential Status

Q Local
Q Expatriate

3. Your Age

0 18-24

0 25-34

0 35-44

4. Your Education Level

Q Less than High School degree
Q High School degree
Q Undergraduate degree

5. Your Total Working Experience

Q Up to 5 years
Q 6 to 10 years
Q 21 to 30 years
Q over 31 years

0 45-54

0 55-64

0 65+

Q Master's degree
Q PhD degree
Q Others

Organizational Performance

How would you rate your organization's performance (Dubai Police Force) over the past five years.

6. Quality of our policing services has been improved.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

7. Development and offering of new policing services is a major activity at DPF.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

8. DP ability to attract potential officers has improved.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

9. The ability to retain employees is a major strength of DPF.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

10. Satisfaction of Emirati nationals is preferred concern of DPF.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

11. Management and employees are having a trustful relationship with each other
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

12. Our department reputation is getting better.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

13. My organization sets SMART targets for the employees.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

Employee Performance

How would you rate employees' performance over the past five years at Dubai Police.

14. Quantity of employees' work output has improved in last five years.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

15. Coming up with new ideas is appreciated in our organization.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

16. Most of the employees achieved organizational goals in the last 5 years.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

1 7. Targets given to different employees/officers often met.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

18. Overall employees' targets achievements have improved over the last 5 years.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

19. Employees feel happy to work in teams.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

20. Majority of our employees can work independently and give high performance.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

21. Employees at my organization are capable to make effective decisions.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

22. Employees' communication skills have been improved in my organization
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

23. Employee'scompetencies are in line with the organizational operational and strategic goals.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

Transformational Leadership

My Team Leader

24. Communicates a clear and positive vision for the Future.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average
0 0 0
Agree
0
25. Treats staff as individuals, supports and encourages their development.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
26. Gives encouragement and recognition to staff.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
27. Fosters trust, involvement, and cooperation among team members.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
28. Encourages thinking about problems in new ways
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
29. is clear about his/her values and practices which he/she preaches.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
30. Instills pride and respect in others and inspires me by his/her competence.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree
0 0 0 0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Strongly Agree
0
Idealized Influence-Transformational Leadership
My Team Leader
31. Clearly explain the idea about risk impacts
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
32. Involve team members in the decision-making process
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
33. Address staff members by their names
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
34. Provide equal chance to staff to speak in meetng.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
35. Encourage colleagues to expresses their opinion.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

36. Express gratitude even for small acts.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

37. Respect the personal rights of all patrolling officers in the workplace.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

Idealized Consideration-Transformational Leadership

My Team Leader:

38. Provide opportunities for staff members to involve in new tasks.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

39. Encourage patrolling officers to decide by themselves how to do their assignments.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

40. Ask questions to prompt further discussion.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

41. Involve in official papers while others are speaking.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

42. Listen to opposing views without expressing defensiveness.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

43. Suggest solutions before the problem is fully explained.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

44. Devote time to train patrolling officers to improve their surveillance skills.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

45. Facilitate others to acquire the necessary knowledge.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

Inspirational Motivation-Transformational Leadership

My Team Leader:

46. Provide assistance to patrolling officers before they request.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

4 7. Set specific standards for task achievement.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

48. Try to resolve problems immediately which disrupt the patrolling officer's work schedules.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

49. Keep everyone on teamwork by commands.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

50. Demonstrate a passion for excellence in every aspect of work at DPF.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree

0 0 0 0 0

51. Forgive others' mistakes.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
52. Lead discussion about values in the orientation session with patrolling officers.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
53. Help others know how to work through their achievement.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0

Intellectual Stimulation-Transformational Leadership

My Team Leader:

54. Break down the problem into smaller components.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
55. Stimulate patrolling officers to find new ways to solve problems.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
56. Hold discussion in groups to highlight organization strengths.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
5 7. Create benchmarks for measuring the progress of work.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
58. Encourage others to look at the problem from different angles.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
59. Encourage thoughtful risk-taking.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0
60. Prepare checklist of solutions regarding a problem.
Strongly Disagree Disagree Average Agree Strongly Agree
0 0 0 0 0