

Effective Leadership during Strategic Change:

An Investigative Study of Abu Dhabi Police

By

Bashar Badran AlKaraeen

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in accordance with the regulations of the
University of East Anglia**

**School of Politics, Philosophy, Language and Communication Studies
University of East Anglia
United Kingdom**

April 2016

This copy of the thesis has been supplied on condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that its copyright rests with the author and that use of any information derived there from must be in accordance with current UK Copyright Law. In addition, any quotation or extract must include full attribution.

ABSTRACT

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) has gone through significant changes over the past decade in its progress towards modernisation. During the course of the change programme the United Arab Emirates (UAE) Government has sponsored the work of ADP and has encouraged many projects.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the factors that are involved with change management within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). The study looks into various aspects, including the role of ADP senior police leaders, leadership styles, culture, statecraft and its use in ADP, and the overall impact of these elements have on the success of strategic change.

This study adopted a mixed method sequential exploratory approach.

The findings identify the key roles of senior police leaders and the skills required to effect change. One of the findings was that change management responsibilities were viewed as a priority and as an essential role of senior police leaders. Situational leadership emerged as the most prominent style of leadership. Several competencies were seen as a requirement to enact change, one such competency was statecraft. Culture and the working environment were perceived to have an impact on the workings of ADP. In a wider Arab contextual and contemporary sense, the subjects of social media and extremist Arab militant groups are touched upon to give a broader understanding to the complexities of the Middle East.

The findings make several contributions to academia which has implications for theory and practice, specifically as regards to public organisations which offer citizens a public service. One of the major findings is that it is the responsibility of senior police leaders and the top management within ADP to assess and analyse what is expected from the government and to implement the changes required in the new police organisational setting. In doing so this research has shown that political awareness and statecraft are seen as essential criteria for senior police leaders and executive police leaders. Overall, the research provides a rare and privileged insight into the workings of senior police officers within a modern Arab police force.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1	9
1. INTRODUCTION	9
1.1 The Purpose of this Research.....	9
1.2 Research Uniqueness and Objectives	10
1.3 The Research Questions and Hypothesis	11
1.4 The Concept of Institutional Development.....	13
1.5 The Role of the State in Development	14
1.6 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) and the United Arab Emirates (UAE).....	15
1.7 The British Legacy.....	16
1.8 Law, Police and Citizen	18
1.9 Strategic Development Stage: 1995 - Present Day	22
1.10 Change Programme and Vision, Mission & Values	23
1.11 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) Structure of Organisation.....	26
1.12 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) Ranks and Numbers	26
1.13 Police Functions and Numbers	26
1.14 Influence of Global Security Changes	29
1.15 Political	30
1.16 Cyber Security	33
1.17 Governance	36
1.18 Policing Capability.....	37
1.19 Background to Project Management.....	38
1.20 The Role of Leadership.....	41
1.21 Significance.....	43
1.22 Summary.....	45
CHAPTER 2	46
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	46
2.2. LITERATURE REVIEW AIMS	47
2.3. STRATEGY AND LEADERSHIP	47
2.4. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP MEASUREMENTS.....	49
2.5. THEORIES OF GENERAL LEADERSHIP	50
2.6. THEORIES OF POLICE LEADERSHIP	56
2.7. GOVERNMENT, POLITICS AND GOVERNANCE	61
2.8. STATECRAFT	63
2.9. ISLAMISM, IDEOLOGY AND MILITANT GROUPS	72
2.10. CULTURAL TRAITS	107

2.11 SOCIAL MEDIA	112
2.12 EFFECTIVENESS and EFFICIENCY.....	133
2.13 SUMMARY	134
CHAPTER 3	136
3. METHODOLOGY AND FRAMEWORK.....	136
3.1 Mixed Methods Research.....	136
3.2 Sample Group	138
3.3 Explanation of Research Process: Pilot Study	139
3.4 Phase 1: Primary Study: Interviews.....	139
3.5 Phase 2: Primary Study: Survey.....	139
3.6 Common Vocabulary	140
3.7 Limitations and threats in the research.....	141
3.8 Social Constructivism	144
CHAPTER 4	147
4. RESULTS	147
4.1 Results Introduction	147
4.2 Pilot Study.....	147
4.3 Phase One: Face-to-Face Interviews.....	148
4.4 Phase One: Interview Form and Results	148
4.5 Summary of Pilot and Phase One	160
4.6 Phase Two: Survey.....	162
4.7 Phase Two: Results	165
4.8 Summary of Phase Two	179
CHAPTER 5	181
5. ANALYSES, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	181
5.1 Introduction to the Analyses, Findings and Discussion	181
5.2 Determining Police Leadership.....	182
5.3 Senior Police Leaders Qualities, Potential, Competencies and Perceptions.	184
5.4 Notions of Potential	188
5.5 Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution	189
5.6 Leadership Styles, Statecraft and Competencies.	190
5.7 Statecraft and Competencies	192
5.8 Leadership Styles	195
5.9 Working Environment.....	198
5.10 Mentoring.....	199

5.11 Demographic Issues	200
5.12 Wasta.....	201
5.13 Family Influence	203
5.14 Questions Answered and Hypothesis Validated	206
CHAPTER 6	212
6. RECOMMENDATIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND CONCLUSION	212
6.1 Recommendations, Contributions and Conclusion	212
6.2 Recommendations for Future Research	212
6.3 Further Research Caveat	217
6.4 Action Points: Rapid Action Research.....	217
6.5 Contributions to theory, method, and practice	217
6.6 Contributions to theory	218
6.7 Contributions to police leadership and change management theory	218
6.8 Contributions to police leadership theory	218
6.9 Contributions to change management theory (External).....	219
6.10 Contributions to change management theory (Internal).....	220
6.11 Methodology	221
6.12 Contributions to practice	222
6.13 Contributions and implications for police leadership practice in ADP and other organisations.....	222
6.14 Contributions and implications for change management practice in ADP and other organisations.....	225
6.15 Conclusion	226

Appendices

Bibliography

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to thank and acknowledge the people that have assisted me on my learning journey. First, my parents who have supported and encouraged me throughout the entire PhD programme. Also to Professor Nabil Ayad and Professor Lee Marsden for their invaluable assistance and teaching support through my academic journey and to the police officers who gave of their time and support during my research.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge Abu Dhabi Police for giving me the opportunity to finish my education. Without the support of Abu Dhabi Police this research would not have been possible.

DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis presented here is my own work. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of East Anglia. This work has never been submitted for any other institution for academic credit. All sources have been duly acknowledged.

Bashar Badran AlKaraeen

28 April 2016

ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	Abu Dhabi Police
ADSC	Abu Dhabi Systems and Information Centre
APMA	Association of Project Managers
ARAMCO	Arabian American Oil Company
BICI	Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry
BRICs,	Brazil, Russia, India and China
CENTREX	Central Police Training and Development Authority
COFACE	Compagnie Francaise D'assurance Pour Le Commerce Exterieur
CRS	Congressional Research Service
DOS	Denial of Service
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
FCO	Foreign and Commonwealth Office
FNC	Federal National Council
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
HOPAS	Holistic Occupational Performance Appraisal System
IDV	Individualism
INTERPOL	International Police Organisation
IT	Information Technology
MAS	Masculinity Index
MOI	Ministry of Interior
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NPIA	National Policing Improvement Agency
OPEC	Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries

PBUH	Peace Be Upon Him
PDI	Large Power Distance
PMBOK	Project Management Body of Knowledge
PMI	Project Management International
PRINCE2	(Projects In Controlled Environments, Version 2)
PRojMAN	(International Conference on Project Management)
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index
UK	United Kingdom
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
USA	United States of America
WEF	World Economic Forum

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Purpose of this Research

Using Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) as a case study throws new light on the importance of effective leadership in an organisation that is undertaking fundamental change. During the course of national strategic change, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) Government has sponsored and worked with the ADP, encouraging certain projects. The study looks into various aspects, including the role of government, that have an impact on the success of strategic change. This research investigates the factors that are involved with change management within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP).

The researcher has privileged access to ADP and their leadership. The results provide a unique insight into the workings of a modern Arab police force which is both enlightening and informative.

The focus of the study is effective leadership, since many researchers highlight the important role of strong leadership in bringing about strategic change. The researcher will present findings on leadership and the context in which police leaders operate within the ADP. A major purpose of the study will be interpretation and analysis of the findings as they relate to effective leadership. The researcher will make conclusions and recommendations on how leadership challenges can be overcome in the execution of projects in ADP and will touch on the leadership styles, culture and statecraft of police leaders.

The paradigm used in this research is based on Social Constructivism which emphasises the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on this understanding (Derry, 1999; McMahon, 1997).

The role leadership plays in the project management discipline in ADP will be investigated in order to ascertain what part it has played in the way the concept of project management has been implemented in the execution of projects; whether there is a relationship between the success rate of projects and the extent to which project management has been implemented; whether the profiling of project managers in ADP has made a contribution to the success rate of projects; and whether the environment created for the project management discipline is adequate.

The link between strategy and operations requires outcomes consistent with what was intended to be achieved by a strategy. In well documented studies, poor leadership has been identified as the cause when there has been a failure to implement and manage

projects. Elements of poor leadership include lack of direction, lack of alignment to strategies and lack of continuous assessment against the metrics set, not taking a holistic view, and lack of processes, planning, and implementing a project environment (Dooley, Lupton and O'Sullivan, 2005). Many of these elements can be applied to ADP. Leadership of high calibre at this strategic and project level is necessary in order to give direction and make decisions promptly for projects so that they are successful in order to realise the benefits to the organisations (Gido and Clements, 1999 and Kerzner, 2009). Other factors which affect strategic change and leadership within ADP are examined including leadership style, competencies, security and statecraft.

It is inevitable that the role of leadership is a key area in executing strategy.

1.2 Research Uniqueness and Objectives

This research is unique and represents a major investigative study on several fronts, which include:

- i)** The thesis will offer a marked and original contribution to Arab and Western literature in relation to national, regional and international aspects of leadership and statecraft, together with leadership style in a contemporary project management driven environment where Middle Eastern society is changing as a result of the “Arab Spring” and subsequent unrest in the region. This thesis will be the first to piece these elements together using ADP as the touchstone.
- ii)** Abu Dhabi Police culture is different from police services in other parts of the world mainly due to its history, geographic location and its people. This will be explored together with the interdependent and regional security aspects and change management. The research will offer a unique exploration of a modern Arab police force, its members and their functions. This will contribute towards an understanding between the Arab world and the Western world in relation to leadership in organisations, especially police organisations, by providing an in depth understanding of the complexities and complexion of a modern and effective Arab police organisation.
- iii)** Significantly, the research results will not only contribute to academia but just as importantly will add to the practical understanding and possible adoption of a leadership style that could become policy for ADP and other police forces in the region in the future. More details of the other attributes of the study can be found in Chapter 1.19.

The research objectives are:

1. To investigate the factors that hinder or assist change management in ADP;
2. To evaluate and analyse the role played by leadership in project execution;
3. To evaluate and analyse the link between leadership and change management in ADP.
4. To interpret and analyse the findings in this study in relation to leadership, statecraft and strategic management;
5. To identify effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP; and
6. To make recommendations for the enhancement of effective and efficient leadership and its relationship with project implementation (Action Research). The concept of development has its roots in the organs of state, which has to be functional for development to take place or to be sustained. These organs can be functional if they have effective leadership, have metrics for measuring performance, take time to plan, communicate their programmes, and execute them efficiently (McGill, 1995). The institutional developments require a non-partisan legal infrastructure that protects and enforces the rule of law and prevents abuse of power by government or ruling party officials (Tabellini, 2004).

Development is thus a political process characterised by policy concerns, human needs, and functional institutions under the guidance of the rule of law.

1.3 The Research Questions and Hypothesis

While project management is acknowledged by the senior police leaders of ADP as one of the principal ways of managing change in ADP, the level of understanding and application of this concept is poor. One needs to consider whether thought and planning have been applied in the adoption of this concept in view of the organisational structures of ADP. However, it is not fully known how effective this philosophy has been.

To address the challenges experienced in the execution of projects and the perception of failure in the context of the role leadership plays in the results of projects, it is necessary to have a high level of understanding. This understanding should consist of two factors. First, an understanding of project management (based on the guide of Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) principles and its ten knowledge areas). Secondly, an understanding of ADP environment and culture (including the challenges experienced in the execution of projects and the perception of failure in the context of the role leadership plays in the results of projects). The PMBOK Guide (2013) is meant to offer general guidelines for the management of most projects most of the time.

The PMBOK Guide is process-based. The Guide recognises five basic process groups and ten knowledge areas that are typical of almost all projects. The five process groups are: Initiating, Planning, Executing, Monitoring /Controlling and Closing. The ten knowledge areas are:

Project Integration Management, Project Scope Management, Project Time Management, Project Cost Management, Project Quality Management, Project Human Resource Management, Project Communications Management, Project Risk Management, Project Procurement Management, and Project Stakeholders Management (added in 5th edition in 2013).

Each of the ten knowledge areas contains the processes that need to be accomplished within its discipline in order to achieve an effective project management program. Each of these processes also falls into one of the five basic process groups. The PMBOK Guide presents a set of standard terminology and guidelines used in project management in most parts of the world.

It is acknowledged that there are limitations in existing techniques of PMBOK and that there is a lack of a holistic approach to its management. This is seen as a weakness in the methodology (Maravas et al., 2012).

The researcher seeks to understand to what extent PMBOK principles and their understanding/application by stakeholders and the support systems contribute to project management success.

The role leadership plays in the relationship between business strategies, the role of project managers and organisational structures in project success. An understanding of the strategic intentions of the organisation, together with the issues of ownership and visibility of leadership, is viewed as affecting project success.

Core to these challenges is the need to use the strategy as a guide for alignment purposes for each project to be executed. Without strategy as a guide, projects may not be serving the purpose for which they were initiated and can become wasteful expenditures. In order to understand the current challenges facing ADP, the following basic research questions will be put to the senior police leadership of ADP:

- 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP?
- 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution?
- 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management?
- 4) What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP?

5) How can leadership and strategic change management be enhanced?

These five basic research questions will be the fundamental to the research and will act as sign posts in the quest to cut through the superficial veneer of an organisation and lead to an in-depth understanding and analyses of ADP.

In the course of researching the five basic research questions it is anticipated that other interrelated issues, topics and questions will be touched upon, including; What makes a successful leader in ADP? How do you recognise leadership potential? What are the relationships between the government, leadership, change management and project management in ADP?

The hypothesis is alignment with the research questions and other data. The hypothesis is:

“Change management within ADP has been largely effective and led to better outcomes for the citizens of Abu Dhabi”.

The answers to the research questions and the other data emanating from this research will inform and test the validity of the stated hypothesis. The results are outlined in Chapter 5.

This thesis will consist of six chapters, finishing with a number of recommendations. Chapter 1 introduces the purpose of the research and the various elements influences surrounding the research. Chapter 2 is the literature review. Chapter 3 is the methodology and framework used which includes mixed methods research and social constructivism. Chapter 4 relates to the phases of the research together with the findings and analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the findings and possible implications. The thesis concludes with Chapter 6 which provides a conclusion and number of recommendations.

1.4 The Concept of Institutional Development

The concept of institutional development has its roots in the organs of state, which have to be functional for development to take place or to be sustained. These organs can be functional if they have effective leadership, have metrics for measuring performance, take time to plan, communicate their programmes, and execute them efficiently (McGill, 1995). The institutional developments require a non-partisan legal infrastructure that protects and enforces the rule of law and prevents abuse of power by government or ruling party officials (Tabellini, 2004).

Development is thus a political process characterised by policy concerns, human needs, and functional institutions under the guide of the rule of law.

1.5 The Role of the State in Development

The state has a number of identified roles in development. The state has the responsibility of providing the public with security, goods and services, in order to reduce inequalities in income and opportunities and to stabilise excessive economic fluctuations. Other important state functions are to protect property rights to enable economic development, to reduce unemployment, to facilitate a sustainable and balanced budget, to maintain a competitive currency, to protect the environment, to open trade, to liberalise the political milieu, and to establish a macroeconomic setting that improves the lives of its citizens (Tabellini, 2004). Picard and Garity (1995, p. 77) argue that the responsibility of the state falls into three categories. The first is that the state is seen as a provider. This function includes the core functions of government such as producing a coherent set of policies for socio-economic development. It also includes the construction of major infrastructure, and other functions related to national sovereignty such as defence, foreign policy and public order.

The second category is the state is seen as a facilitator. This primarily relates to the implementation of policies and the control of the proper environment for development. The last category is that the state is seen as a partnership. Here the state has a responsibility to facilitate a climate of cooperation and trust among the public, private and non-governmental sectors through the development of formal consultative processes, policy forums and joint marketing activities internationally. These and other forms of partnership need to be explored and used, though with caution.

Other important considerations include:

Developing the potential for societies to move from single centres of decision making (usually within the government) to multiple centres of decision making; decentralising public sector decision making to the primary unit of government; and overall, developing multiple channels of influence and mechanisms of consultation and communication between societal associations and public sector institutions. Institutional development is promoted for sustainability by developing a capacity to implement policy change through appropriate policies, effective organisations and the introduction of management technique and skills.

These projects are initiated at various levels as part of advancement throughout the state. The projects include civil society and the private sector both of which are participants which assist development of the state. Security provides an environment which allows the development of good government.

1.6 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) and the United Arab Emirates (UAE)

In order to understand the present you need to understand the past. This is especially true with Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). From an historical perspective, the strong ties between the state and ADP are evident.

Before the advent of Islam, Arabs called the police "Arrafa". It was written in the renowned dictionary - Lisan Al-Arab (Arabs' Tongue): "The corporal of a nation is its core". In this context, the corporal means the chief who comes under the supreme head of the nation. He is the guardian of the nation, who knows the tribe's policy and affairs and links the prince and his people (Ibn Mandhoor, 1992, p156).

Some sources attribute the modern concept of police to the era of the first Muslim Caliph, Abu Baker Al-Sideek who established a security system named "Al-Asas" or "patrolling system". The task of "Al-Asas" was to watch the city at night-and chase suspect people. Other sources say that the phrase "al- shurtah" (meaning policeman) appeared in the era of second caliph Omar Bin Al-Khattab (Khalid Ahmad Ornar, 1990, p34) The Caliphs of successive Islamic periods had corporals, governors and assistants who were charged with enforcing order and chasing criminals.

Through time, the police system kept developing until it became an organised system run by chiefs called "Emirs" or princes who were responsible for consolidating security. (Yehia Al-Molami, 1982, p232) In the first Abbasid period, police were assigned to look into grave crimes and riots that threatened the state's security and legitimacy (The History of Nations and Kings, Part 8, 1960, p.50). In the course of Islamic Rule in Muslim Spain, the concept of a police force developed notably. The Arab historian and sociologist Abd Al Rahna Ibn Khaldoun noted, "The brightness of Police in the Umayyad State in Andalusia improved tremendously. Hence, there became kinds: minor police and grand police. The grand police chief was assigned to govern the affairs of notable people, i.e. to punish them when they did something wrong while the minor police chief was assigned to greater mass of the people" (Ibn Khaldoon, 1982, p33).

Today, the Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) has grown rapidly and increased its international profile which includes being a member of INTERPOL (International Police Organisation) and the Arab Bureau for Criminal Police which is affiliated with the Secretariat General of Arab Ministers of Interior Council.

The policemen (Shurta) are recognised as assistants of the Ruler, and distinguish themselves by special marks such as uniforms, emblems, and weapons (See Appendix A). It was said that the police are the first battalion to witness conflict. The Arabic word *Shurta* means a "sign" (Ibn Mandhoor, 1992, p83).

The word "Shurta" or police was not mentioned specifically in the Quran. However, the Quran mentioned the word "Ashratha", from which the word "Shurta" is derived. The singular word of "Ashratha" is "shart" which means a sign and indication of the time of the day. Another indirect reference in the Quran comes in the context of the story of Prophet Moses (peace be upon him) and Pharaoh (Fir'aun) when he sent an assistant to gather the people.

The Quran says, "Put him and his brother off and send callers to the cities" (Al Aaraf, 111). The Islamic narrator and interpreter Ibn Abbas interpreted the word callers as "shurtah" (Mugeb Moadi Al Utaibi, 1996, p28).

Policemen were also mentioned at the time of Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), as follows: Anas Bin Malik said: "Qais Bin Saad was in the hand of the Prophet (PBUH) as the shurtah was for the Emir" (Mugeb Moadi Al Utaibi, 1996, p10). Policemen were the soldiers on whom the Caliph or the ruler relied to maintain security and order and arrest wrongdoers. They were also responsible for the administrative tasks that guarantee the safety and security of the people. Currently, the police are defined as "the organisation assigned with maintaining security and order and discharging instructions and regulations of the state" (Mugeb Moadi Al Utaibi, 1996, p19).

The establishment of a professional police force in Abu Dhabi in 1957 was unprecedented. In fact, it was a quantum leap toward modernisation and organisation, in a society that carried out its affairs and solved its problems according to traditional self-security methods and customs.

In 2007, during the year of the 50th anniversary of the establishment of Abu Dhabi Police (ADP), there was confirmation that the police had reached a new level of professionalism. As the first sign of modernisation in the region, the ADP helped build government institutions in the Emirate. The police force has been intermingled with prosperity and the development process in the Emirate for over half a century and has had a prominent and vital role in maintaining order, stability and security (50 Years of Progress, 2007).

See Appendix 'A' for photographs of Abu Dhabi Police officers in uniform.

1.7 The British Legacy

During the early 19th century there was continuous harassment of foreign ships by rogue movements within the various countries surrounding the Arabian Sea. This is when the British influence began, even though both European and Arab navies were patrolling the Arabian Sea. The British signed a general peace treaty in 1820 with all the nine sheikhdoms (which included Bahrain and Qatar), but raids continued in the Gulf

region until the sheikhs agreed not to fight amongst themselves in 1835. In 1853, a treaty was signed between the United Kingdom and the nine sheikhdoms, and the region would be known as the Trucial Coast. The British would provide the Trucial Sheikdoms with protection, while disputes among sheikhs would be settled internally.

In 1952, the seven Emirates established a Trucial Council with the administrative assistance of the British. One of the tasks of the Trucial Council was to settle land disputes amongst the members of the Council.

Large oil reserves were found in Abu Dhabi in 1958 and began to be exported in 1962, which transformed the country into one of the richest in the world. (U.S. Department of State Background Note). <http://www.infoplease.com/country/profiles/united-arab-emirates.html> (Accessed: 24.4.13)

The British announced in 1968 that they would be leaving the Gulf region in 1971 and this would end their treaty relationship. This was a peaceful and mutually agreed departure as the British Empire continued its decline. When the treaty expired on 1st December 1971, six of the seven states (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah and Umm Al Quwain) merged together on the 2nd of December 1971 to form the United Arab Emirates and elected Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan as the first President and Sheikh Rashid bin Said Al Maktoom as the Vice-President. Ras Al Khaimah soon after joined the federation on the 11th February 1972.

The UAE owes its birth to the stimulus of Britain's withdrawal from the Gulf in 1971, when all the Emirates but Kuwait received their independence (Kuwaiti's independence came ten years earlier). While physical withdrawal involved little more than the removal of a few thousand troops, it also marked the end of an era of British predominance in the Gulf and responsibility for the integrity of the states under its protection (Balfour-Paul, 1974). International concern about the future of the Gulf, given the small size and vulnerability of the oil states, gave rise to the topic of Gulf security (Peterson, 1986).

Another effect of oil was the creation of triangular relationships between host countries, Western oil companies and Western governments. The winning of the Saudi concession by what was to become the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) proved to be an opening step in the lessening of the Al Sa'ud's dependence on Britain and the creation of a "special relationship" with the United States (Husain M. Al-Baharna, 1975).

The final structure of the UAE as envisioned, and then brought into existence by Sheikh Zayed and the co-founders from the other Emirates, could not have been less certain at the outset. For example, consensus on whether they would end up with a union of all nine or a smaller number of Emirates would prove elusive until much later in the independence process. But in helping the Sheikhs to narrow the range of options, the

Emirates were fortunate that it was Britain that had decided to terminate its treaties with them, as it was that decision that sowed the seeds for the ultimate formation of the UAE. “The decision also permitted Sheikh Zayed and his fellow rulers to draw on Britain’s virtual cornucopia of knowledge and understanding as to how to establish new states, structures and systems, particularly with regard to providing a firm foundation and enduring framework for governance” (Anthony, 2002, p 13).

This was to be the legacy of Britain to the UAE. Anthony (2002) believed that Britain could claim extensive experience in nurturing new nations. For nearly two hundred years, British officials had been intensely involved in assisting new polities move from their embryonic stage to maturation en route to independence.

Britain looked with increasing favour upon federal schemes of administration for its overseas dominions. Federal structures appealed to the British and to Sheikh Zayed and his fellow rulers in other ways as well. “Such was its influence (Antony notes) that the UAE adopted a federal scheme” (Anthony 2002, p.13). The record of historical exploration of the Arabian Peninsula is replete with paradoxes (Peterson, 1991). As such, current perceptions reveal an affinity to Britain and a sense of shared history but as to a special relationship, this it is open to debate.

1.8 Law, Police and Citizen

Overview of UAE legal system

In the UAE most legislation is comprised of a mix of Islamic and European concepts of law, which have a common root in the Egyptian legal code established in the late 19th to 20th centuries. The French influence is most clearly demonstrated by the adoption or part adoption of the civil law by most countries in the Gulf Region, including the UAE, similar to those in European states, rather than the common law system in the UK (Sakr, 2005).

The structure of the legal system in the UAE is complex. For instance there are dual courts with Sharia courts and civil courts operating in parallel, but covering different areas of the law. In addition to this complexity, each emirate has its own federal court of first instance, although Dubai and Ras al Khaimah have their own separate judicial frameworks.

Although these systems are different, the basic legal principles and structure are logical and understandable. They have evolved over many centuries, in a similar way to the

Western world and, especially in the UAE, are adapting to the changing needs of society with new legal developments in thinking for a modern age.

Recent changes in commercial law have liberalised the legal regimes. This has spilled over to the criminal law which has created a more open and understandable environment.

In the Constitution of the UAE, Islam is identified as the State religion as well as the principal source of law. Although the principles of Sharia influence criminal and civil laws, the direct influence of Sharia in the UAE is primarily confined to social laws, such as family law, divorce or succession (Khedr and Alnuaim, 2010). Most commercial matters are now dealt with by either civil courts or permanently established arbitration tribunals.

Criminal law is influenced by Sharia but like business law, it has evolved and adapted to meet the requirements of a modern developing society by creating criminal legal codes based to a lesser degree Egyptian and French law (Sabah, 2012). The criminal legal codes have made criminal law less reliant on Sharia Courts.

UAE Court System

There are three main branches within the court structure: civil, criminal and Sharia or Islamic law. The court structure in general is comprised of the following courts: the Court of First Instance, the Court of Appeal and the Court of Cassation. The Court of First Instance includes the Civil Court, the Criminal Court and the Sharia Court.

Criminal Courts and Sharia Courts

Criminal courts in the UAE work alongside Sharia courts. The criminal courts, in general will hear all criminal cases reported to them. The Sharia court is the Islamic court in the UAE and is primarily responsible for civil matters between Muslims. Non-Muslims will not appear before a Sharia court in any matter. Sharia courts have the exclusive jurisdiction to hear family disputes, including matters involving divorce, inheritances, child custody, child abuse and guardianship of minors.

In the absence of any particular provision in the UAE codified law, the Islamic principles of Sharia as found in the Islamic Sharia textbooks are applied. However, the criminal law is mainly contained in the Law of Criminal Procedure Law, No. (35) of 1992; it being codified means few criminal cases are referred to Sharia Courts (Sabah, 2012).

The Court of Cassation

The Court of Cassation is the highest court in the UAE, and it will only hear disputes on matters of law. The Court of Cassation will not only act as an appellate court with respect to the decisions of lower courts, but will also supervise these lower courts to ensure that they are applying and interpreting the law correctly. Lower courts must abide by the legal principles set down by the Court of Cassation.

Criminal Cases

Criminal cases or actions in the UAE commence with the filing of a complaint with the local police in the jurisdiction where the offense was committed. During the investigation, police may take the statements of any parties involved. Following this initial investigation, local police usually refer the matter to the prosecutor's office within 48 hours of the filing of the complaint. The police may refer the matter to the prosecutor for advice prior to officially forwarding the case with a recommendation to press charges.

The prosecutor's office will then investigate the matter, take the statements of any parties involved, and hear their witnesses or any other person the prosecutor decides has information relevant to the matter. The prosecutor's office will then decide either to refer the matter to the court or to decline to press charges in the absence of sufficient evidence that a crime has been committed. The prosecutor must decide either to press charges or drop the case within 14 days of receiving the case from the police. If the prosecutor needs more time to reach a decision, he may file a request for an extension with the court, which is approved or denied at the court's discretion. Although it happens extremely rarely and only in extenuating circumstances, cases have been known to sit with the prosecutor as long as a year (Sakr, 2005).

The Constitution and Accountability

The Constitution of the UAE provides a legal and political framework for the operation of the UAE as a federation of seven emirates. The Constitution came into effect on 2 December 1971. The Constitution encompasses the fundamental social and economic basis of the Union. Of particular relevance to police and the citizens of the UAE are Articles 14, 25 and 28 of the Constitution. Article 14 relates to equality, social justice. It enshrines the right for safety and security and equality of opportunity for all citizens.

Article 25 relates to right for all persons to be seen as equal before the law, without distinction between citizens of the Union in regard to race, nationality, religious belief or social status. Article 28 enshrines the principle that an accused person shall be innocent until proven guilty (Helplinelaw).

The Constitution provides accountability by the State. The three pillars of the State, the executive, the judiciary and the legislature, all play a role in police accountability. State accountability regarding the police involves establishing the framework within which the police should operate. Each pillar of the State has its own responsibilities. The legislature is responsible for defining the boundaries of the framework, the executive is responsible for implementing the framework and the judiciary and the legislature are responsible for assessing whether the framework has been implemented correctly. If the framework within which the police have to carry out their functions is inadequate, unlawful or corrupt in any way, the police find themselves handicapped and will have difficulty in carrying out their functions legitimately and professionally (Spires, 2011). If the framework is not maintained and if the police can ignore regulations without consequences, this will result in a lack of accountability and ultimately impunity for police misconduct. ADP is accountable for its actions and operates within the Constitution of the UAE which provides a good foundation between the UAE public and police.

Abu Dhabi Police and Abu Dhabi Citizens

Listening to the public or citizen is a key area for ADP. The police may exercise accountability and respond to the public either through a formal institution established for this purpose or through more informal groups, some of which may operate completely outside government control. Through public accountability measures, the police can show that they appreciate community concerns and take these into account in setting priorities. By being responsive to the public, police can enhance “public consent”, which is commonly seen as a precondition for effective policing within a democratic framework (Bayley, 2006). ADP formally established its Community Police Department in 2005 in recognition of its commitment to community policing and the philosophy of meeting the policing needs of Abu Dhabi citizens.

In the UAE a mix of traditional and modern forms of government institutions coexist and supplement each other. This can be seen in operation should a citizen have a concern in connection with ADP. A citizen may express their concern directly to their leaders via traditional mechanisms, such as the open majlis, or informal assembly. This in turn results in ADP being made accountable to the respective leader receiving the concern.

ADP is an organisation that police with public consent and support.

1.9 Strategic Development Stage: 1995 - Present Day

Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed Al Nahyan assumed the role of General Commander of ADP in 1995. In 2004, he oversaw the introduction of the first ADP Strategic Plan (2004-2008). The succeeding ADP Strategic Plan 2008-2012 and ADP Strategic Plan 2013-2015 were both in pursuit of optimum effectiveness and efficiency. In particular, this stage witnessed restructuring and growth of the organisation and the development of concise strategic targets, a focus on employee development as well as significant future technology acquisitions. All with the intention to provide safety, security and an optimum quality of life for the community (Abu Dhabi Police Strategy 2008-2012 and Abu Dhabi Police Strategy 2013-2015).

Sheikh Saif Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, launched the Ministry of Interior (sister organisation to ADP) Strategic Plan for 2014-2016. He said on this occasion, “The wheel of the permanent development could not turn on consistently and accelerate without the unlimited support and the sharp vision of Sheikh Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, President or be consolidated without His Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President, Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai (Ministry of Interior Strategy 2014-2016).

As a result of accelerated changes in the world and in Abu Dhabi and in order to achieve the vision of the Emirate of Abu Dhabi to be one of the most developed capitals; the ADP prepares and updates its strategic plan annually in line with the requirements of the general secretariat of the executive council and achievements of Abu Dhabi government's outputs in line with the continuous variables in the population structure and urban expansion. In other words, the ADP updates its plans based on analysis of the internal and external environment surrounding ADP and knowledge of the best practices to achieve its strategic goals and priorities and organises all its resources to realise these goals.

1.10 Change Programme and Vision, Mission & Values

In January 2013 ADP updated its strategic plan and its Vision, Mission and Values:

Vision

To help ensure that Abu Dhabi remains one of the safest societies in the world, by providing high quality policing services to those who live, work and visit the Emirate.

Mission

Our purpose is to bring about a safer society, to maintain stability, to reduce crime and contribute to the delivery of justice in a way which secures and maintains public confidence.

Values

We will maintain our integrity at the highest levels at all times, including our concern for human rights. We will deliver a fair and courteous service to our community. We recognise and value individual and corporate achievements, through promoting teamwork, and encouraging innovation. We recognise that effective communication with our staff and stakeholders is of paramount importance to achieve our objectives. We will pursue excellence in all of what we do. (ADP Police Magazine, February 2013).

The ADP change programme is aligned to the UAE Government strategy. In 2007 the UAE Government launched its second strategy, inspired by the National Work Programme of Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, President of the UAE. One of the UAE Government's goals was aimed at, "safeguarding public safety and security from all threats at all times, and providing assurance to the public on national security, reduced crime rates, and rapid response to emergencies. It also seeks to guarantee the rights of individuals and businesses through a fair and effective judicial system "(Highlights of the UAE Government Strategy 2011-2013, p.14).

The UAE Government provides certain guarantees of safety and security. These guarantees are highlighted in the UAE Government strategy and especially in relation to public safety when it stipulates:

"The UAE Government will guarantee a safe public and fair judiciary through the following strategic directions:

1. Safeguard public safety and security and ensure national emergency readiness by ensuring national security, maintaining public safety, enhancing emergency readiness, strengthening border control, and promoting road safety and reducing traffic accident rates.

2. Improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the judicial system by improving governance of the judicial system, attracting qualified judges and experts - especially Emiratis - to the judicial sector, modernising judicial services through improving systems and procedures, enhancing judicial inspection, adopting alternative arbitration systems, and establishing specialised courts and developing specialisations in judges and staff". (Extract from the Highlights of the UAE Government Strategy 2011-2013.

<http://www.uaecabinet.ae/English/Documents/PMO%20StrategyDocEngFinV2.pdf> (Accessed 24.4.14) The ADP change programme cannot be seen as being totally independent from the UAE government. The government sets the agenda and strategy and ADP applies and implements it.

In 2014 the UAE launched the UAE Government Vision 2021 documents which grew out of and in many respects captures the sentiments of the UAE Government Strategy 2011-2013. Vision 2021 offered continuity and consistency in its approach to safety and security and reflects the previous strategy (UAE Government Vision 2021).

An assessment of the United Arab Emirates change programme would suggest that since the country's creation in 1971 it has been stable and progressive with its citizens enjoying very high standards of living and freedom.

This being said, if the UAE were to be compared to Bahrain there would be certain similarities relating to history and nationhood. Bahrain, against a background of uprisings in several Arab countries, has seen social and political unrest which persists into 2013, although it is severely repressed. (Compagnie Francaise D'assurance Pour Le Commerce Exterieur (Coface) (08/2013).

The unrest in Bahrain was particularly intense in early 2011 and led at the time to military intervention by Saudi Arabia at the request of the Sunni King Hamad ben Issa Al-Khalifa.

The Shiites of Bahrain, representing about 70% of the population, are economically and politically marginalised by the ruling Sunnis and are demanding, in particular, stronger parliamentary powers (Coface, 08/2013). In the October 2010 parliamentary elections, Al-Wifaq, the main Shiite group, came out on top but its members have since withdrawn in protest against repression of the demonstrations.

They were replaced by independents after by-elections in October 2011. A boycott by Al-Wifaq in 2014 increases the risk of a Shiite insurrection against the ruling family. To these sharp tensions are added geo-political uncertainties chiefly linked to the proximity of Iran (Coface, 08/2014).

Progress in Bahrain has been made and in 2011 the Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry (BICI) was established by the King of Bahrain after the Arab Spring of 2010 and continued unrest in Bahrain in February and March of 2011.

The Commission's remit was to enquire into the reasons of the unrest in Bahrain. The BICI Report confirmed the Bahraini government's use of physical and psychological abuse on detainees, as well as other human rights violations, (Report of the Bahrain Independent Commission of Enquiry, (BICI), 2011, p. 298). The final report has been criticised for not disclosing the names of individual perpetrators of abuses and extending accountability only to those who actively carried out human rights violations. (Coates, 2011). Prior to the Arab Spring it could be suggested that there was a certain level of security and stability complacency within Bahrain.

Both the UAE and Bahrain are members of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), a political and military alliance that also includes Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Oman and Kuwait.

In 2011, Saudi Arabia and UAE sent forces to support Bahrain's rulers and quell pro-democracy demonstrators demanding reforms. The GCC created the "Gulf Waves Force" deployed under a joint security cooperation agreement among Gulf Cooperation Council States in response to Bahrain's request for assistance.

The Gulf Wave Force included 500 police from the UAE and about 1,000 troops from Saudi Arabia as reported by Hamad I Mohammed (2014). The National Newspaper. (online) 4 March 2014. Available from: <http://www.thenational.ae/world/emirati-officer-dies-in-bahrain-bomb-explosion>. (Accessed: 1.8.15).

Demonstrations remain frequent and often lead to clashes with security forces and on 3 March 2014 one such clash resulted in the death of an UAE Police Officer. UAE Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior HH Lt. General Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan has mourned the death of an Emirati First Lieutenant, who died in Bahrain while combating terrorists, as reported in the Gulf Business on 4 March 2014. Available from: <http://gulfbusiness.com/2014/03/uae-officer-among-three-policemen-killed-in-bahrain-blast/#.VcNayXGqqko>. (Accessed: 1.8.15).

While the critical analyses suggested some similarities between Bahrain and the UAE, there are some fundamental differences such as in the religious profile of the population and wealth of the UAE. Other factors suggest, even after the Arab Spring of 2010, that the UAE will continue to remain a safe and secure country.

This is supported by the UK Government Travel Advice for travellers to the UAE, which states, "Over a million British visitors travel to the UAE every year and more than 100,000 British nationals are resident there. The vast majority of visits are trouble-free, but you should take sensible precautions to protect yourself and your belongings" (www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice). (Accessed: 22 August 2013). With ever growing

tensions in the Middle East no person or country can be complacent of their safety or security.

1.11 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) Structure of Organisation.

Abu Dhabi Police is organised upon the lines of a modern first world police force. An organisation chart is contained in Appendix 'B'.

1.12 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) Ranks and Numbers

In 1957 Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) was formed by the then ruler of Abu Dhabi, Sheikh Shakhbut bin Al Nahyan under the guidance and support of the then British government. The British influence was still prevalent in the organisation of ADP in 1957 and the rank structure was, and still is, based on British military lines as follows:

General, Lt General, Major General, Brigadier, Colonel, Lt Colonel, Major, Captain, 1st Lieutenant, Lieutenant, 1st Warrant Officer, Warrant Officer, 1st Sergeant, Sergeant, Corporal, 1st Policeman/woman, Policeman/woman.

For the purposes of this research, the main participant focus will be on senior police leaders who hold the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier and also hold the position as Head of Department in ADP. See Appendix 'C' for ranks and insignias.

The total ADP strength is 35,000 and this number is broken down as follows: **General 1, Lt General 2, Major General 8 and Brigadier, Colonel, Lt Colonel 44.** The number of the remaining ranks of Major, Captain, 1st Lieutenant, Lieutenant, 1st Warrant Officer, Warrant Officer, 1st Sergeant, Sergeant, Corporal, 1st Policeman/woman, Policeman/woman for security reasons will remain confidential. (Source: ADP Statistics,

HR Planning Dept. ADP on 31.12.14)

1.13 Police Functions and Numbers

Ultimately to preserve public order, so that that people within its jurisdiction of a State can enjoy their rights, is the responsibility the State. It usually rests, with the permission of the State, for police organisations to carry out certain functions. Police are required, at a bare minimum, to perform three basic functions which are to maintain public order, prevent and detect crime, and provide assistance (OECD DAC Handbook on Security Systems, 2007). These three basic functions are carried out by the police in most countries of the world.

Police forces are organised in different ways in different countries. Some countries have more than one level of police force, for example state police, communal or municipal police, judicial police or gendarmerie, all of which perform some policing duties. These differences should be borne in mind when making comparisons between countries and when considering the number of police.

As countries develop and evolve more functions may be added to countries policing responsibilities. These added functions can including: firefighting duties, prison duties , transport (railway/river etc.) duties , parking control , border and immigration control, administrative functions such as issuing passports and driving licences), prosecution functions , national security and intelligence functions and protection of VIPs. Some of the additional tasks, such as firefighting, and some of the administrative functions may actually be of help in improving police relations with the community (UN Handbook on police accountability, oversight and integrity, 2011)

In any organisation people are the most essential factor in ensuring success or failure. Police personnel are the prime resource available for achieving policing objectives; they are also the most visible as police tend to work in uniforms.

In order to undertake basic functions, police need sufficient personnel. However, calculating and deciding on police numbers can be difficult especially when deciding on numbers that can effectively carryout certain police functions. Importantly police/public ratios across countries differ widely. European police officers per 100,000 population in 2012 show a wide variation (Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014). However, the data available gives a comprehensive indication of police/public ratio numbers in Europe. The Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014 provide the police/public ratios across European countries per 100,000 population. This data provides a number of interesting figures. For example the Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014 show that the police/public ratios police officers per 100,000 in Montenegro is the highest in Europe with 679 police officers per 100,000 population; Italy has 466; Germany has 298; England and Wales has 234; and the lowest figure is Finland with 149 police officers per 100,000 population.(Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014).

The average police/public ratio of roughly 1: 300 for countries within the European Union. Allen and Dempsey (2016) provide a note of caution when comparing police/public ratios

within Europe and warn that such figures should be viewed with caution as many States have different levels of police forces with police powers which may or may not be included in the Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014.

European police numbers should be viewed with caution. However, as it is often difficult to establish exactly how many police there are in a given country at a given point in time. This being said, the Eurostat, Crime Statistics, 2014 provide a good indication of police strength and ratios in Europe.

With the aforementioned in mind, when examining the ADP function and police strength, the following picture emerges as regards ADP especially regarding the overall workforce of ADP. The police officer strength of ADP is roughly 35,000. Although this number might seem to be far larger than equivalent police forces in Europe; there is good reason for this. The reason is mainly due to the fact that ADP provides many services to the Abu Dhabi community that many other police forces in the Western world do not. Such services provided by ADP include comprehensive social work services, ambulance services, prison services, fire services (These four services would normally be provided by other entities in Europe. For instance the UK Police Service does not use regular police officers to carry out these four functions), traffic services including highways and motorways, establishment and key installations protection, juvenile correction and after care, custody transport, all airport security and passenger searches, transport policing (public buses and trains), drivers and vehicle licensing administration. Police officers in ADP working on those services number around 12,000 which equates to approximately 34% of the total workforce (Source: HR Planning Dept. ADP on 31.12.14).

When initially comparing the 35,000 ADP officers to the total population of the UAE, the police/public ratio of police officers per 100,000 population is 1070 in number. When compared for instance to Montenegro which has 679 police officers for every 100,000 population; ADP has a higher number of police officers. On the other hand, if we exclude the 12,000 ADP officers undertaking non-core police functions that are excluded, in general, from the three basic functions of public order, prevention and detection of crime (OECD DAC Handbook on Security Systems, 2007) and then compare to Montenegro the ratio will drop to 700 ADP officers for every 100,000 population.

In conclusion, ADP performs many additional functions that many European police forces do not. However, the ADP police/public ratio of police officers per 100,000 population is relatively higher than European countries.

1.14 Influence of Global Security Changes

The Emirate of Abu Dhabi, like most regions and not just those in the Gulf Cooperation Council, will continue to be reshaped by global forces, some of which have developed over many centuries and others that remain relatively new. These global forces will undoubtedly involve connectivity opportunities, geopolitical (political geography, international relations, the territorial aspects of political science and international law) power shifts, technological developments, demographic change, climate change, growing resource scarcity and changing values. Collectively, they will be responsible for creating a society that is fast paced, heterogeneous, complex and very unpredictable.

In 2011, the Arab Spring stemmed from a crisis of governmental accountability and legitimacy in many countries of the Arab world (<http://reports.weforum.org/outlook-2012/>) (Accessed: 5 December 2013). India saw similar protests against abuse of power and impunity in politics and the domination of economic conglomerates with privileged connection to the government. Protests against government austerity measures also shook a number of European countries.

As a lack of economic prospects, political instability, decreasing opportunities for social mobility and increasing inequalities remain a fact of life for many across the globe, further social unrest; political discontent and extremism are likely to remain major issues for the near future. Geopolitical factors in particular, may be responsible for significantly influencing the work of Abu Dhabi Police; many of these factors may result from a number of localised situations including in Egypt where a wave of uprisings saw the ousting of a long serving president followed by the ousting of a newly elected president which was shortly followed in 2014 by the installation of a former military leader; all of which leaves political uncertainty. Libya has not fared any better after lengthy protests against the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya escalated and Libya entered a period of governance by a transitional administration called the National Transitional Council. In Sudan a referendum resulted in the split of the country into two parts, with the south continuing to experience violence amongst the population. Further to this, there is continuing unrest in Bahrain by Al-Wifaq (Shiite group) which boycotted the 2014 elections; the Houthis' civil war in Yemen; the conflict in Sudan and the continued threat from Al-Qaeda and the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL); all of which are just a few examples of the effects of geopolitics.

Additional policing considerations will also include the need for increased effort in the prevention and investigation of international organised crime threats operating within the United Arab Emirates and transnational, in which the United Arab Emirates is exploited as a transhipment destination. These will also be influenced by geopolitical concerns that continue to persuade policing models and styles to facilitate and maintain the integrity of land, sea and air borders.

1.15 Political

The 2013 Human Development Report, "The Rise of the South: Human Progress in a Diverse World" looks at the evolving geopolitics of our times, examining emerging issues and trends and also the new actors which are shaping the development landscape.

The Report describes the rise of the South as radically reshaping the world of the 21st Century, with developing nations driving economic growth, lifting hundreds of millions of people from poverty, and propelling billions more into a new global middle class. United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP) 2013 Human Development Report (p6).

Available at:

<http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/presscenter/pressreleases/2013/03/14/-rise-of-south-transforming-global-power-balance-says-2013-human-development-report.html>

(Accessed: 5 May 2013)

This phenomenon goes well beyond the so-called BRICs, middle - income countries often represented by Brazil, Russia, India and China.

The report shows that more than 40 developing countries have made greater human development gains in recent decades than would have been predicted. These achievements, according to the report, are largely attributable to sustained investment in education, health care and social programmes, and open engagement with an increasingly interconnected world. The report warns that nonresponsive political structures can prompt civil unrest, especially if economic opportunity does not keep pace with educational advancement, as in the countries that were part of 2011's uprisings in the Arab States region. These social tensions are also acutely felt currently in many developed countries where austerity policies and declining growth impose hardships on millions. Available at:

<http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/presscenter/pressreleases/2013/03/14/-rise-of-south-transforming-global-power-balance-says-2013-human-development-report.html>

(Accessed: 5 May 2013)

Political interference in public institutions has led to widespread distrust amongst many. This widespread trust problem has been driven by suspicions that politicians are serving only their own needs rather than the public interest. Many public institutions around the world have been seen as incapable of dealing with economic and environmental crises,

delivering sustainable economic growth and jobs and a levelling of the apparent rising inequalities. Eroding trust in governments and markets is believed by a number of analysts to further weaken the outlook for economic recovery. In the long-term, this may result in further and more damaging civil unrest, political instability and potentially extremism. In particular, the younger generation has been significantly affected by the economic downturn. Because they are experiencing high levels of unemployment and the erosion of opportunity, they are seeking what they see as some form of revenge or justice.

Political turmoil, leading to civil unrest has spread throughout the Arab world. The uprisings in Tunisia, Libya and Egypt led to the fall of national leaders, in the Libyan case through the direct intervention of North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO). After a brief period of calm, a situation of unrest and turmoil has returned.

How the African Union and the Arab League adjust to the political transformations of Tunisia, Egypt and Libya will also be closely watched by external powers as it represents the most significant challenge to authoritarian rule since the collapse of Soviet communism.

Meanwhile, Saudi Arabia has expanded its embrace of reform, especially through the Gulf Cooperation Council and diplomacy in Libya and Bahrain, according to the World Economic Forum (<http://reports.weforum.org/outlook-2012/>) (Accessed: 5 December 2013). While Saudi Arabia uses diplomacy as its mainstay with its neighbours, this has not always been the case. When the unrest in Bahrain was particularly intense in early 2011 it led at the time to a Saudi Arabian military intervention at the request of the Sunni King Hamad ben Issa Al-Khalifa of Bahrain.

Even with the Saudi Arabian military intervention there is continued unrest in Bahrain with the United Kingdom (UK) government issuing advice on 22 August 2013 to travellers visiting Bahrain to "Maintain a constant awareness of your surroundings, especially as unrest continues and violent protests pose a risk" (p2). The situation still remains volatile in Bahrain. Extract from: <https://www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice/bahrain/> (Accessed 22 August 2013)

The long running dispute in Yemen with the Houthis resulted in the 2014 insurgency with Houthi fighters swept into Sana'a, the capital, and effectively seized control of the city from the Yemeni military within a couple of days in September 2014.

On 25 March 2015, Saudi Arabia and several other countries announced that they had begun military operations in Yemen against Houthi rebels. Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates issued a statement along with Saudi Arabia saying their goal is

to "repel Houthi aggression" in Yemen. Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, and Sudan are also members of the coalition. (BBC News, 26 March 2015 Available at: <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-32061632>). (Accessed: 1.8.15)

On 9 August 2015 the National Newspaper announced that the sixth UAE soldier had died since March 2015 fighting in Yemen with GCC forces in Yemen. (Available at: <http://www.thenational.ae/uae/government/three-emirati-soldiers-killed-in-yemen-laid-to-rest---in-pictures>) (Accessed: 15.8.14).

The turmoil in Syria has however continued to worsen. Regular clashes between protesters, government forces have reportedly left tens of thousands of people dead, and there appears to be no plausible end to the bloodshed. The Syrian conflict, initially seen as a fight of democracy against dictatorship, transformed into a conflict between various ethnic groups. Extract from: <http://www.weforum.org/news> (Accessed: 24 January 2013). It was the emergence of the threat from the group known as ISIS, ISIL sometimes called the Islamic State or 'Daesh' in Arabic has gained global notoriety in early 2014 that their threat to Syria, Iraq and the region reached a tipping point and saw the international community intervene. What marks ISIS out is that it has claimed statehood and with that has established some of the machinery of state management. ISIS has not only proclaimed a new Caliphate, but also administers the area of northern Iraq and eastern Syria where it holds sway. It handles law and order, some social services on a selective basis, and has an intelligence service and system of informers set up for it by former officials of the overthrown Ba'athist regime of Saddam Hussein. It has acquired funds to make it the richest non-state armed force in the world. Extract from: The Global Risks report 2015, World Economic Forum, p17 found in <http://www.weforum.org/reports/global-risks-report-2015> (Accessed on 1 February 2015).

Secretary General Ronald Nobel, International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol) speaking at an official visit on Doha, Qatar on 14 September 2014 denounced Islamic State and went on to report that religious tensions are a permanent source of conflict and instability worldwide suggesting the opportunities for a disruption in global geo-politics remains evident. Coupled with the potential for radical Islamists to gain significant power within the region, significant caution will be required. Extract from: INTERPOL News and Media found in <http://www.interpol.int/News-and-media/News/2014/N2014-17> (Accessed on 1 February 2015).

1.16 Cyber Security

New developments have made it easier for people to connect with the Internet. At the same time, these new developments have increased the potential for both the occurrence of cyber crime and cyber attacks. Such devices provide the means and opportunity for criminals and terrorists to launch attacks on communication infrastructures that could lead to potential devastating consequences in a world in which interconnectedness protects, assists and enables safety, security and sustainability of so many areas of business.

Cyber crime has been attributed to many other crimes associated with organised crime. Drug trafficking, human trafficking, online fraud and scams are all supported by Information Communications Technologies. Cyber hacking has a number of close parallels with the international trade in illegal drugs. It has grown from a cottage industry into a global business. Accordingly, cyber criminals are using individuals to transfer money in much the same way as drug smugglers use carriers to transport drugs. Terrorists have also understood the capabilities surrounding cyber related criminal activities, many of which tend to be labelled as precursor crimes for terrorist activities. Popular cyber crimes include distribution and sale of illicit medicines, distribution of child pornography, money laundering, fraud and related scams, identity fraud and even extortion.

Cyber crime and cyber attacks continue to be of concern for government entities, multinational corporations and small businesses, all of which are open to Denial of Service (DOS) attacks and other similar harmful and penetrative attempts to prevent and disrupt services. These attacks can happen for the amusement of the perpetrator or for financial gain. The most significant problem facing law enforcement has become the ability for perpetrators to hide their online movements, often making it impossible to accurately track what they are doing.

The scale of cyber fraud currently experienced by the world's banks is high enough, potentially; to trigger another global financial crisis (<http://www.thenational.ae/lifestyle/personal-finance/cyber-crime-could-trigger-a-global-crisis?pageCount=0>) (Accessed: 31 December 2014) Estimates suggest gangs are now stealing billions of dollars on a regular basis. There are also reports that cyber criminals are using vast wealth resources to buy political influence and other forms of protection for their illegal activities. Although there are no reliable statistics available for cyber fraud, security experts believe that the cyber hacking of banks is far more lucrative for organised crime than the global trade in illegal drugs.

According to Interpol (Interpol 2011 Environmental Scan), organised criminal groups that exploit Information Communications Technology can be divided into three distinct categories or groups. The first of these groups are based on traditional organised

criminal groups which make use of Information Communications Technologies to enhance their terrestrial criminal activities. Secondly, there are organised cybercriminal groups which operate exclusively online. The third are organised groups of ideologically and politically motivated individuals who make use of Information Communications Technologies to facilitate their criminal conduct (Interpol 2011 Environmental Scan found at: www.interpol.int/.../INTERPOL.../INTERPOLENVIRONMENTALSCAN (Accessed 5 December 2013).

Popularity in the last two years of online social networking accounts has seen an increase in identify fraud and new risks that challenge the safety of children. Criminals are using the Internet to communicate across international boundaries, commit financial crimes and hack into banking systems, in addition to people's personal accounts for purposes of identity theft. As the use of the Internet increases, criminals will be provided with increasing opportunities in which to commit more online crime.

James B. Comey, Director, Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) statement in testimony on 14 November 2013 before the Senate Committee on Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs, Washington, D.C. indicated that threats posed to organisations and individuals through cyber crime have increased faster than potential victims or cyber security professionals can cope, placing targeted organisations and individuals at significant risk. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) anticipate in the future, resources devoted to cyber-based threats will equal or even eclipse the resources devoted to non-cyber based terrorist threats. Driven by the prospect of significant profits, cyber criminals' technology and methods have outpaced traditional security models and many current signature based detection technologies. As a result, greater awareness of these crimes is still required along with the necessary training and technology to allow law enforcement and regulatory bodies to respond effectively. Extract from: James B. Comey, Director, Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) statement in testimony on 14 November 2013 before the Senate Committee on Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs, Washington, D.C. found at: <http://www.fbi.gov/news/testimony/homeland-threats-and-the-fbis-response> (Accessed 1 February 2014).

Police and other law enforcement agencies continue to make cybercrime a priority in 2015. One such agency is Europol.

Europol is the European Union's law enforcement agency whose main goal is to help achieve a safer Europe for the benefit of all EU citizens. Europol does this by assisting the European Union's Member States in their fight against serious international crime and terrorism. Available at: www.europol.europa.eu/content/page/about-us (Accessed 28 June 2015)

To combat international crime and terrorism Europol launched the Joint Cybercrime Action Taskforce (J-CAT) on 1 September 2014 to further strengthen the fight against

cybercrime in the European Union and beyond. The Joint Cybercrime Action Taskforce (J-CAT) was initially set up for a period of six months using the latest technologies and using an international police liaison model which extended beyond Europe. J-CAT was further extended in June 2015 and made permanent feature of Europol. A new release from Europol in June 2015 quoted Andy Archibald from the UK's National Cybercrime Unit, the agency leading J-CAT, as saying, "These modern, professional, internationally-operating cybercriminals ask for strong cross-border law enforcement coordination and cooperation, and the J-CAT delivers exactly that". Available at: www.europol.europa.eu/latest_news/mandate-joint-cybercrime-action-taskforce-extended-after-successful-first-six-months (Accessed 28 June 2015)

Europol in 2015 reflects the priorities of the FBI and Interpol in that one of Europol's main priorities is to combat international criminal and terrorist groups, especially those using cyber space. J-CAT is a reflection of the need for countries to counter international criminal and terrorist groups in the new cyber environment. Police and other law enforcement agencies continue to make cybercrime a priority. One such agency is Europol.

Europol is the European Union's law enforcement agency whose main goal is to help achieve a safer Europe for the benefit of all EU citizens. Europol does this by assisting the European Union's Member States in their fight against serious international crime and terrorism. Available at: www.europol.europa.eu/content/page/about-us (Accessed 28 June 2015)

To combat international crime and terrorism crime Europol launched on 1 September 2014 to further strengthen the fight against cybercrime in the European Union and beyond, the Joint Cybercrime Action Taskforce (J-CAT), initially set up for a period of six months. J-CAT was further extended in June 2015 and made permanent feature of Europol. A new release from Europol in June 2015 quoted Andy Archibald from the UK's National Cybercrime Unit, the agency leading J-CAT as saying, "These modern, professional, internationally-operating cybercriminals ask for strong cross-border law enforcement coordination and cooperation, and the J-CAT delivers exactly that". Available at: www.europol.europa.eu/latest_news/mandate-joint-cybercrime-action-taskforce-extended-after-successful-first-six-months (Accessed 28 June 2015)

Europol in 2015 reflects the priorities of the FBI and Interpol in that one of Europol's main priorities is to combat international criminal and terrorist groups. J-CAT is a reflection of the need for countries to counter international criminal and terrorist groups. .

1.17 Governance

The past few years have seen the fall of a number of authoritarian regimes in the Arab world. The regimes that have replaced them as well as other leaders are being challenged by popular protests. The evolving situation has made the region a testing ground for a new start. States and governing structures, such as the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), are now involved in a paradigm shift that involves bottoms up approach that acknowledges the aspirations of civil society. They are examining the role of democracy as a new governance model.

The three enabling pillars of this new approach are, according to the World Economic Forum (WEF):

1. The development of a clear path ensuring macroeconomic stability and exploring region-wide solutions.
2. Stakeholder engagement expanding youth employment, enhancing business stability promoting inclusive growth.
3. Building institutions of good governance (World Economic Forum – Global Risks 2011 www.riskreport.weforum.org) (Accessed 31 December 2014).

Throughout the Middle East and North Africa, civilian protests and revolts have erupted, as people's frustrations with their conditions appear to have boiled over. At the end of 2010, a 26-year-old Tunisian fruit vendor chose to set himself on fire in protest at his treatment by local authorities. The ensuing public outrage eventually ousted a 23-year old dictatorship. Nevertheless, this event was not limited to just Tunisia (<http://www.globalissues.org/article/792/mideast-north-africa-unrest>) (Accessed 31 December 2014).

A major threat to global security remains because of global failures in overall governance. Global hardship, increased resentment and extremism amongst disaffected groups and movements can equally lead to unrest amongst certain communities or populations. The threats that remain for many countries resulting from the large low paid workforces incorporating substantial numbers of people from differing countries, ethnic groups, religions and political persuasions is increasing the likelihood for localised public disorder. Coupled with low standards of living conditions, and non-payment of wages, the likelihood of unrest further increases, therefore also increasing the importance for the monitoring of tensions within these groups, whilst ensuring intelligence gathering remains effective.

The growth of the information society poses significant new governance challenges for the global community. In order for civil society to work properly under these new conditions, there needs to be a deeper understanding of foundational values, norms and

responsibilities of all members of society. The rights, needs and responsibilities of enterprises, organisations and nations need to align with those of civil society and individuals. However, the difficulty for governance in the information society is that it also hampers the ability to freely discover, innovate and share knowledge, which ideally should always be balanced equally with the need to protect, control and commercialise proprietary interests.

According to Harlow and Rawlings (2007), successful governance frameworks are derived not in the sense of regulation or policy, but in terms of defining roles and responsibilities of the actors within the system. This requires well-formed goals and metrics that are mutually recognised by all stakeholders. Governance frameworks should be opt-in and multi-jurisdictional with clear accountability and independent audit. They must include informal as well as formal structures of power and influence (Rawlings, 2010). Accordingly, the large body of new regulation now produced at transnational and domestic levels has increased overall complexity as well as inefficiencies. Both regulation and deregulation may also have counter effects that can be taken advantage of by malicious actors. For example, illicit trade, offshore taxes and tax evasion are typically characterise free trade zones.

A new approach combining the efficiency benefits of deregulation with the transparency provided by controls is now being encouraged. Rules are being simplified and streamlined to make them more transparent, better understood and easier to enforce (Harlow and Rawlings, 2007).

1.18 Policing Capability

World trends and environmental scans aim to provide an early warning of trends and issues in the external operating environment likely to shape the Emirate of Abu Dhabi over the next five to ten years and beyond.

Increasing expectations for informed decision-making provide a wide-ranging account of key issues such as demographic, fiscal and legislative trends that could also more specifically influence the future delivery of policing services in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi.

Being aware of environmental influences upon ADP provides an understanding of current drivers of change and evaluates how they may influence criminal trends of the future within the Emirate of Abu Dhabi.

The increasing transnational nature of crime continues to pose significant challenges to law enforcement agencies. Global criminal investigations remain complex, resource, information and intelligence intensive. They (investigations) are typically long in duration and multi-jurisdictional in nature contradicting the traditional approach by law enforcement agencies because of their fluid and diffuse nature of contemporary criminal activity. Through a mixture of national and global macro-level information, this awareness

of the environment provides a launch pad for strategic planning and a context for decision-making at all levels of the organisation.

1.19 Background to Project Management

Project management is one of the tools used to assist in the strategic planning of ADP. Project management is a concept in which knowledge, skills, tools, and techniques are applied to tasks and activities in order to meet a defined goal using the five processes of initiating, planning, executing, monitoring, and control and closing (PMBOK, 2008). The project management field has been adopted by organisations as a way of addressing the challenges facing them today such as escalation of costs, pressure from stakeholders, changing environmental conditions, lack of borrowing power with financial institutions, bureaucracy, traditional structures, rapid change of technology, and an integrated effort of complexity that is brought about by modern times (Kerzner, 2009). The concept appears to possess solutions for organisations to manage the complex world by providing them with techniques.

The fundamental challenge is the apparent lack of strategic leadership that would ensure that strategy is implemented through project execution.

It is with this in mind that the development of the discipline of project management will be explored to give a picture of its origins, together with the role leadership played in the infancy of project management in ADP. Leadership had a major role to play by introducing project management to ADP in 2004.

In the last twenty years (Kerzner, 2009; Lewis, 2001), project management's profile has risen significantly to the extent that its value to the organisation is no longer a matter of choice. As Kerzner (2009, p. 47) argues: "Today, several companies foolishly think that they still have a choice." Project management organisations such as the Association of Project Managers (APMA) in Europe, Project Management International (PMI) in the USA, and others in Canada, Australia, and Russia have been formed to organise the profession and set standards. ADP has adopted the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) as the cornerstone of project management, with the aim of enhancing effectiveness and success of project implementation through project life cycle models aligned to PMBOK. How embedded this philosophy of management is practised and understood in ADP still remains to be seen, as this research will unravel and the reader will judge. What role leadership plays in its success will be tested in the process to determine whether the success of project management has any relationship to the leadership factor.

Maravas and Pantouvakis (2012) express concern regarding PMBOK in relation to (a) an excessive control focus, (b) insufficient flexibility in the context of an evolving business strategy, (c) ineffective co-operation between projects within the programme. These

issues are traced back to the two flawed assumptions underlying programme management; namely that (a) programme management is in effect a scaled-up version of project management and (b) a 'one size fits all' approach to project and programme management (Maravas and Pantouvakis, 2012).

ADP chose PMBOK as the main methodology in project management, over its main rival called, "PRINCE2" (an acronym for Projects in Controlled Environments, Version 2). This system is found predominantly in Europe while PMBOK is found predominantly in America. Much debate centres round which system is best or indeed which system should an organisation use.

Matos and Lopes (2013) concluded, after much debate at a conference in Lisbon, that project management has become an indispensable tool. Which methodology to use, PRINCE2 or PMBOK, is simply an individual choice as both have been deemed effective and functional (Matos and Lopes, 2013).

The periods of project management development are explained by Kerzner (2009, pp. 47- 68), who describes the periods in the following manner:

"The 1960s were a period of informal project management, where the authority of the project manager was minimised. Projects took place in functional disciplines. This was a period in which there was recognition of management techniques and organisational structures that could adapt to change. Understanding of human behaviour in project management was insignificant.

The 1970s saw the complexity of projects growing to the extent that it required project management to be structured in order to formalise the project management processes. It was a period in which executive management were sceptical of the revolution created by project management because they feared it would require substantive organisational changes. Other fears within functional management involved relinquishing power, lack of visibility from top management as project managers took centre stage, and the "disruptive nature" of resource utilisation created then".

The 1980s were a period of technological revolution, whose increase is emphasised by Kerzner (2009, p. 55), who argues that "Technology as expected has the fastest rate of change, and the overall environment of a business must adapt to rapidly changing technology". This situation required the use of project teams to act as temporary management systems to meet urgent solutions.

Kerzner (2009, pp. 47- 68) further describes the 1990s and the first ten years of the new millennium as follows:

The 1990s were a period in which project management became a necessity rather than a choice. Project life cycles were developed for programmes. These became

corporate tools for implementing projects together with methodologies developed to integrate business processes. Benefit realisation processes were developed. Authority became decentralised, with the project manager's authority increasing significantly as organisations adopted structures that suited project management principles. Recognition of project management as a profession gained momentum.

The 2000s were a period in which multinational companies needed multinational project management to cater for the competitive and survival needs of companies and organisations. Programme management was developed where managing a portfolio of projects became necessary, as the majority of tasks were approached as projects. The first half of the 2000s saw the development of portfolio management, which looked at investments, governance, alignment of projects, and a strong allegiance to benefit realisation of projects, all in an attempt to showcase the effectiveness of managing through projects.

My research demonstrates how the 2010's have developed regarding leadership of strategic change in an Arab organisation.

The Information Technology (IT) success and failure profile report compiled by the Standish Group in 2011 is used to show the impact of leadership on a project's success rate as perceived by IT executive managers. It was noted that 31.1% of projects were cancelled or were never completed (Standish Chaos Report 2011, p2-10). The report emphasised that leadership was important and further suggested that close to two thirds of the success of projects rests with leadership. While the Standish Group in 2011 implied that other factors such as finance can lead to the failure of a project, they nevertheless place leadership as an important factor of success. Police managers play a critical role in the success of police projects and this research will attempt to determine if managing an IT project is radically different to managing a police project.

Although project managers can contribute to the failures of projects, the environment in which these projects function is defined by the organisation's leadership, which is responsible for the organisational structures, resourcing process, appointments of project managers, entrenching a culture of project management and taking strategic decisions for operational issues, as Steyn (1999) argues: "Management must lead the overall efforts and foster an environment conducive to teamwork." Kerzner (2009, p. 3) states that, in projects, work should flow horizontally as well as vertically within the company, and this requires that line functions talk to one another horizontally in order to perform tasks smoothly. Therefore culture and environment will be factors in this research.

Project management as a way of managing is not easy for senior management, especially if the organisation has been traditionally managed, as Meredith and Mantel (2000) argue: "Moving from a non-project environment to one in which projects are organised and used to accomplish special tasks to a full-fledged project-oriented

organisation presents senior management of a firm with an extraordinarily difficult transition." To overcome this challenge, organisations have reorganised to accommodate project management by adapting organisational structures such as functional, matrix, project, and mixed structures, all in an attempt to make a success of projects within organisations.

This research seeks to explore the current knowledge on the role leadership plays in the management of projects in ADP. It endeavours to showcase how leadership and project management have evolved over the centuries and the purpose they have served during that period, as well as their relationship. The aim is to interrogate the role and type of leadership required in project implementation and the impact thereof both at project level and at top management level regarding the effectiveness of project execution in ADP. Related to the role of leadership in project management is the question of understanding how the link between strategy and operations within project execution is affected by the presence or absence of leadership. As projects are executed at an operational level to address strategic requirements, the role leadership plays regarding project successes and failures requires some investigation.

1.20 The Role of Leadership

The concept of "project management" is used in many organisations and is sometimes confusing, as Kerzner (2009, p. 3) argues: "Project management can mean different things to different people." It is apparent that leadership has a role in making sure that the concept is understood in the same way across an organisation or else the concept will not mature, as executives, managers, and employees at operational level will have a different understanding of it, which, in turn, creates challenges. Perhaps defining what project management is will help. It is the process of planning, organising, directing, and controlling company resources in order to work the plan (Gido & Clements, 1999; Kerzner, 2009).

The structure of an organisation, its environment, its organisational power politics, and the maturity of the organisation all play a significant role in the effectiveness of managing through projects. In addition to these facets, there is a need for leadership ability in order to execute the plan. The leadership component has an impact on how an organisation embraces project management and implements it, making a major contribution to the effectiveness of this management concept. The researcher explores the role of leadership from a number of different points of view in order to determine the extent to which the importance of leadership and appropriate organisational structures and culture has been underestimated in ADP.

The researcher investigated how leadership influences the effectiveness of project management in the ADP since leadership is responsible for creating the vision, the culture, and the strategies as well as mobilising and focusing energy towards that

direction. This is supported by Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Jones, George & Hill, 2000. Project management as a discipline is prevalent in ADP and needs to be investigated in relation to the leadership factor in terms of how it is entrenched and applied as a way of doing tasks. The researcher intends to gather relevant literature that speaks to this phenomenon, holistically, from the history of project management, organisational strategies, the role of leadership in understanding project management (including transformational leadership in ADP) and the link between all of them. All of these factors need to be understood in the context of how their relationship affects effective project management in ADP. The researcher intends to establish what factors need to be present for project management to be effective and what role leadership plays in achieving this. A strategy, as a doctrine of the organisation, to measure the success of projects is essential, but this may not be holistic enough. Leadership in ADP, especially the transformational leadership role, needs to be examined in more detail.

This process requires a leadership dimension, as it is the leaders who lead into the vision and strategy through focus, buy-in, commitment, and supporting the vision.

The intention and purpose of this research is to investigate the factors that are involved with change management within the ADP. During the course of the strategic change, the United Arab Emirates (UAE) Government has sponsored and worked with ADP and encouraged certain projects. Few documented articles have been openly published in the UAE which indicate the effectiveness of projects in ADP. Literature on the effectiveness of project management within organisations would suggest few projects, in any organisation, are without problems (Lefley, 2004) (Dooley, Lupton and O'Sullivan, 2005). As a consequence, understanding the underlying causes of ineffective project management and the role leadership plays in the gaps found is important to any project (Dooley, Lupton and O'Sullivan, 2005). The information gathered in this research will assist in determining recommendations to address any issues that may be discovered during the investigation in ADP.

The point here is that, traditionally, investment has been viewed from a financial perspective to ensure success, while consideration of the alignment of projects to the corporate strategy has not been taken seriously by way of having them formalised and embedded in the organisation so that they are understood (Lefley, 2004).

The advent of modernisation and development in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has brought about the need to effectively and efficiently implement projects in ADP through appropriate leadership.

The application of principles of project management alone will not on its own realise effectiveness. First, there needs to be an appropriate environment and an in-depth understanding of project management, in which leadership plays a significant role. Failures of projects have been attributed to a variety of causes, other than leadership.

However, the relationship that exists between strategy, leadership, project leadership, and ADP structures and culture needs to be investigated.

Although research has been done on project management, little is known about the challenges of implementing it in a traditionally hierarchical police force that is in a transitional phase and about the impact it has on leadership and project success. It is clear then that the application of PMBOK cannot be done generally without considering the kind of organisation in which projects are executed. The answer may come through the investigation of those factors that hinder project management implementation in a traditionally Arab hierarchical police force, not only from an operational perspective, but from a leadership one, too. The link between strategy, leadership, project leadership, and police organisation will unravel all facets that need to be addressed in the wake of understanding project management and creating a conducive atmosphere for it to thrive effectively, thereby benefiting organisations that have chosen to manage through projects.

1.21 Significance

While Chapter 1.2 examines research uniqueness and objectives, more should be explained about the other significant factors of the study. There are several reasons why this research is significant. First, it examines uncharted territory, and as such, has the potential to inform future practice. The second reason is related to the demographics of current police officers in ADP. The third reason is related to leadership efficiency matters. The fourth reason is related to academic gaps and potential, and the fifth and final reason is related to economics. Each of these reasons is discussed in more detail below.

Uncharted territory. One significance of the current study is that it has the potential to improve upon the limited information available about the existing leadership practices that are currently in place within the Abu Dhabi Police services. It also has the potential to lay the groundwork for future police leadership studies in the Gulf region. Generally, there is a dearth of police leadership research (Haberfeld, 2006; Murphy, 1999; Schafer, 2009) and, therefore, research into the early identification of police leadership provides the opportunity to advance police leadership and change management studies in the UAE and Gulf region.

Demographics. Secondly, there are over 35,000 police officers in ADP. Projected ADP figures estimate 800-1000 could retire within the next five years. The leadership void created by this exodus of senior officers provides the opportunity for ADP to fill this leadership gap. Much of the human resource capacity is spent completing primary tasks and police chiefs recognise that developing leadership and succession planning is a

major issue facing ADP at a time of continuing change. This leadership gap will need to be filled, the question is by whom? Therefore this research could assist in the early identification of leadership potential is both timely and significant.

Leadership efficiency matters. Thirdly, in ADP it is increasingly important to identify the success factors of police leaders who have achieved success especially in relation to change management. The identification of success factors could potentially assist with the efficiency of ADP.

Academic potential. The academic potential is enormous in relation to this study. The academic study covers a number of topics, in the context of the Gulf region and in the context of a Gulf regional police service. The significance of the academic potential includes closing the gap between the literature available on police leadership which is dominated by Western literature and the police leadership literature written by only a few Arab writers; such research is also a vehicle for academic change in relation to its understanding of an Arab police service and the tools which operate within the police context; such a new area of study could potentially encourage others to embark on further follow-up studies; the research acts as an educator for ADP and UAE in their understanding of leaders; allows for the identification of the link between senior leadership and strategic change and its application in ADP; supports and enriches theory of strategic change in a public organisation; generates greater awareness among organisations of the importance of practical strategic change and its impact on efficiency; and provides useful knowledge that contribute to academia. In addition in-house research, working under the auspices of a UK university, will be received in a more open manner in the Gulf region and potentially could encourage further studies based on this current research.

The economic issue. Finally, in ADP, policing costs are increasing and the cost of development is also increasing. This research not only benefits the organisation but also the costs to the organisation. By identifying the success factors in strategic change management and assisting to identify the unsuccessful elements of change, then future leaders with the correct profile and situated in the correct post can economically save time, money and expenditure by ensuring the success of projects, success of change and success of excellent leaders.

Overall this research has the potential to be viewed as a seminal document for leadership and strategic change in the context of a Gulf regional police service and beyond.

1.22 Summary

ADP is an Arab organisation which is engaged in change management with leaders playing an essential role in the process. Leadership is one of the key ingredients for any successful police organisation. The relationship between strategic leadership, operations at project level, and deliverables on projects plays an important role in the success and failure of projects. Leadership is required both at a senior leadership and at a project level. The role of leadership in creating a conducive environment and having appropriate structures to support projects will go a long way to shed light on the factors contributing to the success of projects. The strategies need to be executed and measured against the objectives and metrics set. It is envisaged that, in the same context, the scrutiny of PMBOK together with its implementation and the practice of project management in ADP will highlight the perceived challenges of leadership that affect project execution. Leadership provides organisations with a vision for the future through change. Leadership makes sure that there is alignment to strategy regarding the operational activities and that stakeholders understand them in order to implement the vision. Leadership ensures successful motivation in order to overcome the challenges of change (Kotter, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001; Lynch, 2011). This research seeks to find out whether it is the case in ADP that projects are the vehicles to execute strategy. This will help to identify the leadership styles and competencies that can contribute to the question of the need for strategic leadership in ADP in order to enhance project execution, which, by its nature, requires vision and the implementation of change. The research will further outline the role statecraft has on the leadership of ADP. The concepts of leadership, project management, systems thinking, organisational structures, and performance will be explored in the thesis. In addition to this relationship between statecraft and leadership will be examined in regard of change in a UAE policing environment. This is done in order to have an understanding of the context in relation to the leadership challenges during strategic change.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. THE IDEAL LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review will consist of the following concepts: leadership, police leadership, strategy, project management, statecraft, organisational structures, culture, effectiveness, and efficiency. All these concepts or strands are interrelated and help to give a more in-depth understanding how ADP functions and how change is managed in an evolving organisation. The theoretical framework that describes this research will conclude the literature review.

A definition from Onwuegbuzie et al. (2010) states that a literature review is, "an interpretation of a selection of published and/or unpublished documents available from various sources on a specific topic that optimally involves summarisation, analyses, evaluation and synthesis of the documents "(p.173). A very similar definition was provided by Fink (2009) who also emphasised the analysis, evaluation and report aspects of a literature review as being important. However, the definition of Onwuegbuzie et al. is relatively simple but effective.

A literature review should provide a context for the research in question and describe why it is both timely and important (Combs et al, 2010; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Rudestam & Newton, 2007). With the concept of an ideal literature review in mind, various explanations are given as to why a literature review is important for any research. The concepts of literature review are further explored, starting with contextualisation, in which Henning (2004, p. 27) argues: "The literature review is used first and foremost in the contextualisation of your study to argue a case, identify a niche to be occupied by your own research and so on." ADP will be contextualised to provide a deeper understanding of the issues in this research. A literature review can be seen as a demonstration in research thinking and doing.

2.2. LITERATURE REVIEW AIMS

In this literature review it helps to understand theories that have been used by previous researchers. This helps to bring clarity and focus to the research problem, improve on methodology, broaden the knowledge in the area of research, highlight on going discussions in literature and identify gaps in knowledge. By so doing, the study's importance is consolidated (Amaratunga & Baldry, 2001; Creswell, 2003; Kumar, 2005; Merriam, 1998).

Concepts such as leadership, police leadership, strategy, project management, organisational structures, culture and the theoretical relationships will be discussed in this chapter, with leadership constituting the theoretical framework of the study. Strategic leadership is viewed as the missing link in project execution.

2.3. STRATEGY AND LEADERSHIP

Strategy should not be discussed in isolation, but should be discussed with a special focus on its effect on projects as determined by the leadership factor. Strategy in any organisation is concerned with the basic direction for the organisation's future, purpose, ambitions, resources, and how it interacts with the world (Lynch, 2000, p. 5). The direction for the future during the execution of strategy is not defined in a tested model to follow on a set of rules; this is particularly the case in project implementation. While Lynch generalises that strategy is not so generic as to be applicable to any situation, but rather is executed differently, especially in the area of project management. The focus of project management is to execute the strategic objectives and be able to evaluate their success. All aspects of the organisation such as people, processes, technology, and the external environment are looked into by leadership, with the objective of satisfying the customer. The role of executing this responsibility is shared among all its employees, with the executive leadership and top management taking the leading role. Having said that, as project management was invented as a tool to execute strategy, it is important then that leadership is fully involved in the projects it initiates in order to ensure that the strategic objectives are consistently realised throughout the life cycle of any project. Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) can be used as a framework for managing projects and implementing strategy.

The execution of strategy involves applying ideas through planning, making sure there is commitment to what the organisation has focused on to achieve, seizing the opportunity that has appeared, optimising resources, using the strategic position to gain advantage, being flexible, and keeping things simple (Cohen, 2004). Other aspects of strategy means leading with the right skills, transforming organisational psychology, focusing people's energy, rewarding success (Watkins, 2003). Concentrating on core business, balancing a mix of initiatives, balancing risk of return versus investment, having rigorous metrics, closing non-core business ventures, prioritising initiatives, gaining better visibility

regarding the value that investment delivers to the business and communicating consistently are also elements of implementing strategy (Hartman, 2004).

Strategies can fail for various reasons, including a failure to get buy-in from those who implement strategy, insufficient resources and bad strategy, (Sterling, 2003). The missing element in the process is ensuring that the metrics for implementing strategy are measured, and this is compounded by challenges around the shortage of skilled labour in organisations. Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) experience some of the aspects described above such as not prioritising and being in a rush to execute initiatives, of which the majority may not be linked to any specific strategy. While the strategy is defined, the format of implementing, tracking, and measuring in projects and follow-up is relatively new to ADP. This is especially relevant to effective follow-through. This is typically so because of the lack of strategic leadership at different levels of the organisation, which, in turn, results in projects being executed without a clear link to strategy and firm direction as defined by the vision of ADP. This, again, results in projects that are executed being misaligned to the strategy, hence failing to comprehensively contribute to the objectives of meeting the overall vision of ADP and the UAE.

Lynch (2011) specifies that the core areas of strategy are strategy analysis, strategy development, and strategy implementation. The challenge in ADP is to involve the people, an element that Lynch does not seem to project in his argument on strategy analysis. While it is expected that leadership takes a leading role, ignoring the opinions of the rest of the people in the organisation alienates the employees and prevents them participating and understanding the reasons behind a specific strategy. While it is evident that high-level analysis can be done by leadership, the details of the analysis should involve the operational staff so that it enhances their understanding of the strategic intentions as they execute projects. The execution of projects can be understood in the context of satisfying both internal and external customers. Strategy implementation is perhaps at the heart and it is in this area that one requires a strategic mind set to understand the link between strategy and the executed project. If strategy becomes a leadership issue alone without cascading it to lower levels in a systematic way, then the desire to use projects as a tool to execute strategy may not be realised. To support this management practice, which enhances stronger management, Srid and Bradach (2009, p, 35) argue that strategic leadership and certain competency levels are required to operate at that level from a leadership point of view.

If a leader does not possess the correct competencies, then the success of a strategy or project is problematic.

It is important to have in place the core areas of strategic analyses, strategic development and strategic implementation (Lynch, 2011) imbedded in the project management execution through a defined process that ensures addressing them in every phase of the project. What is lacking in Lynch's conclusion is to highlight that

development and implementation are dependent on the project business processes, which should link development, implementation, and analysis of strategy as part of the project execution steps. This aspect has not been focused upon in previous research. The culture of assessing strategy implementation sometimes stalls at the top leadership level, while the implementers can fail due to the lack of processes that determine whether the strategy is implemented. This is particularly visible within ADP. Lynch in his writing appears to be discussing projects and leaders on the basis of Western culture. The cultural aspects are only superficially touched upon. However, leadership actions play an important part of the process and effect outcomes.

2.4. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP MEASUREMENTS

Leadership measurements are necessary in order for leadership's effectiveness and success to be realised. This aspect includes measuring whether the strategic objectives of the organisation have been implemented to meet targets. Evaluating the progress made against metrics is the one way in which an organisation can establish whether it is progressing or is simply remaining behind. This will then support the concept of performance, which has become a challenge in ADP due to the nature of servicing stakeholders with diverse interests which may not be purely policing interests. Some of the metrics identified by McLean (2005) are: think and act as strategic leaders, human capabilities are needed to implement that business strategy effectively, all employees need to recognise that they not only perform a functional role, a workforce must collectively understand and practice its strategy on a daily basis, teams have strategic responsibilities, a leadership culture shares a common vision of its future.

It is common for different answers to emerge when staff is asked about strategy. This is a sign that while executives define strategy and desire to implement it, the ordinary employee does not possess a similar understanding. Compounding this within ADP is the lack of use of change managers in projects. This, in turn, exacerbates the lack of knowledge about what component of strategy is being addressed by a specific project. This can be enhanced by having a clear relationship between leadership and business strategy through a change management process. The literature seems to discuss strategy as if it exists in isolation. The execution of strategy depends on the people and, for this research, particularly leaders, project managers and the relevant stakeholders. While leadership should be driven by strategy in its daily tasks, the same should be sought for the entire workforce at operational level for the strategies to be implemented successfully. As projects are executed to address tasks that complement the attainment of strategic objectives, it is essential that the strategy is understood by the leadership at project level or else projects will be executed without any benefit. Leadership knowledge and buy-in are essential.

A Guide to the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK Guide), 4th Edition (2008, Project Management Institute), in Appendix G, notes particular interpersonal skills that project managers must have in order to be effective in their role. These skills include leadership, team building, motivation, communication, influencing, decision making, political, cultural awareness and negotiation.

ESI International, the world's leading project management learning company, revealed its Top 10 Global Project Management Trends for 2013 (Extracted from: http://www.esi-intl.com/~media/files/public-site/US/POVs/ESIViewpoint_Top-10-PM-Trends-2013: (Accessed: 5 May 2013) The number one trend was "Leadership Skills". This was identified as a critical success factor. The article also indicated that leadership skills, such as critical thinking, crucial communication and organisational change management, were lacking in leaders and that they would be strategically imperative competencies for future leaders.

The measurement of leader's performance is just one aspect of leadership. The following proceeding sections will discuss some of the other factors of leadership theory.

2.5. THEORIES OF GENERAL LEADERSHIP

When Sarkis (2011) published her article on leadership some of the quotes published on 24 February 2011 in, Psychology Today, differed as to the elements which make great leaders. The quotes were varied and came from a number of leaders, viz:

"Innovation distinguishes between a leader and a follower." - Steve Jobs

"It is better to lead from behind and to put others in front, especially when you celebrate victory when nice things occur. You take the front line when there is danger. Then people will appreciate your leadership." - Nelson Mandela

"Example is leadership." - Albert Schweitzer

Sarkis concluded that, "Leadership isn't about being in charge - it is a state of mind."

(<http://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/here-there-and-everywhere/201102/36-quotes-leadership>)

The term leadership often "connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires or shape the course of nations" (Yukl, 2002, p. 1). Many names of famous leaders have all been noted for their leadership skills. However, it was not until the beginning of the 20th century that the academic and scientific study of leadership began (Yukl, 2002). Over the last century, the study of leadership has steadily increased, resulting in an, "increasing complexity and comprehensiveness of theoretical orientations" (Anderson, 2000, p. 302).

The complexity of defining leadership is evident, since writers cannot agree on the exact definition. Some of the attempts to define the concept of leadership include the work of Robbins (1998, p.346) who reported that there are many definitions of leadership. However, Robbins defines leadership 'As the ability to influence a group toward achievement of goals, such influence can be formally provided by managerial task in organisation'.

Yukl 1994; Dipboye, 1994, p.240; Buchanan and Huczynski 1985, p.381, on the other hand, defined leadership as, 'The process through which one member of the group (its leader) influences other group members toward the attainment of specific group goal'. Other scholars in the field (Tosi et al1994, p. 506-507) define it as, 'The art of mobilising others to want to struggle for shared aspirations'. While Cohen (1990, p.9) defined leadership as, 'The art of influencing others to their maximum performance to accomplish any task, objective or project'. Hemphill (1966, p. 164) defines leadership as 'The initiation of new structure of procedure for accomplishing an organisation's goals and objectives '.

As can be seen from the above, leadership has been defined in a number of ways and the concepts involved in most of these definitions have the tendency to overlap. New theories of leadership are now prevalent in most parts of the world (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009).

Essentially, leadership theory is based on several schools of thought (Anderson, 2000; Haberfeld, 2006). These schools of thought are grouped into seven categories: Great Man Theories, Trait Theories, Behaviourist Theories, Situational and Contingency Leadership, Path-Goal Leadership Theory, Transformational Theory and Emerging Theories. Leadership theory is predominantly based on Western culture. Leadership theory is taught to ADP senior officers by trainers from the National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA) who are seconded for short periods of time to ADP. Thus, the general categories of leadership theory taught to ADP leaders on police courses can be summarised as follows:

"Great Man Theory" - This theory is credited to Thomas Carlyle (1888) who used the term 'Great Man Theory' to suggest that leaders are born with inherent qualities and features that set them apart from their followers (Bass, 1990a; Rogers, 2001). These qualities were described by Anderson (2000) as being "stronger, more intelligent and able to lead" (p. 308). The great leaders of the time, usually found within royalty, nobility and the military, were found to have inherent abilities due to their positions in life which made them emerge as great leaders. Theories of leadership have evolved since Carlyle's day and as a result the "Trait Theory" of leadership developed in the 1920's. This was founded on similar principles of the "Great Man Theory".

"Trait Theory" - Trait Theory relates to individuals who have certain inherent characteristics that make it more likely that they will, "seek and attain positions of leadership and be effective in those positions" (Yukl, 2002, p.53). Although as Anderson (2000) suggested that, "these theories were sometimes intermixed with racial, sexual and class discrimination to promote supremacy of one race over another, one sex over another." (p. 308). The early Trait Theorists believed that scientific research could determine the qualities that leaders possessed. For the most part, this research, according to Yukl (2002) focused on "physical characteristics (e.g., height, appearance), aspects of personality (e.g., self-esteem, dominance, emotional stability) and aptitudes (e.g., general intelligence, verbal fluency, creativity)" (p. 55). There appears to be little consistency in the results of the various trait studies. The Behavioural School of Leadership started to emerge from the Trait Theory in the 1950/60's.

"Behavioural School" - This school was not wholly based on traits. The Behavioural Theories of Leadership could be seen as premised on what the leader does. McGregor (1960) spoke about Theory X & Theory Y, in that, managers' strategy of effective participative management had a considerable impact both on leadership and management. The interchange ability of the words "leader" and "manager" began to "seem equivalent" (Centrex, 2006, p. 22).

Anderson (2000), built on the work of McGregor and introduced the notion that "Theory X" managers believe that their followers are "self-oriented and uncaring about the needs of the organisation, and so attempts are made to directly influence and motivate them in the direction of accomplishing organisational goals" (p.301). In addition leaders of "Theory X" believe that their followers do not like to work and need to be coerced and or punished into doing their jobs in order to meet organisational objectives. In comparison, "Theory Y" leaders were understood to be those who are, "self-motivated and self-actualising by nature and that leaders should arrange the organisational environment to capitalise on those internal motivations to help employees reach organisational goals" (Anderson, 2000, p. 310). "Theory Y" leaders believed employees wanted to work, that they were imaginative and ingenious and wanted to assist in solving organisational problems. Furthermore, "Theory Y" leaders believed that "the average human being was only partially utilised" in relation to the work place (Centrex, 2006, p.22).

Other exponents of the Behavioural School believed in a humanistic approach to the workplace. The humanistic approach indicated managers could put into practice certain arrangements to meet not only the organisation's goals and objectives but also those of the worker. Blake and Mouton (1964), created a "grid to illustrate the relationship" between concern for people and concern for production (Anderson, 2000, p. 311). The balanced Behavioural School approach between production and the person allowed for an effective leader.

“Situational and Contingency Leadership” - Situational and contingent theorists believe that there are certain leadership practices that can be utilised, given the contingent situations the leader may encounter. One of the best known is the Hersey-Blanchard Model of Leadership. The Hersey-Blanchard model was developed in the late 1960's by Ken Blanchard and Paul Hersey who argued that the development level of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. The argument follows that as the junior staff member matures in the workforce, the leaders are required to be less assertive. This being said, as new tasks are given to even mature employees, the leaders may have to revert to more assertive leadership responses, until the worker has gained sufficient competence in the task.

“Leadership Contingency Model” - This was described by Fiedler in 1967 who postulated that there is no single best way for managers to lead. According to the Leadership Academy for Policing (Centrex, 2006), when discussing the Leadership Contingency Model, there are three factors which affect managerial tasks as they relate to leadership.

The first factor is Position Power: How much authority does the manager possess?

The second factor is Leader Member Relations: How well do the manager and the employees get along?

The third is Task Structure: Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between?

Fiedler also spoke about the fact that leaders are not always able to change to meet the needs of their organisations, and, instead, in some cases the leader needed to be able to shape the organisation to meet his or her leadership style.

“Path-goal Theory” - This leadership theory was "developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates" (Yukl, 2002, p.90). House (1996) asserted that the theory was a motivational function of the leader and consisted of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel (p.325). The paths to the goals are made easy by the facilitation and assistance of the leader.

Originally there were two leadership behaviours identified within the path-goal theory; these were supportive leadership and directive leadership (Yukl, 2002). Yukl (2002) stated that, "despite its limitations, the path-goal theory has made an important contribution to the study of leadership by providing a conceptual framework to guide researchers in identifying potentially relevant situational variables" (p. 94).

“Transformational Leadership” - This theory indicates leadership occurs when people within an organisation embrace the organisation's mission and vision and when they place the objectives of the organisation over their own self-interest.

Transformational leaders are often charismatic and or have the ability to stimulate staff through their keen interest in the employees' welfare and attention to their emotional needs. The transformational leader has influence over the organisation and "employees want to identify with them and they have a high degree of trust and confidence in them" (Bass, 1990b, p. 21). Trust is gained by transformational leaders by paying attention to the little things and showing personal interest in the successes of each and every employee. The transformational leader has the employee's interest at the centre. The leader can also inspire others. Mentorship and coaching abilities are trademarks of the transformational leader.

“Emerging Leadership Theories”- Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber (2009) examined the "recent theoretical and empirical developments in leadership literature" (p. 421). They suggested that there are several recent theories that are still being scrutinised by academia and leadership practitioners. Emerging leadership theories will be touched upon to give an insight into the quick evolution of leadership. The following definitions of leadership were identified by Avolio et al. (2009). The definitions provide a guide to a modern interpretation of leadership definitions:

Cognitive Leadership: a broad range of approaches to leadership emphasising how leaders and followers think and process information.

Authentic Leadership: a pattern of transparent and ethical leader behaviour that encourages openness in sharing information needed to make decisions while accepting followers' inputs.

New-genre Leadership: leadership emphasising charismatic leader behaviour, visionary, inspiring, ideological and moral values, as well as transformational leadership such as individualised attention, and intellectual stimulation. Shared, distributed and collective leadership: an emergent state where team members collectively lead each other.

E-leadership: leadership where individuals or groups are geographically dispersed and interactions are mediated by technology.

Broaden-and-Build Theory: suggests positive emotions expand cognition and behavioural tendencies, and encourage novel, varied, and exploratory thoughts and actions.

Positive Organisational Behaviour: literature that is focusing on positive constructs such as hope, resiliency, efficacy, optimism, happiness, and wellbeing as they apply to organisations.

Ethical Leadership: the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers.

Nomological Network: a representation of a construct, its observable manifestation, and the relationship between the two, (p.421).

To summarise, theories and writings about leadership have evolved and changed over time. Leadership was seen, at one time, as requiring or encompassing a static set of competencies, it is now understood to include both static and dynamic qualities which are modified and changed in response to the requirements of the situation, the organisation and the individual with whom a leader is working; this is especially relevant in policing (Sopow, 2009). Students of police leadership have to cope with a multitude of leadership theories found within the current literature. It is clear that in the for profit sector, leadership theories and their application within industry have provided returns on investment (Fulmer, Stumpf, & Bleak, 2009). This is especially seen in organisations that are using project management techniques. In not-for-profit organisations such as the police, profit margins are not a measure of success. Therefore, the for-profit business model should be viewed cautiously.

Universally police leaders are asked to make quick decisions often based on very little information, that can have far reaching consequences to those involved. This approach to leadership is learned by every commissioned and non-commissioned police officer throughout the world. With promotion and the responsibility that accompanies promotion, tactical leadership becomes less critical and a shift towards strategic leadership practices occurs. This should not mean that tactical leadership approaches should be forgotten by those officers who are promoted, as police officers can easily be re-assigned to positions where tactical leadership is required. As police officers are promoted and their responsibilities increase within a police organisation, it is implicit that each officer understands the complexity of police leadership theory and its application.

This literature review, so far, is pointing towards various skills, knowledge, traits or competencies which are possessed by senior police leaders in the Western World. Some of these same skills, knowledge, traits or competencies would appear to be also part of an ADP senior police officers profile. However, cultural context should be a consideration as the culture and environment of the UAE is different. The UAE culture could have a bearing on what is perceived as the qualities that should be possessed for a senior police leader.

Arguably, the most reoccurring leadership elements revolve around styles, skills, knowledge, traits or competencies.

The following discussion will look at what makes a successful leader in a police force and how these elements can be identified. It will also look at which police leadership approach or style prevails throughout the world and whether that style of leadership applicable to ADP or not. Explaining these facets in the context of momentous social and political change would be an added challenge and opportunity.

2.6. THEORIES OF POLICE LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a fast moving research area and has many ambiguities over which styles and behaviours are the most effective. Difficulties of linking leadership with organisational outcomes are particularly pronounced for the police, since common police performance measures are affected by multiple confounding factors.

The research conducted so far implies that there is virtually no reliable evidence of what impacts directly on police leadership styles. Indeed there is no one police leadership style which is common to all countries.

Police leadership research largely developed in North America in the 1970s as a response to the civil rights movement and the social unrest of the previous decade and coincided with the early development of community policing. Theories of general leadership had been developing over the previous thirty years and a shift had occurred from trying to identify "traits" that make a great leader, to looking more at behaviours and overall styles that could potentially be learnt rather than simply gifted at birth.

Some early studies in the 1970's and the 1980's by Jermier and Berkes and others concentrate on testing the assumption that autocratic, impersonal leadership was preferred by police officers and that quasi-military structure and leadership styles were essential to maintain centralised control (Brief et al, 1981; Kukyendall and Unsinger, 1982; Jermier and Berkes ,1979). The results suggested that there was no one leadership style practiced by police leaders and that there was a move away from the autocratic leadership approach to a more supportive and participative leadership approach.

TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN POLICING -

In the mid-1980s a new theory of leadership was developed. "Transformational Leadership" is an approach where leaders concentrate on developing (or "transforming") followers through a range of encouraging behaviours. The concept was developed into a

full leadership theory by Bass in 1985. His theory was applied to several police research enquiries in an attempt to discover the essentials of police leadership. The focus was not only on transformational leadership (motivation and inspiration of subordinates) but was also on transactional leadership (focus on rewards and discipline). The Bass based research found high levels of support for transformational and transactional (even laissez-faire leadership) behaviours in certain policing contexts. Transformational police leaders were perceived to be able to bring about change and transactional police leaders were perceived to be less likely to bring about change (Densten 2003; Schwarzwald, et al 2001; Bass 1985).

POLICE JOB SATISFACTION AND MORALE - Research into police leadership has been sparse in developing common findings. However, on the topic of job satisfaction and morale two surveys standout.

In 1979, Jermier and Berkes, explored police leadership styles especially relating to the transformational (participative and supportive) style. Their findings were that a participative and supportive style positively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

A Home Office sponsored study (Dobby et al, 2004) was conducted with the police in 2004 in the United Kingdom (UK) which involved a survey with responses from 1,066 police officers in England and Wales. Participants were asked to rate their line manager against a transformational leadership style. They also completed questions on how their line managers' behaviour may affect them psychologically. It was found that leaders who scored high for transformational behaviours could have positive psychological impacts on subordinates.

Overall, the findings (Dobby et al, 2004; Jermier and Berkes, 1979) suggest that supportive, participative and more generally transformational leadership styles have a positive impact on subordinates' job satisfaction. Little evidence was shown that transactional style adversely affects police job satisfaction.

POLICE PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT - On the issue of police performance improvement and motivation the research referenced below produced similar results.

In a comparative study in America between police transformational leadership and transactional leadership, it was found that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership in encouraging subordinates to exert extra effort (Morreale, 2002). The findings were supported by Sarver's study of the leadership style of Texan Police Chiefs (Sarver, 2008), which relied on self-completion surveys by 161 chiefs. (The fact that the subordinates of the 161 chiefs were not consulted detracted from the findings).

Another survey in 2004 in Nigeria (Adebayo, 2005) of 184 police officers found that perceptions of workplace fairness and transformational leadership behaviour were positively related to participants' work motivation.

Further to this Kuykendall and Unsinger (Kuykendall and Unsinger, 1982) administered a self-completion survey to 155 police managers attending training programmes in Arizona and California, which sought to measure the participants' own leadership style. This study using a pre-existing survey instrument by Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1977) which divided leadership into four behaviours: 'Telling'; 'Selling'; 'Participating' and 'Delegating'. The results found that the police managers used 'participating' the most, along with 'telling' and 'selling'. The 'delegating' style was infrequently used. The 'participating' management style was perceived to result in better performance.

Overall, the studies reveal that transformational leadership may be more effective at encouraging subordinates to exert extra effort than transactional leadership. Also those supportive and particularly participative styles are positively related to subordinates' organisational commitment and performance.

POLICE PERCEPTIONS AND COMPETENCIES - On the topic of perceptions of leader effectiveness and their competencies, there is interesting research.

A New Zealand study in 1987 was conducted to find whether there are preferred leadership styles and behaviours amongst police officers (Singer, 1987). Participants gave better effectiveness ratings to leaders that displayed transformational leadership behaviour (particularly 'individualised consideration') more frequently than most transactional or laissez-faire behaviours. However, the transactional behaviour of 'management-by-exception' was preferred over the transformational behaviours of 'charisma' and 'intellectual stimulation.'

"The Scottish Police Service Leadership Study" (Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2009) used '360 degree' surveys to provide feedback on 120 police leaders from first line managers up. The results found evidence that different ranks respond differently to leadership styles. Goal-oriented or transactional leadership was perceived as the most effective leadership style for leadership of sergeants.

Two American studies have tested the validity of a competency model for executive police leadership (Silva 2004; Weiss 2004.) The study involved interviewing eight high performing senior leaders in one American force about essential characteristics for a police leader. This resulted in a list of 24 core competencies being produced. Four of the competencies were identified as most important: credibility; leading employees; communicating and courage.

Weiss went on to develop a 360 degree feedback tool, based on the top 12 of the 24 competencies identified in the first phase study. The 12 competencies were:

Active Listening
Communicating
Managing organisational change
Organisation commitment
Setting vision and strategy
Knowledge of the organisation
Leading employees
Courage
Managing politics and influencing
Credibility
Self-confidence and
Empowering

The 2004 Home Office study (Dobby et al, 2004) included interviews with 150 police officers of all ranks to identify competencies considered essential for effective police leadership. A repertory grid technique was used, which allowed participants to describe effective leadership in their own words, with reference to six leaders they had encountered during their career. In total, 53 behaviours were identified and 50 of those related to transformational leadership.

Researchers such as Dobby (2004) started to focus on the police during the early 2000's, especially concentrating on core leadership competencies for senior police officers (Weiss, 2001; Silva, 2004; Devitt, 2008; Dobby et al, 2004). They went back to styles and behaviours and competencies. Dobby et al assisted in the creation of the current NPIA list of competencies for senior police leaders which are, serving the public, leading change, leading people, managing performance, professionalism, decision making, working with others (See Appendix 'D' for list obtained from NPIA January 2012).

Overall, the above mentioned six studies concentrated on the differences between 'transformational' and 'transactional' leaders and all found that transformational leaders were seen as more effective and more likely to elicit compliance from their subordinates. There was also evidence, however, that transactional behaviours could have positive outcomes in this area and that mixing styles could be best. The studies also identified

traits or competencies required by a leader (Dobby et al, 2004; Silva 2004; Weiss 2004.) As a consequence competencies of police leaders began to emerge.

POLICE ETHICS AND EMOTIONS - Other studies involving ethical police leadership and emotional intelligence have started to gain credibility.

Ethical police leadership began to be studied in the late 2000's (Huberts et al, 2008) and Huberts et al report a Dutch study found evidence that leader behaviour, particularly setting a good example and enforcing ethical codes of conduct, can positively influence integrity violations by subordinates. The study findings suggest police leaders can discourage integrity violations through displaying exemplary behaviour.

Emotional intelligence has also started to be a new area in police leadership. Emotional intelligence has been defined as "an ability to recognise and manage emotions in oneself and others" (Hawkins and Dulewicz 2007p.68). Emotional intelligence has been viewed as a leadership characteristic by recent researchers (Hawkins and Dulewicz 2007). The Hawkins and Dulewicz, 2007 Scottish Police leadership study (previously cited) tested links between emotional intelligence and performance as a leader. The results provided support for a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and performance as a leader.

A study within an American police force (Murphy, 2007) which involved the researcher joining study participants in the normal course of their duties, explored the potential impact of inspirational leaders in a large metropolitan American police organisation. Transformational leaders were found to be able to challenge the dominant regimes and police officers could emotionally connect with them.

The emotional attachment to the leaders by subordinates allowed the researchers to conclude that leaders who demonstrated values with those of followers and "walked - the - talk" were admired by police officers. Just as important, the culture of the police force was found to be an important influence on the emergence of transformational leadership. The research concluded a collectivist culture was best.

Overall, the studies of ethical and emotional leadership styles brought up a number of contradictions. Murphy (2007) also points out the importance of culture which a number of the previous police research papers only superficially touched upon. However, it is evident that the years ahead will allow for further research into ethics and emotions in police leadership style.

In summary, the literature supports the view that policing requires an approach to leadership that differs to other sectors, but maintains the ability to make urgent

operational command decisions (Command and Control). Effective police leaders also need to embrace participative and supportive styles, competencies and behaviours.

It is evident that most research in police leadership is based on Western studies. No published research to date has been found on police leadership styles in the UAE. This study will address this imbalance.

2.7. GOVERNMENT, POLITICS AND GOVERNANCE

Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan is the hereditary ruler of Abu Dhabi (UAE). He is a son of Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan, the first President of the United Arab Emirates. His half-brother, Sheikh Mohammed bin Zayed Al Nahyan, is Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi, and wields considerable influence as Chairman of Abu Dhabi's Executive Council and Deputy Supreme Commander of the armed forces of The United Arab Emirates. (<http://www.uaeinteract.com/business/gabu.asp>) (Retrieved: 1.5.12).

The total number of members of the Executive Council has been slimmed down to 98 since the succession and it now consists largely of prominent members of the ruling family as well as a number of respected politicians.

(Abudhabi.alloexpat.com, http://www.abudhabi.alloexpat.com/abudhabi_information/government_abudhabi.php) (Retrieved 1.5.12).

The Emirates maintain their hereditary rulers, who, as a group, form the UAE's Supreme Council of Rulers, headed by the President. Although the presidency is renewable every five years through a vote in the council, Sheikh Zayed held the presidency from the formation of the UAE until his death in November 2004, and there is an implicit understanding that Abu Dhabi's ruler will always be elected President.

(Abudhabi.alloexpat.com, http://www.abudhabi.alloexpat.com/abudhabi_information/government_abudhabi.php) (Retrieved 1.5.12).

At a federal level, laws must be ratified by the Supreme Council. The Council of Ministers forms the executive authority of the state. This 20-member cabinet is headed by the president's chosen prime minister, a post currently held by Dubai's ruler, Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum. The cabinet also refers to the Federal National Council (FNC), a 40-member consultative body to which each emirate appoints a certain number of members. In the case of Abu Dhabi, this is eight. The procedures for appointment to the FNC have recently been amended so that each emirate must now select its representatives through an electoral body. The size of each electoral authority must be 100 times greater than the number of representatives it appoints. Half the members of each electoral body will be selected by the ruler of the emirate while the other half will be directly elected by residents of the emirate. These amendments are

considered to be the first step in a wider electoral reform program which will see greater representation at a federal level.

(Oxfordbusinessgroup.com.<http://www.oxfordbusinessgroup.com/country.asp?country=36>) (Retrieved 1.5.12.)

When critically analysing the politics, governance, policy and strategy of the UAE there are many different perspectives which challenge the success of the UAE. One such perspective is documented in the Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress, United States of America (USA), 20 August 2013

The CRS Report indicates that the UAE's relatively open borders and economy have won praise from advocates of expanded freedoms in the Middle East.

However, the CRS Report goes on to say, "The social and economic freedoms have not translated into significant political change; the UAE government remains under the control of a small circle of leaders who allow citizen participation primarily through traditional methods of consensus-building", (Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress, preface, 20 August 2013).

The CRS Report offers an opinion that the current UAE's mechanisms, economic wealth, and reverence for established leaders have enabled the UAE to avoid wide-scale popular unrest.

When it comes to participation in governance, the CRS Report suggests that the public selection process to the Federal National Council (FNC) has not stopped criticism of UAE policy. The report states, "Since 2006, the government has increased formal popular participation in governance through a public selection process for half the membership of its consultative body, the Federal National Council (FNC). But, particularly since the Arab uprisings that began in 2011, there has been an increase in domestic criticism of the unchallenged power and privileges of the UAE ruling elite as well as the spending of large amounts of funds on elaborate projects that cater to tourists. The leadership has resisted any dramatic or rapid further opening of the political process", (Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress, preface, 20 August 2013).

Countering the argument of Western-style political parties in the UAE, an opinion is expressed in the CRS Report which argues that:

UAE leaders long argued that Western-style democracy, including elections for the country's leadership, is not needed in UAE because Emiratis are able to express their concerns directly to the leadership through traditional consultative mechanisms. Most prominent among these channels are the open *majlis* (councils) held by many UAE leaders. UAE leaders maintain that Western-style political parties and elections for a legislature or other representative body would inevitably aggravate long dormant schisms among tribes and clans and

potentially cause Islamist movements to become more radical, (Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress, 20 August 2013 p4).

The perspective offered in the CRS Report is predominantly based on the Western-style of democracy which at times is in sharp contrast to an Emirati perspective.

2.8. STATECRAFT

This research project looks at the complex field of leadership in large organisations such as those of ADP.

This research will also look at the contribution of leadership in organisations using a "light" statecraft approach. This approach together with other perspectives will be used in the later part of the research. Leadership in organisations has sometimes a specific focus on managerial leadership in large organisations and not on the concept of leadership; this research is an attempt at bridging the gulf between both. Again various approaches will be used to elicit an outcome to this research.

By adopting a "light" statecraft approach in relation to police leadership it is possible to establish the relevance of statecraft in a policing environment. For example, Blondel (1987 p. 2) explains, one initial problem of analysis of political leadership is that: "there is in reality no generally accepted definition of the concept" of political leadership. As such ADP leadership could be viewed as being political. This point is reinforced by Elgin (1995) who claims, the concept of 'leadership' is, like many social science concepts; essentially contested' (Elgin, 1995,p. 2). For example, what counts as a leader? Need they be a 'leader' of a nation-state? Elgin concludes that no one definition would be accepted by everyone and that there would be "little academic value-added to be gained" (p.2) from imposing one. As a consequence, ADP leadership could be viewed as being political, especially if there is no generally accepted definition of "political leader".

In political organisations, political scientists evaluate political leadership more generally on both performance in office and on the context of which they have little control. In the past decade work has been undertaken by a number of researchers using different methods to assess leadership, primarily developed in the USA (Theakston and Gill, 2006; Honeyman, 2007). Statecraft was one of the methodologies used as having a fairer set of indicators relating to how leadership operates in practice.

POLITICAL LEADERSHIP QUALITIES AND PERSONALITIES - A statecraft perspective can be useful when we look at British politics in the 1980's. The then Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher's 'uncompromising' approach to governance spawned a debate about leadership style and the importance of leadership personality in the context of electoral politics. Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher "assaulted the established customs and beliefs concerning the distribution and exercise of power in British

government" (Foley, 1993). Moreover, she had "a formidable personality, and she was capable of bullying, embarrassing and even humiliating her ministers and officials" (King, 1988 p. 57-58).

Later on King (2002) edited a collection of studies which attempt to consider whether leadership personality matters. The attributes King (2002) looked at: physical appearance, native intelligence, character or temperament and political style (King, p. 57-58).

Scholars who have done some work in this area include Theakston and Gill (2006, p. 193-213) who note, "There has been considerable work in the US assessing the performance of Presidents, but assessing political leaders in the UK (and elsewhere) as an explicit project remains a relatively underdeveloped field".

Research of Presidents in the USA, Greenstein (2004, p.211) noted, it is necessary to assess leaders against "six qualities that relate to presidential job performance". The six qualities were:

1. Proficiency as a public communicator – which refers to 'the outside face of leadership'.

Most leaders, Greenstein claims, have been poor at this, with Roosevelt, Kennedy, Reagan and Clinton being the exceptions.

2. Organisational capacity - 'his ability to rally his colleagues and structure their activities effectively and his ability to forge a team and get the most out of it'.

3. Political skill- 'which relies on the president to use the powers of his office assertively, build and maintain public support, and establish a reputation among fellow policy makers as a skilled, determined political operator'.

4. Public policy vision - which refers to 'preoccupation with the content of policies, an ability to assess their feasibility, and the possession of a set of overarching goals'.

5. Cognitive style – 'the manner in which the president processes the advice and information given'.

6. Emotional intelligence - 'the president's ability to manage his emotions and turn them to constructive purposes, rather than being dominated by them and allowing them to diminish his leadership.

(Greenstein, 2004, p. 5-6 and 217-223).

The success or failure of presidents can therefore be explained by the existence or non-existence of these personality properties. These concepts are operationalised through case studies of presidencies with a historical reach as broad as Roosevelt to Bush (Greenstein, 2004, p. 211-223).

THE STATECRAFT APPROACH - The statecraft approach is associated with the work of Jim Bulpitt (1983, 1988, 1989, and 1996) and can provide one way forward on leadership criteria. This investigation will reflect, especially in the conclusion and recommendations, on the concept of statecraft and asserting that this interpretation can generate useful debate and a set of criteria which could be useful in assessing national political leadership which include their competence.

The statecraft approach is not free from problems or limitations. But is hoped that the theory reflects a more realistic account of the behaviour of national politicians and/or police leaders will produce a different facet of leadership styles.

Statecraft has been defined as, “the art of winning elections and achieving the necessary skills to govern in office” (Bulpitt, 1986, p. 21). Bulpitt researched how politicians confronted, resolved (or at least managed) a range of governing problems so that their electoral fortunes are positively promoted, or at least not adversely affected (Bulpitt, 1995, p. 520).

According to Bulpitt, (1988, p.21, 185-6) the criteria relating to political leadership assessment should be the statecraft approach using four criteria, such as gaining and retaining power, party management, political argument, a winning electoral strategy and governing competence.

Bulpitt argued that these tasks can serve as more precise indicators against which political leadership might be assessed in future.

The main strength of the statecraft approach is that it yields a fairer set of indicators relating to how leadership operates in practice. This approach has its problems and limitations. One argument against the employment of statecraft for the purposes of leadership assessment is that it does not provide an accurate description of leaders at all. As it portrays party leaders (Bulpitt op cit) as being obsessed with maintaining power above all other things.

MACRO LEVEL STATECRAFT – Policing is synonymous with the word security. In order to establish a linkage between ADP and statecraft, a macro perspective is required which involves traditional and new views of statecraft and national security. What follows draws upon the traditional and newer perspectives.

THEORIES OF NATIONAL SECURITY – International security is a relatively new field of study and only came about after the Second World War. The definitive intellectual history of the field is yet to be written (Nye & Jones, 1988, p.8) Studies today do not even agree upon a common definition. However, in terms of existing security studies, there are two competing schools. The first set is the new security school of thought, which emphasises the interplay of multi-sectors with regard to security. The older traditional

security school instead places focus on military security alone. This being said, Peoples, C. and Vaughan-Williams, N. (2014) have written and progressed the notion that there is a growing subfield within national security known as critical security studies which provides new analyses in this burgeoning and complex area. For the purposes of this research only the new security school of thought and traditional security school will be discussed in more detail.

The older traditional security theory is an ambiguous concept, which only focuses on military security. The new security theory has not made any breakthrough in conceptual reform, but it offers a broader theoretical framework, which suggests that threats may derive from various sources, including the economy, environment, culture and so on, as a result of the increasing economic interaction between states and the emergence of non-traditional threats.

TRADITIONAL SECURITY THEORY - Following the Second World War, one of the most striking developments in social science has been the emergence of security studies. The impetus for the emergence was two factors in the international environment: the urgent atmosphere generated by the Cold War and the emergence of new technologies of war, which required new conflict resolution methods (Bock & Berkowitz 1966, p.122). The establishment of the National Security Council under the National Security Act of 1947 in the USA marked the beginning of government concern with this new subject in social science. This is an area, arguably that the USA still places vast resources on and has primacy in government.

Nye and Lynn-Jones (1988) identified the areas that formed the central focus of security studies and listed the general issues. These included the causes of wars and alliances, policy-oriented research on military issues, and other threats confronting particular countries (Nye & Lynn-Jones, 1988, p. 6). In Buzan's view, the study of security was perceived as "the pursuit of freedom from threats and the ability of states and societies to maintain their independent identity and their functional integrity against forces of change, which they see as hostile" (Buzan, 1991a,p. 432). Another view by Krause and Williams (1996) concluded that politicians believed that security, in essence, should focus on "safeguarding the core value of a state from external military threats, principally through the use of force, or the threat to use force" (Krause and Williams, 1996, p. 230).

Romm (1993) summed up the various types of organisations' understanding of security in his book "Defining National Security". In general, these institutions perceived security as the ability of a nation to protect its internal values from external threats (Romm, 1993, p. 5). Romm is one of the scholars that began not only to look outwardly but to consider internal matters as regards national security and statecraft.

In 1973 Klaus Knorr began a survey of the field by stating his intention to deliberately bypass the semantic and definitional problems generated by the term 'national security'.

In 1975, Richard Smoke observed that the field had paid quite inadequate attention to the range of meanings of security (Baldwin, 1997, p. 8). Baldwin's interpretation of the then available definitions and concepts indicated that none of these explanations are convincing (Baldwin, 1997, p. 9).

With traditional security studies, it had become evident that new areas of study were required to obtain a better understanding of the concept. This led to the creation of new security studies which will now be examined.

NEW SECURITY STUDIES – National security in conventional security contexts is associated with military statecraft alone. If the issue entails use of military force, only then is it seen as a security issue. The military is therefore the central concern of conventional security studies. However, a revised theory on national security took place in two periods. The first took place in the mid-1970s, and the second began in the late 1980s. Not only is a relatively clear definition of security required, but also a theoretical breakthrough is needed to ensure the notion's compatibility with the changing security system of the post-Cold War world. Beaton (1972) pointed out the need for expansion of concepts relating to security which should include a range of systemic considerations (Beaton, 1972, p. 7). Jordan and Taylor (1981) suggested that national security should have had a more extensive meaning than protection from physical harm (Jordan & Taylor, 1981, p. 3). Later, the Brandt Commission put forward a new concept of security. In 1983, Ullman (1983) noted that “defining national security merely in military terms conveys a profoundly false image of reality” (Ullman, 1983, p.66).

The second stage of examining national security included the publication of “*Defining National Security*” by Joseph Romm (1993). Also, the United Nations Secretary-General in 1995 called for a conceptual breakthrough, extending beyond armed security and towards protecting people in their communities (Rothschild, 1995, p. 56). These studies reveal that military force has not ceased to be a major element of national security, but it had declined in importance, relative to issues of the economy, energy, cultural security and environment. Mathews, (1989, p. 162), commented, “global developments now suggest the need for another analogous, broadening definition of national security to include resource, environmental and demographic issues.”

At the same time the emergence of non-traditional security issues such as drug trafficking and illegal immigration, are a reminder that non-military issues deserve more attention from decision-makers and scholars. As national economies are connected more closely than ever before, a series of domestic problems such as resource shortages, food crises, and income inequality may spread from a single country onto the international scene. Some threats, such as environmental problems, public disorder and internal chaos, used to be domestic issues but are now global threats also.

However, since the 1970s, the birth of the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) and the occurrence of oil crises, the developing countries' push for a New International Economic Order, have made it clear that the major issues related to international economic relations fail to be explained solely by economic factors (Krasner, 1996, p. 108).

It follows that with the reduced importance of military force, the emergence of non-military threats and the impact of economic considerations that *new security* theory increased in acceptability.

The new security theory was further expanded in 1991 when Buzan published the "New Patterns of Global Security in the Twenty-first Century" in the Journal of International Affairs. He further developed the new security theory in 1998, when he published an influential book *Security: A New Framework for Analysis*. According to this new framework, security should be a multi-faceted notion. Military security involves the two-level interplay of the armed offensive and defensive capabilities of states. "Protecting the territorial integrity of the state is the traditional object of military security, and the two immediate environments for the state - regional and domestic - are again the main concerns in this sector" (Buzan, Waever & de Wilde, 1998, p. 70). It should be noted that Buzan made a considerable contribution by focussing the reader's attention on the "regional and domestic" nature of security.

Buzan further distinguishes between military security and political security by explaining that political security focuses on the organisational stability of states, smooth running of the government and the ideologies allowing for legitimacy (Buzan, 1991a: 433). Unlike military security that deals with armed threats, political security focuses on non-military threats to sovereignty. The purpose of political threats may range from pressuring the government on a particular policy, to overthrowing the government, fomenting dissention, and disrupting the political fabric of the state so as to weaken it prior to a military attack (Buzan, Waever & de Wilde, 1998: 141-142; Buzan, 1991b: 118-119).

Kapstein (2002) further expands the concept of security by including economic security. He indicated that economic security concerns access to resources, capital and markets necessary to maintain sustainable development and state power. National wealth could be generated not only by production and exchange through the promotion of international trade, but also through seizing the resources and economies of other nations (Kapstein, 2002: 158, cited from Hirshleifer, 2001, p 1).

Buzan (1991) also expands the notion of security by including the importance of societal security. He explains that societal security concerns the ability of societies to reproduce their traditional patterns of language, culture, association, religious and national identity, as well as customs, within acceptable conditions for evolution. The distinctive contradiction in the societal sector can be seen with the clash of civilisations and migration problems,

which leads to conflicts between several hundred ethnic-cultural societies trying to form an integrated international community (Buzan, 1991a, p. 433).

The new security agenda expands its scope to multiple sectors that cover almost every aspect of human life. In comparison to traditional national security, non- traditional security may be summarised in two ways: external military or non-military menaces to state sovereignty and territorial integrity, and internal threats to society and individuals borne by increasing international interactions. If categorised in specific fields, this includes security barriers to sustainable development, such as energy issues, environmental issues, and global warming, internal social issues affecting other countries and, financial crises, racial conflicts, and other harmful activities of non-governmental organisations in international society, for instance terrorism and extremism.

Rothschild (1995) redefined the concept of security of the 1990s as taking four main forms (1) It is extended from the security of nations downwards to the security of groups and individuals, (2) from national security upwards to the security of the international system, (3) horizontally, covering different entities such as individuals, nations, and systems and (4) different dimensions such as political, economic, societal, military, environmental and cultural. In other words, it is diffused in all directions, upwards to international organisations, downwards to local government, and sideways to public opinion and the abstract forces of nature or of the market (Rothschild, 1995, p. 55).

This being said, there was still a lack of a common definition of security in its characterisation. Baldwin recognised this and has said, "most such efforts are more concerned with redefining the policy agenda of nation-states than with the concept of security itself" (Baldwin, 1997p. 5). Economic security, environmental security, military security, societal security, cultural security and so on are no more than different dimensions of security, while military power, economic power, civil rights and so on are just different embodiments of a national power.

ECONOMIC SECURITY - The notion of economic security according to Nesadurai (2004) may be conceptualised through either a micro or a macro perspective.

Nesadurai (2004) states that "studies of the connections between economic performance and military spending as well as the linkage between economic resources scarcity and inter-state conflict are perfectly valid topics for security studies" (Nesadurai, 2004,p. 462).

The interplay between the two areas of economic security and national security can be divided into four areas of study, (1) Economic statecraft used for foreign policy objectives, (2) Economic causes of war, (3) Economic interdependence and (4) Political conflict and economics of national defence.

Bringing economics and militarism together Baldwin, in his book “Economic Statecraft”, explains that statecraft involves the application and interplay of multiple instruments, including military, economic and diplomatic, to achieve states’ multiple objectives, such as national security, economic prosperity and political influence (Baldwin, 1985).

Similar sentiments are expanded upon by William Morris (2009) who concentrates on the terminal nodes of the statecraft typology. The typology specifies six types of security externalities which fall into two broad categories. The categories were those acting through primarily economic channels and those externalities with direct military effects.

Each of these six types of security externalities functions according to its own economic logic. Taken together, this typology answers the question in relation to the manner economics affect security and maps out the domain of economic statecraft (Norris, 2009).

Norris defines economic statecraft as occurring when states deliberately seek to manipulate economic interaction in order to generate the types of security externalities.

Commercial actors, acting on their own interests, engage in various forms of cross-border economic interaction. This interaction often generates security externalities. States can create incentives for commercial actors to behave in ways that encourage the creation of security externalities that are conducive to a state's strategic interests. In this way, states can pursue strategies that seek to manipulate these externalities by structuring the incentives of the commercial actors involved. Such manipulation is defined as economic statecraft. (Norris 2009)

Thus, to understand economic statecraft, one must take a closer look at how the state manipulates economic interaction-more precisely, how the state controls the commercial actors responsible for conducting the economic interaction that produces these strategic effects. To conduct economic statecraft, the government must be able to incentivise commercial actors to behave in a manner that is conducive to producing security externalities that are in line with the state's strategic interests.

According to Norris (2009) there are five factors responsible for determining the outcome of whether the state is able to control the commercial actor(s). First is whether the goals of the commercial agent conflict with the goals of the state. Second is the number of commercial actors in the market – too many and the government will have a hard time controlling them, but if there are only one or two, these commercial actors may be powerful enough to resist government efforts to control their behaviour. Third is the degree to which the government is acting with one voice. To the extent the government itself is divided, it will be more difficult to exercise control over commercial actors. Fourth is the reporting relationship between the government and the commercial actor. If the commercial actor is directly owned or managed by the government, it will be easier for the government to direct the behaviour of the firm. Fifth is the relative resource endowments between the

principal and the agent-if the commercial actor has considerably more resources than the government, it will be more difficult for the government to exercise control.

Althusser explained that the state is similar to a machine and stated, "The state is a special machine in the sense that it is made of a different metal." (Althusser, 2006, p.82) Louis Althusser's notion of the state as a machine allows for an extra perspective to run parallel within statecraft especially when investigating state practices when the machine comes to life through particular practices of individuals (Althusser 2006). This thesis will provide a "soft touch" upon the ways in which class, alongside ethnicity and gender, are also part of state practices (Althusser 1994; 2006; Gramsci 1971; Marx 1978; Marx & Engels 1977). The broad form of state theorists and Marxist perspectives will add to the broad spectrum of statecraft.

STATECRAFT AND SECURITY - Studies in the field of security have undergone an evolution from traditional security theory to the new security theory. Traditional definitions of security, perceived as the protection of territory and sovereignty through military power, is inadequate for explaining the multidimensional phenomenon of the current international system.

The *new security theory* considers security as a type of politics applicable to a wide range of issues. In other words, the most significant difference between conventional and new security literature includes what is termed 'statecraft', which is reflected in economic, political, societal, and environmental fields, in addition to military concerns. Among the five sectors, security in the economic sector is a major component. For a state, economic capability determines its political influence and military power.

New security theory has been mentioned in this thesis because of its interconnectivity to statecraft. New security theory can be better understood once you have completed a full circle and returned back to the seminal work of Baldwin. Baldwin's 'Economic Statecraft' (1985) is a seminal work that identifies the instruments of statecraft available to policy-makers, including propaganda, diplomacy, and economic leverage. Baldwin's (1985) instruments of statecraft include the following:

1. Propaganda refers to influence attempts relying primarily on the deliberate manipulation of verbal symbols.
2. Diplomacy refers to influence attempts relying primarily on negotiation.
3. Economic statecraft refers to influence attempts relying primarily on resources that have a reasonable semblance of a market price in terms of money.
4. Military statecraft refers to influence attempts relying primarily on violence, weapons, or force. (Baldwin, 1985, p. 13-14).

Both propaganda and diplomacy are believed to lack credibility or effectiveness in international politics, and military action entails high costs. Economic statecraft, which has enjoyed resurgence in popularity since the 1970s, is seen as a 'middle-ground' between fighting and simply speaking.

In the background of economic integration, the issue of whether a state is capable of providing a steady increase in standard of living for the whole community through national economic development while maintaining independent economic sovereignty is crucial, especially for developing countries like the UAE. The policing services of a region and the leaders of a region are the bedrock for stability within a region like Abu Dhabi. The future bodes well for the UAE with the state continuing to provide, even in 2015 after the drop in the price of oil, increased living standard and maintaining growth in the economy while providing a stable police force.

2.9. ISLAMISM, IDEOLOGY AND MILITANT GROUPS

Introduction

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) have provided police services to the Emirate of Abu Dhabi for over the past decade using a traditional policing style, that in general, is based on the British policing model.

Senior police leaders in ADP, like their counterparts in the UK, must be constantly aware of their operating environment and the threats posed to the citizens they police. These threats are both internal and external to the UAE and ADP.

This section of the research will assist to contextualise the change management programme in ADP and highlight the contemporary Arab issues that surround the region, namely extremist Arab militant groups.

Change management in ADP does not operate in a vacuum and by providing details of the extremist Arab militant groups; this will assist to provide a backdrop the unique operating environment that senior police leaders of ADP operate in.

While only a few Arab countries experienced the full ripples of an "Arab Spring". The UAE is one country that did not experience a full "Arab Spring". That is not to say that the UAE has not had to deal with its consequences.

This section of the thesis looks at the complex field of Islamism, ideology and militant groups all of which affect the UAE to varying degrees. These areas can be so interrelated that they are at times difficult to compartmentalise and as such they are combined in this chapter to highlight the relationships between each. This chapter will start with discussing Islamism and its connection to political changes in the Middle East. The middle part of the chapter examines certain examples of militant jihad organisations,

starting with Al-Qaeda, which is discussed in several sections. The history and the growth of Al-Qaeda will then give way to its main differences between militant groups including the "Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant" (ISIL) organisation. The last part of this chapter looks at the ISIL organisation, its historical beginnings, the changes and its relationships with other groups.

Islamism and Political Changes

Political change which erupted in Tunisia at the end of 2010 has affected a number of other Arab countries.

There are numerous causes for the so-called "Arab Spring."

Dictatorship, political corruption, socio-economic decline - including unemployment and poverty - and demographic structural factors are just some of those cited by scholars and the media. (Alhawas, 2012).

The pro-government religious establishment, purveyor of so-called "official Islam", has lost its political gravity, while anti-government Islamic movements have expanded their activities within the new political environment. As in the cases of Tunisia, Egypt, and Morocco, newly established Islamic parties gained victories in various elections and enlarge their influence in formulating new legal, political, and economic structures and systems. Even many radical Islamic groups are now transforming their attitudes and methods from the violent struggle of the past to legal activities within new political systems (Seo, 2011).

Islamism and its Historic Background

Historically, the Middle East and North Africa region has been the focal point of conquests, conflicts and exchanges between numerous civilizations-namely the Mesopotamian civilization between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, the Pharaonic civilization in the Nile basin, the Greek and Roman civilizations, and the Islamic civilization. Later, the British and Ottoman Empires, as well as the French and Italians, also colonized and ruled this area.

In this turbulent history, Judaism, Christianity and Islam also influenced the formation of identity. Nevertheless, the most important identifying cultural characteristics of the countries and people of this area are Islamic in nature. The cultural and linguistic identity of the Arabs is strengthened by this traditional roots and the religion of the majority, which have formed the foundations of social values and political structures in the region (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014).

“Islamism” as Ideology

There is considerable controversy surrounding the definition of Islamism. The term "political Islam" has been frequently used to mean an ideology or a system in which Islam is both the religion and the basis for political governance. Sheri Berman describes "Islamism" in a similar way to political Islam, saying "Islamism is a belief that Islam should guide social, political, and personal life." (Berman, 2003). Meanwhile, other scholars attempt to explain Islamism as a political and social movement; Tarek Osman emphasises that Islamism "offers a social alternative for a poor public, a space for young people who have lost their future to express their anger, an ideology for the marginalised to return to the pure Islam, and a moderate religious resting place for the wealthy and liberal class." (Osman, 2011).

Islamism has undergone a relatively similar historical process in the Arab territories except in Saudi Arabia, which has adopted Islamism as a state ideology or ruling philosophy. Under the reign of the Ottoman Empire, the religious elite from orthodox Sunni madrasas (religious schools) played a leading role in maintaining the social order. In religious life, a gradual but great change took place. Sufism began to encroach on the realm of orthodox Islam in Egypt in the 15th century. Various Sufi orders (tariqa) such as Shadiliyya, Khalwatiyya, and Ahmadiyya, which have a supreme system of guidance, attracted donations from government officials. The Sufi religious leaders were respected by ordinary people as well as the military elite. On the birthdays of the Prophet Mohammed and the famous Sufi sheikhs, thousands of people participated in large-scale festivals. Visits to the tombs of the saints became part of everyday religious life in Egypt at the time (Hourani, 2010).

The influence of religious leaders as major coordinators of social order had the power to incite or pacify or revolt. During the Ottoman Empire, Sunni orthodox and Sufi leaders in many other Arab countries played a major role in political and social life, functioning as mediators between the foreign Ottoman ruling elite and the people (Marsot, 1968 and Sonbol, 2000).

With the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire and the consequent emergence of centralised nation-states after the colonial period, the position of the people changed significantly. In the case of Egypt, the authority of the religious scholars was curtailed while Muhammad Ali referred to as the father of modernisation and his successors gradually established modern government agencies separating religion from politics as much as possible. Muhammad Ali marginalised the existing religious forces through the nationalisation of waqf (religious endowment) (Huwaidi, 1993). The ulama were forced to cling to the very limited traditional privileges of influencing education and justice (Lapidus, 2002).

During the 19th and early 20th centuries, when government collected waqf, most religious higher educational institutions became subordinated to the "modem and secular" ruling elite (Eccel, 1984). However, a new Islamic ideology emerged during the secular-based nation-building process under and after the European occupation.

The French invasion of Egypt in 1798 began to encourage new forms of awareness among Muslims (Seo, 2014). This ideological awakening contributed to the foundation of the Muslim Brotherhood. The rapidly expanding influence of the Brotherhood drew opposition from secular forces including the Wafd Party, which included both Muslims and Coptic Christians, and was suppressed by the centralised secular governments which appeared after the 1952 revolution. Soon after the Muslim Brotherhood was outlawed in Egypt, the activities of other religious institutions were also restricted (Mitchell, 1969).

During 1955, the Egyptian government incorporated Sharia into the civil court system. Al-Azhar (colleges) also became nationalized and its curriculum altered to include non-religious subjects (Fikra Forum, May 15, 2013). So-called "official Islam" was subordinated to a regime that endorsed the socialist and nationalist ideologies and policies of the ruling elite. However, the Nasser's Egyptian Government's efforts to redefine the relationship between Islam and the state were only partially successful. The Islamic sentiments of common people, intellectuals, and activists did not subside, least of all after the Six Day War with Israel in 1967 (Sid-Ahmed, 1988).

The "Arab Spring" ushered in a new era of Islamic movements.

In the process of modernisation, Islamism and Islamic movements have played an important role in offering social services and spiritual shelter to the marginalised middle and lower classes. Nevertheless, Islamism has been expressed in a variety of ways by numerous sub-groups, all of which shared the same goals but were different in their approach and internal organisation. Saad Al-Deen Ibrahim categorised Islamic groups in Egypt in the 1980s into four groups (Ibrahim, 1988).

The first category was - an apolitical religious grouping. The second category was – moderate activists who seek a gradual change of society and politics within established institutions. The third was - anti-government or anti-Western militant Islamists who emphasise armed struggle, especially against existing regimes and foreign powers. The last category was - radical Islamists who are likely to use violent action against nominally devout Muslim scholars and communities (Ibrahim, 1988).

The history shows, Islamism is an umbrella term commonly applied to a variety of Islamic movements that are actually quite diverse. Preaching, watching and listening to religious broadcasting, and participating in volunteer or charitable activities can comprise parts of Islamism or Islamic movements (Fandy, 1994).

In Egypt after the defeat of the Six Day War in 1967, "al-Jamaat al-Islamiyya" grew, as did student movements. Paradoxically, President Anwar Sadat's support of the activities of such groups as counterweights to the left actually encouraged Islamic political activism. In this environment, more radical groups started to work to overthrow the government and to build an Islamic state and society (Mussallam, 1998).

In the late 1980s and 1990s other radical organisations launched indiscriminate attacks in Egypt and other Arab states against government officials, army and police officers, Copts, foreign tourists, intellectuals and entertainment and tourism facilities such as cinemas and hotels.

In spite of the existence of militant movements, many groups have focused on social and cultural activities, showing an ambiguous attitude towards the relationship between political power and the goals they pursue (Gerges, 1999). But a different political and social environment has appeared since the so-called "Arab Spring" demanding that these once non-political groups devote their energy to politics (Seo, 2011).

Militant Arab Organisations -

This section will concentrate on the two main militant organisations in the Middle East - Al-Qaeda and ISIL. The first organisation to be discussed is Al-Qaeda.

In order to understand the emergence of Al-Qaeda, one of the first places to start from is the 1967 Six Day War. This was a turning point in the history of political religious groups (Webman, 2011).

With the backdrop of the 1967 Six Day War; the origin of the Al-Qaeda organisation can be linked with jihadi Salafis or Jihadist Salafism (a transnational religious-political ideology based on a belief in violent jihadism and the Salafi movement of returning to, what adherents believe to be 'true' Sunni Islam) which emerged in the mid-1970s (Kepel, 2002) (Al-Qadimi, 2009).

According to Al-Qadimi (2009) and Al-Suwaidi (2015) jihadi Salafis exploited the Arabs' defeat by Israel to promote their argument that the problems in Arab and Muslim countries were due to their neglect of Islamic values (Al-Suwaidi and El-Safty, 2014). Another factor contributing to the rise of political religious groups, including the militant movements within these groups, was the policy adopted by former Egyptian president Muhammad Anwar Al-Sadat between 1970 and 1974, which accommodated and even supported political religious groups (Korany, 2013). President Sadat gave these groups the opportunity to organise and expand their influence in society in order to minimize the influence of the socialist-leftist trend associated with the era of his predecessor, former president Jamal Abdul Nasser (Al-Suwaidi and El-Safty, 2014). Another factor was the economic situation in Egypt, which contributed to the increased strength and effectiveness of militant jihadi organisations.

In 1990 the economy of Egypt was suffering from serious problems including overpopulation, lack of jobs, lack of planning, an external debt amounting to USD 47.6 billion at the beginning of 1990 and over twenty million people below the poverty line (Al-Suwaidi, 2013). The militant jihadi organisations took advantage of these difficult conditions to promote their militant ideas and attract members of the poorer classes as well as students who had little hope or future in Egypt, convincing them that it was necessary to resort to violence to achieve their goals and use force to topple governments, eventually resulting in the reformation of society (Seo, 2011).

Sahar and Al-Abdullah, 2009 together with Korany and El-Mahdi, 2012 explain that the ideology of Al-Qaeda is essentially the same as the jihadi ideology which derives its inspiration from the Muslim Brotherhood ideologue Sayyid Qutb, who established the theoretical foundations of the concepts of hakimiyya (Sharia principles and rules, rather than man-made laws, should be applied) and jahiliyya (Muslim societies are reliving the pre-Islamic era because they do not apply the rules of Islam). (Naseera, 2008) These two concepts are accepted and adopted by members of Al-Qaeda and other militant religious organisations (Al-Suwaidi, 2015).

Other writers argue that the Shiite Iranian Islamic Revolution of 1979 and the subsequent establishment of a religious regime provided momentum for jihadi organisations (Kurzman, 2005). In addition, the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 gave political religious groups an opportunity to launch jihad in Afghanistan. This paved the way later for the creation of Al Qaeda, which then started growing, developing and expanding (Fadl, 2010).

The beginnings of the Al-Qaeda Organisation

Opinions differ in the explanation of how Al-Qaeda started. The variety of explanations can be attributed to the circumstances in which the organisation was born, the variety of ideologies and schools associated with its name, the fact that its leaders moved between several countries (Afghanistan, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Yemen, Sudan, and others), and the reliance by the organisation on several intellectual foundations (Seo, 2014). However, the three main explanations or options of how Al-Qaeda was created are outlined hereunder.

FIRST OPINION

The first opinion suggests that Al-Qaeda is a fundamentalist Islamic (multinational) movement which was established to fight the Communists during the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan. The United States of America and some Arab and Muslim countries encouraged Muslim youths to join the fight against Soviet forces in Afghanistan (Rumman, 2010). The conflict in Afghanistan was viewed at the time as an act of Soviet expansionism and aggression which threatened American and Western interests in the

Arabian Gulf and Central Asia. Therefore, the United States of America, in coordination with the Pakistani intelligence services and some Arab countries, provided financial support to the Afghan mujahideen who fought against the Soviet occupation (Fadl, 2010).

SECOND OPINION

The second opinion is that Al-Qaeda descended from jihadi Salafism, a term which has been used since the late 1980s to refer to certain groups in political Islam which adopt jihad as a method to achieve change, accuse whole societies of unbelief, and tend to use force. Naseera (2008) argues that jihadi Salafism was the link between various jihadi groups and organisations which later joined Al-Qaeda. For example, Abu Mus'ab Al-Zarqawi and his organisation in Iraq joined Al-Qaeda, and the Salafi Group for Preaching and Combat in the People's Democratic Republic of Algeria joined Al-Qaeda (changing its name to Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb) (Naseera, 2008).

THIRD OPINION

The third opinion argues that associating Al-Qaeda with the jihadi Salafi ideology is wrong, and that Al-Qaeda has no doctrine. Some Al-Qaeda protagonists such as Abdullah Yousuf Azzam have written books, including Al-Jihad Aadaab wa Ahkam (The Rules of Jihad) and Basher Al-Nasr (Signs of Victory) also suggesting that there is no ideology attached to Al-Qaeda (Fadl, 2010).

Furthermore, Al-Qaeda relies on some books drawn from the jihadi Salafi movement in relation to certain religious matters which serve its goals. According to this opinion, Al-Qaeda follows a person rather than a doctrine. Its founder and former leader Usama bin Ladin insisted that the organisation should not have a doctrine, because this would give it more freedom to change its goals, alliances and plans. Accordingly, members of the organisation followed the orders of bin Ladin himself. The majority of Al-Qaeda members are Saudis, Yemenis, Pakistanis and Egyptians, and there are links between the organisation and Islamic groups and organisations in many countries (Fadl, 2010). According to the third opinion, Al-Qaeda shares with jihadi Salafism a number of intellectual foundations including the fatwa's of the Imam Ahmad ibn Taymiyya, as well as many ideas of the Imam Muhammad ibn Abdulwahhab, Sayyid Qutb and Abu Al-Mawdoodi about hakimiyya, and other fatwas prohibiting the application of man-made laws and deeming those who apply them in the Arab and Muslim worlds unbelievers (Naseera, 2008).

Al-Suwaidi and El Safty (2014) explain that there is a distinction between Al-Qaeda and jihadi Salafism based on the fact that some jihadi Salafi figures have partially or wholly revised their views. One example is Al-Sayyid Imam bin Abdulaziz Al-Shareef (Fadl, 2010), former emir of the Al-Jihad Group (1987–1993), who was arrested in Yemen and deported to Egypt in 2004, has revised his position several times. He had written two

books, Al-Umdah Fil'dad Al-Uddah (The Reference Book on Preparing for Jihad), which became a reference for jihadi Salafis, and Al-Jami' fi Talab Al-Ilm (A Comprehensive Guide to Religious Learning) (Rumman, 2010), both of which were adopted by Al-Qaeda as key reference works. (Rumman, 2010). In his revision, Al-Sayyid Imam bin Abdulaziz Al-Shareef accused Al-Qaeda of summarising his second book in a way which distorted its message (Rumman, 2010). Although he abandoned jihadi Salafism a long time ago, followers of this movement still consider him one of their key ideologues and figures (Rumman, 2010).

Another revision of Al-Qaeda's founding books written by Issam Tahir Al-Barqawi, a Jordanian of Palestinian origin, also known as Abu Muhammad Al-Maqdisi, who was arrested several times by the Jordanian authorities (Al-Maqdisi, 2014). He is considered a prominent ideologue of jihadi Salafism. He was mentor to Abu Mus'ab Al-Zarqawi when they were together in prison in the Hashemite, Jordan. Al-Maqdisi travelled several times to Afghanistan, where he met key figures of the jihadi Salafism movement, including Ayman Al-Zawahiri and others (Al-Lami, 2014).

While in Afghanistan, Abu Muhammad Al-Maqdisi wrote Millat Ibrahim (The Religion of Abraham), which was his first Salafi Fundamentalist book (Al-Maqdisi 2014). He later partially revised his ideas in another book, Waqafat ma' Thamarat Al-Jihad (Reflections on the Fruits of Jihad) (Naseera, 2008).

Other writers argue that following those revisions, the influence and presence of Al-Qaeda jihadi leaders, particularly Usama bin Ladin and Ayman Al-Zawahiri, became the only source of new and continuing direction, even though they were inspired by the jihadi Salafi ideology (Naseera, 2008).

Regarding the impact of those revisions on the relationship between Al-Qaeda and jihadi Salafism; Rumman (2010) puts forward the notion that these revisions are a reflection of the strong conflict within jihadi Salafism, particularly between Al-Qaeda, which represents the new leadership, and the old historical leaders who founded jihadi Salafism, particularly in Egypt through the cells of the "Al-Jihad Organisation" and then "The Islamic Group." (Rumman, 2010).

In the early 1970s the Islamic Group in Egypt was established by Salah Hashim at Assiut University. It was first called "The Religious Group," and had followers in most Egyptian universities (Korany, 2014). The list of the group's founders included names which later became prominent in the struggle between the authorities and political religious groups in Egypt, such as Abu Al-Ula Madhi, Karam Zuhdi, Abdulmonem Abu Al-Futooh, Aasim Abdulmajid, Usama Hafiz and others.

In 1977, many members of the Islamic Group switched to the Muslim Brotherhood, including some members who later became key figures in the Brotherhood, such as

Issam Al-Aryan, Abdulmonem Abu Al-Futooh, Helmi Al-Jazzar, and Abu Al-Ula Madhi. The latter left the Muslim Brotherhood to establish the Al-Wasat Party in February 2011(*Al-Ahram (Egypt)* 2011). However, Abu Al-Ula Madhi performed a further U-turn and was allied again with the Muslim Brotherhood after 2011.

The Islamic Group focused on trying to change by force what it deemed as ‘evil’ in university campuses, such as music and singing at concerts and other student activities (Al-Suwaidi, 2015). Politically, it was opposed to hosting the Iranian Shah by former president Muhammad Anwar Al-Sadat. It also rejected the famous visit by President Sadat to occupied Jerusalem and his signing of the Camp David Accords with Israel (*Aljazeera News*, 2011).

The Al-Jihad Organisation was founded by Muhammad Abdulsalam Faraj, whose major contribution was a book called *Al-Farida Al-Ghaiba* (The Neglected Duty), which constitutes the ideology of the Organisation. (*Assakina News* (2011)).

The central theme in *Al-Farida Al-Ghaiba* is the issue of jihad and the Islamic justification for the removal of unjust rulers. In June 1981, the Al-Jihad Organisation was responsible for violent sectarian conflict between Muslims and Coptic Christians in the Al-Zawiya Al-Hamra neighbourhood of Egypt (*Alarabiya.net*, 3 January, 2011).

President Sadat’s policies and repression of all opposition groups in 1981 led to his assassination by the Al-Jihad Organisation in October 1981. Faraj and the Al-Jihad members who participated in the assassination were executed (*Alraimedia*, 2009).

The Name Al-Qaeda

Al-Sayyid Imam Al-Shareef (also known as Dr. Fadl), wrote *Mustaqbal Al-Siraa’ fi Afghanistan* (The Future of the Conflict in Afghanistan) and was one of the early participants in the “jihad” in Afghanistan explains the reasons behind choosing the name “Al-Qaeda.” The reason given is that in 1984, Abdullah Azzam arrived at Peshawar (A Pakistani city located near the Khyber Pass, which is a mountain pass connecting the Afghan capital Kabul to Peshawar in Pakistan) and established the Mujahideen Services Office. As their facilities grew, so did their numbers grow (Al-Suwaidi, 2015). Usama bin Ladin used to raise donations for the Services Office and was well known at the Service Offices. When some Arabs complained to Usama bin Ladin about what they perceived as violations taking place at the Services Office, he decided to work independently from the Service Offices. In 1988, Usama bin Ladin started a training camp in Jaji, near the border with Pakistan, and called it *Maasadah Al-Ansar Al-Arab* (Lions’ Den of Arab Supporters). They decided to attack a nearby fortress occupied by the Communists. However, plans of the attack were leaked and when bin Ladin and his men approached the fortress, they sensed a trap and withdrew. They were ridiculed by other Arabs who said that they fled the first battle. So, the name of the camp was changed from *Maasadah* to *Qa’ida Al-*

Ansar Al-Arab (The Base of Arab Supporters), and later shortened to “Al-Qaeda”. (Al-Sharq Al-Awsat Newspaper, (London), 25 January, 2010.

Al-Qaeda and Jihadi Salafi

Jihadi Salafism, which believes in using force and armed violence to effect change, constitutes the main reference for Al Qaeda. The following concepts are central to jihadi Salafism (Naseera, 2008) and are worthy of note in order to understand Al-Qaeda.

Hakimiyya and Contemporary Jahiliyya

Protagonists of jihadi Salafi link the concept of hakimiyya with the concept of tawheed and Islamic faith. Hakimiyya is the doctrine of divine governance or hakimiyya and is the absolute sovereignty of Allah. Tawheed is the doctrine of oneness to Allah. The concept of oneness is subdivided into three types: 1) oneness of God (Allah), (Hijazi, 2007). Meaning that only God (Allah) can be worshipped; 2) oneness of the Creator, meaning that only God (Allah) can create creatures, regulate the universe, and give life and death; and 3) oneness of names and attributes, (Hijazi, 2007) meaning that all names and attributes of God (Allah) should be limited to God (Allah).

Jihadi Salafi followers consider anyone who does not believe that only God (Allah) has the right to set rules to be an unbeliever, while rulers who do not apply Sharia are also unbelievers. Furthermore, societies where Sharia does not prevail and Islam is not applied in public and private life are unIslamic (Hijazi, 2007). Hijazi argues that the main purpose of the jihadi Salafi ideologues' focus on the concept of hakimiyya is to delegitimise current regimes and accuse them of unbelief. Sayyid Qutb (1980) was a key protagonist of jihadi Salafi who formulated the concepts of hakimiyya and jahiliyya in the contemporary discourse of political religious groups. (Jahiliyya refers to ignorance of divine guidance and is reckoned to cover the period about a century before the advent of Islam) His writings have become key intellectual references for jihadi Salafis (Rumman and Haniya, 2012).

Qutb (1980) uses the concepts of hakimiyya and jahiliyya extensively in his writings, stressing them to the extent that he accuses anybody who does not agree with him of unbelief. Hakimiyya is the first quality of tawheed. According to Qutb, the declaration of faith (I bear witness that there is no god but Allah), means that only God (Allah) can be worshipped, and none of His creatures can share any of His qualities. The first quality of tawheed is the right of absolute divine hakimiyya, which includes the right to set laws for people to follow, and define principles and values to guide them in their lives (Rumman and Haniya, 2012). Jihadi Salafism adopts the same theoretical division adopted by traditional Wahhabi Salafism as mentioned above: tawheed, the oneness of the Creator

and the oneness of Names and Attributes. This theoretical aspect is shared by all Salafi schools (Naseera, 2008).

Jihad and Tawheed

Both jihad and tawheed are inseparable in the ideology of jihadi Salafism and Al-Qaeda. Salafism stresses that the aim of jihad is to promote the concept of tawheed (Naseera, 2008). Jihadi Salafis differ from other traditional Salafi schools that seek the permission of the ruler when jihad is to be declared a duty for all. According to the jihadi Salafis, jihad is the duty of every Muslim; it started at the time of the Prophet Musa (Moses), and will continue until Muslims fight against Al-Maseeh Al-Dajjal (the false messiah) (Naseera, 2008). Furthermore, jihadi Salafism divides states and societies into camps of believers and unbelievers (Naseera, 2008). They use those concepts and project them on the present reality in order to delegitimise many governments and regimes in the Arab and Muslim countries, and then use certain Sharia rules to give religious legitimacy to fatwas authorising jihad against those governments and political regimes (Rumman and Haniya, 2012).

Armed Jihad

The concepts of hakimiyya and un-Islamic contemporary societies (i.e., those deemed so by jihadi Salafism), jihadi Salafism concluded that those regimes must be removed through jihad (Al-Mawla, 2012). Therefore, they decided to topple those regimes which did not apply the rules of Sharia. According to jihadi Salafis, even though those regimes are headed by Muslim individuals, they are un-Islamic regimes because they rely on secular anti-religious references, and are loyal to the enemies of Islam. Therefore, those regimes should not be tolerated, and Sharia rules state that they should be disobeyed and resisted (Rumman and Haniya, 2012). The jihadi Salafis completely reject participation in politics and representation in parliaments, because this implies recognition of democracy and of existing regimes. This would amount to recognising something other than the rule of God (Allah). For them, jihad ranks high among other religious duties. Some of them even argue that jihad has become an individual duty (Rumman and Haniya, 2012).

Allegiance and Enmity (Al-Walaa Wal-Baraa)

The concept of allegiance and enmity is central to jihadi Salafism. In general, allegiance means loyalty and support to Muslims, and enmity means repudiation of unbelievers and hostility towards unbelievers (Rumman and Haniya, 2012). Jihadi Salafism considers the concept of allegiance and enmity to be inseparable from Islamic faith; it is even a criterion by which a Muslim's belief in and observation of Islam is measured. Abu Muhammad Al-Maqdisi, a jihadi Salafi Islamist Jordanian-Palestinian writer, authored a book titled *Millat Ibrahim* (The Religion of Abraham), to discuss

allegiance and enmity (Rumman and Haniya, 2012). Explaining the concept, Al-Maqdisi considers it essential for the Islamic faith and tawheed, and discusses two aspects: denunciation of any god other than God (Allah), and denunciation of unbelievers if they insist on their ways (Naseera, 2008).

Democracy

Jihadi Salafi literature considers democracy to be un-Islamic (Rumman and Haniya, 2012) because it allows man to make laws, which is contradictory to the principle of hakimiyya. According to this jihadi Salafi view, Sharia is a comprehensive system which covers all aspects of life, and a Muslim should not apply rules other than those of Sharia. Further to this, Al-Maqdisi, argues that democracy is a word of Greek origin. It means “the rule of the people,” which is, according to Wahhabi Salafism, un-Islamic and against the concept of hakimiyya, and therefore should be denounced (Rumman and Haniya, 2012).

The Development of Al-Qaeda

There have been several stages of development with Al-Qaeda.

Al-Muwakkali, 2009, recognises several stages in the development of Al-Qaeda. These include:

1. The camp and the front: this began in late-1987 and was focused on sourcing money and raising donations (Al-Muwakkali, 2009).
2. Building the organisation: this stage started in 1989, with the increasing number of Usama bin Ladin's followers and supporters of various nationalities, but mostly Saudis and Yemenis. Bin Ladin began asking his followers to swear the oath of allegiance to him as their emir and leader. With this, Al-Qaeda was transformed from a camp and fighting group into an organisation (Al-Muwakkali, 2009).
3. Restructuring: this stage began in 1990. Some of bin Ladin's followers with experience in relief and humanitarian work, originally used as a cover for the organisation, noticed that he was changing the goals and plans of the organisation from jihad in Afghanistan to jihad in South Yemen and preparing the organisation to participate in the Gulf War against the regime of former Iraqi president Saddam Hussein who occupied the State of Kuwait on August 2, 1990.

Al-Muwakkali, 2009, argues that Usama bin Ladin wanted to form an army of jihadists to fight against the forces of Saddam Hussein and liberate Kuwait, as an alternative to seeking the assistance of foreign forces, which was not acceptable to him. This idea, which was rejected by the Saudi Government, reflects bin Ladin's growing sense of power, which began to show in his behaviour towards his followers). As a result, there

were demands by some followers of Usama bin Ladin that the organisation should have a code and guidelines stating its values and objectives on the basis of which the oath of allegiance could be taken. However, Usama bin Ladin refused to accept any rules limiting his freedom to lead the organisation in any direction he pleased, and he dismissed from the organisation anyone who supported those demands. Thus, he made it clear to the remaining followers that they were expected to blindly obey and follow, or be dismissed from the organisation (Al-Muwakkali, 2009).

4. Global confrontation: in 1993, while in Sudan, Usama bin Ladin announced his intention, as leader of Al-Qaeda, to fight against international superpowers, particularly the United States of America. As a result of this announcement, some of his followers left the group. When the "World Islamic Front for Jihad against the Jews and the Crusaders" was announced in 1998, there was nothing new in its contents, save for the announcement itself, (Khalil, 2011). Possible US and European targets around the world had been monitored since 1993 (Al-Muwakkali, 2009). A fatwa was issued which read that "Killing Americans and their allies, whether civilian or military, is an individual duty of every Muslim everywhere, and should be done when possible. This way, the Al-Aqsa Mosque and the Holy Mosque in Mecca will be free from them, and their armies will leave the Muslim territory defeated" (Khalil, 2011)

This fatwa is certainly contradictory with all tolerant teachings of Sharia regarding the treatment of non-Muslims. Indeed, Usama bin Ladin was not qualified to issue fatwas (Al-Suwaidi, 2015).

5. Differences and Defections within Al-Qaeda: following the unprecedented attacks of September 11, 2001 in the United States of America, Al-Qaeda became the main target of the global war on terrorism. As a result, the organisation suffered many defections which undermined its hierachal structure and weakened its capabilities. These were greatly aggravated following the death of Usama bin Ladin, the organisation's founder and leader, in Pakistan on May 2, 2011 Al-Muwakkali, 2009.

Other writers such as Atwan (2013) observed that Al-Qaeda has gone through three main stages over the last 20 years (Atwan, 2013) and gives a different perspective of the stages. The three main stages are Establishment Stage, Jihadi Militancy and Decentralised Expansion.

Regardless of the stages of development Al-Muwakkali, (2009) and Atwan (2013) both agree that on the death of Usama bin Ladin, the organisation's founder and leader, in 2011, changed the whole dynamics of Al-Qaeda.

Differences and defections

In 2011 many differences started to emerge between the various militant groups. In fact, the situation had deteriorated even before the death of bin Ladin. On September 10, 2010, Nu'man bin Uthman (Abu Muhammad Al-Libi) a fundamentalist leader of the Shura Council of the Libyan Fighting Group, sent a letter to Usama bin Ladin on the occasion of the ninth anniversary of the attacks of September 11, 2001, stressing that "Muslims all over the world reject jihad as understood and practiced by Al-Qaeda, and refuse the establishment of an Islamic state which follows the understanding and practice of Al-Qaeda (Scheuer, 2012). Al-Libi invited bin Ladin to revise his strategy of violence which caused much damage to Islam and Muslims (Al-Asharq Al-Awsat Newspaper (London), 2001). Similar revisions by jihadi leaders in recent years reflect a rejection of the practices of Al-Qaeda and some of its branches. Those revisions, however, do not necessarily imply a break away from the extremist jihadi ideology, but merely reflect a rejection of the path and plans of Al-Qaeda (Scheuer, 2012).

In other words, the differences relate to the tactics, rather than the overall strategy of jihad.

These differences emerged in April 2013, as ISIL (then named the "Islamic State of Iraq") gained more strength and influence. Current estimates vary regarding the number of ISIL fighters. (In September 2014, the US Central Intelligence Agency estimated them at 20,000–30,000, (BBC, 12 September 2014) while Russia's National Security Council estimated the numbers at 30,000–50,000 in the same month (Russian Voice Radio, 26 September 2004). These estimates continuously change as the organisation's recruitment and mobilization efforts continue). In April 2013, "The Islamic State of Iraq" announced the change of its name to the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant, and its annexation of Jabhat Al-Nusra, which is estimated to have around 9,000 fighters (Aljazeera, 29 May 2014). However, the annexation was rejected by the leader of Jabhat Al-Nusra, Muhammad Al-Jawlani, who was supported by Al-Qaeda leader Ayman Al-Zawahiri.

ISIL's field victories, control of vast territories in Iraq and Syria, and announcement of the Caliphate state in June 2014, resulted in defections from Al-Qaeda; many groups and thousands of jihadis previously loyal to Al-Qaeda joined ISIL and shifted their allegiance to it, perhaps explaining the continuous increase in the number of foreign fighters in ISIL.

In a report published in June 2014 by the Soufan Group, a security intelligence services company based in New York estimated that at least 12,000 foreign fighters of 81 different nationalities, including around 3,000 Europeans, were fighting in Syria. On the other hand, US President Barack Obama, in his speech before the UN Security Council in September 2014, estimated the number at 15,000 from 80 countries (CNN (UAE) TV News, 24 September 2014).

In September 2014 it was announced by ISIL that several battalions and groups affiliated with Al-Qaeda had defected to ISIL in the Islamic Maghreb and its leader Abdulmalik Drudkal, also known as Abu Mus'ab Abdulwadood (Al-Ittihad (UAE) Newspaper, 15 September 2014).

The geographical spread of Al-Qaeda ideology and the strategic changes and transformations it has experienced is a topic which requires more study and research. At its early stages of jihad in Afghanistan in the 1980s, this ideology focused on fighting the faraway enemy, represented by the United States of America and its allies. It was transformed with the passage of time to the current form as adopted by the present jihadi organisations in Syria, Egypt and Iraq, with the increasing influence of the "Islamic State" (ISIL) (Assakina, 2009). Currently, Al-Qaeda's ideology focuses on fighting the nearby enemy, as represented by the Arab and Muslim regimes, and this resulted in many differences and divisions inside the organisation about its vision and doctrine.

According to Al-Suwaidi (2015) there are several reasons behind the current defections from Al-Qaeda. Al-Qaeda members belong to three generations; the first generation is the generation of old fighters who fought with Usama bin Ladin against the Soviet Union in the 1980s; the second generation joined at the time of the attacks of September 11, 2001 and participated in transferring the battles of the organisation abroad; and the third generation is the Internet generation which has formed local cells in the Arabian Peninsula, the Maghreb countries, Africa, and some European countries (Muhammad, 2014). The generational gaps created differences in terms of thought, planning, means and tactics, which resulted in defections.

Another cause is the large geographical expansion of Al-Qaeda's operations, which paved the way for such defections away from the parent organisation. A further reason is the killing of the organisation's founder, Usama bin Ladin, on May 2, 2011, which paved the way for defections and for the rise of other leaders (Al-Nahar Al-Jadeed (Algeria) 2014), especially in the light of the apparent weak personality of the organisation's new leader, Ayman Al-Zawahiri, compared with that of bin Ladin. All of this resulted in Al-Zawahiri losing control of the organisation which has now several, sometimes warring, leaders (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014).

Militant Jihadi Organisations in Syria

In Syria, during the early part of 2012, two militant organisations have appeared among the various movements and groups fighting against the regime of Bashar Al-Assad. These are Jabhat Al-Nusra, which reports directly to Al-Qaeda's leader Ayman Al-Zawahiri, and the Islamic State (IS) organisation which defected from Al-Qaeda and is working independently (CNN (UAE) TV News, 23 December 2014).

In 2012, the conflict in Syria saw the emergence of a trend towards armed struggle. There were factors which allowed militant jihadi groups to penetrate the ranks of protestors against the Syrian regime and use the Syrian conflict to cover and legitimise their activities. These factors included foreign incitement of protestors to take up arms, and the international environment were slow to recognise this change in the direction of what was then a political conflict. Some foreign players even provided logistic and military support to these jihadi groups. This coincided with several calls at the beginning of 2012 for the declaration of jihad in Syria and jihadi groups exploited those calls to emerge and grow their influence.

It seems the name Jabhat Al-Nusra was originally derived from one statement by Abu Mus'ab Al-Suri, Al-Qaeda theorist and writer, near the end of his book, "The Doctrine of Global Islamic Resistance", 2013, it stated: "Jihad started in Al-Sham (the Levant/Syria) at the beginning of the 1960s, prospered in Syria in the 1980s, and returns to it now, God (Allah) willing. Let's all, brothers of jihad, provide support (Nusra) to our brothers."

In January 2012, Abu Muhammad Al-Jawlani, leader of Jabhat Al-Nusra, announced the establishment of his organisation (Al-Mustafa, 2013). On April 9, 2013, it became involved in a conflict with another branch of Al-Qaeda. On that date, Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi, emir of the so-called Islamic State of Iraq, announced in a recorded statement the merger of The Jabhat Al-Nusra Li Ahl Al-Sham and The Islamic State of Iraq to establish The Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL). Al-Baghdadi called upon "all jihadi groups" in Iraq and Syria to give up their names and join ISIL".

Abu Muhammad Al-Jawlani in response delivered a speech in which he denied all knowledge of the announcement of ISIL, called for a renewed oath of allegiance to Al-Qaeda, referred the issue of the merger to arbitration and talked about the differences between Jabhat Al-Nusra and the Islamic State of Iraq, and their positions regarding Al-Qaeda, (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014). Jabhat Al-Nusra had disapproved of several practices by Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi's group, including its tenancy to accuse others of apostasy on a very wide scale, the killing of anyone who disagreed with them, risking the lives of civilizations in their operations, and their proclivity for offensive operations.

Al-Qaeda reacted through their leaders Ayman Al-Zawahiri in a televised statement broadcast by Al-Jazeera, rejecting the merger of the two organisations to form ISIL (Al-Mustafa, 2013) and stressing that Jabhat Al-Nusra was the branch of Al-Qaeda in Syria. Al-Zawahiri ordered that ISIL be abolished (Aljazeera, 8 November 2013) saying, "The Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) shall be abolished, and the name 'the Islamic State of Iraq' shall continue to be used". He stressed that Jabhat Al-Nusra was an autonomous branch reporting directly to the senior leadership of Al-Qaeda, and explained that "the Islamic State of Iraq shall have jurisdiction in Iraq, and the Jabhat Al-Nusra shall have jurisdiction in Syria" (Al-Watan Al-Arabi, 20 January 2014).

Events after 2011 effecting Al-Qaeda

Al-Qaeda never expected the domestic events that occurred in some Arab countries in 2011. This was admitted by Usama bin Ladin in a recording which was broadcast in May 2011 after he was killed (Miller, 2015). In this tape, he said: "We all were surprised when the sun of the revolution rose from the Maghreb (i.e. west of the Arab World) (Miller, 2015).

According to Atwan, 2013), the events of the "Arab Spring," triggered intellectual discussions and debates within the circles of jihadi organisations, especially Al-Qaeda regarding the centralisation or decentralisation of Al-Qaeda, as well as the focus on grassroots rather than elitist activism.

Besides failing to anticipate the popular protests and domestic developments which started in Tunisia in December 2010, Al-Qaeda's public reaction was slow; several weeks after the beginning of protests in Tunisia, the leadership of Al-Qaeda published on the Internet and social media networks statements clarifying the organisation's position regarding those events. In those statements, Al-Qaeda and other groups affiliated with it welcomed what Ayman Al-Zawahiri described as "blessed uprisings" in the Arab countries (Atwan, 2013).

Usama bin Ladin wrote one statement before his death regarding the protests in Arab countries. It was published three weeks after his death and in this statement, bin Ladin congratulated those who participated in making this change, but at the same time asked them to be cautious regarding any dialogue; they should be careful not to compromise what they have gained. He explained that revolutions offered an opportunity for liberation from despotism man-made laws, and Western control. He stressed that the goal of the popular protests was to restore dignity and pride, not to get food and clothes, warning that losing this opportunity would be the most severe of mistakes (Hajer, 2012 and Miller, 2015).

Ayman Al-Zawahiri's position echoed that of Usama bin Ladin; he pointed out that the journey was not over yet and there was a long way to go. True, the nations had toppled the rulers, but it was important to ensure the establishment of good government. Without good government everything would be lost (Hajer, 2012).

Al-Qaeda and its affiliated groups tried to take advantage of the fall of these Arab regimes and to ride the tide in the same way that other groups had. In an effort to link Al-Qaeda with the political changes occurring in Arab countries (Hajer, 2012) a large section of the Spring 2011 issue of the English online magazine of Al-Qaeda in the Arabian

Peninsula, 'Inspire', was devoted to what the magazine described as the "Tsunami of Change." The magazine stressed that Al-Qaeda had always cared about issues which are important to average Arab citizens (Hajer, 2012) including the identification of the nearby enemy (ruling regimes in the Arab and Muslim countries) and the far enemy (the West), and better utilization of the natural resources of the region to serve the interests of its citizens. Furthermore, Ayman Al-Zawahiri claimed that the "blessed incursions" (Atwan, 2013) (the term used by Al-Qaeda to refer to the attacks it carries out in various Arab and foreign countries) paved the way for the Arab events and turmoil, which was, in his opinion, a new defeat for the United States of America, which is the main backer of regimes in the region (Atwan, 2013).

Al-Qaeda was waiting for the effects of those events and turmoil to reach the Arabian Gulf countries and topple regimes there too. Anwar Nasser Al-Awlaki (leader of Al-Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula, and a US born Yemeni cleric who was killed in a drone raid in Yemen on September 30, 2011) (BBC, 30 September 2011) likened the turmoil to a collapsing mountain which would open the doors of opportunity for mujahideen all over the world. He stated that "thousands of Saudi mujahideen in prisons and other places in the Arabian Peninsula were ready to move once regimes in the Gulf start tumbling."

Al-Qaeda's Changing Face

The philosophy and political transformations of the protesters involved in the Arab Spring are completely different from that of Al-Qaeda. Although Ayman Al-Zawahiri welcomed what he called "the blessed uprisings". In an attempt to exploit their momentum, there was a major debate within Al-Qaeda and affiliated groups about formulating one position regarding those developments, involving a broad variety of views and opinions.

For example, in an online forum in May 2011, Doku Umarov, "Emir of the Caucasus Islamic Emirate", expressed his version of what he called "the game of Democratic Islam" taking place in Tunisia and Egypt.

It was also reported within Al-Qaeda that some groups see the new wave of democracy emerging from the Arab Spring as a danger and warn of "democracy becoming the religion of the people and an alternative to jihad." (Atwan, 2013).

The main argument of Al-Qaeda, at this time, was based on the assumption that corruption and Western support of regimes in the Arab and Muslim countries can be changed through jihad and attacks which aim at serving the interests of the people, which is similar to the perspective of jihadi Salafism. However, the achievement of political change through popular protest and demonstration, as in the case of Tunisia and Egypt, without any real contribution by Al-Qaeda and without using force and violence, has undermined the validity of Al-Qaeda's argument (Al-Haddad, 2012).

The failure to anticipate the political change resulting from the events since 2011, Al-Qaeda has played no significant role after the fall of those regimes. Youth groups in Tunisia and Egypt did not respond to Al-Qaeda. Libyan opposition groups which fought against former president Muammar Al-Qaddafi were not inspired by the concept of jihad in the doctrine of Al-Qaeda. On the contrary, they accepted assistance from the enemies of Al-Qaeda, namely NATO (Hajer, 2012).

Changes in the course of the events since 2011 in Arab countries, and the political and security chaos which ensued brought jihadi organisations, particularly Al-Qaeda and ISIL, back to the fore. They tried to retake the initiative and restore the appeal of armed jihad and other universal intellectual concepts related to extremism (Al Mustafa, 2013).

According to some researchers (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014) , the recent political changes, the fall of several Arab regimes, and the ensuing chaos in some countries, including Syria, Libya and Iraq offered Al-Qaeda an opportunity to reimpose itself on the Middle East (Al-Naber and Al-Jadeed, 2014).

Al-Qaeda's Media Strategy

Al-Qaeda's leadership appreciates the importance of media coverage of the organisation by various outlets. Following the attacks of September 11, 2001, this work became central to the organisation (Assakina, 4 February 2014).

Fundamentalist groups talk of three generations of Al-Qaeda, with the current generation being the third (Al-Suwaidi, 2015). Others writers (El Safty, 2014), point out that the organisation was unable to conduct any key operations against the United States of America after September 11, 2001, and that it has instead focused on recruiting new suicide bombers through the Internet using social media networks and jihadi websites, especially in countries suffering from security and political chaos under weak central governments.

There are some studies which have examined the media activities of Al-Qaeda and talked about the “media ideology of the Al-Qaeda organisation“, referring to a group of ideas which were formulated in the days of jihad in Afghanistan. These ideas were re-established, exported theoretically and practically, and expressed through the Internet, which was the only medium available to Al-Qaeda. As such, these ideas moved from a limited to an unlimited space in the form of text, sound, images and video, or a combination each. The way this ideology is expressed develops alongside the medium used (Al Wuakkali, 2009).

Al-Lami, (2014) stipulates that there are several stages which may be observed in the media activities of Al-Qaeda:

The first stage, prior to the attacks of September 11, 2001, was characterized by limited interest in Al-Qaeda among media outlets, especially those in the West.

In the second stage following September 11, 2001, Al-Qaeda and its affiliate organisations came under the international media spotlight and consistently made the headlines. The media ideology of Al-Qaeda was conceived during this stage.

The third stage, in the period 2003–2004, saw Al-Qaeda's media work become linked to operations on the ground. The organisation's media presence preceded field work, as in the case of the attacks on a residential complex inhabited by foreigners in Riyadh in 2003, the US Consulate in Jeddah in 2004, and in Yanbu in 2004 in which six Western nationals were killed (Assakina, 9 February 2013).

In the fourth stage (2005–2007), media was not directly linked to ground operations, and became an area of intensive activity in its own right.

Al-Qaeda leaders understood the key role of the media, and particularly the Internet, not only as an important and low-cost means of communication, but also as an effective means of attracting new recruits, and thus allowing the organisation to expand horizontally. Al-Qaeda changed its organisational structure accordingly, and moved towards decentralization, penetrating most countries of the world and creating sleeper cells to grow in the target environment. The role of the central leadership became limited to logistical support and guidance, as seen in Iraq and Saudi Arabia (Al Wuakkali, 2009).

Al-Qaeda and its affiliated groups and organisations train their members to use the Internet professionally and to exploit its potential as a media tool whose users and administrators are difficult to trace, especially with the use of new methods to circumvent controls and avoid identification (RPCS, 2011).

The websites of jihadi organisations such as ISIL provide key sources of information about organisations and their activities, as well as their political, military and Sharia publications (Shehadda, 2010).

Al-Wuakkali (2009) indicates that Al-Qaeda planned to revive the Caliphate state, which is the dream of all political religious groups. This plan consisted of three elements, including a media element which was the most important. These three elements are as follows:

The first element was the creation of a branch of Al-Qaeda in Saudi Arabia in order to wage a long-term war of attrition against Saudi and American forces and drag the United States of America into a war on Saudi territory (Al-Wuakkali, 2009)

The second element was carrying out a major attack against the United States of America on its territory in order to drag it to a war in Saudi Arabia; this took the form of the September 11, 2001 attacks (Al-Wuakkali, 2009).

The third was conducting an intensive media campaign through the Internet, the only media tool available to promote the ideology of the organisation. This would formulate the media ideology of the organisation (Al-Wuakkali, 2009).

Al-Qaeda now has several websites and other prominent outlets (Al-Wuakkali, 2009)

The war waged by Al-Qaeda, on all fronts, is based on attrition, which relies tactically on guerrilla warfare. This form of warfare relies on propaganda to sustain itself. Hence, media work was given priority within the organisation (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014). L

Literature explains that guerrilla warfare requires intensive media coverage and propaganda at all levels, as well as media tools which are capable of presenting the organisation's viewpoint both domestically and abroad (Al-Muwakkali, 2009). Ironically, the jihadi organisations' interest in the media and its role in forming trends and changing convictions coincides with a move in some Arab and Muslim countries towards the abolition of the Ministry of Information/ Media at a time when the public in these countries seem to be in a desperate need of an equivalent authority to counter the propaganda and militant ideas promoted by political religious groups through various traditional and electronic media as well as social media.

The birth and growth of the Islamic State Organisation (ISIL)

The Islamic State organisation (ISIL) has gained notoriety over the past few years especially in Syria. However, its roots go back to September 2003, when Abu Mus'ab Al-Zarqawi established and led a group which he called "Jama'at Al-Tawheed wa Al-Jihad" (The Group of Monotheism and Jihad). Between September 2003 and October 2004, the group launched almost 50 car bomb attacks, both driven by suicide bombers and remotely controlled mostly in Baghdad, the capital of Iraq (Shehada, 2010).

The group developed psychological, political and cyber warfare tactics, and launched an ideological and political campaign against the legitimacy of the government and the state of Iraq. According to Shehada (2010), the United States of America insisted on linking Al-Zarqawi's group to Al-Qaeda in order to link former Iraqi president Saddam Hussein to Al-Qaeda, which would form one of its justifications for the invasion of Iraq in 2003 (Shehada, 2010).

It has been reported by Aljazeera, (12 January 2006) that Ahmad Fadel Al-Khalaylah, known by the name Abu Mus'ab Al-Zarqawi, who was originally from Jordan, had differences with Al-Qaeda regarding several intellectual and combat-related issues.

While Al-Zarqawi accused all Arab regimes of infidelity without exception, Usama bin Ladin excluded some countries, especially Saudi Arabia in the early stages. Furthermore, while Usama bin Ladin took the oath of allegiance to Al-Mulla Muhammad Omar and the Taliban regime (Scheuer, 2012). Usama bin Ladin and Al-Zawahiri continued to work together with Usama bin Ladin and Al-Zawahiri developed their strategy from fighting the near enemy (Arab and Muslim regimes) to fighting the faraway enemy which included the United States of America; while Al-Zarqawi held to the objective and focused more on fighting the near enemy (Shehada, 2010).

However, things changed after the fall of the Taliban regime in Afghanistan; Al-Qaeda lost its safe heaven there and decided to attack Saudi Arabia in order to shake the trust by the United States of America of its Gulf ally and destabilise the relations between the two countries (Scheuer, 2012 and (Miller, 2015). This began in May 2003 with a series of bomb attacks (including attacks targeting residential complexes inhabited by foreigners in Riyadh). As a result, there was polarisation among jihadi Salafis in Saudi Arabia (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014). Besides, the successes of Saudi security authorities in fighting followers; they felt that Al-Zarqawi's strategy in Iraq was preferable and more effective, and that it was useless to continue operations in Saudi Arabia (Scheuer, 2012). A number of Al-Qaeda leaders began adopting the position of Al-Zarqawi, which paved the way for him to join Al-Qaeda later on. On October 4, 2004, Al-Zarqawi joined Al-Qaeda and took the oath of allegiance to Usama bin Ladin. He became the representative of Al-Qaeda in the region (Shehada, 2010) and changed the name of his group from Al-Tawheed wa Al-Jihad to the Al-Qaeda Organisation in Mesopotamia (Shehada, 2010).

On December 15, 2005, Al-Zarqawi formed the Mujahideen Shura Council from members of Al-Qaeda in order to coordinate activities against American occupation and to form the core of the Islamic state (Mujahideen Shura Council, 15 January 2005) Al-Zarqawi announced that the Caliphate would soon be established in Iraq, giving a time frame of three months. However, he was killed on June 8, 2006 in a US bombing of Baquba, and the establishment of the state was postponed (Shehada, 2010).

Abu Hamza Al-Muhajir succeeded Al-Zarqawi as leader of Al-Qaeda in Iraq. On October 15, 2006, a military organisation was formed to encompass all fundamentalist organisations in Iraqi territory (Salzman, 2008). It was called the Islamic State of Iraq, and was led by Abu Omar Al-Baghdadi (Noon Post. 7 May 2014) In April 2010 American forces raided a house where Abu Omar Al-Baghdadi and Abu Hamza Al-Muhajir were hiding. Fierce fighting erupted, and the house was bombed, killing both of them. Ten days later, the Shura Council of the Islamic State in Iraq met and chose Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi to succeed.

Born in 1971 in Samarra, Iraq, Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi's real name is Ibraheem Awwad Al-Badri. He has several aliases: Ali Al-Badri Al-Samarra'i, Abu Dua'a, Dr. Ibraheem, and

AlKarrar (Al-Alam, 7 January 2014) He graduated of the Islamic University in Baghdad, were according to some sources he received his bachelor's, masters and doctoral degrees (Al-Alam, 7 January 2014). Al-Baghdadi started as a religious educator and preacher, but soon became a jihadist. He emerged as a representative of jihadi Salafism in Iraq's Diala and Samarra provinces. He formed small jihadi cells which carried out a number of operations and participated in the street battles in Iraq. Then, he established an organisation by the name of Jaish Ahl Al-Sunnah wa Al-Jama'a (The Army of the Sunnis) which carried out operations in Baghdad, Samarra and Diala. His organisation joined the Mujahideen Shura Council, and he remained a member of the Council until the Islamic State of Iraq was announced (Al-Alam, 7 January 2014). On May 16, 2010, Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi proclaimed himself emir of the so-called Islamic State of Iraq (Al-Alam, 7 January 2014). ISIL took a bloodier and more violent course after Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi assumed its leadership (A-Suwaidi, 2014).

The Islamic State of Iraq became more violent when Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi became its leader in May 2010. The organisation has carried out a large number of operations and attacks killing thousands of Iraqis (not including attacks by Al-Qaeda under Al-Zarqawi and his successor). Most notorious was the attack at the Umm Al-Qura Mosque in Baghdad, in which Iraqi Member of Parliament Khalid Al-Fahdawi was killed (Mawtani, 31 August 2011). Through the website of Al-Qaeda in Iraq, the group announced it was responsible for more than 100 suicide attacks conducted in revenge for the murder of Usama bin Ladin, resulting in the death of hundreds of members of the Iraqi army, police and the public. It was also responsible for several high-profile operations in Iraq, such as the Central Bank Operation in June 2010 (Al-Nahar, 2013).

Al-Zawahiri failed to manage and control Al-Qaeda after Usama bin Ladin was killed. Structural splits increased and effected the terrorist organisations in the Arab and Muslim worlds (Al-Nahar, 2014).

Following these differences and defections, Al-Zawahiri made a speech in January 2014 when he appealed to groups in Syria to stop fighting each other and elevate themselves above "organisational loyalty and partisan fanaticism," (Arrahmah, 2014).

Zawahiri, after the speech, faced criticism about his ability to control the organisation (Al-Hayat (London), 17 April 2014). All this comes in the wake of his decision to abolish the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), and his insistence in November 2013 that Jabhat Al-Nusra was the only branch of Al-Qaeda in Syrian Arab (Al-Hayat (London), 17 April 2014).

The internal defections of jihadi Salafi organisations associated with Al-Qaeda are not without precedent, but they are the most obvious to be seen within these organisations (Assakina, 4 February 2014). In addition differences between ISIL and Jabhat Al-Nusra have increased, leading to assassinations on each side.

Tasha Sushi Fellahin, also known as Abu Muhammad Al-Adjani, accused Al-Qaeda of deviating from the road of jihad and dividing the ranks of jihadists (Al-Wasat, 19 April 2014). In a recorded statement which appeared on jihadi websites in April 2014, Al-Adnani invited fighters of various jihadi organisations to support his organisation during the discord with Al-Qaeda, which, in his opinion, was no longer the “base of jihad.” (Al-Wasat, 19 April 2014). He stressed that the difference between ISIL and Al-Qaeda: by saying that, “It is not about killing someone, or taking the oath of allegiance to someone; it is about deviation from the path of pure religion, adopting pacifism, and following the majority” (Al-Wasat, 19 April 2014).

There were reports that Usama bin Ladin’s letters, which were found by the CIA in his house after he was killed in Pakistan on May 2, 2011, revealed the magnitude of the differences and divisions within Al-Qaeda (Scheuer, 2012 and Miller, 2015).

The Islamic State organisation, known in the media as ISIL, developed from the historical ideological and organisational differences between the Al-Qaeda parent organisation and its regional branches. These differences can be traced back to the time when Ahmad Al-Khalaylah (Abu Mus’ab Al-Zarqawi) was leader of “Al-Qaeda in Mesopotamia,” before he was killed in 2006 (Al-Suwaidi, 2014). Although Al-Zarqawi took the oath of allegiance to the founder and previous leader of Al-Qaeda, Usama bin Ladin, he never observed the fatwas of Al-Qaeda’s ideologues in managing his organisation’s operations in Iraq. He gave priority to fighting the Shiites over fighting the Americans, which reflects the differences between the agenda of the parent organisation and that of this branch (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014). This is in contrast to Al-Qaeda’s philosophy of confronting the West in general, and the United States of America in particular, facing foreign hegemony, the application of Sharia in domestic affairs, and the establishment of the Caliphate; these are key pillars of Al-Qaeda’s ideology (Bunzel, 2015).

On the other hand, the agenda of ISIL gives priority to facing Iranian influence and expansion in the region and fighting what it calls the “Safavid Project,” especially after the withdrawal of the Americans from Iraq. The sectarian Sunni–Shiite division is the key driver of ISIL, and it is the reason why it has become powerful in an environment dominated by sectarian conflict (Byman, 2015). By contrast, geopolitical interests constitute the key driver of the central leadership of Al-Qaeda. The establishment of what they describe as the Caliphate state is a shared goal of the two organisations (Bunzel, 2015).

Establishment of Islamic State

The Iraqi branch of Al-Qaeda joined the parent organisation and took the oath of allegiance to Usama bin Ladin, as previously mentioned, its founder, Al-Zarqawi, established his own independent network which extended from Jordan to Afghanistan and then to Iraq, before he was killed on June 7, 2006 (Salzman, 2008)

The Islamic State of Iraq was established on October 15, 2006 under the leadership of Abu Omar Al-Baghdadi, who was killed, together with his military leader Abu Hamza Al-Muhajir, on April 19, 2010 (Bunzel, 2015). He was succeeded by Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi on May 16, 2010. This period witnessed a transformation in the organisational structure of the Iraqi branch of Al-Qaeda, which no longer concerned itself with the opinion of the parent organisation or other jihadi organisations.

On January 3, 2014, armed conflict erupted between ISIL and other jihadi organisations, including Jabhat Al-Nusra, the Mujahideen Army, the Islamic Front, and the Syria Rebels Front, in addition to parts of the Free Syrian Army and local communities (Byman, 2015).

The crisis in Syria uncovered the deep differences between Al-Qaeda and its regional branches, these differences collectively resulted from a gap which has been widening since American forces withdrew from Iraq in 2011. This coincided with the arrival of popular protests in Syria in the middle of March 2011 and in Iraq at the end of 2012. These circumstances, according to Bunzel (2015), contributed to a rebirth of Al-Qaeda, a revival of ISIL, and the emergence of a new generation of jihadists who are much more violent and vehement than previous generations. This is when the Iraqi branch of Al-Qaeda challenged the organisation's central leadership, represented by Ayman Al-Zawahiri, through the announcement on April 9, 2013 by Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi, leader of the Islamic State of Iraq, of a merger with Jabhat Al-Nusra in Syria to create the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (Al-Sharq Al-Awsat (London), 9 November 2013). This confrontation was an inevitable culmination of the historical differences between the branch and the centre, which had been contained under Usama bin Ladin.

Matters deteriorated further when the next day, April 10, 2013, the leader of Jabhat Al-Nusra, Abu Muhammad Al-Jawlani, issued a statement in which he refused to join ISIL, announced that his organisation reported directly to the parent organisation of Al-Qaeda, and reiterated his oath of allegiance to Al-Zawahiri. Attempting to contain this situation Al-Zawahiri issued a decision on June 9, 2013 in which he abolished the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant, proclaimed that Jabhat Al-Nusra and the Islamic State of Iraq would remain two separate branches of Al-Qaeda, and specified the jurisdiction of each group.

In June 2014 ISIL announced the establishment of "the Caliphate state", with Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi becoming "the Caliph of Muslims everywhere." The spokesman of the group said that the words "in Iraq and the Levant" have been deleted from the name of the state, which became simply The Islamic State and invited all Muslims to travel to the state (France24, 30 June 2014).

The announcement of the "Caliphate" was met with disapproval regionally and internationally. The Association of Muslim Scholars in Iraq stated that "this step does not serve the interests of Iraq and its unity. From the perspective of Sharia, this announcement is not binding on any one" (Association of Muslim Scholars in Iraq, 2014).

Ahmed Al-Raysooni, Vice President of the International Union of Muslim Scholars criticized what he described as “the unreal Caliphate and alleged oath of allegiance which is not binding on any one and concerns nobody other than those who took it.”

Opposition and criticism of an Islamic Caliphate increased and even prominent figures of the jihadi Salafi movement, from which ISIL descended. Issam Al-Barqawi (Abu Muhammad Al-Maqdisi), a prominent ideologue of the Salafi movement and its leader in Jordan, issued a fatwa delegitimising the Caliphate state in Iraq and the Levant, and questioning the validity of the oath of allegiance which “did not meet the prescribed conditions.” (Al-Arab Al-Yawm (Jordan), 3 July 2014). Al-Barqawi’s position was echoed by Omar Mahmood Othman (Abu Qatada), one of the leaders of the Salafi movement. This criticism of the announcement of the Islamic Caliphate triggered a strong debate in jihadi forums.

This internal crisis turned into a war of statements. Members of jihadi organisations issued a statement signed by “followers of Al-Tawheed wa Al-Jihad in Jordan, (Al-Maqdisi, 2014) in which they announced their allegiance to the Islamic State and its emir, Al-Baghdadi, called on those fighting under the banner of Jabhat Al-Nusra in Daraa and Ghouta to defect and join ISIL, and strongly criticised the hierarchy of those organisations Al-Maqdisi and Abu Qatada for opposing the establishment of the “Caliphate state” and the appointment of Al-Baghdadi as Caliph of all Muslims. On the other hand, the Shura Council of the jihadi Salafi faction in Jordan issued a circular asking the Salafis “not to join ISIL or fight in their ranks,” (Al-Arab (London), 24 July 2014). This circular was based on the fatwa of Abu Qatada, who called on ISIL fighters to defect and considered anyone fighting with ISIL to be committing a sin (Al-Arab (London), 24 July 2014).

Consequently, followers of the jihadi Salafi current were divided into supporters of the Islamic State organisation – who were mostly young people and former supporters of Al-Zarqawi and supporters of the Jabhat Al-Nusra, who mostly belonged to the old generation of Al-Maqdisi and Abu Qatada. This suggests that the younger generation is much more radicalised than its predecessor (Al-Suwaidi and El Safty, 2014).

For many followers of the jihadi organisations, Al-Baghdadi is carrying on the legacy of Al-Zarqawi. Therefore, members of ISIL are the new, more radicalised generation of jihadi Salafis. This generation tends to ignore old leaders and their fatwas, favouring instead field leaders and violence. It seems that these factors are the key criterion for leadership in the organisation (Bunzel, 2015).

The Islamic State organisation is now addressing young people outside the jihadi Salafi environment (Al-Hayat (London), 4 July 4 2014). It is taking advantage of social and economic conditions to attract poor and unemployed young people by promising better living conditions under the Caliphate, but without presenting any tangible plan.

Jihadism and Sectarianism and ISIL

ISIL is the worst mixture of jihadi Salafism and sectarianism (Al-Suwaidi, 2014). It adopts the concept of hakimiyya, accuses others of unbelief, uses violence as a means for radical change, and rejects democracy as an alternative to Islamic rule. Its ideology derives from Sayyid Qutb, the Imam Ahmad ibn Taymiyya and Al-Mawdoodi, and relies on a guided reading of the religious text which looks at individuals, societies and states only from the perspective of pure faith, belief in tawheed, and servitude to God (Allah), with the aim of bringing them back to Islam which, according to this perspective, they have abandoned. This reading completely ignores other jurisprudential and Sharia sources. (Azzouzi, 2012)

The Holy Quran, the Noble Sunnah, and certain books by the righteous ancestors are almost the only sources used by jihadi Salafism to inform their ideas and organisational experiences. These sources are interpreted literally without considering the context or conditions prevailing at the time. Such literal interpretations underline the problematic relationship between the sacred text and the material world, and the duality of the text and reasoning (Al-Hayat (London), 11June 2014).

Jihadi Salafism follows the literal interpretation approach, accuses others of unbelief, adopts the concept of hakimiyya, and aims to bring society and the state back to Islam through the use of violence. This violence is justified by the fact that, regardless of the religion of the population, it exists in a state of unbelief and does not apply the principle of hakimiyya. This has given rise to new concepts and interpretations which allow the declaration of war not only against one's enemies, but also against Muslim society and anyone opposing such interpretations Bunzel (2015). These interpretations are backed by historical precedents where fatwas were issued to legitimize jihad within Islamic territories, such as the fatwa of the Imam Ahmad ibn Taymiyya. However, the historical, political and jurisprudential context of such precedents is completely ignored, and those fatwas have been used as authoritative texts to justify jihad within contemporary Islamic societies. This has paved the way for the rise of a violent and narrow-minded discourse which accuses others of unbelief (Qutb, 1982). The emergence of cadres who have misused the concept of jihad, thereby prepared the political and social landscape for sedition, civil war and sectarian conflict.

The jihadi organisations still look at regimes in the Arab and Muslim countries as un-Islamic systems which do not apply Islamic rules and principles and exclude religion from their policies, practices and international relations. In addition, those organisations reject the concepts of democracy, political parties and participation on the grounds that they constitute "unbelief in God (Allah)" (Qutb, 2006).

Jihadi organisations view interactions within the framework of the international community based on a certain value system and a certain perspective, which ranks the

values of the “other” lower than that of their own. Since the value system of a certain religion is sacred, no movement is possible on this value scale. Therefore, the jihadi organisations’ perspectives of international relations, national interests and political change are based on idealistic perceptions of the nature of Islam, which they consider the only framework to determine political behaviour at either the domestic or foreign levels, and a global ideology based on the fact that God (Allah) is the God of the whole world, which goes beyond the political behaviour of community (Imad, 2006). The failure of these organisations to study the new world order and understand its interactions, and their limited religious value-based view of international relations, result in a failure to understand reality and deal with changes in the new world order, and therefore the loss of any ability to influence that order and direct it to serve the interests of the Arab and Islamic nations (Ammon News, June 1, 2013).

In general, Middle East political religious groups generally share the goal of establishing an Islamic state, changing the structure and institutions of the political system and effecting a large-scale social change which demands continuous efforts aimed at changing the status quo. However, the vision of jihadi Salafi organisations such as Jabhat Al-Nusra and the Islamic State organisation, is completely different from the agenda of other political religious groups in terms of their priorities and tactics. For example, the Muslim Brotherhood is pursuing political tactics to revive the Caliphate, provided certain conditions are met, unlike jihadi Salafism which uses violence as the means to achieve its goal; the Islamic State organisation is using violence and murder to expand its control, invade other countries and bring them under the banner of the Caliphate (Hatti, 2013).

ISIL and Regional Conflicts

Developments and events in the Arab and Muslim worlds since the beginning of the twenty first century which, according to some analyses, have threatened decades-old international and regional power balances, (Hatti, 2013) together with the increasing pace of change in the new world order, (Al-Suwaidi, 2014), have created fertile soil for the growth of the Islamic State organisation in the territories of Syrian and Iraq. Having promoted sectarianism, adopted violence and accused others of unbelief, the ISIL is now threatening to expand its so-called Caliphate geographically and politically to neighbouring territories. The fictitious map of the “Caliphate” encompasses countries such as Iraq, Syria, Jordan, Palestine, Lebanon, and some Gulf states. According to Al-Baghdadi, the mission of ISIL is “to protect Muslims everywhere.” (Elaph, 1 July, 2014).

The Syrian crisis has contributed to the rise of the “Islamic State” organisation, which has been able to control vast areas of Iraqi territory at a time when the domestic Iraqi scene is dominated by division, sectarianism and insecurity which are driving the country towards further civil war. As such, the situation in Iraq is open to all scenarios: either a

comprehensive national dialogue aimed at building an all-inclusive consensus-based democracy, thereby containing the influence and threat of ISIL; or a new sectarian setback similar to that witnessed in 2008 when clashes erupted between Sunni and Shiite Islamic groups. The latter scenario would increase the chances of a continuing Iraqi crisis with no political solution, which would strengthen ISIL and extend its control to other areas (Bunzel, 2015). .

The rise of the ISIL and the crimes it has committed against civilians in areas under its control has resulted in an American led international alliance against it. In this context, US Secretary of State John Kerry held several meetings with the ministers of foreign affairs of the Arab countries to discuss aerial bombing of ISIL's sites in Iraq and the north of Syria. The US began the bombing campaign in August 2014 (Guardian Newspaper, 24 July, 2015).

The broad regional and international participation in the alliance against ISIL reflects an increasing awareness of the threat of this organisation, not only to the security and stability of Arab and Muslim countries, but international security and peace as well. This became evident in UN Security Council Resolution 2170 issued on August 15, 2014.

The UN resolution completely rejected the terrorist practices of ISIL and other extremist organisations, and stressed the importance of fighting them. Through the resolution, the Council demanded that ISIL, Al-Nusra Front and all other entities associated with Al-Qaeda cease all violence and terrorist acts, and immediately disarm and disband (UN Security Council Resolution 2170 (2014).

The air strikes conducted by the American led international alliance of more than 60 countries against ISIL and Jabhat Al-Nusra in Iraq and Syria reflect a concerted move by the international community to stop terrorist acts carried out by these extremist organisations in the name of religion. Some Arab and Muslim countries, including the United Arab Emirates, play an active and vital role in this international alliance. The Gulf News, 23 September 23, 2014 reported that the UAE air force joined the coalition and made its first air strikes against Daesh (ISIL) targets. This role reflects the political conviction of these countries regarding the dangers of the phenomenon of terrorism and its negative effects on regional and international peace and security, besides the fact that it distorts Islam and its tolerant image around the world (Byman, 2015).

Abu Dhabi Police and UAE threat awareness

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) are aware of the threats posed by the various militant groups, especially by ISIL and Al-Qaeda, to the region.

It is part of all ADP police officers psyche to be mindful of the threats posed and to be vigilant of these threats. When discussing change management and the officers and

actors involved in the process one thing that is rarely mentioned is the local and regional threats from militant groups. This is mentioned at this juncture for the benefit of observers of ADP change management programme that may consider making direct comparisons with other police management programmes in different parts of the world. In making comparisons in change management in other parts of the world; the nuts and bolts of the systems and processes may be identical to each other but the more subtle elements such as the operating environment and psyche of the personalities of the individuals involved in the ADP change management process may be overlooked. Part of the rationale for including this section into this thesis is to assist the observer to have a fuller awareness of the subtle nuances that ADP operate under.

The examples provided in this section are from open-sources and highlight the counter measures taken or that have to be considered to counter militant groups. The examples hereunder are from open sources but provide details of the unique situation ADP operate under.

The first example relates to a new GCC police force. On 8 December 2014 a GCC Summit was held in Doha, Qatar. In attendance were several ministers from the region including Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid, Vice President and Prime Minister of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai. The summit details and the new formation of a regional police force was reported and contained in the National Newspaper (Vela, 2014).

At the summit it was agreed that the GCC will form a regional police force based in Abu Dhabi. The police force is to be known as GCC-Pol.

Khalid bin Mohammed Al Attiyah, the Qatari Foreign Minister, said, “The police force would improve regional cooperation against terrorism” and “It will be an Interpol-like force but inside GCC countries”.

The rapprochement that began in 2014 on the topic underlines the GCC’s consensus on the urgent need to address the growing extremism that threatens to destabilise the region (Vela, 2014).

The second open source example relates to ISIL attempts to recruit UAE nationals. On 24 March 2015 the National Newspaper reported that police believe UAE youths are being targeted for recruitment by ISIL.

In response, a local UAE based preacher, Ahmed Al Kubaisi, was quoted in the National Newspaper as emphasising the importance of a balanced upbringing to protect young people from extreme ideologies. Ahmed Al Kubaisi, went on to say, “The child must be raised in a balanced environment in his home, where the parents must teach him that God is the only one to determine when one’s life should be taken and for what reason”. He also explained that too many people were being lured into believing ISIL was the face

of Islam, when in reality “they are the devil who is distorting the peaceful truth of Islam and scaring people away from Islam”.

The article went on to explain that all parents and professionals agree that talking openly with young people and taking preventive measures was crucial to stopping young people being seduced by terrorist organisations and taking preventive measures was crucial to stopping any potential recruitment into terrorist organisations. Mr Al Kubaisi adding that the UAE was a strong, safe and alert country (Al-Amir, 2015).

The third open source report relates to a Federal Bureau of investigation (FBI) spokesperson. On 3 March 2015 a police conference was held in Dubai and attended by numerous police representatives including Stephen J Gaudin, FBI Legal Attaché-Chief of Office, UAE. Gaudin spoke to the conference about the murder of American teacher, Ibolya Ryan, in Abu Dhabi. Ibolya Ryan was killed in the toilets of a Reem Island Mall in December 2015. Her killer, Alaa Bader Abdullah, was also accused of attempting to kill residents in an apartment in the Habtoor Building, Corniche, Abu Dhabi. She was later convicted of the charged and sentenced.

Gaudin representing the FBI said at the International Symposium for Best Police Practices: “My understanding from what’s available in the public realm is that she (Alaa Bader Abdullah) spent a lot of time on the internet. Someone could be in their bedroom, never leave it, and meet, communicate and talk on any type of social media platform with anyone from Al Nusra, ISIL and Al Qaeda, and be provided with radicalisation, motivation and, more importantly, how to build a bomb.”

Gaudin went on to explain that such groups no longer had to carry out spectacular attacks like 15 to 20 years ago to lure recruits.

Gaudin went on to explain “If you look at the group who are fighting with Daesh (Arabic word for ISIL) now, over 50 per cent are not from Iraq or Syria. They are groups from Tunisia, Saudi, Jordan and Turkey. We have American teenage girls living in Colorado trying to go to Syria. Things have gone upside down.” Gaudin emphasised and highlighted the fact that incidents could still happen, even in the relative safety of the UAE (Moukhallati, 2015).

The last open source report relates to the Sawab Centre, Abu Dhabi. On 7 July 2015 the Sawab Centre opened in Abu Dhabi. “The centre, named after the Arabic word for ‘the right and spiritual path,’ will use direct online engagement to counter the terrorist messaging that is used to recruit foreign fighters, fundraise, and terrorise local populations,” the United States of America State Department reported in the National Newspaper (Khan, 2015).

The opening comes after the American President Barack Obama cautioned on 5 July 2015 that the coalition was “intensifying” its campaign against ISIL’s bases in Syria.

"We're going after the ISIL leadership and infrastructure in Syria, the heart of ISIL that pumps funds and propaganda to people around the world," he said after a meeting with his national security team at the Pentagon (Khan, 2015).

The American Under Secretary for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs, Rick Stengel, travelled to the UAE to launch the Sawab Centre on 7 July 2015, alongside UAE Minister of State for Foreign Affairs, Dr Anwar Gargash.

Under Secretary Richard Stengel, the senior state department official responsible for counter-propaganda efforts recently admitted in a leaked memo that internal disagreements and bureaucratic confusion had allowed the American led coalition's online efforts to be "trumped" by ISIL's sophisticated social media strategy (Khan, 2015).

In 2011, the American State Department created a small office, the Centre for Strategic Counterterrorism Communications (CSCC), to combat ISIL online via Twitter, Facebook and YouTube. But the centre has largely been viewed as a failure by counter-terrorism analysts and government officials.

However, according to Khan (2015) American officials believe that the CSCC learned from its mistakes and will now seek closer coordination with allies in the Middle East as well as prominent religious scholars and respected civil society leaders, whom officials hope will help steer at-risk Arab youth away from ISIL. The new Sawab Centre will play a central role in this plan.

Arab countries in the coalition have been focused on removing or blocking extremist content, but not on creating a counter-narrative to battle ISIL in the realm of ideas online (Khan, 2015).

The Sawab Centre's website (<http://www.sawabcenter.org/>) provides full details of its aims and objectives and what the centre stands for, which includes: Diversity: A Middle East region in which religions, ethnicities and peoples live peacefully side by side and respect each other's cultures and creeds; Progress: A Middle East region that promotes education, opportunities and personal progress for all of its citizens and in particular the youth; Transparency: The truth about Daesh and how it is abusing Islam; Tolerance: Tolerance for different opinions and creeds in the online space; Moderation: Promoting moderate voices representing Islam and its many schools in its many diverse manifestations.

To gain a different perspective into some of the work of ADP and its partners in dealing with militant groups and to give some local context, an extract from the USA Congressional Research Service Report, RS21852, September 14, 2015, which follows, provides an insight to these matters:

Since the attack of 11 September, 2001 in New York of the World Trade Centre, the USA State Department has credited the UAE with making significant efforts against terrorism and terrorism financing. According to the USA State Department, reports say the UAE has arrested senior Al Qaeda operatives; denounced terror attacks; improved border security; instituted programs to counter violent extremism; investigated suspect financial transactions; criminalised use of the Internet by terrorist groups; and strengthened its bureaucracy and legal framework to combat terrorism. In July 2014, the UAE Federal National Council (FNC) approved a draft counter-terrorism law that makes it easier to prosecute, and increases penalties for, planning acts of terrorism, and authorises the UAE cabinet to set up lists of designated terrorist organisations and persons (Defense News, July 26, 2014). The draft law became law on August 21, 2014. At the December 2014 GCC summit; the GCC leaders announced the creation of a regional police force to be headquartered in Abu Dhabi. Among notable recent successes, in October 2010, UAE authorities assisted in foiling an Al Qaeda in the Arabian Peninsula plot to send bombs to the USA. On December 26, 2012, the UAE, working with Saudi Arabia, arrested members of an alleged terrorist cell plotting attacks in the United States. In April 2013, UAE authorities arrested seven non-UAE Arab nationals allegedly affiliated with Al Qaeda. In May 2014, the UAE tried nine people on charges of supporting the Al Nusrah Front, an Al- Qaeda-linked faction of Syrian rebels that is named by the United States as a Foreign Terrorist Organization (FTO). UAE authorities failed to prevent a December 1 killing of an American teacher by a 38 year old Emirati woman who allegedly had visited extremist websites, although they did defuse a subsequent bomb she planted outside the home of an American doctor and arrested her within 48 hours of the attacks (Congressional Research Service, September 14, 2015).

The Congressional Research Service Report gives a flavour of how involved ADP, military and partner agencies are in dealing with militant groups.

For a better understanding of the Emirati psyche in relation to the external and internal militant threats one has to view some more recent events that have impacted on some of the people of the Emirate. Some of the events include:

National Service for Emiratis which commenced in January 2015. The qualifying ages for service are between 18 years and 30 years. National Service last generally 2 years (National Service and Reserves Authority, 2015). This affects all young eligible male Emiratis.

National Service brings to the fore that at any time Emiratis could be called upon to serve in the military and police at a time of crisis. ADP has to be prepared for this and have the necessary plans in place.

Another incident that affects the Emirati psyche is the trial of 41 men accused of terrorist activities in the UAE. On 16 November, 2015 it was reported in the Nation Newspaper

that 41 men were to stand trial for terrorist related offenses. The newspaper indicated, "Forty-one men are on trial in the Federal Supreme Court charged with belonging to an illegal organisation called Shabab Al Manara that aimed to create a caliphate in the UAE. The men wanted to create an Islamic state in the country also planned assassinations and bombings at malls and hotels, a court heard on Monday" (National Newspaper, 16 November 2015).

Another event that has a profound impact on the Emirati morale occurred in August 2015, when the UAE, in concert with Saudi Arabia, sent ground troops to Yemen to counter the Zaidi Shiite Houthi rebels there.

On 4 September 2015, 45 UAE soldiers were killed whilst serving in Yemen as part of the coalition. The Guardian Newspaper, 5 September 2015, reported that the losses were the heaviest since the formation of the UAE in 1971 and, "The bodies of the dead were flown home on Saturday, the country began three days of mourning".

The UAE observed on 30 November 2015, for the first time, Commemoration Day. It was decreed that Commemoration Day will be an annual event to salute the martyrdom of Emirati heroes who sacrificed their lives defending the sovereignty of the nation in civil, military and humanitarian services. This was decreed by President His Highness Shaikh Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan (Gulf News, 1 October 2015). Commemoration Day was declared as a public holiday throughout the UAE. The UAE flag was flown at half-mast in all government departments and institutions across the country from 8am to 11.30am.

This was the first UAE national event which had a similarities to Remembrance Day held in the United Kingdom and Commonwealth of Nations.

In October 2015 the Atlantic Council announced that the UAE will train 6,000 Yemeni resistance fighters who will then be deployed as a security force in the strategic port city of Aden. Some of the men will be trained in camps throughout the city while others will be sent to join security colleges in the UAE. The newly-trained forces will control the Aden police stations and attempt to restore security amid fears that Al-Qaeda has made inroads in the city in the absence of state authority, and with the country mired in conflict (Atlantic Council, 2015).

All these events, especially during 2015, do rise consciously or subconsciously the threats posed by militant groups internally and externally to the people of the UAE.

The change management programme in ADP conducts an annual PEST analysis (political, economic, social and technological) and SWAT analysis (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) in relation to business ventures. Such analyses assists to inform and shape the modernisation plans within ADP and can allow for measures to counter any threats to the UAE and ADP. As such, the change management

programme is valuable tool to assist establish mechanisms to counter threats posed by militants.

These are a few examples of the operating environment that ADP operates under. ADP officers still have their day-to-day duties to perform, including implementing the change programme in ADP. This backdrop assists to explain the operating environment that police officers in ADP operate in.

Conclusion

Jihadi organisations represent the most radical and extremist form of political religious groups in the Arab and Muslim worlds. These groups rely on rigid, extremist and closed intellectual frameworks which call for jihad and violence as the only means for Muslims to escape their bitter reality. These groups brandish the concept of hakimiyya, which is essentially employed to legitimize their existence whilst delegitimizing ruling regimes. These ideas were derived from the ideologues of jihadi thought, notably Sayyid Qutb and Abu Al-A'la Al-Mawdoodi. (Naseera, 2008 and Hijazi, 2007).

Jihadi organisations developed from small local groups to become multinational cross-border organisations, threatening security and stability not only in Arab and Muslim societies, but in communities across the whole world. A number of factors have contributed to the proliferation of these groups, including deteriorating economic conditions and increased rates of poverty and unemployment among the youth (Hajer, 2012).

Al-Qaeda emerged as an important and far-reaching extremist organisation, especially following the 9/11 attacks and the US-led global war on terror targeting Al-Qaeda and its supporters and financers (Buzel, 2015).

Al-Qaeda suffered serious setbacks during the war on terror, and saw several defections which weakened it but did not completely eliminating the organisation. Meanwhile, ISIL, another organisation with the same jihadi thought, emerged as a greater threat, especially after it assumed control of vast territories in Syrian and Iraq, and announced the establishment of the “Islamic Caliphate” state at the end of June 2014, suggesting that the territories of the alleged Caliphate extend geographically and politically into neighbouring countries (Byman, 2015). The establishment of ISIL resulted in increasing defections within Al-Qaeda, with a number of affiliated groups taking the oath of allegiance to the new organisation and its emir Abu Bakr Al-Baghdadi, contributing to the deeper intellectual and organisational divisions in the jihadi Salafi movement.

Some degree of continued infighting between Al-Qaeda and the Islamic State is the likely continued outcome according to Byman, 2015. In Byman's prepared testimony on 29 April 2014 before the United States of America Sub-committee on Counterterrorism and Intelligence of the House Committee on Homeland Security. As such, the United States

should prepare to confront a divided adversary. The fight within may consume most of Al-Qaeda and the Islamic State's attention, however anti American violence or high-profile attacks in the Middle East may become more intense as each side seeks to outmatch its rival. Yet while spikes in violence may occur, such infighting will undermine their ability to shape regional politics, diminish both movements' overall influence, and ultimately discredit jihadism in general. Byman (2015) recognises the divisions between of Al-Qaeda and the Islamic State. The seemingly unbridgeable division between supporters of the Islamic State and supporters of Al-Qaeda might appear to be a positive development; this is not the case. This division is now a fixture of the jihadi organisational and ideological landscape, and profound competition between organisations and ideologues consumes much time and effort. So far, however, jihadis outside the Syrian theatre have showed few signs of coming to blows over the intra-jihadi struggle.

Just as the mounting regional and international threat of Al-Qaeda led to the declaration of a global conflict against it, the growing threat of ISIL has resulted in the formation of an American led international coalition comprising more than 60 countries. As such, these jihadi organisations have become international actors threatening international peace and security.

2.10. CULTURAL TRAITS

The subject of cultural differences and cultural traits has attracted much attention from scholars in the domains of international business and cross-cultural management since the last century. It has been recognised as an important environmental factor in shaping systematic similarities and differences in organisational attitudes and behaviours during the process of internationalisation (Leung, et al. 2005; Steenkamp, 2001). Cultural norms, values, and beliefs are believed to influence a leader's perception, disposition, and behaviours (Ralston et al. 1997). Cultural effects underlie managerial preferences for attention allocations, the interpretation of information, and responses in making management decisions (Tse et al., 1988).

Studies have shown that national culture impacts on such diverse things as management and management negotiations (Ghauri and Fang, 2001; Luo, 1999), justice and employee outcomes (Begley et al., 2002), managerial control (Chow, Shields, and Wu, 1999), leadership (Dorfman et al., 1997; Casimir and Waldman, 2007), strategic orientation (Hitt and Dacin, 1997).

National culture is a crucial aspect of understanding organisational behaviours. Its complexity and breadth make it difficult to operationalise and measure. Researchers have been puzzled as to how to extract a few key features of culture to enable comparisons among different cultures.

Hofstede (1980a) introduced a cultural dimensions approach to conceptualise and measure key characteristics of national culture, which has become a benchmark for cross-cultural study. Quite a few other frameworks have been proposed by other scholars (Schwartz and Sagiv, 1995; Inglehart and Carballo, 1997; Inglehart and Baker, 2000). Besides different classifications of cultures, scholars (Singelis, 1994; Triandis et al., 1988) are also aware of the importance of different levels of analysis and have attempted to transform societal-level cultural patterns into the individual level of analysis.

DEFINITION OF CULTURE - Scholars have not been able to agree on one definition of culture (Javidan et al., 2006). Culture is an elusive concept and hard to define (Triandis et al., 1986). There is a tendency for scholars to give definitions reflecting their own disciplines.

The various definitions of culture include, "the human-made component of the environment" (Herskovitz, 1955). Another definition by Rudmin (2003) in his catalogue of taxonomies is, "values, beliefs, norms, and behavioural patterns of a national group". These are just a small sample of the variation on the definition.

Hofstede defined culture as, "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (Hofstede, 1980a, p.25). It is in the core contribution of his work in terms of the extent of shared or differentiated value system that defines human groups.

THE DIMENSIONS OF HOFSTEDE - Hofstede (1980a) conducted a consulting project for IBM (International Business Machines) during two different time periods, between 1967 and 1973.

From his work four distinctive dimensions explaining large inter-country variations were extracted; these were labelled 'power distance', 'uncertainty avoidance', 'individualism/collectivism', and 'masculinity/femininity'. The meaning of each is as follows:

POWER DISTANCE - is defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of organisations and institutions (such as the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 2004, p.62).

UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE - deals with "a society's tolerance for ambiguity" (Hofstede, 2004, p.62). It emphasises the extent to which people in a society feel uncomfortable or comfortable with situations of uncertainty and ambiguity (Ng et al., 2007).

INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM - creates a bipolar continuum. Individualism indicates "a loosely knit social framework in which people are supposed to take care of themselves and their immediate families only", while, on the contrary, collectivism is

"characterised by a tight social framework in which people distinguish between in-groups and out-group's; they expect their in-group to look after them, and in exchange for that they feel they owe absolute loyalty to it" (Hofstede, 1980b, pA5).

MASCULINITY/FEMININITY - builds another bipolar continuum. Masculinity is defined as "a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money and things", while femininity is described as "a situation in which the dominant values in society are caring for others and the quality of life" (Hofstede and Bond, 1984, ppA19-420).

Greet Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory describes the effects of a society's culture on the values of its members, and how these values relate to behaviour, using a structure derived from factor analysis. He scored each country using a scale of roughly 0 to 100 for each dimension. The higher the score, the more that dimension is exhibited in society. The theory has been widely used in several fields as a paradigm for research, particularly in cross-cultural psychology, international management, and cross-cultural communication (Smith, P., Peterson, M., Thomas, D. 2008).

Hofstede's work has been challenged due to outdated data collection and analysis techniques (Ng et al., 2007; Lavidan et al., 2006). Specifically, the primary data of the work were obtained between 1967 and 1973, and significant cultural changes have occurred in some countries. However, his work has provided a starting point in relation to cultural studies.

The seminal work of Hofstede will now be viewed in relation to the then Arab Emirates.

Power distance

Arab Emirates scores high on this dimension (Hofstede score of 90) which means that people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Hierarchy in an organisation is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralisation is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat.

Individualism

The Arab Emirates, with a score of 25 is considered a collectivistic society. This manifests in a close long-term commitment to the member 'group', be that a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and overrides most other societal rules and regulations. The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group. In collectivist societies offence leads to shame and loss of face, employer/employee relationships are perceived in moral terms (like a family link), hiring and promotion

decisions take account of the employee's in-group, management is the management of groups.

Masculinity / Femininity

Arab Emirates scores 50 on this dimension and can be considered a masculine society. In masculine countries people "live in order to work", managers are expected to be decisive and assertive, the emphasis is on equity, competition and performance and conflicts are resolved by fighting them out.

Uncertainty avoidance

The Arab Emirates scores 80 on this dimension and thus has a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. Countries exhibiting high uncertainty avoidance maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. In these cultures there is an emotional need for rules (even if the rules never seem to work) time is money, people have an inner urge to be busy and work hard, precision and punctuality are the norm, innovation may be resisted, security is an important element in individual motivation.

Long term orientation

No score available.

(<http://geert-hofstede.com/arab-Emirates.html> (Accessed 1.5.12)

Geert Hofstede Analysis for United Arab Emirates is very similar to other Arab countries. The Hofstede results of Arab countries

(<http://www.cyborlink.com/besite/uae.htm>) (Accessed 1.5.13) are as follows:

In Arab countries the Muslim faith plays a large role in the people's lives. Large power distance and uncertainty avoidance are the predominant characteristics for this region. This indicates that it is expected and accepted that leaders separate themselves from the group and issue complete and specific directives.

The Geert Hofstede analysis for the Arab world, that includes the countries of Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates, demonstrates the Muslim faith plays a significant role in the people's lives.

Large Power Distance (PDI) (80) and Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI) (68) are predominant Hofstede Dimension characteristics for the countries in this region. These societies are more likely to follow a caste system that does not allow significant upward mobility of their citizens. They are also highly rule-oriented with laws, rules, regulations, and controls in order to reduce the amount of uncertainty, while inequalities of power and wealth have been allowed to grow within the society.

The high Power Distance (PDI) ranking is indicative of a high level of inequality of power and wealth within the society. These populations have an expectation and acceptance that leaders will separate themselves from the group and this condition is not necessarily imposed upon the population, but rather accepted by the society as their cultural heritage.

The high Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) ranking of 68 indicates the society's low level of tolerance for uncertainty. In an effort to minimise or reduce this level of uncertainty, strict rules, laws, policies, and regulations are adopted and implemented. The ultimate goal of these populations is to control everything in order to eliminate or avoid the unexpected. As a result of this high Uncertainty Avoidance characteristic, the society in question does not readily accept change and is very risk adverse.

The Masculinity index (MAS), the third highest Hofstede Dimension, is 52, only slightly higher than the 50.2 average for all the countries included in the Hofstede MAS Dimension.

The lowest Hofstede Dimension for the Arab world is the Individualism (IDV) ranking at 38, compared to a world average ranking of 64. This translates into a Collectivist society as compared to Individualist culture and is manifested in a close long-term commitment to the member 'group', that being a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and supersedes most other societal rules.

The predominant religion for these countries is Islam, the practice of the Muslim faith.

The combination of these two high scores (UAI) and (PDI) creates societies that are highly rule-oriented with laws, rules, regulations, and controls in order to reduce the amount of uncertainty, while inequalities of power and wealth have been allowed to grow within the society. These cultures are more likely to follow a "caste system" that does not allow significant upward mobility of its citizens.

When these two dimensions are combined, it creates a situation where leaders have virtually ultimate power and authority, and the rules, laws and regulations developed by those in power, reinforce their own leadership and control. It is not unusual for new leadership to arise from armed insurrection – the ultimate power, rather than from diplomatic or democratic change. (Stephen Taylor - the Sigma Two Group – <http://www.cyborlink.com/besite/uae.htm>) (Accessed 1.5.13)

Hofstede's analyses of various countries should not be underestimated even though his work is now over 40 years old. However in evaluating the studies of culture in the Arab countries, Al-Otaibi (1992) indicates that many cultural studies of Arab countries have never been satisfactory (Al-Otaibi 1992).

Culture studies in the UAE conducted after Hofstede's work tend to be superficial and on occasions tend to support the main findings of Hofstede. Albeit a notable number of the studies does contradict his work. Some of the studies post Hofstede's seminal work include the work of Freek (2004), Abdelkarim and Ibrahim (2001), Ganster and Bates (2003).

In 2012 the Hofstede Centre was opened, operated by Itim International and licensed by Professor Hofstede. His seminal work is still relevant and the Hofstede Centre has built on this work to offer a goal of providing high quality education in the field of culture and management based on academic research and practical experience based on the work of its founder, (<http://geert-hofstede.com/the-hofstede-centre.html>: Accessed 5.2.15).

In summary, Hofstede's (1980; 1991) framework is the model most tested for its validity and reliability. Hofstede's data were drawn from business participants and was designed to ease the concerns of business or management researchers' queries as to suitability of application. His studies have an implication for the UAE and have a relevance to leadership.

2.11 SOCIAL MEDIA

Introduction

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) conforms to the Abu Dhabi Systems and Information Centre (ADSIC) directive and strategy to utilise social media to achieve excellence in government services, which includes all services provided by ADP.

On 9 June 2015 by His Excellency Rashid Lahej Al Mansoori, Director General at ADSIC said: "Our new strategy aspires to position the Emirate's Government as a leading smart government, driven by innovation and inspired by society, while being dedicated to delivering innovative digital services and channels, standards and policies, and building the foundation for an information and communications technology (ICT) Mature society" (Sutton, 2015). It was further reported by Sutton that the new strategy is designed to accelerate the speed and capacity in which additional Government services can be absorbed. It also outlines how the partner Government entities such as ADP will play a visible role in adopting and applying the new strategy, especially in the realm of mobile services (m-services). Social media is a key cornerstone to the new government

directive. This is something that ADP is aware of and is significance is reflected in this research and literature review.

The social media survey contained in the Arab World Report, 2015, shows that the UAE is one of the highest users of social media, per capita, in the world.

According to the report, Facebook is the most popular social networking tool, favoured by 39% of the respondents. Two out of every five users in the Arab World said that Facebook is their clear favourite. Jordan tops in the preference for Facebook, where users accounted for 63%, followed by Libya and Palestine at 50%. It was least favoured in Saudi Arabia and Lebanon with only 24% each respondents, followed by Bahrain at 26%. A vast majority of Facebook users (89%) checked in daily, with the highest usage rate in Palestine and Iraq at 99% each, and the lowest in both Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, at 79% and 81% respectively.

WHATSAPP, TWITTER, INSTAGRAM, YOUTUBE, GOOGLE and LINKEDIN

all figured as the most common forms of social media used in the Arab World. (Social media survey in the Arab World Report, 2015)

In addition the sixth edition of the Arab Social Media Report, (2015) series was launched in 2015 by the Governance and Innovation Program at the Mohammed Bin Rashid School of Government, Dubai. The report shows that the public sector in a majority of Arab countries continues to suffer from mounting deficiencies in terms of quality, efficiency and accessibility of government service; despite the continued growth of social media penetration in the Arab region and its increasing potential for governments to engage with the public and enhance public services.

The report further reveals that growth of social media usage has been consistently strong, with the number of users in 2014 increasing by a whopping 49% on Facebook, 54% on Twitter and 79% on LinkedIn since May 2013. When analysing demographics, the report reveals that the UAE has the highest rate among Arab countries in terms of LinkedIn penetration at 22.4%, while Qatar climbed to first place in Facebook penetration with 61% of its population using Facebook, followed closely by the UAE with 58%. On Twitter, Saudi Arabia has 40% of all Arab active users; however, Kuwait enjoys the highest penetration rate with 11.4% of its population active bloggers.

The UAE is an example of one of the most active Arab countries in terms of social network usage, with the highest proportion of Facebook users at 41.2 per cent of the population, i.e. about 3.4 million users (Sixth Arab Social Media Report, 2015).

This makes the UAE one of the most active countries in the world, per capita, for using social media. It also makes social media part of everyday modern UAE culture. This has implication for organisations and the institutes of the UAE and Arab World.

Social Networking Development

One of the characteristics of social networking is 'sense of personal subjectivity,' and the individual's ability to make an impact in an open world through a low-cost and widespread means of expression (Abdelmoula, 2015). In addition, this era is 'infinitely' diverse in terms of media messages and their content; (Dubai School of Government, 2012). The user is in touch with the outside world without leaving their personal space (Grewal, 2008). It becomes easier to share opinions with others, which influences individual and collective behaviour. The features and attributes that characterise the age of electronic social networking contribute directly and indirectly to societal developments in several areas which include: freedom, citizen engagement, political awareness, participation, awareness and social responsibility.

FREEDOM

Individual freedom can be closely tied in with social networks. The more the individual's need for freedom, the more the need to use social networks. According to McChesney, 2015, the more the freedom to use social networks increases, the more the number of their users increases, and the more social networks become essential to an individual's life as a window to the world. Statistically, we find in Western countries that an individual's usage of social networks is increasing more than in China for example (Al-Suwaidi, 2013).

CITIZEN ENGAGEMENT

Social networks have had a clear impact on encouraging citizens to take up political participation (Maalouf, 2014). Such networks provide the opportunity for greater understanding of citizenship rights and deepen citizens' awareness of issues and concerns. This being said, others believe that these networks contribute to the dissemination of rumours and bogus political information, and so youths simply become prisoners to the idea of 'electronic protest' instead of actually making any positive and effective contribution to their countries (McChesney, 2015).

POLITICAL AWARENESS

Political awareness has increased among citizens at an unprecedented rate (O'Dell, 2011). Social network site users provides an opportunity for discussion and greater understanding of political topics and issues, especially in the light of the fact that users include intellectuals, politicians, academics and ordinary members of the public (Abdelmoula, 2015). For example, the number of users of certain Facebook

pages in Egypt reached unprecedented figures during the peak of protests against the regime of the former president Hosni Mubarak. An example of one of these pages in this context is 'We are all Khaled Saeed' (O'Dell, 2011) who was a young Egyptian from Alexandria who died on June 6, 2010; the Egyptian security police was accused of his murder, which sparked a wave of popular anger and reaction from human rights organisations inside and outside Egypt. The death of Khaled Saeed stimulated the movement of popular protests in 2010 and 2011 (Al-Ruwaihi, 2012). Political awareness is also two way. Not only are the younger citizens becoming politically aware but government leaders such as His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum the UAE Vice President and Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai are becoming aware of the need for communications using social media. His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum has his open Tweeter account - (@HHShkMohd) (<https://twitter.com/hhshkmohd>) and encourages open communications. He currently, as of September 2015, has 4.17 million followers.

PARTICIPATION

Regional and international institutions' encourage citizens to participate in their country's policy-making and at the same time increases the influence of these institutions in the internal policies of countries. A report prepared by the Truth Commission, formed by the Egyptian Ministry of Justice, investigated foreign financing of civil society organisations in Egypt and revealed that the United States provided \$65 million to several organisations operating under the slogan of 'Development of Democracy,' from which \$40 million was paid to the National Democratic Institute and the International Republican Institute, in addition to funding nongovernmental organisations based in Slovakia, Poland and the Czech Republic and operating in Egypt (Izz and Al-Tuhami, 2011). The report also revealed that Jamaat 'Ansar al-Sunnah' (Group of the Followers of Sunnah) in Egypt received support amounting to EGP£296 million in 'donations' from Qatari and Kuwaiti parties during February 2011 (Izz and Al-Tuhami, 2011).

AWARENESS

Internet users have been influenced by knowledge transfer through experiences learned among citizens of countries via social networks. The possibility that the Tunisian demonstrators' experience in dealing with the security forces during their popular protests was transferred to their Egyptian counterparts through social networks is strong evidence of this matter (Al-Suwaidi, 2012). It is also noted that protest slogans raised in the squares of several Arab countries were often very similar. Although sometimes using local dialects, the slogans carried the same meaning and message echoed in other parts of the Arab World. Civil society has become stronger through the use of social networks as platforms that allow circumvention of local restrictions set by certain governments and

authorities. Furthermore, the association of young people with such institutions has increased, as has their desire to build relationships with them in order to represent their views (Beina Xu, 2015).

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Most organisations and businesses, have taken advantage of social networks, whether to stimulate sales or improve their image and support by performing a socially responsible role (Leyva and Law, 2015). Most institutions are now exploiting social networks in real-time in order to track public opinion, support their promotional, marketing and service activities, enhance their image, and to take advantage of such networks as channels of communication to influence the youth market demographic. ADP is no different to other organisations with the use of Instagram, YouTube and Google to inform and promote the positive work of ADP.

The development of social media is further highlighted in a report dated 24 March 2015 issued by Twiplomacy which is the leading global study of world leaders on Twitter, provided some insight to the use of Twitter. The study was conducted by leading global public relations and communications firm Burson-Marsteller.

Burson-Marsteller identified 669 Twitter accounts of heads of state and government, foreign ministers and their institutions in 166 countries worldwide. The study analyses each leader's Twitter profiles, tweet history, and their connections with each other.

The findings showed that the United States President Barack Obama (@BarackObama) rounds out the top as the most followed world leader. His impressive 58.9 million followers stand alone. The next closest world leader is Pope Francis (@Pontifex). He's quickly gaining ground with close to 20 million followers, with all nine of his language accounts totalled together. Rising to third is Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi (@narendramodi) with more than 12 million followers. His ascent to third in 2015 surpassed Turkish President Erdogan (@RT_Erdogan), who still has an impressive 6.3 million followers and is currently in fourth place. Interestingly enough, the White House (@WhiteHouse) sits at fifth place with around 6 million followers.

Other aspects of the Burson-Marsteller study showed that more than 100 of the 669 accounts analysed have seen their follower numbers double since June 2014. Prince Salman of Saudi Arabia (@HRHPSalman) literally exploded his follower count when he doubled his followers within weeks after becoming King in January 2015. While King Salman (@KingSalman) has the most Twitter followers in the Middle East ; it should be noted that His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum the UAE Vice President and Prime Minister and Ruler of Dubai has a healthy 4.17 million Twitter followers as of September 2015.

The penetration and use of social media has exponentially grown over the past five years. ADP is aware of the growth of social media and when it comes to the change programme in ADP, it must be mindful and innovative in the use of social media generally and when implementing change.

Social Networks Impact in the Middle East

Here the focus is to monitor the effects of social networks on various aspects of life, with a view to assessing their importance and limits of influence in directing public and user opinion among different age groups. ADP and its partners must be aware of these trends in order for policing in the UAE to be relevant and effective.

IMPACT ON POLITICS

A force for change can be driven by the Internet and could prove to be more effective than all other media forms. Albeit, this is some way in the future considering the relatively limited access to the Internet found in some Middle East countries in particular. An interactive network would create an intellectual environment that could open the way to political change due to the capability of the Internet to generate political pressure through its democratic nature and ability to attract all classes. There are few constraints on freedom of expression on the Internet and putting forward political views via social networks can encourage an enormous number of people to adopt them (Farrelly, 2015).

This could drive governments to change their policies in response to the demands of public opinion. Political change agents need not take the risk of actually taking part in protests, instead they can create significant 'virtual' political pressure through social networks where obtaining information and disseminating it without censorship. This represents an 'information democracy.' (Farrelly, 2015). Political theorists such as Hirst (1990), Held (1996), and Dryzek (2000) suggest it is necessary to recognise the variant forms of democracy: competitive elite democracy, classic pluralist democracy, legal democracy, participatory democracy, and democratic autonomy. In this context social networks certainly could be categorised as a form of democracy or at least a conveyor of democracy.

While freedom is available to most, to some it is limited at best. If online social networks played a major role in igniting the angry protests that eventually led to political change in countries like Egypt and Tunisia (Al-Suwaidi, 2013), then those that are accessible through communication devices such as smart phones have proven exceptionally effective in mobilizing activists via online social networks to organise protests, both virtual and physical (Seib, 2011).

If social networks have contributed to making us live in a more connected manner, it is necessary to point out the fact that every advancement in social networks involves an

enormous influence on the manner of interaction that takes place between individuals on the one hand, and between individuals and authority on the other (Medina, 2014).

Radio and TV provided political leaders with the potential to address the public in a direct and intimate manner. Similarly, the effects of the information revolution are making rapid in-roads into the political domain. For the first time, politicians are able to follow immediate reactions to their decisions and track instant opinion polls regarding their statements. Patterns of political decision-making have also changed substantially. Social networks have produced new input in terms of the formation of political lobbies, the establishment of political parties and the ability to ascertain their popularity given the ease of sharing ideas and views over various social networks (Sonou, 2001).

The role of books in the past has been influential. The influence of books as a mass-media tool for spreading political Islam in countries such as Egypt, where public interest was relatively strong in the works of religious authorities linked to hard-line beliefs and fanaticism (such as Abul Aala Maududi and Sayyid Qutb), (Zaid, 2010); then we can imagine the potential influence of social networks in spreading this and other political movements when compared to books as the traditional and less accessible means of spreading ideas.

In terms of their political influence, social networks have worked contrary to earlier satellite media, which a number of researchers, including Al-Hroub, 2006, believe have encouraged a form of negative public participation whereby individuals do not progress beyond initial stages or at best merely phoning and taking part in talk shows to discharge their angst. This 'remotely controlled' protest actually freezes socio-political action and has resulted partially and indirectly from the prevalence of satellite broadcasting (Al-Hroub, 2006).

Social networks have spread across geographical borders. We should not overlook the changing effect of Tunisia on the internal conditions in other Arab countries such as Libya, Yemen and Egypt where the Egyptian youth benefited through social networks from the experience of their Tunisian counterparts in dealing with the security forces. Rumours spread in different Arab squares as a result of the footage exchanged by users of social networks, particularly Facebook, which became at one stage of the events in Tunisia – and later on in Egypt and Syria – an active news agency distributing images among satellite TV networks, which often had not been on location at such events for logistical or security reasons (Campbell and Hawk, 2012). It is also noticeable that the political employment of social networks has provided opposition movements with a wide arena in which to spread opinion, and has helped in the popular promotion of such movements, resulting in a number appearing more prominent than they really are thanks to their intensive online activity. Indeed, some of those movements were mere virtual entities with their presence confined to the Internet (Menese, 2010).

Social networks have become almost a community pressure group for or against policy planners and decision-makers around the world. They are capable of mobilizing massive virtual 'popular crowds' in support of or in protest against any decision. Thus, they have become a major player in political equations within countries (Hassan, 2013).

The political influence of social networks in developed countries such as the United States has increased. A poll conducted by the Pew Research Centre has found that 60 percent of adult Americans use Facebook or Twitter, and that 39 percent use social networks for political purposes, such as learning the positions of presidential candidates and user interaction regarding political and electoral issues (Rainie, 2012) Social networks in past American electoral races figured prominently and now provides a two-way line of communication for millions of users, especially after the 2008 election campaigns, which were using websites 'one way,' especially to collect donations. Campaigns have also resorted to developing special applications for smart phones to ensure they reach the greatest number of voters, attract volunteers and, more importantly, collect donations (Jibai, 2013). Thus, it is clear that social networks have created a fundamental change in election campaign strategies that no longer rely merely on high-cost propaganda films, posters, publications, articles and TV channels.

Lauren Brousell writing in CIO Magazine on 27 August 2015 stated that "Candidates in the 2016 U.S. presidential election use more social networks than politicians of the past, in hopes of tapping the millennial market. However, it's difficult to measure real ROI, and the social trail is fraught with political perils". However, the costs and return of investments in social networks, on the whole, appear to be positive. Further to this, following the 2014 mid-term elections, 16 percent of registered voters followed candidates for office, political parties or elected officials on social media, up 10 per cent since 2010 (Anderson, 2015).

The Federal National Council (FNC) (Al-Majlis al-Watani al-Ittihadi) based in Abu Dhabi is the federal authority of the United Arab Emirates formed to represent the general Emirati people. The FNC consist of 40 members with advisory tasks in the house of legislative council. Twenty members are elected by the citizens of the UAE through the general election and the other half are elected by the Electoral College and rulers of each Emirate. Most of the twenty citizens who wish to be elected in October 2015 have taken to social media. One of the candidates, Mr Al Qubaisi, a senior vice president at Abu Dhabi Marine Operating Company said his campaign would focus on social media. He further stated, "I plan to run an 'e-campaign' which will have the greatest effect with the least amount of resources," (The National newspaper 9 September 2015)

While Mr Al Qubaisi election campaign for the FNC may be very different to the 2016 American election campaign; there are similarities, especially on the use of social media.

IMPACT ON SOCIETY

Modern society consists of a new digital era that has helped connect the world. This new digital society that has in turn given birth to what has become known as the 'digital citizen' or the 'Internet citizen' who asks himself 'what is next?' rather than the traditional question 'what shall we do?' (Al Khoury, 2005). Engin Isin and Evelyn Ruppert (2015) wrote that by disrupting prevailing understandings of citizenship and cyberspace a new pattern of thought is created. Rather than assuming that politics are static, individuals can now make challenges and take opportunities presented by the Internet to have a better understanding of political agency in society.

IMPACT ON COMMUNICATIONS

The effects of social media and the new forms of communications are varied and indeed sometimes conflicting. In fact, they are usually characterised by weak psychological responses such as poor reactions to criticism and indifference to advice and guidance along with poor verbal communication. Psychiatrists call this situation 'estrangement' or 'introversion.' While some regard this enormous communication flux as enriching human intellect, others consider it a mental violation, a psychological pressure and an aberration of fundamental beliefs. In any case, the societal effects of social networks have become so apparent in various aspects of life that some researchers are starting to describe bloggers and users of social networks as the 'historians of the age.' (Aisha, 2009).

Social networks have allowed the individual to become more free thanks to the physical and technical flexibility of those networks, enabling the rapid circulation and exchange of information between people. Supported by Man's instinctive desire for freedom, technology has gone beyond the traditional structures of the state, which see the individual as a recipient of information who is affected only to the extent that society is affected (Al-Suwaidi, 2013).

However, what is really taking place is that the individual's authority via social networks is increasing daily, particularly in developing countries. This authority will sooner or later clash with any attempt to restructure and re-organise mass media. The old traditional structures will be confronted by the liberalism of the individual attempting to exert their influence, not just in terms of the ownership of the means and the exchange of information, but also in terms of the establishment of individual corporations in communication industries and management of the media scene (Isin and Ruppert, 2015).

IMPACT ON RELATIONSHIPS

Traditional social relations have weakened between individuals in favour of virtual relations thanks to the elimination of geographic, economic and linguistic barriers to communication. Social networks have managed to create a live and interactive 'virtual community' that is often and in many of its features similar to the real community. Remote continuous communication is possible without tangible obstacles. Therefore, an individual's life gradually becomes based on 'electronic communication' where living in a virtual world includes establishing a 'virtual family' within the 'virtual community' (Al-Suwaidi, 2013). These new cross-border relations lead to the emergence of new values and principles as a result of interaction between domestic traditions and norms and their foreign counterparts. This could lead to a form of 'globalisation' of values and principles adopted by the majority of people, with the emergence of minorities resisting this orientation, sometimes moving towards radicalism in defiance (Isin and Ruppert, 2015).

IMPACT ON FEMALE EMPOWERMENT

Female empowerment has been enhanced through social networks via knowledge acquisition and networking among female activists, women's global organisations, as well as within society (Maurice, 2013). Social networks have also played a significant role in enhancing women's ability to establish social relations outside the norm. These channels have, in the view of many scholars, liberated women from the constraints of family and community. Shteiwi, (2006) implies that social networks – by crossing boundaries – are achieving the ambitions of female emancipation advocates in Arab societies.

Odine Maurice (2013) provides a modern insight to the emancipation of Arab women. She explains that "Arab women lacked a voice to articulate their plight until they discovered virtual media. They use Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube to transmit messages to empower women. As a result, Arab women have marginalised inequality in society, education, and professional opportunities." (Global Media Journal, spring 2013)

IMPACT ON EDUCATION

The rapid evolution of these social networks has greatly enhanced pedagogical opportunities to facilitate study, changing the ways students receive information and the manner in which they are examined, as well as easing the administrative process inside or outside educational institutions. One of the most important trends in education via the Internet is 'Educational Networks,' which adopt a similar approach to that of social networks. The most prominent of these are Blackboard (<http://www.blackboard.com>) and Desire2Learn, (<http://www.desire2learn.com>) which provide the facility to upload educational material on to the Internet for teachers and students to access and allow

discussion in a similar manner to social networks. While social networks have enhanced education it has not replaced the educator, yet.

IMPACT ON LANGUAGE

The uses of social networks have implications for the Arab language and language in general. The global shift towards the digital option has essentially contributed to shaping the future of language usage, because language is the tool of communication. There is now talk among certain researchers of the possible emergence of an universal language due to a generational convergence of mentality and culture that would have great repercussions on the specifics of language, leading to serious global attempts to agree on an international language imposed on all peoples and minds (Khoury, 2005). Khoury suggest that the disappearance of many arts and philosophies conveyed in certain languages is an indication of the death of those languages in the face of the overwhelming spread of English. However, the Arabic language does not face a threat from the spread of English language alone, but also from the proliferation of colloquial Arabic or slang, which is a more serious or immediate threat to modern standard Arabic, to the extent that no-one can be certain of what the future will bring or for how long current levels of spoken Arabic will remain.

Concern has been expressed that modern standard Arabic in the age of social networks could actually face the fate of Latin,(Khoury, 2005) which remains generally as a written form only, preserving its vocabulary and grammar but remaining generally unspoken. Since the Arabic language has absolute religious status, it would live on in mosques, Shari'a colleges, poetry and literature, and a number of small social circles, but it would not have the overwhelming spoken presence. Moreover, it would not have political, social, legal or moral authorities to protect it. The Arabic linguistic landscape has shifted during the era of social networks, with modern standard Arabic keeping its formal status while vernacular/colloquial Arabic has gained the authority of daily usage, and even derives legitimacy and strength from its popularity on social networks and traditional media.

Overall, social networks have played an important role in developing and shaping the Arab mentality and character by allowing access to information and the expression of opinions and ideas, unique freedoms unavailable before, offering Arabs a taste of 'Internet freedom'. This could lead at some point from freedom on social networks to seeking freedom in the squares and streets (Al-Jassem, 2006). Common interest groups within online communities imagine that they have some sort of genuine society, but this is not enough to establish the values of a traditional society based on loyalty and a sense of shared identity. In addition, the concept of a 'virtual community' works in the opposite

direction to that of a sovereign state based on geographical borders, where anyone can be held accountable if damage is inflicted on society (Hamada, 2008).

A social media orientated Emirati society will have an effect not only on community but on such things as policing services. ADP who are involved in a change management programme must take cognisance of these societal changes when considering future policing strategies and policies.

Social Networking and Security Issues

The link between social media, including websites, and the spread of negative security phenomena, some of which threaten security and social stability (such as terrorism and extremism) is now becoming recognised (Seib, 2011). Some groups that use social networks as a forum for discussion and dialogue prefer to keep their virtual communities relatively closed. Other groups, on the other hand, will always prefer to establish open virtual nations online, often based on violent or extreme principles, which pose significant security challenges to the concerned authorities and which can greatly enhance the power of terrorist organisations (Seib, 2011). The most appropriate example of which is al-Qaeda's use of websites and social networks to disseminate ideas and ultimately to recruit and train extremists to prepare explosives and carry out operations.

Al-Qaeda, via thousands of websites, including social networks, is expanding its global presence. Hence, despite the limited physical area in which its operatives may freely move, it actually occupies all the territory it needs in the realm of cyberspace.

Social networks play an important effect on security. Some researchers indicate that most of those who are members of militant and extremist groups were recruited through personal contact, via social networks, colleagues at university, or relatives and friends. This strengthens the influence of the ethos of such groups while protecting their members from the security services, which find it very difficult to penetrate such communities from the outside (Zaid, 2010). There are similarities between communication via social networks and that practiced within closed groups. Such groups might be cross-border in nature, yet can continue to enjoy personal communication, and retain the ability to both influence others, or be influenced themselves.

There is no doubt that states face a challenge in the form of a virtual community that is steadily multiplying; the ability of security services to familiarize themselves with its various intricacies, let alone begin to control them, is extremely limited (Lithopoulos, 2015).

Social networks have also had a variety of negative effects. Social networks contribute to what may be termed the "globalisation of crime" (Pakes, 2013). Many forms of information related crime are associated with social networks, including identity theft, slander, libel, fraud, piracy, violation of electronic (personal) security, harassment and

bullying via online chat-rooms and personal blogs, invasion of privacy, and incitement to religious and ethnic hatred or sedition (Shafiq, 2010).

Most governments are aware of the importance of social networks and their influence on social security and internal stability, and are wary of the possibility for a new “virtual conflict” to arise with the Internet as its battlefield with social networks as its weapons, and states and citizens as its combatants. This has made “virtual sovereignty” and the “electronic dimension” vital pillars within the national security system of states, which seek to impose control over the “virtual domain,” and use “virtual deterrence” to counter threats to their electronic security, or to launch preventive strikes against groups or individuals (Ohlin, Finkelstein and Govern, 2015).

Owing to the growing “electronic power” of individuals using social networking as a means of mobilising the masses, whether for support of, or opposition to the policies of governments; they will become a growing component of the equation of state formation, consisting of “land, individual, people and government,” rather than the traditional trio of “land, people and government” (Ohlin et al 2015).

The negative effects of social networks in the realm of security in society have been recognised. To this end, security and intelligence services in the GCC sought to hold a summit in which leaders of the GCC might discuss their position and what they described as “social networking attacks.” These services maintain constant and full cooperation with each other in an effort to control what some describe as the “bad guys” of the Internet (Al-Ittihad (UAE), 23 February, 2013).

Police research released at the end of 2012 and covering a number of European countries indicated that by employing social networks, police officers are better able to serve the citizens in the communities in which they operate. The research, conducted by a working group called Comparative Police Studies in the EU also known as the Composite Project, investigated the views of police personnel in the electronic and technical field in 13 European countries, including the UK, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain. The police research focused on how police might become more involved in social networking activities, both to benefit from them as well as prevent others from “filling the void” by occupying a policing role online. The research report stated that “the voice of the police on social media receives a high level of trust that supersedes bogus information distributed online (Composite Project, 2013). It also points out those social networks are more influential than traditional print media in communicating with young people. According to the report, young people no longer subscribe to printed newspapers and magazines, and often access news exclusively from social networks (BBC Arabic, December 8, 2012).

Social Networks and the Media

The growth of social networks has led to an explosion in the number of online 'opinion makers,' who have a significant influence on the views of other users, overtaking the traditional dominance of the authorities over the views of the public on various issues and topics, which has declined remarkably (Abdelmoula, 2015). It has become the norm for social network users to seek to form their own opinions, either by exchanging views or based on the general information they relay among themselves, instead of receiving information and forming opinions from traditional sources or media (Abdelmoula, 2015).

Social networks offers the public a platform to raise questions about the content of mainstream media narratives and rhetoric, and offers a voice and a means for people to contribute to such things as national debates. In this regard, some researchers consider the public to be grouped according to national and regional loyalties; a public that is strongly varied in its views, levels of education, and in terms of the traditional intellectual divisions between liberals, nationalists, leftists and Islamists. (Al-Suwaidi, 2013) This also offers an opportunity for the integration of these various segments of the public across borders based on intellectual, ideological, religious and political compatibility. The same opportunity is present to create commonalities between intellectuals and political activists who are the least connected in terms of communication with their national communities, which encourages them to communicate at a national and pan-Arab level (Said, 2006).

The erosion of a number of traditional attributes of the media, which to some extent can contribute to the growth of social networks, has led to credibility and reliability issues as a source of news. Such networks now play a prominent role in the proliferation of rumour and intrigue; stories are often born of rumour. This undermines the media convention of verifying the source of information. Anonymous pages on social networking sites such as Facebook are also often the source of rumours; and even more worrying is the fact that some newspapers and satellite TV channels propagate these rumours without ascertaining their credibility (Al-Jassem, 2006). Social networks and globalised new media will also compete with states, particularly in the field of moulding public opinion, even to the extent of undermining national sovereignty. These giant social networks affect the powers of the state over the media. The age of authorities' monopoly on the flow of news and information to the public is being eroded and states can no longer withhold the truth by filtering the release of such information (Al-Olayan, 2006).

Media in the future will be marked by more 'interactivity' between the means of communication and the user thanks to greater media freedom, speed of interaction and general participation. This will see the media move towards the incorporation of widespread and cost-free tools that allow freedom of choice, quick access to material and the elimination of time and geographical constraints. In all, this will consequently translate into a greater and more influential media impact by social networks. 'Individual'

and independent news agencies will spread far beyond borders allowing any user of social networking sites to send news and press reports from any location in the world and reflecting his own opinion (Al Qadhi, 2007).

Commentators believe social media will gain in popularity, enhancing knowledge and further develop, and thus an ‘intellectual and scientific globalisation’ will be created as a result of the demographic spread, trans-border and trans-nationality information exchange, and the dissemination of the results of scientific research (Wischenbart, 2014). This will open up new horizons for innovation and creativity in the various branches of academia, literature and the arts.

Social Media and the Police and Military

Within ADP social networks have had a number of effects on ADP’s operations and its relationship with its immediate environment. The effects have been considerable and include a number of notable categories which include effective communications, rumours and crises management.

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATIONS

Social networks give relevant agencies in the police the opportunity to publish interactive news, tweets and responses to questions; broadcast visual material to gain public support and sympathy for their aims; and target young people in order to enhance their sense of national identity and loyalty. An example of this is the launch of ‘Insta Meylas’ by ADP.

On 28 March, 2015, ADP in conjunction with the Ministry of Interior (MoI) announced through its various social media sites (<https://www.adpolice.gov.ae/en/media.centre/News/1776082.aspx>) ‘Insta Meylas’ to promote communications with the public. The Security Media Department at the General Secretariat of the Office of H.H Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior, represented by the Social Media Centre, launched the “Insta-Meylas” initiative, inspired by the lifestyle of the Emirati community in Abu Dhabi. The aim of the initiative is to listen and pay attention to the comments of the public and their interaction with the different topics posted by the centre. It is envisioned that “#insta_meylas” will become an interactive platform for understanding public opinion, with a fresh modern vision of the MoI’s Instagram account (Instagram-moiuae).

The MoI’s Social Media Centre has channels on Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, YouTube and Google+, and covers the news of the MoI/ADP as well as all the police departments and general headquarters across the UAE, quickly and accurately. The centre also posts awareness messages and initiatives and acquaints the public with the various services offered by the MoI. The centre’s staff members give top priority to interactions with the public and endeavour to promptly answer their queries 24/7.

The ADP website (<https://www.adpolice.gov.ae/en/media.centre/News/1776082.aspx>) explains that the “Social Media Centre has a wide base of followers, and has become a vital communication channel between the public and the ministry. It has also contributed to promoting security and social awareness through the different media materials that were widely acclaimed by all segments of the public.”

RUMOURS

Combating rumours is conducted by the relevant agencies in the police and military institutions. This is done by examining social networks which contain any information that could undermine the stability of the institutions. Social networks can also be used conversely in promoting accurate information aimed at specific segments of the public as a means of correcting rumours(7 Days Newspaper 17 September 2015).

On 17 September, 2015 at a panel discussion during the GCC Government Social Media Summit in Dubai (7 Days Newspaper: <http://7days.ae/dubai-police-use-summit-to-warn-social-media-users>) Colonel Khalid Nasser Al Razooqi, Director General of the Smart Service Department of Dubai Police, said the force has referred social media users to prosecutors for posting offensive material – including the use of the middle finger ‘emoji’, though he didn’t give figures for how many. He said: “We have laws against users misusing social media and we can reach any person in the world.” Colonel Khalid Nasser Al Razooqi, went on to say, “Social media is created to communicate with people, not to misuse in all these different ways.” He urged the public to respect the privacy of others and be careful of what they post. He also explained countering false rumours circulated online is a growing trend police are dealing with. Colonel Al Razooqi also said ‘officers are monitoring users’ sentiments, to determine how safe people feel.

CRISES MANAGEMENT

At times of disaster and crisis it is essential that the police and military can communicate effectively. The police and military can publish and broadcast breaking news and information on disasters and crises to the greatest number of people through the use of appropriate social networks, thereby raising public awareness about significant emergency events which could affect their lives (Ohlin, Finkelstein and Govern, 2015). This is now common usage of social media throughout most advanced police forces of the world.

Social Media and Change Management

Since 2004 ADP has been engaged in its change management programme to ensure that Abu Dhabi remains one of the safest societies in the world by providing high quality policing services to those who live, work and visit the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. To this end existing change tools such as Project Management Body of knowledge (PMBOK) and leadership styles and techniques have all been used and reviewed in the holistic approach to change in ADP. With the rapid growth and use of social media; this too must be reviewed and considered as a beneficial tool to advance the management of change in ADP.

New technologies, opportunities and even threats all force organisations to have the ability to be able to change rapidly in order to provide services and be effective in an increasingly harder business climate where demands from society are rapidly changing.

Many organisations and companies have been focussing on how to use digital technologies to improve their customer-facing businesses; the application of digital tools to promote and accelerate internal change has received far less scrutiny.

Social media can play a vital role in how an organisation goes about its change management decisions. It can be an important tool to facilitate better and faster change management.

Social media tools can reduce the time an organisation needs to navigate change programmes and deliver a better change experience especially from the employee's perspective. This builds a foundation for employees to be more informed and capable of influencing future change.

Social media can be an important addition to a traditional change management programme. Social media can increase the acceptance of change and advance an organisation more predictably toward its business goals (Rick, 2015).

Rick (2015) suggests that there are ten ways social media can enhance change management. The ten ways are: 1) Improving employee involvement and engagement, 2) Building a collaborative culture, 3) Idea generation, 4) Establishing more effective two-way communication, 5) Storytelling, 6) Creating more engaging learning experiences, 7) Sharing current practices through a knowledge network, 8) Internal branding, 9) Assessing progress more regularly and effectively and 10) Cultural assessment.

While some of these ten suggestions have been tried and tested in a UAE working environment in the past by such change management practitioners such as Al-Khouri, (2012) who assisted to establish the Emirati National Identity Card System. Social media continues to be a much underutilised tool with the various change management programmes within the Abu Dhabi Emirate. Rick (2015) proclaims social media can lead

to faster and better change management. His suggestions in the use of social media include the following:

Improving employee involvement and engagement:

One of the critical success factors for managing change programmes is engaging employees in the change – helping them to feel ownership in the initiative and tapping into their energy to resolve issues and advance the business.

Social media solutions allow information to flow in multiple directions rather than just from the top down. For example, using micro blogs applications for sharing short bursts of information in Twitter-like fashion; organisations can “crowd-source” ideas and involve employees more directly in the change programme. Organisations can build greater internal loyalty by actively soliciting continuous feedback on issues related to the change.

Building a collaborative culture:

Executives know that achieving business success requires more than simply telling everyone about the new ways things are going to be done. Acceptance of change processes, services, working relationships and policies can be accelerated across the organisation through the real-time sharing of experiences. Social networking and collaboration applications are extremely effective ways of bringing employees together to perform new processes and to share experiences of both the successes and the temporary setbacks. People with common interests or related roles can form communities to learn from and support one another.

Social media can also help in cases where creating a more collaborative culture is one of the major objectives of the change initiative.

Idea generation:

Ideas can come from all parts of an organisation. Small changes or transformational shifts in thinking can be found right in your own backyards. What often keeps those ideas hidden, however, is the lack of a mechanism to share them, and the sense of permission to do so.

Social technologies or simple suggestion boxes in the form of blogs or message boards with comments can provide ample opportunities to share, generate, and build on ideas in a collaborative, open format that has visibility across the organisation.

Establishing more effective two-way communication:

Social media tools provide an effective communications medium starting from the core change programme teams and across the organisation as a whole as change initiative proceeds. In addition, by monitoring and participating in online discussions, managers

can more readily see where any misunderstandings or “pain points” exist across the enterprise and take steps to address them.

Management must establish a mechanism for delivering the “voice of truth”. This can be seen as an authoritative, trusted and believable source of information. This reinforces the idea that social media can be used by employees not only to voice ideas and concerns but also to get accurate and credible answers regarding the company’s change effort.

Storytelling:

Storytelling can be a powerful tool when you want to drive organisational change. Social media tools provide an effective medium to tell the stories. This is a modern enhancement to the old traditions of storytelling.

Creating more engaging learning experiences:

Social media applications can be extremely effective ways to deliver personalised learning experiences related to a change initiative, not just general broadcasts of information. Organisations can use these collaboration platforms in a variety of ways to encourage effective workforce enablement, including live web meetings and telepresence solutions that bring together dispersed teams for a common learning experience. In addition user-generated content platforms such as YouTube, can allow staff members to provide short video or audio training segments relevant to the change programme.

Sharing current practices through a knowledge network:

“Learning” refers to more than just the formal offerings that are designed and delivered from a central group. Also critical are the knowledge networks that can be formed quickly using applications such as Twitter, Yammer and Facebook. These networks can help employees get information about processes or technologies, share innovative practices and receive answers in timely ways.

Internal branding:

Companies and organisations sometimes do a weak job of translating their brand internally, and social strategies can improve that. Internal social networks can encourage broader discussion of company or organisation goals, purpose, and vision, and can allow those conversations to happen within levels and across silos in the company or organisation. This is instead of the typical top-down approach.

Employees and team members can gain a greater understanding of the organisation's strategy through information sharing and dialogue, and executive and management teams can garner feedback and input on the brand and its presentation from the point of view of the workforce. Broader understanding of company or organisation's purpose can often uncover better and more effective ways for departments and teams to work together toward common goals.

Assessing progress more regularly and effectively:

Enterprises sometimes have difficulty measuring progress, but social media applications can help by providing near real-time feedback about how well a programme is going. Assessments can be supported in at least two ways.

One way is by providing a platform for nearly instantaneous survey-based feedback, which can supplement more comprehensive measurement exercises.

A second way is by conducting facilitated online feedback sessions. With social media tools, decision makers have timely information about employees' understanding and acceptance of the change programme.

Cultural assessment:

Social media adoption and implementation in organisations is often more of a cultural shift than an operational one. It touches on issues of role and responsibility change, skills evolution, communication style, risk tolerance and trust that have sometimes rested very comfortably inside an organisation for some time.

Leading with social media internally can highlight some of the potential cultural shifts and obstacles that might impede broader strategies. Whether its fears over criticism, uncertainty over productivity issues, or breakdowns in communication, or information flow inside the company; setting up social media tactics on the inside can bring them to the forefront and increase the likelihood that an organisation can address them within the organisations walls first.

In summary, Rick (2015) suggestions the use of social media merely supplements and complements organisational change.

When considering the Abu Dhabi Systems and Information Centre (ADSIC) directive and strategy of 2015 launched on 9 June 2015, regarding Abu Dhabi entities need to utilise social media to achieve excellence in government services; it is essential that ADP embrace social media. It will be left to forward thinking senior police leaders to utilise social media, especially within the change management programme of ADP, in an effective and efficient manner.

ADP subscribes to the philosophy of action research and rapid action. In keeping with this philosophy, this research has highlighted a number of action points that ADP could consider for rapid action. One such action point relates to social media and change management and is contained in Appendix 'I', (Action Point 4 -The research, and in particular the literature review data, highlights that on 9 June 2015 the Abu Dhabi Systems and Information Centre (ADSIC) launched its directive and strategy of 2015 for Abu Dhabi entities to utilise social media to achieve excellence in government services. It is proposed that ADP embrace social media to complement the change management programme of ADP in compliance with the directive and in keeping with good practice).

The above Action Points do not detract from the recommendations contained in the main body of the research.

Future of social media in the UAE

On April 16, 2015 Dr. Yasar Jarrar, Partner Advisor at Bain & Company and founder of the first Arabic portal for digital government, addressed the Dubai Government sponsored 'Innovation Days' which highlights the role of social media in government. Dr. Jarrar provided a glimpse of the future of social media in the UAE by saying. "Looking to the future, the rate of change will accelerate. Technology moves exponentially. We will see a rise in instant communication, big data analytics, robotics, and the Internet-of-everything. The future of government is being shaped by the technology revolution and we are on the verge of Government 3.0," (Available at:

<http://www.mbrsg.ae/HOME/NEWS-AND-EVENTS/News/Innovation-Days-Highlights-Role-of-Social-Media-in.aspx>. (Accessed: 15.8.15).

Other commentators have suggested that, "Government 3.0 is the next form of government," It's like YouTube or Apple's iPad platform. YouTube is already Government 3.0 – because citizens provide content, just like the iPad platform of Apple. The Government 3.0 will provide the framework and citizens will use the applications that they need and want (Klaus Schwab, 2015).

The future of social media for the police is positive with lessons already learned and put into place for future use. For instance Davis, Alves, and Sklansky (2014) have examined the use of social media by police departments in the aftermath of the 2013 bombing at the Boston Marathon. Their research describes the Boston Police Department's (BPD's) response to the bombing and how its use of various types of social media enhanced the investigation, kept the public informed, and brought together various law enforcement agencies to identify and apprehend the suspects. The department made extensive use of its Twitter account and its Facebook page to post information about the suspects and correct any misinformation that had been given to the media. The lessons learned from

the Boston incident and the use of social media during a crisis, and how some of the most important characteristics of social media can be compatible with the best traditions of policing; have already been acted upon by most advanced policing organisations. This is one simple example of the positive use of social media by the police.

The key for ADP is to operationalise social media in a positive manner to enhance its effectiveness and efficiency.

2.12 EFFECTIVENESS and EFFICIENCY

Effectiveness and efficiency often relate to organisations and to the leaders who exercise control over such organisations. The subject of effectiveness has various definitions. This research will seek to use the understanding that may be deemed common, such as seeking value from leaders.

Effectiveness, just like efficiency, is a driving force that exists in conjunction with other forces in order to endure the rigours of growth. It encompasses credibility (which requires sound decision-making), priority (which entails motivating the benefits of a project), accessibility (which seeks to have an open line of communication with top management), and visibility (meaning being visible at appropriate times) (Kersner, 2001). On the same subject, Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 21) argue that "effectiveness is an activity of vision and judgment". Hatry (1978, p. 28) argues: "Effectiveness indicates the amount of end product, the real service to the public that the government is providing." In the context of ADP; should ADP show its service to the public as much as the core government departments and their leaders? The challenge comes when effectiveness is found wanting in the process and is missing in the execution of leadership style.

If ADP leadership and the various projects they are involved in have no metric for effectiveness, then it is of no value to consider providing good service. Projects implement change, and change implies questioning current processes and practices (Gold, 1998). It is of paramount importance to recognise the need for effectiveness in project execution for the benefits to be realised fully. One would like to believe that this entails benefits that are aligned to strategic objectives. If there is no benefit realisation programme in the organisation, it means that the effectiveness may be diminished.

Effectiveness will be measured by how the country perceives ADP in the way they provide their service and whether ADP meets the demand of the public or government. It will be left to this research to find out what challenges leadership faces with regards to effectiveness. Leadership can achieve this by placing metrics for what is deemed effective project execution, which would be related to effective implementation of

strategy. If the metrics of project success are not linked to strategic benchmarks and benefit realisation, ADP will continue underachieving.

Efficiency has a very close relationship with effectiveness, as they are both forces of continuous improvement and growth. Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 21) argue that "Efficiency is an activity of mastering routine". Neely and Bourne (2000, p. 3) argue: "The efficiency issue is associated with simplicity and automation." It would be interesting to note whether leadership at ADP buys tools and methodologies, hoping these will bring efficiency. An interesting definition is by McLean (2005, p. 13), who argues for "Efficiency as a ratio of the output and input".

It is clear from the definitions that effectiveness and efficiency result in the perception of success and that the two are intertwined.

Leadership in ADP now faces a challenge to be seen as effective and efficient.

The literature has shown that theories on leadership require some form of efficiency and effectiveness, but this is not cast in stone due to the complexity of the subject. It remains a challenge for ADP leadership to address the concerns regarding efficiency and effectiveness. It should also be noted that the loose application of theories of management and leadership to the concept of effectiveness and efficiency is immature.

2.13 SUMMARY

A review of the literature on leadership theory, police leadership, definitions of police leadership, project planning, competency frameworks, culture and statecraft has resulted in the identification of a base from which the specific research questions within this research have emerged. It is evident that police services in the Western world have recognised the need to implement leadership theory and practices into police originations. Furthermore, steps have been taken to implement, in ADP, best practices that have been adapted by police services in other countries. It is apparent that outside of the UAE, some police services have moved beyond competency frameworks to select leaders. However within UAE, the contextualising of leadership and the elements of leadership traits is in its infancy. It has been assumed that leaders and managers have different roles, motivation and thinking styles.

Management includes order, consistency, and formal plans as well as designing essential organisational structures that monitor results.

Leadership in contrast is increasingly taking place within a team context and is about coping with changes, developing a vision of the future, stimulating people to communicate this vision and inspiring them perhaps to overcome hurdles. It is also suggested that both strong leadership and strong management are essential components to organisational effectiveness (Robbins 1998).

According to this particular study, good leaders are pragmatic and able to grasp the realities of the political and economic context, responsible for setting priorities, encourage innovation, listen to opinions and communicate effectively.

It may be the case that ADP needs to experience the application of leadership competency frameworks as they evolve from past practices to best practice. It is also clear that in the UAE that the police and the state are intertwined and that modern and appropriate leadership competencies are required to select future police leaders. It is a consideration that one of the competencies to assess police leaders is statecraft.

While statecraft has been mainly used to assess political leaders, it has not been considered as an approach to assess future or current police leaders in the UAE.

The early identification of who has the potential as a police leader in an Arab context has not been fully examined; thus, there is an existing gap in the literature. While the literature review has identified several common competencies, mainly based on Western perspectives, for potential leaders; the literature has not identified police organisations which use statecraft as a component of police leadership.

The use of a statecraft approach in analysing the leadership of ADP may prove useful in this investigation.

ADP cannot be seen in isolation and as a separate entity to the state. The security of the state to some extent relies on its police force. The two have to be viewed in context.

One of the manifestations of the state is the projects it drives downwards towards its organs of the state. The vision and mission of ADP is worked in partnership by the state. In ADP projects are tools to assist change practice and are part of change management which supports the vision and mission of ADP. By investigating projects within ADP one can identify the style and type of leadership used.

Once a person is in a position of leadership, the identification of which leadership style is appropriate for the UAE is an issue. This research will set out to address these issues.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY AND FRAMEWORK

3.1 Mixed Methods Research

A mixed method sequential exploratory design approach (Creswell, 2009, 2012 and 2013) has been used in this research. This research approach is often associated with the analysis approach which is described as triangulation. A mixed method sequential exploratory design approach is more commonly referred to as simply 'mixed methods' or 'multi methods research'.

This being said, the mixed methods research used in this study has been used for some time and attributed to Campbell and Fiske's work from 1959 which formalised multiple methods research (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007).

According to Johnson et al., (2007) social scientists of the 1960s, such as Webb, Campbell and Schwartz, were given credit with improving multiple methods research by introducing the term 'triangulation'.

Bateson (2000) observed that using two different perspectives offers what he termed a 'binocular view' which in turn provides an extra dimension and depth to a study. Bateson (2000) formed the opinion that studying the object from several perspectives provides more detail and more complexity in studies.

Denzin (1978) is attributed with explaining how to use triangulation within research and developed four types of triangulation:

- a) Data triangulation (i.e., use of a variety of sources in a study),
- b) Investigator triangulation (i.e., use of several different researchers),
- c) Theory triangulation (i.e., use of multiple perspectives and theories to interpret the results of a study), and
- d) Methodological triangulation (i.e., use of multiple methods to study a research problem). (Johnson et al (2007), p.114).

Triangulation was further developed by Jick (1979). Jick demonstrated that triangulation can offer research designers more confidence in their results and "it can stimulate the

creation of inventive methods ... triangulation may also help to uncover the deviant or off-quadrant dimension of a phenomenon" (p.609).

Johnson et al. (2007) attributed Morse (1991) with first studying simultaneous and sequential methodological triangulation.

Five broad-based reasons for using mixed methods research were offered by Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989):

- a) Triangulation (i.e., seeking convergence and corroboration of results from different methods studying the same phenomenon):
- b) Complementarity (i.e., seeking elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with results from the other method),
- c) Development (i.e., using the results from one method to help inform the other method),
- d) Initiation (i.e., discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to a reframing of the research question), and
- e) Expansion (i.e., seeking to expand the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components). (Johnson et al, 2007, p.115-116).

Originally, triangulation was seen as a method used in the natural sciences for analysing the exact position of an object by using three reference points of which their positions are known. However, currently triangulation can be used in research in many different ways.

Triangulation can also be employed to determine position and distance to other objects. The reference to triangulation in this study is relevant as the research uses three aspects to study current phenomenon. As a result, one gets a deeper understanding of the object being studied.

Mixed methods research, according to Yin (2009), "can permit investigators to address more complicated research questions and collect a richer and stronger array of evidence than can be accomplished by any single method alone" (p.62).

Other researchers have indicated the benefits of mixed methods research as the utilisation of both qualitative and quantitative research, working in tandem, providing better strength to a study (Creswell, 2013).

Some writers have suggested that the, "rationale for mixing both kinds of data within one study is grounded in the fact that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods are sufficient, by themselves, to capture the trends and details of a situation" (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006, p.3).

As context is significant in research (Yin, 2009), mixed method research allows, "special opportunities to use multiple sources of information from multiple approaches to gain new insights in the social world" (Axinn and Pearce, 2006, p. 1).

This study is conducted in an area where an understanding of the Arab police environment is essential and this is why mixed methods was adopted rather than using merely one quantitative or qualitative method.

Creswell (2009 and 2013) indicated that visual models can assist in the understanding of mixed method approaches. Appendix 'E' provides a visual model of the mixed method sequential exploratory design approach used in this research.

3.2 Sample Group

In the UAE there are no Trade Unions or Police Federations. In addition there is no equivalent to the National Association of Police Organisations (NAPO) of America or Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) of the UK. A special decree would have to be passed by the UAE government before such organisations could be created within the UAE. As a consequence a direct approach, with permission of ADP, was made to the sample group involved in this research.

The target population are senior police leaders within ADP who are recognised as officers who hold the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier. Currently there are 44 departments within ADP and each is headed by a Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier. This select band of officers is referred to as senior police leaders. These officers are not part of any police association and do not meet as a body to discuss association matters. Their views and opinions are their own and are neither the views nor opinions of an association nor official affiliated police organisation.

The executive police leadership of ADP are Major Generals and above, who are usually a Head of a General Directorate within ADP. Each executive police leader has several Heads of Department that report to them. In turn the executive police leaders have regular direct contact with Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Interior and Head of ADP. The Heads of Department also have access to Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan and often accompany executive leaders.

The 44 Heads of Departments who are also senior police leaders within ADP (Lieutenant Colonels, Colonels or Brigadiers) will figure prominently in the mixed method sequential exploratory design approach used in this research. The 42 completed questionnaires returned by the senior police officers will also provide invaluable data.

Mixed method sequential exploratory design approach (Adopted from Creswell, 2012) can be viewed in Appendix 'E'.

3.3 Explanation of Research Process: Pilot Study

In February 2014 a pilot study was completed by the author prior to the start of the primary research phase. The purpose of a pilot study was to refine the research instruments, assist in recognising potential research problems, and prevent data collection errors (Sampson, 2004), within the primary study. The pilot study comprised of three (3) interviews that were conducted with police officers who hold the rank of Lieutenant Colonel and Colonel and are a Head of Department. The interview process used in the primary study was designed and was as a result of the 3 interviews conducted during the pilot study.

The interview process designed for the pilot study required very minor changes and was used during the primary interviews and is attached in Appendix 'F'.

After the pilot study was completed Phase One of the primary study was started.

3.4 Phase 1: Primary Study: Interviews.

In mid 2014 Phase One of the study commenced. The interview protocol was adhered to and the interview process form (Appendix 'F') acted as a guide which allowed for free flowing interviews and answers during the 11 face-to-face interviews with senior police officers.

The interviews lasted between 35 to 45 minutes. During the meetings participants were asked about their views on leadership and change management within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). The meetings were broken down to seven segments. The segments or sections contained seven themes: 1) demographics, 2) determining police leadership, 3) self-reflection on police leadership, 4) recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership style and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment.

The results were to be the basis of the questionnaire (Appendix 'G') for Phase Two, which was later sent to the 44 senior police leaders of ADP.

3.5 Phase 2: Primary Study: Survey

The questionnaires involved in Phase Two were distributed in December 2014. The potential pool of 44 senior police leaders was receptive to the research with 42 of the participants completing their questionnaire and returning them to the researcher within the allocated time. There were no spoiled questionnaires.

Phase Two proved to be positive with many of the questionnaire results validating items which emerged from the Pilot Study and Phase One of the research.

Minitab 17 statistical software (2014) was used to analyse the questionnaire.

The data from the questionnaire has provided an abundance of reliable information and provided some clear insights into the ADP culture and attitude within senior police leadership ranks.

3.6 Common Vocabulary

Consistent understanding amongst senior police leaders, who participated in the research, was assured through a common vocabulary used in ADP.

The common understanding and vocabulary used in ADP comes about by several factors including having shared experiences and training in the police. One of the main features of senior police leaders' development is the requirement for police officers to undertake professional police leadership courses run by ADP.

In order to attain the rank of senior police leader, one must attend and pass all three of the leadership cum management training courses provided by ADP. The courses are conducted in English and a standardised curriculum has been in place since 2013. The foundation leadership course lasts for seven weeks and is designed for Captains wishing to progress to Majors. The intermediate leadership course is for Majors wishing to progress to Lieutenant Colonels which lasts for eight weeks. Finally, the third course is the advanced leadership course and is designed for Lieutenant Colonels aspiring to reach the executive ranks. This course also lasts for the equivalent of eight weeks and is delivered in English.

All officers must have a fluent understanding of spoken and written English in order to pass the foundation, intermediate and advanced leadership courses and gain a senior police leader's position. English is seen as the international business language of ADP.

Arabic is the official language of the UAE and English is regarded as the second language. Senior police leaders must have a fluent understanding of both languages and have passed all leadership courses before being promoted to senior police leader.

The curriculums on all leadership courses have specific modules on leadership and management. All the courses, as detailed in the curriculums, specifically deal with different leadership styles and specifically cover authoritarian, paternalistic, democratic, laissez-faire, transactional, transformational and situational styles. These leadership styles are in common use amongst senior police leaders in ADP and are part of the ADP vocabulary and understanding. This is why these leadership styles were chosen to be used in the questionnaire (Appendix 'F') and during the interviews with senior police leaders during the research.

The questionnaire (Appendix 'F'), used in the research, was written in English and all replies were in English.

All interviews in the research were in English. However, one of the interviewee senior police leaders at the beginning of the interview decided, on his own volition, to invite the departmental official legal translator into the interview. The interviewee senior police leaders indicated that while he was fluent in English, on principle, he preferred to use the department translator in almost all business matters which was conducted in English. This stance was accepted and the interview commenced with the use of the translator. At the conclusion of the interview the interviewee senior police leader acknowledged that there was no need for the departmental legal translator to be present other than he personally felt more comfortable with the presence of the translator. No other senior police leaders interviewed required or requested a translator during the course of the research.

3.7 Limitations and threats in the research

There can be numerous threats and limitations to any research. Creswell (2013) describes at least eight internal threats. There are five potential threats which relate specifically to the participants which Creswell describe as follows: history, maturation, regression, selection and mortality.

Further to this Creswell (2009) argues there are three internal threats that relate to the researcher; 1) manipulation by the researcher; 2) diffusion of treatment, compensatory/resentful demoralisation and (3) compensatory rivalry. In addition, there are two internal threats that have to do with the procedures used in an experiment: testing and instrumentation (p.163).

In this investigation within ADP, history, maturation, regression, selection, diffusion of treatment, compensatory/resentful demoralisation, compensatory rivalry and manipulation were determined to be a very minor threat to validity. However, mortality is considered to be of concern and relates to participants who decide for one reason or another drop out during the research.

Some steps were taken to reduce the possible drop out rate. This included corresponding with the participants and ensuring that they were kept up to date with the progress of the research. The target population of 44 Heads of Department have extremely busy individuals and the flexibility of the researcher was emphasised to them in order to accommodate the availability and time constraints placed upon the participants. The Heads of Department all have a vested interest in the outcomes of this research. The Heads of Department, who promote good practice, are interested in leadership issues and it is the mission of ADP to become one of the best police forces in the world. All this assists with the buy-in of the 42 Heads of Department who completed and returned the questionnaires.

From the sample group some non-responses were expected but the steps indicated above minimised the likelihood of the main threat of mortality.

This research was supported by ADP and had been discussed at several meetings. In addition to this the University of East Anglia Research Ethics Committee approved the design and conduct of this research.

Within this research there are three main external threats to validity. These have been categorised as interaction of setting and treatment, interaction of selection and treatment, and interaction of history and treatment (Creswell, 2009 and 2013). These three external threats all existed within this specific study. Although the study is replicable within other police forces within the Gulf Region, a limitation of this study is its external validity. A restriction of the claims made within the study sets the parameters for the reader to understand prior to any conclusions being made. This is not to say that this study is not useful, but that its limitations are recognised and acknowledged.

When planning surveys, the aspects of validity and reliability of the responses need to be tackled. Validity is "concerned with whether a variable measures what it is supposed to measure" (Bollen, 1989, p.184), while reliability refers to the instrument's "capacity for consistently and stably measuring what it is supposed to measure" (Black and Champion, 1976, p.5).

Validity can be divided into a number of various subtypes of validity. Some scholars have divided it into content-related, criterion-related and construct-related validity, while others have divided the concept into internal and external validity.

Validity within qualitative research does not mean the same thing as validity within quantitative research. In quantitative research Creswell (2009) stated that validity, "means that the researcher checks for accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures" (p.190). Yin (2009) explored the concepts of construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability in examining qualitative research. Internal and external validity were considered in the above discussion. However, construct validity and reliability also needed to be addressed. In this study, the approach itself, using a mixed method sequential exploratory design followed by analyses, provided multiple sources of evidence which maximised the construct validity.

Reliability was difficult to assess as the opinions of the Heads of Department, as they exist today, regarding leadership phenomenon, would be expected to change in the future. While replication of this study is possible and encouraged; it was not the intent of this researcher at the initial stage to embark onto a larger population to investigate or extend the research into another country. Albeit, this would be of benefit to the research.

Creswell (2009 and 2013) proposed that several steps can be taken to improve reliability within a study: ensuring transcripts are properly transcribed and that the definition used to code data remains constant throughout the analyses phase of the research. Reflecting on the researcher's potential biases, as was done in this study, also provided for greater reliability within the qualitative part of this research.

The range of this research included only views of the Heads of Department, and the several other security family groups within the Emirate of Abu Dhabi may also have stakeholder positions, but are not included in this study. Although the other security family groups are not considered for this specific research; future research initiatives may undertake a comparative analysis of the other police leadership stakeholders in the UAE.

It has been accepted that this research would be difficult to replicate and therefore, is less rigorous than studies which are replicable. This is not to say that this study could not be undertaken in other Emirates and then a comparative analysis completed. In fact, the author would suggest that this would make for a very interesting future study.

The effectiveness of the research cannot be understated. In order to understand ADP and its staff, especially senior police officers, the data emanating from the research will inform and guide any future researcher as well as any police professional wishing to understand the complexities of an Arab police force undergoing change.

The implications of the research will not only impact on ADP but potentially can contribute to and can be applied to Western centric organisations and other Arab organisation considering applying systems or processes to its own people. The results of this research under these circumstances would prove to be very useful and assist, at the very least, inform policy.

The focus of this research was to obtain the opinions of the participants and to assume that the participants had an understanding about the topic. This is a vital assumption and if that assumption was incorrect, it had the possibility to limit the findings of the research.

3.8 Social Constructivism

During the mid 1990s, Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) began, belatedly, to mirror Western police forces in a move away from its paramilitary past through a modernisation strategy. Under the auspices of Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, (2005 to present), Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior, ADP has moved away from its paramilitary past to a more complex policing system. ADP has also introduced since 2005, community based policing, problem-based policing, intelligence lead policing and crime reduction models. All these initiatives have been introduced through project managed methodologies. This methodology has been one of the main catalysts for change within ADP.

The paradigm used in this research is based on Social Constructivism.

Social Constructivism emphasizes the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on this understanding (Derry, 1999; McMahon, 1997). This perspective is closely associated with many contemporary theories, most notably the developmental theories of Vygotsky and Bruner, and Bandura's social cognitive theory (Shunk, 2011).

A Social Constructivist methodology has been considered and carried out before within the police training setting (Glasgow and Lepatski, 2010), and there are some studies that consider Constructivist methodology in the development of leadership potential with the police services (Martyn and Scurr, 2007). Social Constructivist methodology is the chosen methodology for this research.

In this investigation, a group of senior police leaders who are also regarded as subject matter experts were interviewed and thereafter surveyed to give their opinions on especially the topics of leadership and change management. Every senior police officers interviewed was asked to provide an account from their own perspective. This perspective was based on a life of constructs, encounters, and beliefs that have shaped the senior police officers' knowledge and understanding of leadership and change. Each individual's idea or sense-making of communities and organisational structures, as a construct, was different but this added to the depth of understanding that can potentially emerge from mixed methods research. Hence, the methods used in this research makes for a quality research product.

This research is, in theory, grounded on the premise that, "leaders need to be encouraged to develop their understanding of themselves and their social and

organisational communities and imperatives" (Iles & Preece, 2006, p. 324). With this in mind, some writers believe leaders and learning are codependent (Lambert, 2002; Sackney & Mergel, 2007). This codependency matches with the Social Constructivist epistemology as constructed by Dewey, Piaget, and Vygotsky (Sackney & Mergel, 2007).

Social Constructivists, "hold assumptions that individuals seek understanding of their world in which they live and work" (Creswell, 2009, p. 8), and furthermore that, "learners construct their own reality based upon previous experiences, mental structures and beliefs that are used to interpret social reality" (Sackney & Mergel, 2007, p. 75).

Expanding upon this principle and drawing on the research of Bruner (1990), and Brown, Collins and Duguid, (1989), Social Constructivists propose that, "learning involves the learner in sense-making activates that are shaped by prior knowledge and experiences that occur through social interaction and that are contextually situated" (Sackney & Mergel, 2007, p.75).

The understanding of Social Constructivists, based on the work of Crotty (1998), is grounded on a number of suppositions:

1. Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting.
2. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives.
3. The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of the interaction with a human community.

This research, placed within the Social Constructivist paradigm, will assist to facilitate senior police officers to consider themselves as subject matter experts and leaders and build, "leadership capacity through broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership" (Lambert, 2003, pA2l). Police officers in ADP will potentially learn and mature and therefore, from a Constructivist's view, build upon their leadership capacity and develop as senior police leaders.

Leadership development, in contrast, is universally presented as inherently relational, social and collective and correspondingly drawing from three sets of capacities: structural (social and network ties), relational (interactions and relationships), and cognitive (shared representation and collective meaning)" (Parker & Carroll, 2009, p. 263).

Some scholars involved in contemporary leadership (Northhouse, 2014) have concentrated primarily on leader specific theories, such as trait theories, transformational leadership, and heroic leadership, as is the case in policing.

Alternatively, in educational leadership studies (Lambert, 2002; Sackney & Mergel, 2007), have focused on shared or distributed leadership approaches which are supported within the Social Constructivist paradigm.

Social Constructivists believe that leadership is a social construct and within a social constructivist epistemology can theoretically be applied to many current and past leadership theories. For example, the great man or trait theories from the 1930's were based on the theory that leaders had personal traits that fostered their leadership ability. Social Constructivists would argue that a trait, although a personal attribute that some may have, and others may not, is a social construct. In other words, for a trait to be of use within leadership, somebody else must recognise, consciously or subconsciously the trait and give it meaning. This sense of meaning must be embraced by the community in order for it to be fully understood.

Leadership research, from a Social Constructivists view point, is not done for the advancement of new knowledge alone, as is found within other epistemologies, such as Positivism (Creswell, 2012).

Scholars in police leadership have the benefit of learning from leadership studies in other disciplines. For example in research literature found within educational leadership studies, some Social Constructivists think that, "leadership is the reciprocal processes that enable participants in a community to construct meanings that lead toward a shared purpose" (Lambert, 2000, p16). In police science, leadership, especially within dispersed leadership theory, within a social constructivist epistemology, have similar goals. Police staff who work within ADP participate and live in various communities with similar goals and functions. Police leaders also need to work together in establishing a meaning-making process to develop police leadership capacity, and to fill the leadership space that has been created for numerous reasons in Abu Dhabi.

This research began with a discussion about senior police leaders of ADP and how to obtain their opinions on senior police leadership in a changing society. The context of policing, with its culture, beliefs, networks, relationships, values and norms, provides an excellent arena for the study of change management and leadership. The Social Constructivist paradigm is well suited as the theoretical framework to guide this research and provide meaning and substance to a changing UAE.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

4.1 Results Introduction

Creswell's (2009 and 2013) mixed method sequential exploratory design approach, used in this research, has provided and borne fruitful results. The results have been highlighted, analysed and discussed in this chapter and the next. The three steps used in the field research comprised of the Pilot Study, Phase One: Face-to-Face Interviews and Phase Two: Questionnaire is discussed in more detail hereunder.

4.2 Pilot Study

The Research Ethics Committee of the University of East Anglia approved this research methodology in 2014. After permission was granted to conduct the research three senior police leaders of Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) were randomly selected and contacted. The three senior police leaders involved in this part of the research have the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier and hold the position as Head of Department within ADP. They were randomly selected as potential participants and were contacted and asked to participate in the pilot study. All agreed to be interviewed on the understanding that they were volunteering to assist with a pilot study and that none of their individual responses in the pilot study would be used within the main study scheduled to take place in the latter part of 2014. The participants were interviewed separately at their work place. Written notes were taken at the time which were later transcribed. Each participant in the pilot study also signed a consent form indicating agreement to participate in the pilot study. The pilot study was designed to refine the research instruments and attempt to prevent data collection errors (Sampson, 2004). The pilot study evolved around and was based on the research questions of this study. The research questions which have been previously described are: 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP? 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution? 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management? 4) What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP? 5) How can leadership and strategic change management be enhanced?

The written notes from the three participants were later transcribed. The interviews were consistent with expectations and confirmed that the questions and themes were relevant and understood. Minor alterations were made before proceeding to Phase One of the research.

4.3 Phase One: Face-to-Face Interviews

On completion of the pilot study, data relating to senior police leaders who were the potential pool of participants for this research was collected. The total potential number of participants within the population pool was 44 senior police leaders who were also Heads of Department. Of the potential population of 44 senior police leaders 11 were randomly selected. Each of the randomly selected 11 potential participants were contacted and asked if they would participate in Phase One of the research. All 11 agreed to participate in the research. The participants were contacted by telephone which was followed up with a letter to arrange a date and time for an interview. In only one case the meeting had to be re-scheduled due to other matters. The re-scheduled meeting went ahead at a later time and within the schedule of work.

The 11 interviews were done on a face-to-face basis. The written notes of the interviews were transcribed shortly after they were conducted. After all the interviews were transcribed, the 11 interviews were assigned a random number of 1 through 11 as a means of providing anonymity to the participants and for use in referencing their comments during the analyses. All 11 of the interviews were then analysed using the Creswell (2009 and 2013) model. The data was read through and analysed in order to obtain a general sense of the content. A further analysis was completed and notes taken to gauge the overall depth, credibility and usefulness of the information. Coding of the data commenced by attempting to organise the material into workable sections. Listing the segments of significance were completed which allowed for a systematic process of analysing of the data.

The final step was to analyse the data from the perspective of interpretation. This included analysing how the findings are relevant to existing theories or literature or from the researcher's own understanding.

4.4 Phase One: Interview Form and Results

The interview protocol was adhered to and the interview process form (Appendix 'F') acted as a guide which allowed for free flowing interviews and answers during the 11 face-to-face interviews. The results were to be the basis of the questionnaire (Appendix 'G') for Phase Two, which was later sent to the 44 senior police leaders of ADP.

The interviews lasted between 35 to 45 minutes. During the meetings participants were asked about their views on leadership and change management within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). The meetings were broken down to seven segments. The segments or sections contained seven themes which composed of: 1) demographics, 2) determining police leadership, 3) self-reflection on police leadership , 4) recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership style and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment.

The results of Phase One (face-to-face interviews) and the results of Phase Two (questionnaire survey) were to be strikingly similar. It was noted that the issue of statecraft and situational leadership figured prominently during both phases. Some unexpected issues arose in Phase One including *wasta*. Simply defined, *wasta* is favouritism, which is an attempt to use the influence of relatives or acquaintances to achieve certain objectives (Urban Dictionary.Com, 2015). This issue was later included in questions in Phase Two of the research. All these matters will be debated and discussed in more depth in the discussion part of this thesis.

In summary, the results of Phase One can be divided into seven sections. These sections include: 1) demographics, 2) determining police leadership, 3) self-reflection on police leadership , 4) recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership style and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment. The details of the seven sections used in Phase One are examined in more detail hereunder.

Phase One, Section 1: Demographics

Some of the demographic questions included:

Age:

Rank:

Educational achievement(s):

Years of service:

Years as a senior police leader:

The 11 participants interviewed in Phase One were an average of 41 years of age with an average and their length of service as a police officer of 20 years. The

average length of service as a senior police leader was 6 years. Educationally, all 11 participants either had a master's degree or ordinary degree.

Phase One, Section 2: Determining Police Leadership

This section dealt with defining leadership and police leadership. Some of the questions asked from the interview process form (Appendix F) to the participants were:

- a. Please explain whether or not, within ADP, there is or should be a shared definition of police leadership?
- b. Please explain whether or not, within ADP, there is or should be a shared definition of police leadership? How do you define police leadership?
- c. Please discuss whether explanations of leadership from other areas, such as business enterprises, are useful in the policing context?

Two general themes emerged from the participants that were identified as a) common definition concerns and b) application of business leadership definitions.

Questions were asked as to whether or not there should be a shared definition of police leadership in ADP. There was consensus that there are certain leadership competencies that will be shared among ADP senior police leaders and the police services, but that there are too many differences among communities to rely on one standard definition of police leadership for all. Participant 7, stated, "I am having difficulty defining police leadership but I know there is a difference between business leadership and police leadership. With police leadership you are, at times required to make a decision that could mean life or death. I don't know too many business leaders in industry or commerce that can say that."

There was also a consensus that each community defined police leadership differently and expected police leaders to act according to the needs of the community. A shared definition of leadership was not found amongst the participants replies.

Connecting the leadership profile to the community was a theme that emerged from the interviews.

Most of the participants agreed there should be a different definition between police leadership and business leadership.

The police culture, police organisations and police officers were seen as different from most other organisations.

Some of the participants felt that trying to define police leadership and business leadership was too difficult and that the wording of each would lead to simply quibbling over semantics.

In discussion it was acknowledge some business leadership skills were readily transferrable to a police service. This was summed up by Participant 8 who explained, "Business leaders and police leaders both have similar skills and qualities but not enough to make each other fundamentally the same. Our operating environment, history and culture make police leaders think and act differently to other leaders".

When attempting to explain police leadership all the participants began to use phrases or adjectives to explain the definition of leadership. This was expanded upon by some participants during the face-to-face interviews and as a result some of these phrases or adjectives are contained in Table 1.

Leadership Qualities
Honest
Respectful
Integrity
Trustworthy
Good communicator
Common Sense
Polite
Politically astute
Business acumen
Makes ethical decisions
Competent in Project Management
Has Statecraft
Career, not a job
Logic
Takes responsibility
Solid operational skills
Higher level thinker
Flexible
Quality in work
Team builder

Foresight
Vision
Accountability
Work ethic
Enthusiastic
Is focused on outcome
Preparedness
Caring
Diligent
Approachable
Predictable
Organisational support
Willingness to learn
Dynamic
Well versed
Self-Aware
Empathetic
Sincerity
Creativity
Passionate
Selflessness
Self-reflective
Initiative beyond years of service
Dreamer
Desire to influence
Has 'wasta'

Table 1 - List of descriptors for police leadership.

This list was later included in the questionnaire used in Phase Two.

Phase One, Section 3: Self-Reflection on Police Leadership

Section 3 of the Interview Process Form (Appendix 'F') related to how the participant became a police leader and reflecting back on how they were identified as a potential senior police leader.

Four distinct themes that emerged from the interview data: a) opportunity, b) self-identification, c) mentorship, and d) timing.

In regard to opportunity; there was consensus that opportunities arose throughout an officer's career to display abilities. The senior police leader participants, in the main, believed ADP recognised leadership potential earlier in their career. Their potential was recognised by supervisors and senior police leaders.

Although there were several areas where opportunities presented themselves, investigations, projects and special initiatives were seen as the vehicle for leadership potential to be mostly recognised and displayed. Participant 1 stated, "If a project goes well and you have worked hard on the project; there was a good likelihood that the senior police leader of the project would commend you".

Investigative ability was also seen as a means from which officers could demonstrate leadership potential.

On the topic of self-identification; the majority of participants agreed that once they self-identified their personal desire to become a leader, they started career planning and looked for opportunities. Some participants also looked towards ADP to provide opportunities and for ADP to have a major influence in their career planning. For instance, Participant 10 explained, "Abu Dhabi Police should tell us what career path we have to take. I don't need to select my own career path as the organisation knows our abilities and moves us accordingly". While Participant 10's view was in the minority, there appeared to be a belief that self-direction and self-identification of abilities and potential for higher position was in the hands of ADP and the individual had limited influence.

On the other hand, some recognised that the organisation was not responsible for police officers' advancement and described it as a partnership between the police officer and ADP.

Mentors were recognised as important people in the participants' careers, for those who identified they had mentors. Mentors were described as leaders within an organisation who saw potential and provided opportunities and suggestions for growth. Mentors were formal and informal.

There were several participants who indicated that they clearly had no formal mentorship from people within their police organisation .Participant 2 and Participant 6 indicated they had informal mentors from outside ADP.

Personal relationships and the ability to get along with other people were also credited with being important for leadership development, specifically in speaking about mentoring connections within the organisation. Only one participant mentioned that a personal connection was almost a mild form of *wasta*. The participant went on to say that he personally had not seen *wasta* in ADP. This was the first mention of *wasta* at any of the interviews.

Timing was believed to play an important factor in a police officer's career and has significance in the identification of their leadership potential. Participant 11 stipulated that, "Sometimes you find yourself to be the only one in the department with the skills and ability to do the job. If that is the case you will receive promotion. At other times there could be several officers with potential for leadership in the department and you have difficulty standing out from the others. At times it's simply about timing." Other participants indicated timing was an important element in leadership decisions but was not the most important factor.

Phase One, Section 4: Recognition of Senior and Executive Police Leadership Qualities in Others

The forth section of the interview process form (Appendix "F") was used to facilitate responses from the participants. When asked the following questions contained in Appendix 'F':

- a. Tell me about a time when you discovered junior police officers with potential for senior police leadership?
- b. What was it about the context that made this identification of senior police leadership potential possible?
- c. Describe a time when you identified a senior police leader with potential for higher executive police leadership?
- d. What was it about the context that made this identification of executive police leadership potential possible?

The session started with initially asking participants the first two questions of section four on how they identify those whom they think have senior police leadership potential. This was later followed by asking the latter two questions of section 4 relating to executive police leadership. Certain issues began to emerge by asking these questions.

The first two questions resulted in three themes emerging from the recognition of police leadership in others. The three themes that emerged from the interviews:

- a) attitudinal potential,
- b) strategic potential and c) demonstrating leadership potential.

In addition leadership potential through visceral responses or 'gut feelings' emerged as an additional theme which will be highlighted in the latter part of this chapter.

Attitudinal potential was one of the first of the themes to emerge. It was recognised by the participants that junior police officers with leadership potential were those who have the right attitude or mind set. Participant 3 described the mind set as, "Having the right attitude to deal with the public in a friendly and professional manner. If you can get on with all sectors of the public you will get on with colleagues and this helps with leadership selection." Another Participant 7, explained, "The attitude test is two ways. If a member of the public infringes a minor law they can usually get off with an informal warning. If that same member of the public fails the attitude test, it could result in the law being fully enforced. If a police officer fails the attitude test they too can feel the negative consequences not only from the public but from colleagues. A good attitude is essential for advancement and good for the community we serve." Gut feeling was mentioned when Participant 9 described the attitude. It is difficult to describe but you sense it. Those with a positive attitude usually get on with senior management and are prepared to work hard".

Observing the demonstration of appropriate attitude was recognised as a problem within police organisations. Sometimes, the worked base promotion and assessment systems do not look for attitudinal behaviour within people with leadership potential. Some participants thought that this could lead to leadership potential being missed within formal assessment systems (Participant 8 and 11).

Leadership potential was also described as being prevalent in junior officers with a series of adjectives and phrases which included; being polite, solid operational skills, takes responsibility, has logic.

Attitude was recognised as being difficult to teach to junior officers, but recruiting those with the proper attitude was something that was thought could be achieved.

The second emerging issue was strategic potential. An officer of junior rank with leadership potential was described as having an understanding of ADPs mission statement and having the ability to demonstrate the vision of the police organisation in a routine management role (Participant 3). Participant 1, describing strategic potential as, "Having the ability to think and speak strategically in all we do. Today a modern Abu Dhabi Police look for staff with strategic knowledge that can progress through the ranks".

It was apparent that possessing the qualities of a strategic thinker was an indicator of potential.

A number of Participants (8, 1 and 10) talked about strategic thinkers also having a sense of responsibility, being able to understand strategy in-depth and take respectfully, for themselves and others especially for initiatives and strategic tasks.

Potential leaders were said to understand that they have power and that power was to be used tactically and strategically; always bearing in mind the impact on people and the organisation (Participant 11).

Demonstrating leadership potential was also discussed. Not only junior officers but also senior police leaders were seen as having potential, if they stand out and are noticed by their peers and executive police leadership.

Leadership potential was identified when the officers started doing things for the organisation and getting involved in proactive activities. They proactively sought learning opportunities and experiences and did the job well; they were considered most likely to succeed. Participant 7 talked personally about this matter and explained, "I personally looked for opportunities to learn new skills and stand out from the crowd. The downside is I always ended up with too much work to do".

ADP as an organisation was identified as having a responsibility for development and for identifying positive leadership behaviour (Participant 8 and 2). It was recognised that all police organisations have a role to play in providing an environment to grow and allowing a learning culture for staff to gain knowledge and skills. Leadership training was seen as an excellent tool to allow talent to grow.

The last two questions of section 4 in Appendix 'F' drew a mixed response from participants. When identifying other senior police leaders with potential for higher executive police leadership and the context which made the identification possible, a mixed response was received including gut feelings or visceral responses

However, nine of the participants indicated that by simply meeting with fellow senior police leaders on a formal and informal bases during normal working hours, led to the participants forming opinions about leadership potential and qualities required for higher ranks. Most of the responses from the participants included descriptors similar to those given in Section 2 of this Chapter which are mainly contained in Table 1.

A number of participants (2, 5 and 8) agreed that they use as part of their assessment gut feelings or visceral responses when assessing potential for senior police leadership and indeed all leadership positions. The participants agreed that most visceral responses

occurred when they were observing or interacting with a junior and senior police officer. As a result of that interaction, the participant had gut feelings about others potential for advancement.

The participants were able to identify certain situations involving other leaders where they observed or which generated emotions or feelings about their leadership potential. Some of these feelings included:

- Feeling of charisma
- Sensing a significant trait
- A feeling of trust and trustworthiness
- An air of self-confidence
- Having a command presence.

Visceral responses were seen to have something to do with a confidence you perceived by watching or engaging with other colleagues.

When assessing personality, some participants agreed that other officers they identified as having senior police leaders or executive police leadership potential was through visceral responses. One participant felt that he tended to view other officers with potential as having a similar personality types to himself.

Trustworthiness also produced an important emotional feeling and it was noted that people tend to gravitate towards people who they instinctively trust.

It was mentioned by Participant 1 that “You can receive or have a gut feeling if a colleague will make it to the highest ranks. You can also get a negative feeling if they are destined to remain in the rank they are.”

Alternatively, the lack of self-confidence was identified as a negative visceral response by one interview participant.

Some of the phrases or words used by the respondents to describe leadership qualities were also include in Table 1 relating to descriptions or qualities of police leadership.

Phase One, Section 5: Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution

Using Section 5 of the interview process form (Appendix F) participants were asked to explore the linkage between senior police leadership, change management, projects and their importance.

The role of the senior police leader was seen as essential if a project or initiative was to be successful. Participant 11 felt that, “A professional senior police leader will influence all the members of any team. There is a better chance of success if the police leader gives guidance and time to the initiative or project”.

The majority of participants were of the opinion that projects were the main vehicle which effected change within ADP and it was important to provide the appropriate resources to this area of work.

All the participants agreed that there linkages between senior police leadership, change management and project execution. Participant 4 gave an explanation of the linkage by saying, “Virtually all parts of the police are interlinked. Without the linkage we cannot function as an organisation. It’s the senior police officer in charge that influenced and decided how effective and successful any change or project will be. A quality leader will always have the teams working together”.

It was acknowledged that projects were seen as the main tool for executing change within ADP. All participants interviewed were aware that it was the government of Abu Dhabi Emirate that introduced projects to improve the effectiveness of ADP. Lieutenant General His Highness Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Interior was seen as forward thinker and it was his energy that had encouraged change through initiatives and projects.

Phase One, Section 6: Leadership Style, Competencies and Project Management

Following on from the questions of linkages between senior police leadership, change management, projects, came the issues of the relationship between leadership styles, competencies and projects. Again participants perceived that there was a strong connection or linkage between senior police leadership, change management, projects.

Participants tended to use the leadership styles taught at the Abu Dhabi Police College to describe the styles of leadership. Participant 6 provided advice by saying “As senior leaders we have all received the same management training. At the police college all students are taught the main theories of leadership and styles. I suspect we will all use

these leadership terms to describe leadership styles." This advice was acted upon and at the end of Phase One a list of leadership styles taught at the Abu Dhabi Police College was obtained. The leadership styles was later included in the questionnaire used in Phase Two of the research. Table 2 shows the list of leadership style that was later supplied by the Abu Dhabi Police College.

Leadership Styles
Situational leadership Style
Transactional leadership style
Transformational leadership style
Paternalistic leadership style
Authoritarian leadership style
Democratic leadership style
Laissez-faire leadership style

Table 2 - List of leadership styles.

During Phase One six of the participants explained that their leadership style varied according to the situation they found themselves in.

A number of questions relating to competencies were contained in the interview process form (Appendix F). From the interviews a number of competencies used by senior police leaders in ADP emerged. The competencies that were mentioned most included Strategic Thinking, People Leadership, Influencing Others, Decision Making, Credibility. On the issue of statecraft, five participants stated that it was used, especially by senior police leaders and executive police leaders. Six of the participants thought that it was not used or was rarely used in ADP. Participant 3 was of the opinion that the more competent that a senior police leader was, the more successful he was in all his duties including project work.

Phase One, Section 7: Working Environment

The final themes to be discussed during the interviews were that of the ADP working environment and culture.

The majority of participants confirmed that the culture within ADP was based on UAE society culture and police culture. Participant 7 reinforced this thought and believed the prevailing police culture was positive to initiatives and change. Participant 7 went on to say, “Because we have a strong leader with a vision of a successful police force that is modern and progressive; it stands to reason that we will follow. When you have support for change at the very top, it is inevitable that the culture supports that change”.

On the question of politics at the upper level of police leadership there was a general belief that being aware of local and national politics was necessary, especially for executive police leaders. One participant, Participant 9, elaborated on this by saying, “In all organisations there is politics at various levels. It would be wrong to say there is no politics going on at the upper layer of police leadership. Being aware of this helps me do my job better although I tend not to get involved in politics”.

The majority of the participants indicated that the culture of ADP maintained a positive attitude towards change and that it retained its own local characteristics.

4.5 Summary of Pilot and Phase One

The pilot study proved to be an invaluable part in Creswell's (2009 and 2013) mixed method process. The pilot study using three senior police leaders as participants provided a small sample of what to expect from the large potential pool of senior police leaders. It provided a test and refinement to the questions prepared for the interview process form (Appendix F) used in Phase One.

During the pilot study there were several lessons learned. It was apparent that several questions within the interview protocol used language that was not familiar to the pilot study participants. The language or wording was simplified and phrased in a way that was familiar to senior police leaders without using complicated police jargon but was yet understandable to others. Secondly, there was not enough room on the interview process forms itself to make copious notes by the researchers. The third issue was the need to restrict access to the senior police leader's offices during interviews as there were a number of routine disruptions during the pilot interviews. This was resolved by simply displaying a 'Do Not Disturb' notice outside the participant's office. The fourth issue was more difficult to resolve but it did prepare the researcher for interviews with the participants in Phase One. The fourth issue related to mobile telephones. Senior police

leaders work in a dynamic environment where they are on duty 24/7. A lesson was learned regarding the need for senior police leaders to be available for urgent telephone calls. All three participants in the pilot study were interviewed during their working day. There was an expectation that participants would restrict access to themselves during the period of the interviews, this included telephone calls. This expectation was ill founded. There was a cultural expectation that the participants would be available if colleagues personally called at the senior police leader's office. In addition it is perceived to be rude in local cultural terms not to answer telephone calls within a reasonable period.

The researcher was aware that senior police officers were to be available 24/7 for emergencies and to answer emergency telephone calls. This culture of police readiness meant that the participants often looked at their telephone calling display list several times during the pilot interviews.

It was clear that this was not a slight on the importance of the pilot study research. It simply meant that there may have been an emergency call requiring the participant's presence. It was understood that this would take precedence over the interview.

As a consequence of all these issues, slight changes were made to the interview protocol, which included the requirement for more flexibility on the part of the researcher to deal with unforeseen circumstances that may arise when interviewing senior police leaders in their own environment.

Phase One interviews were also conducted within the offices of the 11 participants. Similar issues arose during the interviews as had occurred during the pilot study interviews. However, the researcher was more prepared for these matters and adopted a much more flexible approach. This made for a more relaxed interview with the participants during Phase One.

The wording of the questions used during Phase One, which allowed for a free flowing discussion during the interviews, was also incorporated into the questions used in the questionnaire during Phase Two.

The researcher also learned more about both the interview process itself and about change management and the identification of leadership potential from the interviews with the 11 senior police officers who participated in Phase One of this research. Also, the changes in the wording of the questions that were required to permit and enable discussions during the interviews were also incorporated into the questionnaires for Phase Two of the study. By also listening to the senior police officers and any of their suggestions, a list of leadership styles taught at the Abu Dhabi Police College was

acquired and incorporated into some of the questions used in the questionnaire during Phase Two.

The areas and themes identified and validated by the interviews with respect to change management and police leadership were also used as the basis for questions on the questionnaire in Phase Two.

Phase One interviews were valuable and important into providing insights that will be further explored in Phase Two.

4.6 Phase Two: Survey

After the pilot and Phase One all the data from the interviews were analysed. A questionnaire (Appendix G) was created from the data using Minitab 17 statistical software (2014). The Minitab software package can be used for academic research is similar to SPSS and produces equivalent results. The questionnaire used in the survey used the themes and statements made by participants that were developed from the face-to-face interviews in Phase One of this research. In Phase Two, the specific statements were used as specific items for scales that were grounded in the opinions of Phase One participants (Creswell, 2009 and 2013). Overall, Phase Two was designed to add depth and validity to the data that emerged from the face-to-face interviews.

Once the questionnaire was developed, an application was made to the University of East Anglia Research Ethics Committee for approval to conduct the survey. Approval was granted in 2014 and thereafter the survey was launched. On 1 December 2014 all 44 senior police leaders of ADP received the survey questionnaire. Of the 44 possible participants, 42 completed the questionnaire. After all questionnaires were completed and received by the researcher, a final report (Appendix H) was generated by Minitab software and was thereafter analysed.

There were seven sections within the survey instrument in which a series of questions were asked and identified: 1) demographics, 2) determining police leadership, 3) self-reflection on police leadership, 4) recognition of senior and executive police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership style and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment.

In each of the seven sections, statements, and concepts that were provided in the Phase One interview data were identified and Likert (1932) item questions were created to assess the data.

The Likert scale is one of the most commonly used approaches in scaling responses in survey research (Robbins et al, 2011). The scale is named after its inventor, psychologist Rensis Likert (Likert 1932). Likert distinguished between scales proper, which emerge from collective responses to a set of items which can be eight or more and the formats in which responses are scored along a range. The Likert scale refers to the former.

A respondents level of agreement or disagreement on a symmetric agree-disagree scale for a series of statements, captures the intensity of their feelings for a given item (Burns and Burns, 2008). A scale can be created as the simple sum of questionnaire responses over the full range of the scale. Likert scaling assumes that distances on each item are equal. All items are considered to be parallel instruments (Alphen et al, 1994).

A Likert item is simply a statement which the respondent is asked to evaluate according to any kind of subjective or objective criteria.

It is balanced because there are equal numbers of positive and negative positions.

Usually, five ordered response levels are used but there can be more if necessary. Using 5-point, 7-point and 10-point scale is popular. However, using 5-point or 7-point scale may produce slightly higher mean scores relative to the highest possible attainable score, compared to those produced from a 10 levels, and this difference can statistically be significant (Dawes 2008).

In this research, the format was to mainly use a typical five-level Likert item. This consisted of:

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Neutral
4. Disagree
5. Strongly Disagree

Likert scaling methods measure either positive or negative responses to a statement contained in a research questionnaire and this is the case in this research.

The participants were asked to rate each Likert item, statement or concept on a five point scale. The scale was worded from strongly agree to strongly disagree: the mid-point of the scale being neutral.

Within one specific question in section 2 of the survey, a slightly different approach was utilised. The approached used the Thurstone scale method.

The Thurstone scale was the first formally recognised method to measure an attitude. The method was developed by Louis Leon Thurstone in 1927, as a way of measuring attitudes. It comprises of statements about a particular issue, and each statement has a numerical value indicating how favourable or unfavourable it is judged to be. A mean score can then be computed, indicating attitude of the respondent.

Thurstone's method of pair comparisons is a basic normal distribution-based method for scaling-dominance matrices. While the theory behind this method is quite complex (Thurstone, 1927), the algorithm itself is straightforward.

The Thurstone scale is still judged to be effective, even though other methods such as the Rasch model (Rasch, 1960) which takes the form of a logistic function rather than a cumulative normal function has grown in popularity.

In Phase One during the face-to-face interviews, there were 46 key concepts and statements that were identified by the participants. Table 1 lists the actual data.

The Thurstone method tends to rely upon judgments of content experts, as opposed to samples of a more general target population, to rate scale items in terms of importance.

Based on the Thurstone method; in Section 2 of the questionnaire, the subject matter experts in this research who were Heads of Departments within ADP, were asked to rate the statements on a scale from 1-11 in terms of how favourable they believe the variable or statement to be. In this case, a number 1 would represent an extremely unfavourable opinion or attitude in relation to the statement and an 11, an extreme favourable opinion or attitude towards the statement.

Each statement had the median and inter-quartile range computed with, the first quartile being the value below which 25% of the cases fall and the third quartile the value above which 75% of the cases fall. The interquartile range is the difference between the first and third quartile. A variable with a higher median (6+) and a small inter-quarter range would show stronger agreement of favourability among the judges and vice versa for less agreement of favourability.

Minitab software was used to determine which statements or concepts, if any, were statistically significant. The data was inputted using the software to obtain the results.

The purpose of this analysis of Section 2 of the questionnaire was to identify which variables were statistically significant and indicated an early identification of leadership potential. In addition identification was given to which statements statistically, were not. Analyses within Mini Tab were conducted for descriptive and non-parametric statistics of any statement made to determine median, mean, standard deviation, chi square and significance.

The seven sections of the questionnaire were analysed and the main results are detailed hereunder. The questionnaire full results are included in Appendix H.

4.7 Phase Two: Results

The main results of Phase Two are outlined in the seven sections which follow:

Phase Two, Section 1: Demographic Results

The average age of all 42 (100%) participants was 45 years. The majority of the participants (54.8%) were senior police officers engaged in core policing while 45.2% were senior police officers in noncore police departments. All participants were male and on average had 28 years police experience. The average experience serving as a senior police leader was 5 years. Educationally, 69% of participants held an ordinary degree, masters' degree or a doctorate. The remainder (31%) of senior police leaders did not hold an ordinary degree or higher.

The questionnaire's full results, including Section 1 of the questionnaire relating to demographics, are included in Appendix H.

Phase Two, Section 2: Determining Police Leadership Results

The next section of the questionnaire related to leadership and some of its facets. Section 2 focused on certain indicators of potential and certain definitions relating to leadership. All these leadership themes emerged from Phase One interviews with the 11 senior police leader participants. There were 46 variables that were identified from the Phase One interviews that were then posed as statements, using the Thurstone method, to the participants in Phase Two.

The results of Section 2 have been analysed using the Likert scale which predominates throughout the questionnaire and the Thurstone methodology to analyse Question 7 (Q7).

The focus of this question (Q7) is to assess the early identifiers or indicators of potential in Deputy Heads of Department or other commissioned officers for advancement to senior police leader.

The results of the 46 variables are contained in Table 3. Table 3 provides a listing of the 46 variables with the average, median, Quartile 1 (Q1), Quartile 3 (Q3), Inter-Quartile Range (IQR), and significance levels indicated for each variable.

Leadership Qualities	Average	Median	Q1	Q3	IQR
Honest	11.00	11	11	11	0
Respectful	10.68	11	10	11	1
Trustworthy	10.63	11	10	11	1
Good communicator	10.53	11	10	11	1
Integrity	10.32	10	10	11	1
Common Sense	10.00	11	9.5	11	1.5
Logic	9.53	10	8	11	3
Makes ethical decisions	9.53	10	9	10	1
Polite	9.53	9	9	10	1
Politically astute	9.37	9	9	10	1
Competent in Project Management	9.26	9	8	10	2
Has Statecraft	9.21	9	8	10	2
Business acumen	9.16	9	8	10.5	2.5
Career, not a job	8.89	9	8	10	2
Solid operational skills	8.74	9	8	9	1
Higher level thinker	8.74	9	8	9	1
Takes responsibility	8.68	9	8	9	1
Team builder	8.63	9	7	10	3
Foresight	8.37	8	7	10	3
Quality in work	8.37	8	8	9	1
Flexible	8.26	9	6	10	4
Work ethic	8.11	8	8	9	1
Vision	8.00	8	7	9	2
Accountability	7.89	8	7	9	2
Enthusiastic	7.84	8	7	9	2
Is focused on out come	7.84	7	7	8.5	1.5
Preparedness	7.79	8	6.5	9	2.5
Approachable	7.37	8	6	8	2
Diligent	7.37	8	7	8	1
Organizationally supportive	7.26	8	7	8	1
Caring	7.11	8	5	9	4
Predictable	6.74	7	6	7	1
Willingness to learn	6.47	6	6	7	1
Dynamic	6.16	6	5	7	2
Well versed	6.00	6	5	6.5	1.5
Self-Aware	5.74	6	5	6	1
Empathetic	5.47	5	4.5	6.5	2
Creativity	5.37	5	4.5	6	1.5
Sincerity	5.21		5	5.5	0.5
Initiative beyond years of service	4.47	4	4	5.5	1.5
Passionate	4.42	4	4	5	1
Selflessness	4.37	4	3	5.5	2.5
Self-reflective	4.37	4	4	5	1
Dreamer	4.26	4	4	5	1
Desire to influence	3.53	4	2.5	4	1.5
Has 'wasta'	1.05	1	1	1	0

Table 3 - Results of Q7 using the Thurstone Scale.

The average of the interquartile range was determined to be 1.9 and was rounded to 2.

The average median was also determined to be 9.15 and was rounded down to 9.

Therefore, an inter-quartile range of 2 or less (2<) coupled with a median of greater than 9 was determined to be significant. An increasing median and a decreasing inter-quartile range represented a more significant variable.

The Thurstone method usually interprets data simply by using the median and inter-quartile range. However, in order to provide another level of analysis and validity, the data was run through Minitab 17 software to determine the average, mean and standard deviation (minimum and Maximum) of the variables. This additional statistical tests added rigor to the analyses and decreased the likelihood that the results of significance were obtained simply by chance. Table 4 results highlights the most significant variables of leadership qualities in relation to Question 7.

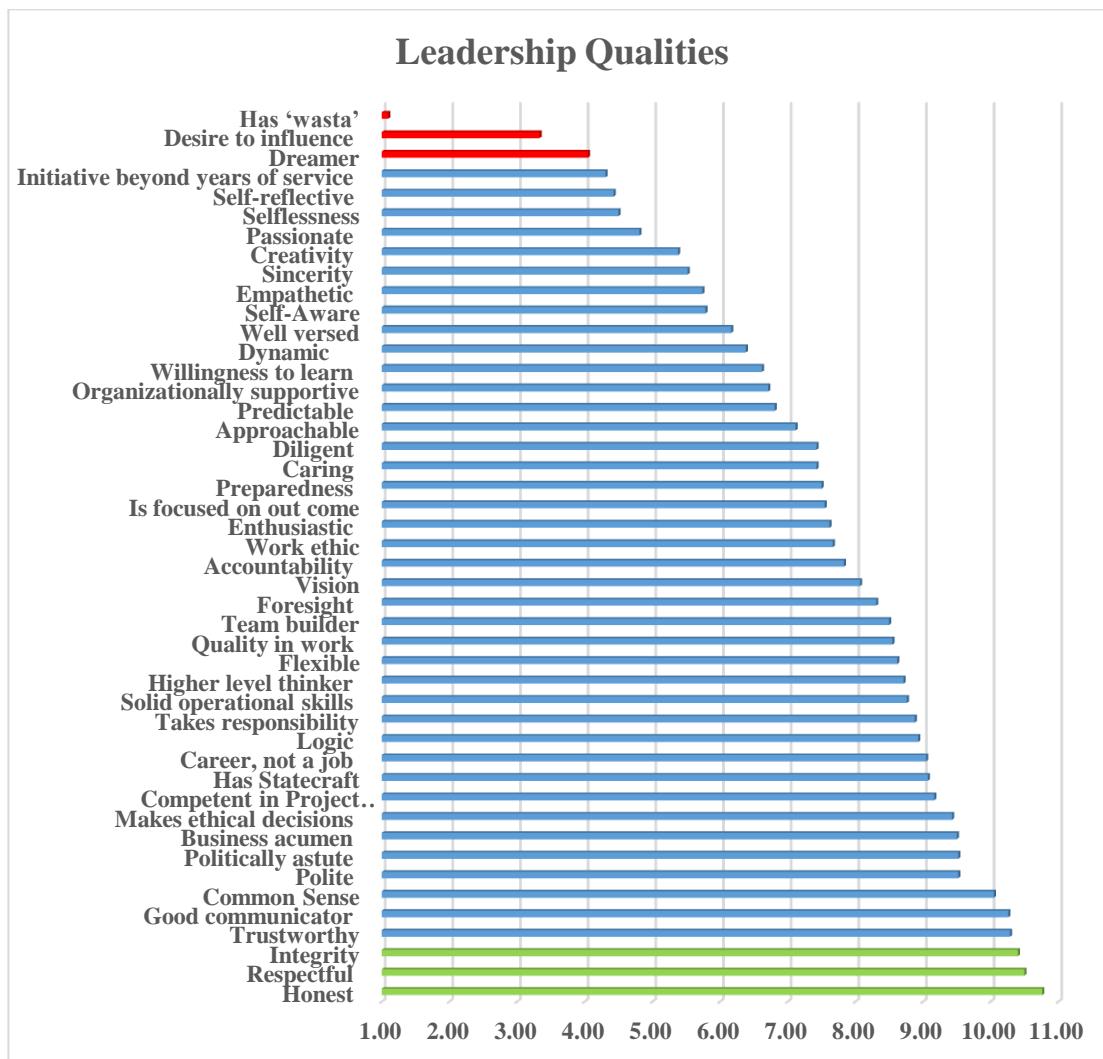


Table 4 - Results of Q7 depicted the most significant variables.

The data contained in Table 4 show the variables that are the most significant when the participants were asked to identify the qualities that Deputy Heads of Department and other commissioned officers with senior leadership potential.

The three most popular significant variables were:

- 1) honest,
- 2) respectful,
- 3) integrity.

The least popular significant variables were:

- 1) has wasta,
- 2) desire to influence,
- 3) dreamer.

Minitab 17 was further used to analyse the data and all descriptors were processed and all variables falling into the parameter of significance were listed in the results.

The questionnaire full results, including Question 7 (Q7) relating to the identifier or indicators of potential, are included in Appendix H.

Section 2 of the questionnaire also dealt with two themes emerged from the responses in Phase One which have been arranged into two broad headings of

- a) common definition concerns and
- b) the application of business leadership definitions within policing. The common definition concerns results will be dealt with first, followed by the later theme.

Phase Two, Section 2 (a): Common Definition Concerns Results.

Questions 8 to 12 in Phase Two of the survey asked participants questions about definitions of police leadership in ADP. The responses were analysed using Minitab 17 and Table 5 shows the frequency table and relative frequency of the results.

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q8	Q8	Q9	Q9	Q10	Q10	Q11	Q11	Q12	Q12
	There should be a shared definition of police leadership in ADP.	There should be a shared definition of police leadership in ADP.	Differences in communities within Abu Dhabi Emirate prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition	Differences in communities within Abu Dhabi Emirate prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition	The leadership profile of a senior police leader should suit the community they serve	The leadership profile of a senior police leader should suit the community they serve	Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership	Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership	I find it easy to define police leadership	I find it easy to define police leadership	
1	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	15	36%	0	0%	0	0%
2	Agree	21	50%	12	29%	12	29%	22	52%	7	17%
3	Neutral	12	29%	9	21%	8	19%	9	21%	7	17%
4	Disagree	9	21%	21	50%	7	17%	4	10%	12	29%
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	7	17%	15	37%

Table 5 - Results of Q8 to Q12 relating to Common Definition Concerns.

Table 5 shows two columns relating to each question. The first column shows the actual number of respondents who answered the question (frequency table) and the second row gives the responses to the first column in as a percentage (relative frequency).

It was interesting at question 11 (Q11) that the participants agreed (52%) that describing an excellent police leaders is easier than defining police leadership. 27% of respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed that defining police leadership was easy.

A fuller discussion of these results will follow later on in this chapter of this thesis.

The questionnaire full results, including Question 7 (Q7) relating to the identifier or indicators of potential, are included in Appendix H.

The next question to be asked of the respondents in Section 2 related to the application of business leadership definitions.

Phase Two, Section 2 (b): Application of Business Leadership Definitions Results

Questions 13 to 17 in Phase Two of the questionnaire survey asked participants questions about the application of business leadership definitions within policing. The responses were analysed using Minitab 17 and Table 6 shows the frequency table and relative frequency of the results.

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q13	Q13	Q14	Q14	Q15	Q15	Q16	Q16	Q17	Q17
		Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership	Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership	Police experience is essential for future police leaders	Police experience is essential for future police leaders	Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions	Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions	Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date	Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date	There are no differences on how the western world and the Arab world see and define leadership	There are no differences on how the western world and the Arab world see and define leadership
1	Strongly Agree	2	5%	12	29%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
2	Agree	4	10%	26	62%	3	7%	4	10%	4	10%
3	Neutral	14	33%	3	7%	12	29%	26	62%	14	33%
4	Disagree	16	38%	0	0%	18	43%	12	29%	19	45%
5	Strongly Disagree	6	14%	1	2%	9	21%	0	0%	5	12%

Table 6 - Results of Q13 to Q17 relating to the Application of Business Leadership Definitions.

In response to question 13 (Q13) only 6 participants strongly agreed or agreed supported (15%) the notion that definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to the police. Conversely 91% to respondents strongly agreed or agreed that police experience is essential for future police leaders. This is a significant majority which will be discussed later on in this chapter of the thesis.

Phase Two, Section 3: Self-Reflection on Police Leadership Results

A number of senior police leaders when interviewed during Phase One were asked to describe their own leadership journey. As a result of the analyses after Phase One of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; **opportunities, self-identification, mentorship, and timing**. In Phase Two of this research, the concepts or statements were listed as specific Likert items and were rated using the five point scale.

Within the questionnaire at Section 3 Questions 18 to 23 focused on opportunities, Questions 24 to 27 focused on self-identification, Questions 28 to 32 focused on mentorship and Questions 33 to 38 focused on timing.

The results of Section 3 of the questionnaire have been analysed and the full results are contained in Appendix H. The following are a few of the key results.

Phase Two, Section 3 (a): Opportunities Results

The participants agreed (50%) or strongly agreed (14%) that potential senior police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities, with 57% agreeing or strongly agreeing (14%) that opportunities provided by ADP

allowed for the identification of senior police leadership potential. Importantly *wasta* was viewed negatively with 100% of respondents stipulating that *wasta* is not the main reason why police officers are promoted to Head of Department.

Phase Two, Section 3 (b): Self-identification Results

There were two variables within the self-identification themes which provided contrasting responses from the respondents. The concept that the ADP as an organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement (Q26) generated 55% of respondents agreeing with this statement. By contrast in question 27 (Q27) 52% of respondents thought that a senior police leader is responsible for their own advancement. There was little consensus on the theme of self-identification. Table 7 provides more details of the responses to self-identification.

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q24 Police officers self-identify their own potential for senior police leadership	Q24 Police officers self-identify their own potential for senior police leadership	Q25 Self-directing your own career is indicative of senior police leader potential	Q25 Self-directing your own career is indicative of senior police leader potential	Q26 The police organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement	Q26 The police organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement	Q27 A senior police leader is responsible for his or her advancement	Q27 A senior police leader is responsible for his or her advancement
1	Strongly Agree	2	5%	2	5%	0	0%	2	5%
2	Agree	10	24%	11	26%	23	55%	10	24%
3	Neutral	10	24%	11	26%	9	21%	8	19%
4	Disagree	19	45%	18	43%	8	19%	22	52%
5	Strongly Disagree	1	2%	0	0%	2	5%	0	0%

Table 7 - Results of Q24 Q27 relating to Self-identification.

Phase Two, Section 3 (c): Mentorship Results

The issue of mentoring resulted in a high proportion of neutral responses from respondents except in the case of two questions (Q31 and Q32). When asked if ADP has a formal mentorship programme for senior police leaders, only 5% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed while 21% disagreed or strongly disagreed. The majority of respondents (74%) remained neutral. However, in question 32 (Q32) 90% of respondents strongly agreed that personal relationships with police executive leaders played an important role in their leadership journey.

The next theme identified dealt with questions around timing.

Phase Two, Section 3 (d): Timing Results

This theme dealt with the issues around timing. Outside opportunities were seen as useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in senior police officers. In addition participants agreed (55%) those opportunities to display senior police leadership potential was within their own control and timing. In relation to statecraft a

total of 50% of respondents indicated that they had been given the opportunity to display statecraft. The other participants' responses were neutral (24%), disagreed (24%) or strongly disagreed (2%). Under the theme of timing 83% strongly agreed or agreed (17%) that the ADP promotion process to be an executive police leadership is well defined.

A fuller discussion of these results will follow towards the end of this chapter, including the responses to *wasta* and statecraft.

The full results of the questionnaire, including Questions 18 to 38, are included in Appendix H.

Section 4: Recognition of Senior and Executive Police Leadership in Others

This section of the survey asked senior police leaders questions in relation to the themes that were developed from interview data regarding identifying leadership potential in others that was developed in Phase One. In Phase One A number of Heads of Department in ADP were asked several questions in an effort to describe how they identified senior and executive police leadership potential of police officers. As a result of the analyses of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; **attitudinal potential, strategic potential and demonstrating leadership potential**. Questions were also asked about **visceral responses** or gut feelings in the early identification of senior and executive police leadership potential. The questionnaire asked several questions (Q 39 to Q64) to assist in the validation of those responses. The results of these questions are contained in Appendix H. The highlights of these results have been outlined below.

Phase Two, Section 4 (a): Attitudinal Potential Results

Question 39 related to community and giving back to the community. The question resulted in 43% of respondents strongly agreeing and 45% agreeing that senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential are community service oriented and give back to the community. In a similar vein was a question (Q41) about demonstrating selflessness; 98% of respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers. The majority of respondents revealed that teaching the appropriate attitude to other senior police leaders is difficult.

Phase Two, Section 4 (b): Strategic Potential Results

Strategic potential of police leaders was probed including questions about understanding the organisation's mission statement (Q44) and having a strategic or 'big picture' perspective (Q45). 79% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement (Q44); while opinions were almost equally divided between respondents that big picture thinking was indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential (Q45).

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q44 Junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement	Q44 Junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement	Q45 Big picture thinking is indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential	Q45 Big picture thinking is indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential	Q46 Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of senior police leadership potential	Q46 Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of senior police leadership potential
1	Strongly Agree	4	10%	0	0%	0	0%
2	Agree	29	69%	20	48%	24	57%
3	Neutral	6	14%	3	7%	4	10%
4	Disagree	3	7%	19	45%	14	33%
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Table 8 - Results of Q44 to Q46 relating to Strategic Potential.

Phase Two, Section 4 (c): Demonstrating Leadership Potential

This section tackled the leadership potential by demonstrating certain factors. Participants rated doing things for the organisation and being proactive demonstrates executive police leadership potential (Q49) very highly with 57% of respondents strongly agreeing and 36% of respondents agreeing with the statement. In another question (Q50) the majority (69%) of participants believed that ADP has a responsibility to create opportunities to allow senior police leaders to succeed. There was no disagreement by participants in this matter. Questions 50 and 51 tested the issue of *wasta* with all participants (100%) indicating that *wasta* of a senior police leader promotes unfairness in promotional processes (Q51); and that *wasta* is not present at all levels of the organisation.

Phase Two, Section 4 (d): Visceral Responses Results

The later part of section 4 (Q53 to Q64) dealt with how respondents perceive visceral or gut feelings in a policing context.

In Phase One of the research at the face-to-face interviews, several themes became apparent from the interview data. These themes indicated that there were several specific actions or situations which occurred while senior police officers observed other police officers which generated visceral responses. The themes included; demonstrating

charisma and sensing a significant trait, such as trustworthiness, self-confidence, command presence, as well as displaying statecraft.

In Phase Two participants were then asked at Question 53 if visceral or gut feelings were considered when assessing potential for senior police leaders. Only 9 of the 42 participants agreed with the question (Q53). These 9 participants went on to answer Questions 54 to 64. The other 33 participants did not complete Questions 54 to 64 as they had indicated (Q53) that visceral feelings were not considered when assessing senior police leaders.

The 9 participants that answered 'yes' to Question 53 were asked further questions (Q54 to Q64). From the questions some of the significant variables related to command presence (Q57), self-confidence (Q58) and statecraft (Q59).

When asked (Q64) the importance of visceral or gut feelings in the identification of executive police leadership potential in senior police leaders; 1 participant indicated very important, 3 important, 4 were neutral and 1 agreed that it was somewhat important.

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q54 When a senior police leader demonstrate charisma	Q55 When I sense that the senior police leader has a significant trait	Q56 When a senior police leader displays trustworthiness	Q57 When a senior police leader displays command presence	Q58 When a senior police leader demonstrates self-confidence	Q59 When a senior police leader displays "statecraft".
1	Strongly Agree	0	0	0	2	3	7
2	Agree	5	6	4	2	3	1
3	Neutral	4	3	5	5	3	1
4	Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 9 - Results of Q54 to Q59 relating to Visceral Responses.

Phase Two, Section 5: Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution Results

During Phase One senior police leaders described the linkage between leadership, change management and projects within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). At interview a number of Heads of Department also indicated that projects and other related matters were relevant to leaders. The results of Phase One were analysed and these broad themes were incorporated into Questions 65 to 72 contained in Section 5 of the questionnaire. These questions were designed to validate the findings.

Section 5 of the questionnaire results have been analysed and are contained in Appendix H. The following are a few highlights of the results.

The participants agreed (64%) or strongly agreed (5%) that senior police leaders are usually put in charge of projects (Q65). The follow-up question (Q66) related to the senior police leaders responsibility for the success or failure of such projects. The majority of respondents agreed (71%) or strongly agreed (5%) that the success or failure of a project was the responsibility of the senior police officer. There was an even percentage (48%) split between participants agreeing and disagreeing that senior police leaders do not always know their role in project management (Q67). A similar question at Question 70 asked if all members of an ADP project team know their role; significantly 69% of respondents indicated that members did not know their role. There was a high percentage of agreement that managing projects is a high priority for the senior police leaders of ADP (Q71) with 12% strongly agreeing and 69% agreeing. Almost as many respondents agreed (69%) or strongly agreed (2%) that ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project (Q72).

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q70 All members of an ADP project team know their role	Q70 All members of an ADP project team know their role	Q71 Managing projects is a high priority for the senior police leaders of ADP	Q71 Managing projects is a high priority for the senior police leaders of ADP	Q72 ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project	Q72 ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project
1	Strongly Agree	1	2%	5	12%	1	2%
2	Agree	10	24%	29	69%	29	69%
3	Neutral	1	2%	5	12%	4	10%
4	Disagree	29	69%	2	5%	8	19%
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Table 10 - Results of Q70 to Q72 relating to the Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution Results.

Phase Two, Section 6: Leadership Styles, Competencies and Project Management

This section contains a number of questions (Q73 to Q92) relates to the leadership element of project management and other related issues. Questions 73 to 80 are a mix of questions relating to the theme of leadership, competencies and project management. This is followed by Questions 81 to 89 relating specifically to leadership style and Questions 90 to 92 relating to leadership competencies.

The results of these questions are contained in Appendix H. The highlights of these results have been outlined below.

Phase Two, Section 6 (a): Mix of Leadership, Competencies and Project Management Results

Questions 73 to 80 related to a mix of leadership, competencies and project management Results. One of the questions (Q73) related to senior police leadership style in project management; 69% of respondents indicated that leadership style did matter in project management. Question 76 asked if senior police leaders have the correct competencies to lead during change management; 52% of respondents strongly agreed (7%) or agreed (45%) with the comment while a sizeable minority either disagreed (38%) or strongly disagreed (5%) with the comment. This question (Q76) was reinforced by the findings of Question 90 and Question 91 which provided a level of consistency amongst the respondents. A majority of respondents (60%) believed that more training was required to manage projects (Q77). There was an even distribution of respondents with 40% agreeing and another 40% disagreeing at Question 78 that it was important to know ADP politics in order to have a successful project outcome. On the issue of statecraft at Question 79 and 80; 5% of respondents strongly agreed and 52% agreed that statecraft is an essential competence of a senior police leader (Q79). A higher percentage agreed (71%) that statecraft is an essential competence of an executive police leader (80).

A fuller list of results of Section 6 is contained in Appendix H.

Likert Scale	Likert Scale Description	Q78 It is important to know ADP politics in order to have a successful outcome	Q78 It is important to know ADP politics in order to have a successful outcome	Q79 "Statecraft" is an essential competence of a senior police leader	Q79 "Statecraft" is an essential competence of a senior police leader	Q80 "Statecraft" is an essential competence of an executive police leader	Q80 "Statecraft" is an essential competence of an executive police leader
1	Strongly Agree	0	0%	2	5%	0	0%
2	Agree	17	40%	22	52%	30	71%
3	Neutral	8	19%	10	24%	6	14%
4	Disagree	17	40%	8	19%	6	14%
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Table 11 - Results of Q78 to Q80 relating to Leadership Styles, Competencies and Project Management

Phase Two, Section 6 (b): Leadership Styles Results

Following on from the previous question, Questions 81 to 89 addressed the issue of leadership styles. Participants were asked, in their opinion, which leadership style is most commonly used by the senior police leaders in ADP.

The responses to Questions 81 to 87 have been analysed and appear in Table 12.

Leadership Styles	Average	Stv
Situational leadership Style	2.261905	0.700506
Transactional leadership style	3.023810	0.949662
Transformational leadership style	3.095238	0.932071
Paternalistic leadership style	3.547619	0.771517
Authoritarian leadership style	3.714286	1.254955
Democratic leadership style	3.761905	0.617213
Laissez-faire leadership style	4.285714	0.457230

Table 12 - Results of Q81 to Q87 relating to Leadership Styles

Table 12 results have been arranged in descending order from the most favourable to least favourable. Situational leadership style standard deviation results stood at a significant 0.700506. While at the opposite end of the scale laissez-faire leadership style had a standard deviation of 0.457230.

Question 88 gave an option for the respondents to insert a leadership style which had not been listed in the questionnaire. In response one respondent wrote, "A mix of all the above leadership styles". (This response has a close affinity of what situational leadership style is and will be discussed at the end of Chapter 5).

Phase Two, Section 6 (c): Competencies Results

Questions 90 to 92 asked specific questions relating to competencies. The recipients of the questionnaire were reminded in the questionnaire of what the current five leadership competences for senior police leaders in ADP are. The five current competencies are listed as Strategic Thinking, People Leadership, Influencing Others, Decision Making, and Credibility.

There was little consensus in relation to competencies with 50% of respondents agreeing that the ADP leadership competencies are reflective of the competencies used by senior police leaders (Q90), while 40% disagreed. A similar viewpoint was expressed with Question 91 with 45% of respondents in agreement that other competencies need to be included in the ADP senior leadership competencies (Q91), while 48% disagreed with this stance.

When the respondents were asked (Q92) for suggestions for other competencies that should be included in the ADP leadership competencies. Only four respondents made suggestions by writing the following words:

- Community competency (mentioned once)
- Statecraft (mentioned twice)
- Information technology competence (mentioned once)

While there is a fine difference between a competency and a skill; the above four suggestions will be discussed in the later part of this thesis.

The full results of the questionnaire are contained in Appendix H.

Phase Two, Section 7: Working Environment Results

When the eleven Heads of Department were interviewed in Phase One, the working environment and other related issues were mentioned. These issues have been included in Questions 93 to 100 of Section 7.

Section 7 produced a number of significant results including 74% of respondents either strongly agreeing (10%) or agreeing (64%) that the prevailing ADP culture is totally different to a Western police culture (Q94). Importantly, 100% of respondents strongly agreed (79%) or agreed (21%) that the UAE government has been the main driver for change (Q97). On the issue of politics at Question 99 all respondents were in agreement with 43% strongly agreeing and 57% agreeing that senior police leaders and executive police leaders must be politically astute to be successful. This is an issue that is discussed in a number of chapters within this thesis. On a positive note at Question 100, 12% of respondents strongly agreed and 81% agreed that the Abu Dhabi communities have benefitted from the changes to ADP.

At the end of the questionnaire space was allowed for any other comments. Only two comments were written. One comment stated, "We are still learning". The other comment stated, "Abu Dhabi Police will be best in class by the time Expo 2020 comes to the United Arab Emirates".

4.8 Summary of Phase Two

Phase Two proved to be positive with many of the questionnaire results validating items which emerged from the Pilot Study and Phase One of the research.

Minitab 17 statistical software (2014) was used to analyse the questionnaire. The main reasons for using this software were it was available to the researcher and the researcher had easy access to the software. Minitab 17 was an adequate alternative to SPSS and was as reliable and analytical as SPSS. The next chapter will discuss the results of the research drawing on the analyses of the research.

The potential pool of 44 senior police leaders was receptive to the research with 42 of the participants completing their questionnaire and returning them to the researcher within the allocated time. There were no spoiled questionnaires.

The data from the questionnaire has provided an abundance of reliable information and provided some clear insights into the ADP culture and attitude within senior police leadership ranks. It was obvious that the respondents, in most cases, shared many of the same opinions on police related matters such as leadership and change management. The results from the questionnaire demonstrated agreement in relation to their responses, as did the high level of validity of the thematic responses found within the interview data. The areas of disagreement and divergence of opinion have been highlighted, as have the areas of agreement. If there had been little agreement, it could have been argued that the identified themes were not as valid or reliable.

CHAPTER 5

5. ANALYSES, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction to the Analyses, Findings and Discussion

A mixed method sequential exploratory design approach (Creswell, 2009 and 2013) has been used to conduct this research. This permitted an in-depth look into the opinions of the subject matter experts, in this case senior police leaders of Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). The senior police leaders involved in this research hold the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier and hold the position as Head of Department within ADP.

The field research, which was conducted during 2014, has examined the senior police officers attitudes and opinions on the subject of leadership and change management within ADP. The total potential number of participants within the population was 44 senior police leaders who were also Heads of Department. Of the potential population of 44 senior police leaders 11 participated in the interviews and 42 participated in the questionnaire survey. Those interviewed were also given the questionnaire survey. However, since the questionnaires were anonymously answered, it is impossible to associate a person with a particular response. The homogeneity of the responses received from the participants, specifically within the questionnaire, provided some clear insights into the ADP culture and attitude within senior police leadership ranks. It was obvious that the respondents, in most cases, shared many of the same opinions on police leadership and change management, as the results from the questionnaire demonstrated agreement in relation to their responses, as did the high level of validity of the thematic responses found within the interview data. If there had been little agreement, it could have been argued that the identified themes were not as valid or reliable.

The general analytic strategy will be used to analyse the findings using the theoretical propositions that reflect on the research question of this study (Yin, 2003; Stake, 1995). This research will seek to make theory and concepts explicit in the analysis so as to avoid ambiguity. This is supported by Neuman (2006), who argues: "Without the analytic interpretation or theory provided by the researcher, the readers of research may use their own every day, taken-for-granted idea. Their commonsense framework is likely to contain implicit assumptions, biases, ethnocentrism, and ill-defined concepts from dominant cultural values." (Neuman, 2006, p. 459).

The elements relating to senior police leaders will be analysed in terms of their abilities and competencies to execute duties within their role of strategic leadership and their links

to other parts of ADP including projects. The analysis of the collected data will detail the responses in a summarised form. This process will give meaning to the summarised answers, and their implications, what they imply together, how they address the research questions, what is missing, how they relate to one another, and the link to the findings will give a holistic understanding of the collected data (Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit, 2003).

The seven research sections found in the interview process form (Appendix "F" and questionnaire (Appendix "G"), that shaped this research, will be used as a framework for the discussion of the results.

Finally, interspersed throughout this chapter will be references to the five basic research questions posed at the beginning of this research: 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP? 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution? 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management? 4) What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP? 5) How can leadership and strategic change management be enhanced? An analysis of the research findings will be discussed and used in an attempt to answer these research questions. In addition several other secondary questions and issues stemmed from these five basic research questions as the research evolved; these too will be discussed.

5.2 Determining Police Leadership

After the Demographics Section within the questionnaire (Appendix "G") came the Determining Police Leadership Section (Section 2 of the questionnaire). This section focused on certain indicators of police leadership and the definition of leadership. Section 2 research findings made it clear that the participants had difficulty clearly defining what they understood to be police leadership. This was also evident at Phase One of the research, when at the face-to-face interviews with the 11 senior police leaders; only 2 participants clearly outlined what they believed to be a definition of police leadership. Other participants were more likely to attempt to describe police leadership or provide examples of persons they believed were great police leaders. The inability to define police leadership is not surprising as the literature itself (Golding and Savage, 2008; Schafer, 2009) does not provide a universally accepted definition of police leadership. However, it was not the purpose of this research to define police leadership, but rather to explore the identification of police leadership potential in senior police leaders and executive police leaders and to obtain the opinions of a group of participants who themselves are senior police leaders.

The participants identify with the concerns that were raised by Haberfeld (2006), indicating that definitions of "police leadership must include the ability to make a split-second decision and take control of a potentially high-voltage situation that evolves on

"the street" (p. 3), This was reflected to some extent as seen in Question 15 (Q15) when the majority of participants saw police leadership being different from other leadership definitions. Phase One of the research, reinforced this difference during the face-to-face interviews with the eleven senior police leaders. The majority of those interviewed (six) indicated that on occasions their speedy decision making could mean life or death to members of the community they policed. There was general consensus from the participants in this research that police leadership was different from leadership in the business sector or other forms of leadership. Most participants agreed that leadership definitions apply globally; however, the contextual practice of policing requires police leaders to have additional knowledge of the policing business, especially in local communities, if they are going to be successful.

This being said, the majority of participants during the interviews and in the questionnaires, at especially Question 17(Q17), did mark a difference between how the Arab world and the Western world perceive and define leadership.

In Chapter 2 of this thesis, scholars are referenced who have attempted and are still attempting to define police leadership. The majority of senior police leaders, who are all subject matter experts, who participated in this research, did not believe that defining police leadership would serve much purpose within ADP.

The efforts to define police leadership during this research would take up far too much time and that would detract from the essence of this research. Defining police leadership was also seen to be encumbered by the differences that exist within different operational teams in Abu Dhabi. Each community may have a different set of leadership criteria that it wants in its leadership, and as such, a 'one size fits all' approach may not be the best solution. As a result, the answer to the leadership definition question was not agreed upon. The participants did not attempt to define police leadership; however, they were able to provide concepts and words that described police leadership. The result was valuable for this research enquiry, since it formed the basis for the Thurstone method question contained in the questionnaire survey. It was noted that several of the participants had not given much thought to police leadership definitions nor to their own understanding of police leadership. Most agreed within the questionnaire and at interview that describing police leadership is easier than defining police leadership (Q11). ADP does not have a formally endorsed definition of leadership. ADP has not addressed police leadership definitions as a priority. There is no appetite to formally define leadership but it was clear that the components of police leadership were understood.

There was consensus from the participants that the experience and knowledge of policing is important to police leadership and that police leadership definitions are different from business definitions of leadership. This finding opened another area of inquiry with regards to what comprises knowledge of policing. The literature and the

findings from this research demonstrate that while competency based assessment systems are the mainstay of police services within the developed police forces of the world; in ADP promotion from Head of Department (senior police leader) to executive police leader is largely based on structured interviews, assessment centre processes and continuous development (Q 38). This is premised on the basis that Heads of Department have already proven that they are competent through the assessment of competencies and that the craft of policing is already in existence within the senior police leaders of ADP. Until there is consensus about what the craft of professional policing is in ADP; attempting to define police leadership becomes problematic.

The research questions in this thesis evolve around leadership and elements of leadership such as statecraft, change management, projects and other like matters. This research project was not unduly affected by the lack of an exact definition of police leadership; albeit, that ideally one common agreed definition would have facilitated matters.

5.3 Senior Police Leaders Qualities, Potential, Competencies and Perceptions.

A number of research questions related to senior police leadership qualities, potential, competencies and perceptions are answered in this chapter. Cumulative analyses of the interview data and questionnaire survey findings provided a wealth of data that informs this discussion. The extensive results, as already articulated in the results found in Chapter 4, were categorised into seven sections. The seven sections broadly fell into the following: 1) demographics, 2) determining police leadership, 3) self-reflection on police leadership, 4) recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership styles, competencies and project management, and 7) working environment.

The seven sections contained themes that are useful in describing senior police officers and their roles. There were numerous themes that overlapped and drew on responses from a number of the above sections. In the first half of this discussion four themes will be examined. There were four themes that quickly emerged from several of the above sections. These four themes were placed into the following heading: A) Police leadership potential, B) As seen by others, C) Reflection, D) Perceptions.

The second half of this chapter will concentrate mainly on the data obtained from interviews and Sections 5, 6 and 7 of the questionnaire, namely 5) role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution, 6) leadership styles and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment. Certain themes

were observed to have cross-cut along a number of the sections contained in the questionnaire and other data findings.

The first part of the discussion provides some of the specific details for each of the four themes of: A) Police leadership potential, B) As seen by others, C) Reflection, D) Perceptions. The outcomes of these four themes provide current police leaders and human resource professionals within the police services of ADP with the foundation to create assessment systems based on the above as criteria for assessing future senior police leaders.

Interspersed throughout this chapter will be the five basic research questions and other secondary research questions as previously described. While an attempt will be made to answer the questions, it has become evident that in parts more questions than answers have emerged as a result of the in-depth research.

A) Police leadership potential.

The indicators of leadership potential were concepts and words that were gained from the interviews in Phase One (face to face interviews) and then qualified and validated during Phase Two (questionnaires) and through the deployment of the Thurstone method in Section 2 of the questionnaire survey. The following words and concepts were indicated by the responses contained in the completed questionnaires as being indicators of an ADP junior commissioned officer's leadership potential. The top three significant responses were honesty, respectfulness and integrity.

While the top three responses are significant, the remaining indicators have some significance and should not be discounted (A full list of all the indicators is contained in Table 1 found in Chapter 4, Section 4.4 Phase One: Interview Form and Results).

The least positive indicator of senior police leadership potential was *wasta*. The word *wasta* has been described as an unethical means of getting what you want (Cunningham and Sarayrah, 1993) and being similar to nepotism (Fawaz Ziyad Ihsan Al-Hussan (2011). This indicator and full significance of *wasta* will be discussed in more detail in the later part of this Chapter.

B) As seen by others.

In Section 4 of the questionnaire and interview process form (Appendix 'F') participants provided opinions about how they identify in others the potential to become senior and executive police leaders. There were four themes that emerged: a) attitudinal potential, b) strategic potential, c) demonstrating leadership potential and d) visceral responses.

a). Attitudinal Potential: Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential are service oriented and want to give back to the community. They portray an appropriate mind set early in their careers. Teaching the appropriate attitude to senior police leaders would be difficult. There was an almost even spread of negative and positive responses that the ADP appraisal system could evaluate senior police leaders effectively.

b). Strategic Potential: Junior police officers with leadership potential are aware how their behaviour affect others. Strategic or big picture thinkers amongst senior police leaders are indicative of executive police leadership potential.

c.) Demonstrating Leadership Potential: Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential establish their reputations early in their careers and are high performers. Senior police leaders indicated *wasta* is not present in the ADP organisation. Senior police officers also acknowledged that *wasta* in an organisation promote unfairness.

d). Visceral Responses: Less than half the senior police leaders believe that visceral responses or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential officers to the position of senior police leader. These gut feelings are observed or felt especially when a senior police leader displays command presence, trustworthiness, self-confidence and statecraft. Of the senior police officers who believe gut feelings are considered, less than half think that these feelings are very important or important.

C) Reflection.

Section 3 of the interviews asked participants to describe their own leadership journey. Themes were developed from the interview data and confirmed through the use of the questionnaire (Section 3) survey. The four themes are described below are to assist in the understanding of leadership and change management.

a.) Opportunities: Police officers with senior police leadership potential take opportunities that they are given by the organisation, and more importantly, seek and take on self-initiated opportunities in which they can succeed and be noticed. Success

within special projects facilitates opportunities for advancement. It was noted that *wasta* is not seen as the main reason for police officers being promoted to Head of Department.

b). Self-Identification: Police officers with senior police leadership potential self-identify their career pathway and if they want to take on a leadership role. However, it is perceived by the majority of senior police leaders that ADP is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement.

c). Mentorship: Officers with leadership potential develop professional relationships with executive police leaders within policing. Relations with executive police leaders play an important role. A high proportion of senior police leaders do not believe ADP has a formal mentoring program for senior police officers.

d). Timing: Officers with senior police officer leadership potential understand that timing and circumstances is out of their control and have much to do with leadership advancement. Understanding their place within the organisation and being able to display 'statecraft' are component parts of senior police leaders' potential advancement. Participating in short leadership opportunities outside of the police service, is not viewed as assisting with a senior police leaderships potential.

D) Perceptions.

The senior police leader respondents to Section 4 of the questionnaire and at interview stated that they have visceral or gut feelings when assessing other senior police leadership with potential to become an executive police leader. There was a consensus that there were six concepts or situations when the participants agreed that they perceived visceral responses when assessing for executive police leadership potential. These were situations where senior police leaders observed or interacted with other senior police leaders. In these situations executive police leadership potential is perceived when the officer observed displays charisma, a significant trait, trustworthiness, command presence, self-confidence and 'statecraft'. All these attributes were based on gut feelings.

ADP provides a framework for promotion up to senior police leader which is based on traditional competencies. While gut feelings are relevant; it would be difficult to scientifically quantify the six concepts or situations and turn them into competencies that were measureable, especially in the assessment centre situation. This phenomenon is something worthy of further research and is beyond the scope of this research.

5.4 Notions of Potential

The data collected will also provide some insights into a number of the five basic research questions: 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP? 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution? 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management? 4) What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP? 5) How can leadership and strategic change management be enhanced? While the fourth basic research question is pertinent in this section other related matters include leadership potential proved to be important.

It was clear that many of the opinions that were provided by the participants were informed by what the senior police leaders had experienced as their own reality, each of which was different. However, where consensus could be reached, it was evident that there were shared opinions as to when and where early identification of leadership occurs. It was clear that the identification of junior officers for their leadership potential is an ongoing process that happens within the structure of performance assessments and formal reviews, mainly through the ADP appraisal system called the Holistic Occupational Performance Appraisal System or simply 'HOPAS'. The 'HOPAS' performance appraisal is a systematic and periodic process that assesses an individual's job performance and productivity in relation to certain pre-established criteria and organisational objectives. The formal appraisal interview occurs on an annual basis and allows for feedback between individuals and their appraising line manager, In addition to the formal reviews and tools of appraisal, at a subconscious level, there are the visceral responses that are perceived by current senior police leaders. This research has demonstrated that the potential for senior police leadership is a socially constructed phenomenon that starts when information about junior officers is received by the assessor. In this case, information was mostly gathered through interaction with or through behaviours that were either observable or perceived. The influence of others, who have already assessed the potential, rightly or wrongly, do play a part in the establishment of the current assessor's reality. Junior officers have the ability to influence and establish, through their interactions and behaviours, the set of criteria that will be assessed by those in positions of power within the police organisation. The scrutiny through which they are viewed and perceived was largely constructed by key staff such as senior police leaders. As such, junior police officers must consider the working situation and learning opportunities they are afforded as an assessment of their potential advancement. As a result, their actions and behaviours should be carefully directed, if they want to be placed into positions of leadership in the future, or if they want to be seen as having senior police leadership potential.

It was also clear from the results of this research that junior officers display their leadership potential through their success at investigations, special projects, and self-

initiated opportunities. It is at work where junior officers can establish their reputation early and get noticed by people who will eventually be the promotional decision makers and place junior police officers into positions of leadership within the police service.

5.5 Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution

The role and link between leadership, change management and project execution was explored with senior police officers and in Section 5 of the questionnaire and at Part 5 of the interview process.

The basic research questions two and three: 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution? 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management? These questions are in part answered hereunder in respect of the role and linkages between senior police leaders, other staff and change management.

From the results was evident that senior police leaders are held responsible for the success or failure of projects. However, there was an even split between senior police leaders who do not always know their role in project management and those who know their role. It was also acknowledged that ADP use projects as the main tool in change management and that project are seen as a high priority for senior police leaders.

The main point to be drawn from the results was that further investigation would be recommended to ascertain why almost half the senior police officers did not know their role in project management. It would be easy to jump to conclusions that training was an issue; even though there appear to be sufficient project/change management courses available for senior police officers. A list of recommendations contained in Chapter 6 will touch upon this matter.

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) operate at any given time one or more projects in each Department of ADP. At interview a number of Heads of Department indicated that projects and other related matters were relevant to leaders. There appears to be justification that such topics(s) are an important aspect of the role of senior police leaders. This has resulted in a recommendation for further research into this topic which is contained in Chapter 6 of this thesis.

In part this chapter will explore the analysis in terms of the leadership components. This will, in essence, provide the current experience of senior police officers in terms of leadership challenges faced by these officers in projects and the link between the strategy and the executed projects.

This process will give meaning to the summarised answers, and their implications, what they signify together, how they address the research questions. It will also assess what is

missing, how the answers relate to one another, and the link to the findings, giving a holistic understanding of the collected data (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004).

In the first basic research question: 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP? This relates to the effectiveness of leaders in projects and change management; the findings illustrate the crucial role of leadership in project execution. This has a further impact on change management, with very serious challenges for the buy-in for implemented projects.

Section 5 of the questionnaire sought to look at the level of leadership responsibilities and found that senior police leaders are held responsible for projects. The findings show senior police officers do not always know their role. Any lack of understanding or lack of skills compounds the difficulty in a situation where the change management process of ADP is important. Senior police leaders themselves acknowledge the importance of addressing the gap, since the current situation has an effect on the execution of projects in ADP. The link to strategy is affected, as well as the effectiveness and success of projects. This being said, ADP has the capacity and resources to address the gap primarily through further research and possible training.

Change management is equally important and has an impact on project success, as Buckingham and Seng (2009, p.12) argued in their key findings of a study conducted in the UK. The study identified four important focus areas that were highly correlated with project success and helped to close the change gap. The four areas were: real insights leading to real actions; solid methods resulting in solid benefits; better skills building better change; and right investment having right impact.

Not knowing their role or lack of skills by senior police leaders compounds the situation, as the quality of senior police leaders and project managers could become suspect.

5.6 Leadership Styles, Statecraft and Competencies.

A number of other research questions related to senior police leadership styles, competencies and project management (Mainly originating from basic research Question Four). One question was: "What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP?" Answers were produced in Section 6 of the questionnaire and at interviews. Cumulative analyses of the interview data and questionnaire survey provided a wealth of data and produced some anomalies, especially relating to leadership, training and 'statecraft' being seen as competencies. The data responses in part assisted to answer basic research question four.

The results showed that the majority of senior police leaders believe they have the correct competencies to lead during change management. There was however some

contradictory evidence, as show in Question 77 (Q77), that more training was required to ensure that senior police leaders manage projects professionally. The results also indicated that ADP does not have one officially approved style of management.

In the Phase One interviews and especially in Section 6 of the questionnaire, statecraft was seen as an essential competency for senior police leaders. However, more respondents indicated that statecraft was an essential competence of executive police leaders.

The issue of competencies was further explored and in Section 6 of the questionnaire. It was seen that a sizeable minority of senior police leaders felt that other competencies should be included in the official ADP leadership competencies. This issue was further explored and a number of other competencies considered by the respondents to be included as a senior police leader's competency were community, statecraft and information technology.

Writers define competencies in different ways. For instance competencies can be defined as, "The set of knowledge, skills, and experience necessary for future, which manifests in activities" (Kataneet.al. 44). While other writers such as Gupta defines competencies as, "Knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, motivations and beliefs people need in order to be successful in a job." Lawrence and Veena (2015) argue that with a changing society classroom technologies (ICT) are now seen as a competency for teachers. Lawrence and Veena are supported by Kress (2014) who views a new era of work competencies, change and instability.

(https://www.academia.edu/1462066/ICT_AND_TEACHER_COMPETENCIES)
(Retrieved 9.1.15).

While there is a fine difference between a competency and a skill and there are arguments that the two are so similar that they are interchangeable and should be regarded as one term. The fact that some senior police leaders, who are also subject matter experts, regard some of the above terms as competencies should not be dismissed and indeed for the purposes of this research at this juncture skills and competences will be regarded as interchangeable terms.

Leadership styles were explored in Section 6 of the questionnaire and interestingly laissez-faire leadership style followed by democratic leadership style was viewed as the least most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP. On the other hand situational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP. While situational leadership style implies a number of leadership styles are utilised in a given situation, it was unexpected to see the results of the apparent lack of the use of democratic leadership style. This is an area of interest and worthy of further exploration and as such there is a recommendation contained in Chapter 6 suggesting further research on this topic.

To explore the results relating to statecraft, competencies and leadership, further discussion of the topics are required. As such the remaining parts of this chapter will explore these topics in further depth.

5.7 Statecraft and Competencies

While the literature review contained in Chapter 2 provided a comprehensive background to past and present thinking of statecraft; this discussion defines the attributes of statecraft, which in turn will be utilised to examine one of the central topics of statecraft as a competency for police leaders in Abu Dhabi. This discussion drills down to the component parts of statecraft and will attempt to establish why senior police leaders believe statecraft to be an essential component of their role and that of executive police leaders.

Various schools of thought, by political scientists to sociologists, have tended to paraphrased the basic understanding of statecraft to mean various things. The common contemporary interpretation of political economists holds it to mean the actions of a state. Such a meaning could include domestic and international actions and include the development and implementation of policy.

The definition used in this research questionnaire and distributed to senior police officers was the definition contained in the Collins Dictionary 10th Ed (2009) which is, ' The art of conducting public affairs; statesmanship'. While the definition found in the Collins Dictionary is very simple other writers such as Baldwin (1985, p.9) toyed with the definition of statecraft and expanded the definition to include '...changes in beliefs, attitudes, opinions, expectations, emotions, and/or propensities to act'.

Charles Anderson (1977) concentrates on the process of statecraft and its components. His work is similar to Baldwin's but he focuses on the domestic rather than the international. He finds decision making to be at the heart of the craft of politics. In 1977 Anderson wrote about statecraft and stated:

'..... it suggests that some aspects of the practice of politics have the form of a craft or an art and that they require skill, technique, and judgment. It also implies that politics can be practiced well or poorly, that it can be done with painstaking care and creativity, or that it can be haphazard and nonchalant'. (Anderson 1977, vii)

Anderson argued for the practice and improvement of the skills of statecraft in order to increase its usefulness. He attempts to place his reader as being active participants rather than merely spectator.

By capturing of statecraft and, as Anderson believes, making it a craft or art that requires skill, technique and judgment allows modern writers to bring statecraft to life even within the classroom and training environment.

Following on from Anderson's notion of statecraft and from the essence of this research it has become evident that statecraft can be a competency practised by senior and executive police leaders in ADP. As a result of this research, and after all analyses at the end of the investigation, the author has reached the conclusion that statecraft can be defined as:

'A competency that involves political and diplomatic abilities to discuss or negotiate with the State and its apparatus, including its executive officials, the position of your organisation; and the communities your organisation serves; for the purpose of agreeing or negotiating an amicable and politically acceptable outcome that satisfies the State, your organisation and the community'.

It is certainly a competency that the vast majority of respondents, who took part in this research, believe is an essential component required by senior police leaders and executive police leaders.

The author's definition has grown and developed during the period of this research. For instance when the eleven face-to-face interviews occurred in Phase One the definition used to define statecraft was from the Collins Dictionary (10th Ed 2009). The dictionary defined statecraft as:

'The art of conducting public affairs: statesmanship'.

(Collins Dictionary 10th Ed 2009).

The eleven face-to-face interviewees understood the meaning of statecraft as defined by the Collins Dictionary but all provided several various explanations of what it is. However, all expressed the opinion that the Collins Dictionary definition contained elements of politics, diplomacy and negotiation skills that were used when dealing with the state in its various guises. All eleven agreed that the outcome of dealing with the State must be agreeable to the State and ADP with the State having the final decision or outcome.

Earlier, consideration was given to using a more sophisticated definition of statecraft within the questionnaire, but as a consequence of the eleven interview results in Phase One; a decision was made to keep the same simple definition of statecraft provided by the Collins Dictionary. One of the main reasons for this was that the Collins Dictionary definition was readily understood by all the eleven senior police leaders interviewed and it acted as a baseline. In Phase Two, the questionnaire respondents could redefine, interpret or at least make comment on statecraft or other matters within the

questionnaire, if necessary. By sticking to the simple Collins Dictionary definition gave continuity throughout the research. Albeit, the author at the end of all the research provided his own more in-depth definition of statecraft as:

'A competency that involves political and diplomatic abilities to discuss or negotiate with the State and its apparatus, including its executive officials, the position of your organisation; and the communities your organisation serves; for the purpose of agreeing or negotiating an amicable and politically acceptable outcome that satisfies the State, your organisation and the community'.

This definition is the result of a number of years of research and was only complied at the end of the research.

Reducing statecraft to a micro level assists with the premise that statecraft can be perceived as a competency that can be taught.

Anderson (1977) provides taxonomy of the domestic tools which he calls 'an inventory of the basic tools of the trade of statecraft ... ' (p. 98-99). He defines his categories and explains them as finite, albeit with numerous permutations. His component of statecraft include: Coercive Power, Authority and Guidance, Taxation, Expenditure, Monetary Policy, Market Forces, Initiatives of Groups. Even Baldwin (1985) lists the following as the essential mutually exclusive elements of statecraft: Propaganda, Diplomacy, Economic Statecraft, and Military Statecraft (p.13-14). As a result of this research, it has shown that in ADP statecraft contains several components which include: Politics, Diplomacy, Negotiations and Communications. The key players involved in statecraft include: The State, State Apparatus and Officials and Communities.

So far the discussion has focused on the definition and components of statecraft and it has been suggested that statecraft could be a competency within ADP. While a fair proportion of the literature refers to the international aspect and its practitioners as diplomats, envoys and Foreign Ministers; there is a need to concentrate on a domestic focus. The practitioners of a domestic focused statecraft could include politicians, political parties, media and the 'state apparatus' or bureaucracy. A broad domestic definition of statecraft could provide an appreciation of its use and application and the nature of the state and the state-society relationship. One relationship has appeared in this research which gives credence to the need to think of statecraft as a component or competency for senior police leaders in ADP. It is evident that the respondents view statecraft as a competency that is used by senior police leaders and executive police leaders. There is a suggestion that lower ranks do not use statecraft in their role or responsibilities. While statecraft was rated in the questionnaire as a standalone competency, so were community responsibility and other competencies.

The dynamic between roles and responsibilities was ambivalent. At Phase One of the eleven senior police leaders who were interviewed, nine believed that a component part of statecraft included being able to represent or express the views of the community they policed. The remaining two senior police leaders did not make a connection between the community they policed and being a voice or representative on their behalf. This interpretation of statecraft provides a balance between the dealings of statecraft and the high level affairs of State, on one hand and the needs of the public or community on the other hand. This dynamic between statecraft and community within the ranks of senior police leaders of ADP provides a sense that community is a component part of statecraft.

It was also obvious that all eleven senior police leaders interviewed believed statecraft to be role specific; senior police leaders and executive police leaders used statecraft as part of their role while it was perceived that few lower ranked officers used statecraft. This was reinforced with the results of the questionnaire (Q79 and Q 80). Catley (1996) sees statecraft as, 'a living organism, this great beast.'(p.14). The contention in this discussion is that the living organism of statecraft would appear to be mutating and living within ADP.

With further research there is a belief that statecraft could be included as a competency for the senior and executive police leaders of ADP. This will be reflected in the recommendations proposed by this research.

5.8 Leadership Styles

The findings from the research so far answers to varying degrees all the five basic research questions posed at the beginning of this research: 1) What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP? 2) What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution? 3) What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management? 4) What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP? 5). However, question five of the basic research question is comprehensively answered in regard to ADP leadership styles. The research findings offer an indication of the potential effectiveness of different police leadership styles, competencies and behaviours at a time of change in ADP. The standard of evidence offered by the research was of a high standard and sufficient enough to offer data and perceptions of a certain group of senior police leaders who occupy an influential position within ADP in which sound conclusions can be drawn.

In the attempt to answer the basic research question four regarding leadership; the senior police leader respondents overwhelmingly believe, in their opinion, that situational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP. The second most popular perceived senior police leadership style used was transactional leadership. The research showed that the least style used was laissez-faire leadership. Democratic leadership style was the second least popular style used in ADP.

Situational

As explained in the literature review at Chapter 2 of this thesis, "Situational and Contingency Leadership" - Situational and contingent theorists believe that there are certain leadership practices that can be utilised, given the contingent situations the leader may encounter. One of the best known is the Hersey-Blanchard Model of Leadership. The Hersey-Blanchard model was defined in the late 1960's by Ken Blanchard and Paul Hersey who argued that the development level of a leader's subordinates play the greatest role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. The argument follows that as the junior staff member matures in the workforce, the leaders are required to be less assertive. This being said, as new tasks are given to even mature employees, the leaders may have to revert to more assertive leadership responses, until the worker has gained sufficient competence in the task.

An American study (Standing Bear, 1986) analysing the leadership behaviours and styles of 211 police sergeants found that those who altered their leadership style to suit the perceived 'maturity' level of subordinates (i.e. they followed the situational leadership model) were rated as being more effective leaders by their peers, subordinates and superiors. It follows that a similar conclusion of effectiveness of applying situational leadership in ADP. However, this research is only based on the perceptions of one group (senior police leaders) and has not sought the opinions of other ranks holding different positions.

Authoritarian

The third least popular perceived leadership style most used by senior police leaders in ADP was that of the authoritarian leadership style also known as autocratic leadership style.

Jermier and Berkes 1979; Brief et al, 1981; Kukyendall and Unsinger, (1982) wrote and researched the assumption that autocratic, impersonal leadership was preferred by police officers and that quasi-military structure and leadership styles were essential – to maintain centralised control whilst officers are allowed considerable discretion on the ground; to ensure rapid mobilisation in crisis and emergency situations and to give public confidence in the legitimacy and accountability of police activities. These early studies tend to present evidence to undermine a blanket approach to police leadership, to question the validity of a strictly 'quasi-military' leadership structure and promote supportive and participative leadership behaviours rather than purely 'instrumental' (leader as commander style).

Transactional and transformational

Other significant styles commonly used by the senior police leaders were transactional and transformational leadership:

In the case of transactional leadership, evidence suggests that police leaders that rely heavily on rewards and punishment and 'management-by-exception' (taking action only when there are deviations from expected behaviours and/or service delivery) rather than employing transformational behaviours, may have fewer positive impacts on subordinates. However, there is evidence that transactional behaviours can have positive impacts in specific circumstances. The other significant leadership style was transformational leadership: Police leaders that seek to inspire, set a vision, offer intellectual stimulation and appeal to followers' moral values, desire to fulfill potential and make a positive contribution may be viewed as more effective leaders than those that do not. There is evidence to indicate that they can have a positive impact on subordinates' organisational commitment and their willingness to exert extra effort and comply with directives. (Densten 2003; Schwarzwald, et al 2001; Bass 1985).

Laissez-faire

Laissez-Faire leadership can be described as a nondirective, passive and inactive style (Catalano, 2015). Leaders of this style believe that internal drives motivate followers to act. The leader in this style sets few rules for processing the issues in the organisation and then delegates them to the subordinates.

When Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1938) described this style of leadership as where all the rights and power to make decisions is fully given to the worker. The laissez-faire style is sometimes described as a "hands off" leadership style because the leader delegates the tasks to their followers while providing little or no direction to the followers.

Writers continue to describe laissez-faire as 'free-reign', inactive, passive and non-directive. A person who has a need for approval and is afraid to offend subordinates practises this leadership style. This type of leader is permissive, has no established goals or policies. (Booyens, 1998 p.424)

Basically, the overall result of the research is negative towards laissez-faire leadership.

However, there may be an aspect of such a style of leadership that is positive according to Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2000). They propose that leaders do not have just one style of leadership, but rather have many varying styles depending upon the situation, this could include laissez-faire style.

ADP senior police leaders appear to agree, in the main, with Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2000) in respect that situational leadership style is the first choice of leadership style for ADP senior police leaders, while laissez-faire leadership is the least favoured.

In summary, this research and the literature review accompanying this study suggest that previous studies of police leadership in the Western world indicates that authoritarian leadership was prevalent three decades ago. This could be an indication that ADP has moved away from its quasi military past to a more pragmatic and accommodating leadership style of today. This study reveals that the most common style of leadership for senior police officers is situational leadership. This style of leadership points to the importance of being able to adapt style to suit context and this includes being able to provide directive, active leadership when required.

Whilst there are multiple sources of advice on effective police leadership; many of the existing studies that currently exist have attempted to control or ignore context and have tried to reach conclusions through large sample sizes and carefully constructed questionnaires. The ADP research focuses on context and the research evidence supports the view that policing requires an approach to leadership that differs to other sectors. This approach maintains the ability to make urgent operational command decisions (Authoritarian or Command and Control). Effective police leaders also need to embrace participative and supportive styles, competencies and behaviours; this is borne out by senior police leaders of ADP placing situational leadership as the most common leadership style used.

It is evident that most research in police leadership is based on Western studies. This research provides a positive contribution to the study of leadership based on a GCC police force and relates it to a change management context.

5.9 Working Environment

Section 7 of the questionnaire related to mainly the working environment that ADP and its staff operate under.

The link to leadership was prevalent in the questions in Section 7 of the questionnaire with a majority of respondents stipulating that they agree that the prevailing ADP culture affects leadership style. This was further developed in that it was perceived by the majority of respondents that the prevailing ADP culture is different from a Western police culture.

Section 7 responses questions support for the outcomes of cultural studies in the Arab world by Hofstede (1980a), as discussed in the literature review of this document. Hofstede's cultural research of the Arab world translates the culture of the Arab world as a collectivist society as compared to individualist culture. This difference is manifested in

a close long-term commitment to the member 'group', that being a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount, and overrides most other societal rules.

This creates, according to Hofstede, societies that are highly rule-oriented with laws, rules, regulations, and controls in order to reduce the amount of uncertainty, while inequalities of power and wealth have been allowed to grow within the society.

The Sigma Two Group (<http://www.cyborlink.com/besite/uae.htm> (Retrieved 1.5.12) has explained that culture in the Arab world creates a situation where leaders have virtually ultimate power and authority, and the rules, laws and regulations developed by those in power, reinforce their own leadership and control. It is not unusual for new leadership to arise from armed insurrection – the ultimate power, rather than from diplomatic or democratic change. (Stephen Taylor - the Sigma Two Group – <http://www.cyborlink.com/besite/uae.htm> (Retrieved 1.5.12)

Hofstede's analyses of various countries should not be underestimated even though his work is now over 40 years old. This being said, the research questionnaires analyses tend to complement the work of Hofstede by bring it into a modern police force context. The survey questionnaire results acknowledge that ADP is not always open to change. However, with the UAE government as the main driver for change and with the changes reflecting what is happening currently within society in Abu Dhabi Emirate. ADP is politically astute enough to embrace change and support it.

On a positive note it is believed by senior police officers that the Abu Dhabi communities have benefitted from the changes to ADP.

While five original basic research questions have been explored in this study, there are some other interesting findings that emerged from the research that will also be discussed in the following paragraphs.

The first is the role of mentorship in ADP; the second is the demographic results from this research; thirdly is the topic of *wasta*. These topics are relevance to this research and the findings are worthy of further discussion.

5.10 Mentoring

An interesting finding from this research is the acknowledgement by the senior police leaders, who are also subject matter experts, that mentorship, for many, played an important role in their own leadership development. However, this research also pointed out that few of the participants believed ADP had a formal mentoring program. This finding seems inconsistent with ADP mentoring policy , as a result, what is meant by mentorship and the role that is plays within police leadership selection and especially senior police leadership preparedness, may need to be examined further.

As a result of the research, it appears that only a minority of officers had received formal mentoring in preparation for senior police leadership role. There are few examples, in ADP, where further mentoring occurs. Consequently, the ADP mentoring programme will be listed as a recommendation for improvement based on the results of this research (Also see Appendix 'I').

5.11 Demographic Issues

The interview participants and respondents to the research questionnaire were all male (100%). The fact that there are no women respondents within this study, who are senior police leaders, is significant. No female officer is a Head of Department or holds a position above that level in ADP. When compared to the United Kingdom and the United States of America the literature gives a more positive picture of female officers holding senior police leadership positions. According to the U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics (2011), there were 3,067 counties in the United States, of which only 33 counties had a woman as its police leader. Research based in the Western world has shown that there is structural discrimination within policing that hinders women advancing into police leadership positions (Hughes, 2011). The same literatures also pointed out that women have the leadership competencies that police services require (Hughes, 2011). The 2013 U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics reveals marginally, slightly more females as police leaders than previous years.

The United Kingdom provides more indications that females are also underrepresented at senior positions within police forces within the United Kingdom. The 2013 Home Office Statistics shows that the proportion of women in the more senior ranks of chief inspector and above was 18.0%. (Home Office Statistics - Police Workforces, England and Wales, 31 March 2013).

While culture and belief systems are factors that separate the Western police forces from Arab police forces; more research should be conducted within ADP to address the lack of women in leadership positions and/or to attempt to understand why there are not more women in leadership positions within the police services in ADP. Indeed this is one of the recommendations for further research contained in Chapter 6.

The education levels of the participants provided some interesting information.

University education is not a prerequisite for entrance to ADP and some researchers have failed to recognise university education as a valid predictor of police officer effectiveness (Chan, 1997; Fitzgerald, 1989; Wood, 1997). This attitude is not reflected amongst the senior police leaders of ADP, who participated in the research. Most of whom have a university education and hold ordinary or higher degrees.

The executive police leaders in ADP were successful in being promoted to their positions by a selection process. The selection criteria for that choice is confidential, however it is

assumed it is based on a number of factors including the training and experiences senior police leaders had received within the policing sector. One could argue that historically, the police sector must have done something right to prepare these police officers for executive police leadership.

Today the demographic situation is different from several years ago; as the general population's education levels have increased, so does the likelihood that commissioned police officers hired currently will have higher educational levels at the commencement of their careers. Although this adds even more complexities to recruit training, simply by sheer numbers, those who will be senior police leaders in the future may also have higher educational levels because they probably started with a higher education in the first place. This area is also one that could benefit from future study, both in terms of the credentials and the relative effectiveness of police leaders with different credentials.

There is debate within the literature, as to whether or not a college or university degree should be required for police officers (Roberg and Bonn, 2004). Research has demonstrated that college or university educated police officers are more likely to use discretion in the application of use of force (Rydberg and Terrill, 2010). In addition, a review of the literature of police chiefs in Australia, indicates that university education is beneficial to the professionalisation of the police (Roberg and Bonn, 2004; Trofymowych, 2008).

In 2014, ADP decreed that police candidates must have a high school diploma as a minimum qualification for entry to ADP. Regardless of candidate's qualifications, all police officer candidates must undergo and pass an assessment centre process which includes psychometric testing and entrance examination prior to entry.

5.12 Wasta

One of the unexpected results which emerged from the research was the issue of wasta. In Phase One of this research wasta was mentioned during a face-to-face interview. As a consequence the issue of wasta was incorporated into the research questionnaire. While the overall analyses shows that wasta was not detected within ADP it would be remiss not to have an understanding of what wasta is and to have some understanding of its pervasiveness.

According to previous studies, Fawaz Ziyad Ihsan Al-Hussan (2011) and Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993), on the subject of 'wasta' in the Arab world, there are mixed interpretations of its true meaning. Most times it is seen that wasta is categorised to be somewhat equivalent to nepotism.

Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993) describe wasta as an unethical means of getting what you wanted; however it can be used when a person is forced into situations to use it. Wasta is a part of the culture, and is a norm that is accepted within most parts of Arab

society. Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993) also acknowledge that in some Arab countries, *wasta* practices are legal and moral within a cultural context, resembling the services provided by attorneys, real estate brokers, and accountants in the Western world. Other *wasta* acts are questionable but are mandated by family members in a traditional web of inter-connecting obligations.

Mixed interpretation within different cultures means *wasta* has been misused or defined differently from what it was designed for in the past. The original idea came from tribal cultures to help and support each other.

Toy et al. (1988) believed that nepotism, like *wasta*, can expose an organisation to family fights and also can create a negative impression on hardworking and talented managers who get passed over by those who share a last name with the boss. As a result, ambitious professional managers will be discouraged from joining such firms or companies or they leave the company as they face leadership succession.

Definition of *wasta*

In the Arab world, *wasta* is seen as a form of social capital. It started as a practice from historic Arab tribal times and even in the present day it is an important feature of social, economic, and political life. One definition of *wasta* is: “to employ a middle man, a broker, a go-between or an intermediary—usually a person of high social status and accepted rank—to achieve one's ends” (Fathi, 1993, p. 61). Richards and Waterbury, (1996) and Fawaz Ziyad Ihsan Al-Hussan (2011) write that *wasta* has developed with society and today in the modern Arabic language tends to mean a connection or influence. It is important to further clarify the difference between the concepts of *wasta* and social solidarity (*takaful al Ijtima'i*). Social solidarity is an important form of bonding, while *wasta* is potentially more a form of bridging social solidarity. Although originally both were socially constructed concepts, social solidarity is strengthened by Islam's emphasis on social cohesion, charity, social justice, collective responsibility for the welfare of society, and the duty to help the poor and those in need at all times and regardless of economic and social circumstances. In the Quran, the primary source of Islamic law, “uses the word 'justice' more than a thousand times . . . based on 'goodwill' and benefit to Muslim society” (Richards & Waterbury, 1996, p. 351).

State and Society level

On the state level *wasta* is used as important source of influence and connection for families and tribes inside the state apparatus, using their power and positions within in state bodies to “get things done” (Amadouny, 1994).

At the society level, people kept the formal governmental system out of their affairs. They continue to solve their disputes and manage their resources informally and through traditional social customs and norms. Tribes ensured that members of the same family

and kin lived and worked together, therefore facilitating cooperation and maintaining the durability of family ties and social networks (Amadouny, 1994).

Malhas (1993) writes that the development of society has resulted in a change in the application of *wasta*. *Wasta* users no longer seek social recognition and respect as the main reward for his/her efforts. Instead they expect material gains for their efforts, even with their own relatives and family members (Malhas, 1993).

ADP as a police service must be aware of the negative aspects of *wasta* in the Arab world and its ramifications. For instance, the practice of using *wasta*, in some organisations in the Arab world, in terms of selection, recruitment and development of people often means that the best and most appropriate person for the job is not always selected. With *wasta*, a person often seeks to obtain a position or post that otherwise he or she would not achieve by using the normal process or practice that lie within open and fair competition. This logically means *wasta* organisations are denying themselves the opportunity to get the best people from the market; as a result these competent people are frequently hired by their competitors.

In Phase One of this research, at the face to face interviews, *wasta* was mentioned. Consequently the issue of *wasta* was incorporated into the research questionnaire. It is acknowledged through the results of the research questionnaire that *wasta* was not detected within ADP.

However, the UAE government acknowledges *wasta* in the Arab world and as reported in the UAE National Newspaper on 4 April 2013, 'Dubai auditors are checking recruitment procedures to ensure that government bodies and businesses are not offering jobs to people who benefit from the form of favouritism known as *wasta* (<http://www.thenational.ae/news/uae-news/uae-to-conduct-recruitment-checks-in-bid-to-beat-wasta>). Accessed on 1 July 2014). Recruitment is one of the areas examined by Dubai internal auditors. This good practice is something that other organisations can learn from. This will be reflected in the action points (Appendix 'I') made as a result of this research.

5.13 Family Influence

Abu Dhabi emirate has been maintaining a political and economic coalition led by the Bani Yas tribe since 1793 (Motohiro, 2011). The Nahyan family which heads the Bani Yas tribe came from Liwa Oasis to Abu Dhabi Island in the 18th century and succeeded in developing an alliance for pearl mining and economic ties between the inland and the sea coast families. Economically, this alliance made its wealth from businesses utilising the sea and its gain was invested inland. While some sub-tribes in the Bani Yas alliance offered ships, some offered pilots, some divers and others engaged in general trade. For example the Mazari'a and Awamir, as Bedouins in the desert area, offered security and

protection for the connecting route between the coast and inland areas and become a military force when conflict with outsiders occurred. The Nahyan families traditionally intervened and mediated once a problem arose among sub-tribes or with outsiders (Zahlan, 1978).

The tribal traditions based on families remained strong and virtually unchanged until the beginning of the 1970's when it began to change with the formation of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and its independence from the United Kingdom (UK) in 1971.

In 1971, after occasionally difficult negotiations with the other rulers of the Trucial States, the UAE was formed and Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan was appointed to the presidency of the UAE in 1971.

At this time other leaders of family groups were appointed as rulers of some of the other states which make up the federation of the United Arab Emirates: the Nahyan family of the Al Bu Faraha sub-tribe under Bani Yas in Abu Dhabi, the Maktoum family of Al Bu Farasa sub-tribe under Bani Yas in Dubai, and the Qawasim tribe in Sharjah and Ra'as al-Khaimah (Federal Research Division, 2010). Further to this Motohiro (1995) stipulates that the Abu Dhabi Emirate maintained strong tribal characteristics even after the U.A.E.'s developed economy and society had accepted many foreigners, and gained huge wealth from its oil resources after independence in 1971.

Just before the withdrawal of the UK in 1971 traditional alliances were formed amongst families. According to Motohiro (2011) the key persons were not only from 'big tribes' but also from smaller tribal families which had been traditionally playing significant roles such as in defence and security from inland areas or as Bedouins. In addition some tribes who had been enemies of the Bani Yas alliance were employed in significant positions in the military and police. They often occupied positions higher than persons from tribes allied with the Bani Yas tribe (Motohiro, 1995).

While it has been less than 50 years since the creation of the UAE the legacy of traditionally viewing UAE nationals from inland areas of the UAE or Bedouins as having an affinity or an entitlement of a position in defence and security, including the police,

should be dismissed as historic and not a part of contemporary UAE society. However, positive action may be necessary to dispel this historic legacy.

In the 1970's many significant figures in the oil and energy sector in Abu Dhabi were appointed from major tribal families, but because of the need for good education and experience in such a modern key industry other outside family members, with the appropriate education and skills, were appointed to key positions.

This indicates that education and experience were given higher priority over tribes and family names in this sector (Motohiro, 2011). This trend and characteristic of appointments based on abilities and experience over tribal considerations is something that has continued from the 1970's. With the passage of time, using a family name to gain a position and influence is less significant and indeed is diminishing with the development of a modern country. UAE nationals being selected on ability and education other than by tribal or family name is now established as the norm.

For more than two decades, since the formation of the UAE in 1971, immigration by foreign experts and labourers has swelled the population figures in the UAE. This makes the UAE anything but homogenous. However, for UAE nationals, the basic structure of their tribal society has remained intact, even though for some families their changed economic circumstances have dramatically revolutionised many aspects of their lives. For other families, access to modern housing, education and healthcare have made a great difference, but the basic pattern of their lives has not yet fully changed. Belonging to a well respected local tribe or an influential family is still important in today's local society, albeit in a diminished fashion. This being said, in spite of the overwhelming majority of expatriates around UAE nationals, a more open relationship exists between foreign workers and local UAE families. The majority of UAE local families has extending their social network and are no longer socialising exclusively amongst themselves.

In today's modern UAE society the historic legacy of traditionally viewing UAE nationals from inland areas of the UAE or Bedouins as having priority or an automatic entitlement to join Abu Dhabi Police has no place in a modern UAE society.

Perceptions are also important and in order to dispel any perceived notions of selection of police staff based on tribal family traditions and other historic traditional aspects that

may exist, such as 'wasta,' should be viewed as a relic of the past. It is important for ADP to register and continue to communicate its modernisation programme with the public and communicate its new values including operating an open and fair recruitment and selection procedure which is open to all UAE nationals. This involves ADP being proactive and introducing a Code of Conduct and possibly an equality audit on police recruitment to detect and dispel any irregularities or unfairness (See Appendix 'I').

5.14 Questions Answered and Hypothesis Validated

The general analytic strategy was used to analyse the findings of this research using the theoretical propositions that reflect on the research questions of this study which is an approach endorsed by Yin (2003). This approach is built upon and supported by Neuman (2006) who argues that without the analytic interpretation or theory provided by the researcher, the readers of any research may use their own commonsense framework which may contain implicit assumptions, biases, ethnocentrism, and ill-defined concepts.

With this in mind, the five basic research questions are answered in a summarised answer format that comes with a caveat which is discussed after all the five basic research questions are answered. The questions and answers are as follows:

Question 1 - What are the factors that promote or hinder change management and project success in ADP?

This question sought to find factors that promote or hindering effective project implementation and change management in an Arab police force.

Answer 1

The promotion of change management and projects within ADP is recognised to be sponsored and supported by the Abu Dhabi Government and Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Interior and Head of ADP. This level of sponsorship is seen to be one of the main factors for success of the ADP change management programme.

Making senior police leaders responsible for projects is positive and promotes buy-in and develops a team approach to project work whilst giving a sense of importance the change management programme.

In ADP opportunities are given to more junior police leaders and indeed senior police leaders themselves to show initiative, be proactive and embrace work opportunities. This leads to staff appreciating and being given the opportunity to be noticed within project work to senior police leaders and executive police leaders.

Success with projects is viewed as promoting and contributing to a positive change in ADP as well as the wider communities served by ADP.

A situational leadership style adopted by senior police leaders promotes a positive attribution to change management and projects whilst fostering an environment for success.

Factors that hinder potential success are the perceived lack of not having the correct competencies required by senior police leaders to manage projects and perceived training shortcomings around project management.

The culture of ADP is viewed positively and has not necessarily hindered projects and change management success.

These are the main factors that promote or hinder the ADP change management programme.

Question 2 - What is the role played by leadership in change management and project execution?

This question sought to highlight the roles of leadership at a time of change.

Answer 2

One of the main roles played by senior police leaders is to be accountable for and to be the person responsible for the success or failure of any project allocated to them. The role of senior police leaders involves leading members of the change management programme while using a situational leadership style. Their role also involves assessing formally and informally the qualities of others involved in the programme.

The senior police leaders view executive police leaders as having the additional responsibility as acting as a link between government and the other officers of ADP which required additional skills and competencies which includes statecraft. Executive police leaders tend to play a supportive role.

Executive police leaders, on the whole, do not interfere with the running of projects and tend to leave this to senior police leaders while they deal with other executive police matters.

The role of Abu Dhabi Government and Lieutenant General HH Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Interior and Head of ADP is to give direction and visible support for change in ADP. This role assists with the buy-in of ADP staff.

The role of junior police leaders allocated to work on projects is simply to work as part of the team. However, they tend to use the experience as a career opportunity to display their abilities and to gain experience.

Question 3 - What are the links between leadership at all levels in change management?

This question sought to find factors that link leadership during change management.

Answer 3.

At senior police leader level, there are links directly and indirectly to executive police leaders. This was highlighted by the use of mentoring and in particular by the use of personal professional relationships with executive leaders. While the personal relationships and mentoring are factors linking senior police leaders and executive police leaders; it was shown that executive police leaders did not unduly interfere with how senior police leaders ran a project in the change management programme. In order to foster success senior police leaders and executive police leaders have to be politically astute. This political linkage, together with in particular mentoring and personal professional relationships, bonds senior police leaders and executive police leaders together.

The bond or linkage with senior police leaders is not just upward but is also downward to more junior police leaders. In addition the nature of policing ensures that there is a link also to other staff especially by the use of the organisations performance appraisal system. The ADP performance appraisal system (HOPAS) creates a formal link to junior leaders under the command of senior police leaders whereby senior police leaders have to assess the performance and potential of junior police leaders. This is often done both on a formal and informal basis. At a time of change management senior police leaders have a chance to observe other junior staff members and through projects they are able to observe at relatively close quarters the qualities and potential for future senior police leadership.

In all, there is a powerful cultural and a work based link between senior police leaders and executive police leaders and junior staff who are also potential leaders of the future. With the majority of senior police leaders adopting a situational leadership style and operating a team approach to project management; ensures greater connectivity between leaders at a higher level and to a lower level to their own.

Question 4 - What are the effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP?

This question sought to look at the level of effective leadership styles and their competencies.

Answer 4

The findings show senior police leaders prefer to use a situational leadership style in their police role. A situational leadership style implies that a certain level of flexibility and adaptability is afforded to senior police leaders who need to adjust their leadership style according to the situation. When a senior police leader has to devote time away from main or operational policing roles to lead on projects certain flexibility is required. Situational leadership provides that flexibility and appears suited to change management. The ADP culture is open to change and this is an influencing factor that is acknowledged by senior police leaders.

The majority of senior police leaders believe they have the correct competencies to lead during change management. The current ADP competencies are strategic thinking, people leadership, influencing others, decision making and credibility. Having the correct competencies makes for an effective leader.

While statecraft is not one of the current ADP competencies, a majority of senior police leaders believe that statecraft is an essential component for senior police leadership and executive police leadership.

Question 5 - How can leadership and strategic change management be enhanced?

This question sought recommendation to enhancing effective leadership and efficient change management.

Answer 5

Many items were recorded during the research which resulted in several recommendations which are contained in Chapter 6 of this thesis. The recommendations range from more training requirements to further examination of leadership mentoring. This list of recommendations is extensive and is described in Chapter 6.

Further to the answers to the five basic questions; it was discovered during the research that there were five focus areas which were highly correlated that helped with change management success, they were:

1. Government, Head of ADP, executive police leaders and senior police leaders all work in alignment to effect change in ADP.
2. There is a political and cultural awareness amongst senior police leaders.
3. Situational leadership style is the preferred style of senior police leaders.
4. There is a culture that embraces change.

5. There are formal and informal assessments of staff and their qualities and attributes of potential future leaders during change management.

While the above five research questions have been summarised into five answers. These answers are in many respects simple one dimensional answers to the basic research questions. In order to understand the answers in any depth requires an understanding of this entire thesis. To obtain an in-depth understanding not only of the above summarised answers and to acquire an understanding of the issues and complications of change management and leadership in a police force in the Middle East requires reading of the whole this thesis. There is now an awareness that further research would be required to confirm and verify certain other aspects that this research has brought to light.

Hypothesis - “Change management within ADP has been largely effective and led to better outcomes for the citizens of Abu Dhabi”.

This hypothesis or supposition was provisionally accepted at the beginning of the research in order to interpret certain events and phenomena. This hypothesis was tested throughout the course of this research.

Validity

The research questions are also aligned with the hypothesis and in many respects have been validated as a consequence of the answers given to the research questions above.

The analyses of the data, threads emanating from the research and answer to the research questions have given a clear causal link to the hypothesis and validated the hypothesis. In all, it has demonstrated that change management has been in the largely effective and has led to better outcomes for the people and citizens of Abu Dhabi.

5.15 Summary

Phase Two proved to be positive with many of the questionnaire results validating the items which emerged from the Pilot study and Phase One of the research.

Minitab 17 statistical software (2014) was used to analyse the questionnaire. The reasons why this package was selected was that it was available to the researcher who had easy access to the software. Minitab was an adequate alternative to SPSS which produced effective results.

The targeted pool of 44 senior police leaders, which are all the senior police leaders of ADP, resulted in 42 participating. This led to 42 recipients returning their completed questionnaires. There were no spoiled questionnaires.

The data obtained from the questionnaire has provided a wealth of information. The homogeneity of the responses received from the questionnaire gave an insight to some of the culture and attitudes of ADP senior police leaders. It was obvious that the respondents, in most cases, shared many of the same opinions on police leadership and change management, as the results from the questionnaire demonstrated agreement in relation to their responses. The questionnaire results were supported by the high level of validity of the thematic responses found within the interview data. There were occasional minor anomalies and contradictions in responses. However, without these it could have been argued that if everyone was in agreement the identified themes were not as valid or reliable as they should be.

The data and statistics of this study have produced interesting facts and figures. When discussing these facts and figures it is evident that statecraft is seen by many senior police leaders as a competency which is exercised at senior police leader level and above. On the topic of the link that exists between change management and leadership; it is seen that the Government is the driver of change in ADP and that the main beneficiaries of the change is perceived to be the general public. Historic literature points to the police in the Middle East as authoritarian in nature; ADP has moved to a situational style of leadership albeit an authoritarian style is still present within parts of the force.

ADP has all the hallmarks of a modern police force; it is forward thinking; it is just as scientifically sophisticated; it is effective but it retains its own character and culture. In all, ADP has demonstrated that change management has been in the largely effective and has led to better outcomes for the people and citizens of Abu Dhabi. This gives ADP a unique profile compared to many other police forces of the world.

CHAPTER 6

6. RECOMMENDATIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Recommendations, Contributions and Conclusion

As has already been indicated, there is a lack in the theory of change management and leadership within the police service which needs to be addressed. Any professional discipline requires some fundamental concepts regarding how it executes its mandate under a framework guided by theory. The link between theory and practice is fundamental to how things are done, as processes are guided by the theoretical framework of those disciplines. It is therefore, obvious that change management requires this relationship of theory and practice; without this it loses credibility and respect among other disciplines due to its lack of a scientific approach. The presence of the theory of change management, leadership, culture, statecraft and other elements in the discipline will raise the profile of this discipline in ADP and the police service as a whole. Even with this current research; it has become apparent that even more research in the subject of change management, leadership, culture, statecraft and the other elements that link these matters together is required in order to bring science into this discipline. With this in mind, the remainder of this the last chapter of this thesis has been divided into three parts; recommendations for future research, contributions to theory, method and practice, and finishing with a conclusion.

6.2 Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is required to find out whether these findings can be generalised to all of the UAE police family and a similar comparison done with other worldwide police forces, especially police forces using project management as a tool for executing change. The results of the survey in ADP show that ADP has a leadership that has harnessed the right environment to execute their change management programme. The results of ADP confirm the links between government and the police during the introduction of a modernisation or change programme.

This research has resulted in several further research recommendations being made. The further research recommendations are detailed as follows:

RECOMMENDATION No 1:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO VARIABLES TO ASSESS POLICE LEADERS:

This research was exploratory, in that the study attempted to understand the phenomenon of the identification of leadership qualities and potential among police officers and especially senior police leaders of ADP at a time of significant change. Mixed method sequential exploratory research is often conducted in an effort to develop an instrument that can subsequently be administered to a given population (Creswell, 2009). The research and rationale behind the leadership issues within ADP provides a reliable and validated set of variables from which to assess current senior police leaders and other officers for their leadership potential in ADP. These results require the further development of an instrument that can be administered to current senior police officers and other officers and then subsequently tested, through longitudinal research, and potentially in other Emirates of the UAE, to further validate its use. Although the data collected in this research is accurate and reflects the opinions of the senior police leaders, there is no way of knowing for how long the accuracy of the data will continue. The speed of change and pressures affecting police leaders, which has been well laid out in the literature review within this study, creates a dynamic whereby any research that is conducted could be outdated very quickly. Keeping up with change and the requirements to ensure public safety is paramount; often these pressures prevent police agencies from implementing such research based practices on top of their day-to-day activities even if they are aware of the results of research on best practices. However, the research design employed within this study does allow for the potential of future research and the replication of this study with a much larger group of subject matter experts, in the six other Emirates of the UAE. This would no doubt provide greater depth and understanding of the phenomenon of the early identification of leadership potential and provide for greater validity and reliability. Hence, Recommendation No 1 is to put forward that further research is required into variables to assess police leaders.

RECOMMENDATION No 2:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO THE DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP:

A critical needs assessment should be conducted to examine the usefulness, and effectiveness of the continued search for a definition of police leadership within the policing sector. Much time is spent attempting to define concepts that, at the end of the day due to their very nature, are difficult, if not impossible to define, especially concepts that are both changing and are as complex as police leadership. Much time has been spent looking at police leadership from the perspective of leadership as a noun or a position. Arguably, leadership studied as a verb, or as an action concept, might also provide much insight into the practical application of leadership, rather than relying solely

on academic definitions. Hence, Recommendation No 2 is to undertake further research into the definition of leadership within the police sector.

RECOMMENDATION No 3:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO THE DEFINITION OF STATECRAFT:

While there are several definitions of statecraft; this research has shown that a new definition of statecraft is needed for ADP and the police sector as a whole. Whilst this research has provided a new definition of statecraft in relation to ADP; there is an argument, as shown in Recommendation No 2 above, that further work is required into the new definition of statecraft as it relates to ADP and its implications to other police forces of the UAE. Therefore, it is the Recommendation No 3 that further research be conducted with other police in the other parts of the Emirates of the UAE to test the applicability of the new definition of statecraft provided in this thesis.

RECOMMENDATION No 4:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK(S):

The police leadership data collected may assist to provide a framework from which to develop assessment tools, human resource practices, and training programmes. The literature review conducted within this study demonstrated that other countries, have undertaken an approach to incorporate data collected from senior police leaders to assist in the development of a leadership competency framework. In this research data collected includes data relating to statecraft which has not been known to have been incorporated into police competencies. This is an area worthy of further research. It is therefore the Recommendation No 4 that data collated in this research be the basis of further research into developing a new competency framework for ADP.

RECOMMENDATION No 5:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO TRAINING PROGRAMME(S):

The data collected throughout this research provides a rich source to develop a senior police leadership programme. The findings from this study may provide the basis from which to commence discussions between ADP and academia to create a made in Abu Dhabi police leadership programme for potential and actual senior police leaders. This current research assists in determining those with the potential for senior police leadership and executive police leadership development and may be able to identify those who should reach the highest roles within ADP. The development of any leadership programme should consider the concept of change management and the links

to leadership. This is an area worthy of further research. Hence Recommendation No 5 is to develop a police leadership programme which incorporates the findings of this thesis.

In addition, the research data indicated that senior police leaders did not always know their role in project management. This issue is addressed at Appendix I where an action point has been created in relation to training in ADP.

RECOMMENDATION No 6:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO WOMEN AND POLICE LEADERSHIP:

Research needs to be conducted within ADP, in general, to determine if there are barriers, explicit or implied within the police service of ADP which may inhibit the placement of women into senior police leadership positions, or make such positions inaccessible to women. In addition, further studies could be done to ascertain what impact the current project management structures have had on the lack of females in strategic positions in the ADP corporate world. The influence of males at senior police leadership level should not be ignored and this too should be interrogated in the context of what effect it has on both the successful execution of projects and ensuring alignment of projects to strategy. Hence Recommendation No 6 is to undertake further research into the lack of women in senior leadership positions of ADP.

RECOMMENDATION No 7:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO POLICE LEADERSHIP STYLE(S):

The current research found that situational leadership was the preferred leadership style used by the senior police leaders of ADP. Recommended No7 is that further research be conducted within ADP and the other six Emirates of the UAE to establish if the styles of police leadership practised within ADP are being used by the other police leadership of the UAE.

RECOMMENDATION No 8:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO PROJECTS AS THE DRIVER OF CHANGE:

It has been established by the current research that projects were seen as the main driver of change. Following on from this it is suggested here at Recommendation No 8 that research needs to be conducted within ADP, in general, to build upon the work already done in the current research to determine if projects success is long term and sustainable as the main driver of change in a police organisation.

RECOMMENDATION No 9:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO CULTURE:

While the current research provides evidence of the influence of culture in ADP; it is put forward that research needs to be conducted within ADP to determine the full extent of the influence of culture on leadership and change management within ADP. Hence Recommendation No 9 recommends further research into the cultural aspects and influences within ADP.

RECOMMENDATION No 10:

FURTHER RESEARCH INTO THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENT AND ADP:

It has been established in this research that the UAE government has been the main driver of change. Following on from this, that consideration should be given for further research to be conducted to determine the full extent of the role of the UAE Government influence on the role of ADP. Hence Recommendation No 10 that further research is conducted to establish the full role and relationship of the UAE government and ADP.

Many researchers studying any given phenomenon are often left asking more questions than they intended when they first commenced their original study. This research provides and allows people to explore, examine and, eventually, come to understand reality, in this case, the phenomenon of police leadership in relation to change management. While it is unlikely that research will ever completely understand leadership and change management as a phenomenon; prior to this research being conducted in Abu Dhabi, there had been little research that had explored police leadership and its links with change management. The hope is that this study begins this important discussion and that further research into police leadership and its links with change management will continue. In addition the identification of certain elements relating to senior and executive police leadership potential for advancement is a bonus. Evidence-based practice needs to be encouraged within the police sector in Abu Dhabi, and this study has provided the opportunity for that conversation to occur. It is hoped this is a place to start, and it is also hoped that this starting place will encourage others into further research always bearing in mind the culture and environment that ADP operate in.

6.3 Further Research Caveat

When deciding to conduct future further research it is important to know the limitation of any research. This research was conducted during the latter part of 2014, and relied upon the opinions of subject matter experts. In this case, the subject matter experts were senior police leaders who were members of ADP. This research was conducted solely in the Emirates of Abu Dhabi within the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and included only senior police leaders who were Heads of Department and members of ADP. It did not involve any other categories of officer or other forces. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be generalised to any other police organisations or countries. This being said, further research into this phenomenon should be encouraged and the research already conducted during this investigation should not be ignored.

6.4 Action Points: Rapid Action Research

ADP has a philosophy of rapid action research to bring about rapid improvements. This PhD research is not part of this philosophy and is separate to it. However, as explained in the previous chapters that action points will be produced as a corporate matter after the conclusion of this research. Some of the findings of this research will be considered as action points by such a project. The possible action points have been produced in Appendix 'I' and are considered separate to the focus of this research.

6.5 Contributions to theory, method, and practice

This research relating to police modernisation and reform in ADP is interesting in many aspects and has relevance for theory, method and practice in various fields. The analysis in the research has focused mainly on senior police leadership, change management and organisational aspects of the police reform in regard to a Middle East context. The discussions have concerned leadership, change management and other aspects of police reform in Abu Dhabi and its implications.

This section will build upon previous chapters and provide more details regarding contributions to theory, methodology, and to practice. By structuring this section into these three parts, it is possible to provide a specific focus on each of these three aspects which is necessary given the character of the current research, being a Ph.D. study. There are, however, clear connections between theory, methodology and practice in the current study. The three aspects of theory, methodology and practice are intertwined and supplement each other and cannot be totally compartmentalised.

6.6 Contributions to theory

This research makes its theoretical contribution to several strands of literature and combines and marries some of the theoretical strands together. The reason for doing so is that it provides more in-depth analyses or as Dean Inge (1950) put it, "To marry is to get a binocular view of life". This research has successfully married several strands of theory together. In particular the research has focused on leadership and change management aspects of the police reform ongoing within ADP which require that other strands of literature are incorporated to supplement the current theory. This has contributed not only to leadership general theory but more specifically police leadership and change management theory in an Arab police organisational context. These theoretical contributions will be outlined below in more detail.

6.7 Contributions to police leadership and change management theory

This study contributes to leadership in a police organisation in a number of ways including the roles and responsibilities of senior police leaders in relation to change and the leadership styles adopted by leaders in a Middle East police force. Political and cultural aspects of the research also provide a theoretical contribution to police leadership.

In addition the study contributes in two main ways to change management. Firstly, it emphasises the external environment which challenges contemporary change management theory. Secondly, it emphasises the internal aspects within the tradition of contemporary change management theory. The internal aspects also focuses on utilising existing organisational resources , namely senior police leaders within the change process and placing projects as the main driver for change in ADP.

6.8 Contributions to police leadership theory

Police leadership and police management theory is a scarce field, especially in a Middle East context, as previously discussed. It is, however, an emerging field which this research is an indicator of. The work of Reiner and Newburn (2007), McLaughlin (2007) and Downes and Morgan (2007) have linked police studies to social and political sciences. This research also links these elements to the theoretical field of police leadership and though this research illustrates how the police organisation requires certain specific skills and competencies from its leaders. The majority of police leadership studies are concerned with criminology. Very little has been published concerning police leadership in an Arab context. Police departments, not only in the Western world, but also in the Arab world, have been such closed organisations that they have not allowed for much research based influence. In recent years, police

organisations have opened up as a consequence of the increased demand for visibility and accountability in the wake of political initiatives, public reforms and new policing philosophies. The Arab Spring is one of the factors that has caused Arab police organisations to re-examine their way of doing business and opened some doors to consider reform. These tendencies have assisted to enable research based input in organisational matters as well as police leadership reform. The contribution in these aspects from the current study is that of the specific organisational character of the police in Abu Dhabi. This research highlights how the organisational character of the police, which includes the emerging field of police leadership, bridges several streams such as politics, leadership, culture and change management to establish new links to leadership theory and organisational theory.

At a micro level the research has shown the need for senior and executive police leaders in ADP to develop new skills and to be aware of politics and suggests the use of statecraft as a new competency for leaders.

6.9 Contributions to change management theory (External)

This research clearly shows how the external environment has a significant influence on change management aspects of a police reform programme. However, as seen in the current thesis, the predominant change management theories focus on internal aspects of transformation and rarely includes at the external macro perspective and issues.

It is of interest that John Kotter's (1995) model was used by consultants as the basis for reform when planning the change management programme in ADP in 2004 when the first ADP strategic plan was produced. Kotter's (1995) model was based and expanded upon the phase model which is attributed to Kurt Lewin (1943). These theories have an internal perspective and thus cannot truly capture the external aspects, which in this study have proven to be of utmost importance, such as the directives from the UAE Government to ADP and the geopolitical situation the UAE finds itself in.

To capture the external aspects of the ADP change management programme, institutional theory supplements contemporary change management theories. Institutional theory is not new to organisational change and transformation (Scott, 2008). The contribution in the current study is to show how institutional theory and traditional change management theory can supplement each other and furthermore how it is essential to supplement typical change management theory with the external perspective (Lowndes and Roberts, 2013).

This research has shown how external influences affect ADP with respect to government politics, regional security and culture. All can effect change management and even at a micro level impact on senior police leaders of ADP and their workings. By combining the

external and the internal perspectives provide a deeper understanding of change management.

This thesis highlights how the external influences must be acknowledged in change management and the impact it has on the leadership level, especially in a highly structured institutional organisations such as the police.

Expanding change management in this manner is shaped by working with external factors, since external factors become incorporated into the strategic thinking and the direction of a police organisation undergoing change. As a result, this research challenges the predominantly internal perspective of contemporary change management theory to include more attention towards external perspectives and issues.

These matters have implications for change management practice as we have seen in the case of ADP. These implications affect project leadership, leadership style, and skills needed to negotiate the requirements of internal factors and external factors such as government, politics, regional security and culture.

6.10 Contributions to change management theory (Internal)

Another essential contribution to change management, from the current study, lies within the realms of contemporary change management theory in that it focuses on the internal planning aspects of organisational change and the characteristics of staff. In addition to this the research focuses on the existing organisational resources, namely leaders, who play a more central part in change management than previously thought.

Modern change management theory tends to focus on commercial organisations and other non-police organisations set in a Western environment and not in an Arab setting. It also concentrates on what should be changed and specific attention is given to how the new organisation should be structured, organised, and how it performs (Kotter and Rathgeber 2006).

This research points to a need for supplementing change management theory by including an additional focus on the internal organisational characteristics which have enabled the organisation to perform.

In this study of the ADP change management programme, human capital has been identified as an essential organisational resource, especially the skills and competencies required by senior police leaders to manage aspects of change. These competencies and skills include statecraft and other effective leadership skills and styles.

The cultural aspects of a police organisation have figured prominently in this research. Various writers (Kotter and Rathgeber (2006) and Palmer and Dunford (2008) view culture in change management theory as an obstacle rather than as a resource. The

current study shows how ADP culture and especially ADP police leadership culture is used effectively, especially by the ADP executive leadership working in partnership with the government to implement change in an Arab police force.

This research shows that change management theory can gain from including and embracing internal and external aspects such as external politically driven projects and by utilising the internal characteristics of ADP police leadership to positive effect which in turn benefits a changing UAE society.

6.11 Methodology

The contributions to methodology from this research relate to two main aspects. One is how to gain effective access to an organisation such as a police organisation which, in general terms, is closed to the outside given its nature. Studies have shown that the police world-wide are mainly closed to the outside by operational necessity and culture. Historically the governance structure of ADP has created a police force which has been closed to outsiders. Furthermore in the past, the previous police executive police leaders had little discretion regarding access. However today, under the command of Lt. General H.H Sheikh Saif bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Deputy Prime Minister, Minister of Interior and Head of Abu Dhabi Police, ADP is now more open to new research studies of ADP. This PhD research and methodology is an endorsement and acknowledgement from ADP of its openness, which in turn enriches not only ADP but academia. Access is relatively simple for an insider, as long as the protocols and appropriate permissions are asked for. Outsiders have a more difficult task but the issue of access is not insurmountable.

The methodology used in this research has coupled theory and practice by working specifically with how theory of leadership and change management has contributed to practice and how practice has contributed to theory respectively. Thus, there is a synergy between theory and practice in that one supplements and enriches the other.

This research relates theory to practice and provides how both relate to one another in an Arab culture.

This research based in an Arab police force has proven, with the correct permissions that access can be gained to organisations like ADP. The researcher being a member of ADP has reduced many barriers that could have been experienced from an outsider who was not a police officer. Raw police data, even to an insider such as the researcher, requires authorisations and is not automatically given. Hence, any methodology chosen should be perceived by a conservative organisation like ADP as controversial or non-scientific. Any radical methodology would have only created barriers.

The methodology used in this study was chosen with the aim of obtaining an understanding of ADP and also providing clean data to provide substance and meaning

to the research. Using mixed methods research in this setting was an important way of bridging theory and practice. It also provided essential insights which would not have necessarily come to the researcher's knowledge by using other single streamed methodologies. Thus, as the study has shown, using mixed methods research methodology including analytical triangulation, serves as a way to capture the workings of ADP and their senior police leaders in a non-threatening manner. The richness of the methodology provides an insight of senior police leaders adopting a Constructivist approach to life and work which supplements the traditional strategic organisational analysis. The researcher by using a literature review, interviews with senior police leaders and questionnaires provides aggregated triangular patterns and couplings which in essence are at the heart of the mixed methods research methodology.

In this way, the methodology chosen has shown to be able to shed light on crucial leadership and change management aspects of ADP by illuminating in particular the views of senior police leaders which would otherwise have been problematic by using a controversial single streamed methodology. This research has enhanced the standing of mixed methods research methodology by showing the versatility of the method in a unique operating environment in an Arab country.

6.12 Contributions to practice

This research came about as the result of a desire to create knowledge about a changing ADP with a backdrop of a changing UAE society and Arab world. ADP reform provides insights which can serve as input to practitioners in the police with regards to police leadership in a changing society. Throughout this research, insights and inputs have been given by senior police leaders and have touched on several issues.

The contribution to practice has been divided into two parts. The first part focuses on the implications of the findings to police leadership practice in ADP and other organisations. The second part focuses on the main contributions and practice for change management practice in ADP and other organisations.

6.13 Contributions and implications for police leadership practice in ADP and other organisations.

The implications for ADP as a result of this research should be seen in the context of the wider situation within the UAE. At the time when this thesis was being prepared, the police in ADP and the Emirate of Abu Dhabi were going through rapid reorganisational change. Based on new consulting reports and organisational analyses, the police modernisation projects and initiatives were being revised, together with other UAE local and central government organisations. This has dramatically impacted on ADP who are now working on strategy and structure at a whole new level. The implications of the findings in this report should be seen in this context with several developments in the

wider society assisting to development and further reform police practice. In the light of this backdrop, there are a number of implications for the police derived directly from this research. Some of these have been previously touched upon. In this section, the most important of these, from a research perspective, will be detailed in the following.

One of the findings in the research, with direct implications for ADP, is the importance of having a clearly defined strategy which acts as one of the main drivers for modernising ADP. A strategy which is clear on strategic priorities and objectives is very important. In the ADP case, we have seen how a clear organisational strategy and clear understanding of how to implement the strategy has led to a positive change to the entire organisation. Thus, at the outset of the ADP change programme, the police relied on senior police leaders to implement projects effectively to effect change. This illustrates the necessity of having a well planned and implemented strategy. If the strategic intention is not carefully planned and implemented, then the organisation will risk going in a different direction.

A change management strategy which sets direction in regards to how senior police leaders handle transition and a strategy that is known and communicated to senior police leaders is a key factor. The implications for police leadership also includes the need to be aware of the synergy and overall strategic direction the UAE government has played in fostering the need for ADP to adopt its change strategy.

With these lessons and taking account of the geopolitical position of Abu Dhabi and other experiences from the change process, which have been discussed throughout the research, it is clear that a specific change management strategy is essential in times of a changing society. An UAE police strategy must link to the UAE government strategy and vice versa if it is to be successful.

A strategy for how to manage and lead the organisation through transformation which acknowledges the specific Arab organisational character of the police is also very important.

The implications, described above, have implications for the senior police leaders in ADP. It is crucial to use the unique character and resources of the police organisation, as laid out in the thesis. Human capital in the police is its strongest resource which has enabled the police to succeed up until the time of the reform in spite of bureaucratic governance structures. This research shows the key role senior police leaders play and points to perhaps paying more attention to this category of leaders if further crucial change is to be made to ADP in the years ahead.

Another implication for ADP relates to police culture. Culture should be acknowledged and utilised in a constructive manner and used as an essential driver in reaching the organisational goals. This way, the essence of the police organisation is set on the

agenda, which enables executive police leaders and senior police leaders, who are aware of local culture, to work with other police staff in a conducive environment and culture.

Wasta also emerged as a significant concern within ADP. The findings point to a need to eradicate the negative aspects of *wasta*. An action point for this issue is the proposal to introduce a Code of Conduct to the ADP (See Appendix I).

The research also examined senior police leaders and their various roles together with the criteria for selection and for promotion to executive police leadership. The research has implications for the expansion and content of the criteria for selection which includes statecraft as a possible competency.

The police in ADP are becoming more pragmatic and aware of their leadership style and approach, preferring to use a situational leadership style. This is caused by many factors including a more professional leadership training programme which offers various leadership styles to senior police leaders. However, there is no one generic leadership style endorsed by ADP albeit that situational leadership prevails within the ranks of senior police leaders. This is a clear finding in the current study and implies further research is required into leadership style which in turn has possible implications for police leadership training and development.

These aspects with an increased focus on leadership and change management along with a sharper focus on utilising the character of each have implications for the police. These two elements call for further research and an examination of leadership styles; an acknowledgement of culture; added attention to leadership development; and a much better understanding of statecraft and its relationship between police and the government and external stakeholders, to ensure participation and discretion for the police to set strategy and direction which can in turn can improve police services as stated in the ADP mission statement.

Not only can the findings of this research have direct implications for general policing practice but the findings can have some relevance to other organisations, especially other police organisations.

Contribution to police leadership practice in this research comes with a caution. The findings of this research may serve as inspiration for police generally as well as leadership practice in other organisations other than ADP. However, by pointing to certain findings in favour of others there is a risk that a practitioner disregards findings which may be of more relevance to a given organisation. It is therefore important that regard for the local context be taken cognisance of when making comparisons. The latter is a point which can be exemplified when other police forces have adopted other organisations policies and procedures which rely on organisational context which differ

from those of another police organisations. The results in the past have been problematic. It stands to reason that any one organisations contribution to policing or leadership practice can be said not to apply generically to all organisations.

6.14 Contributions and implications for change management practice in ADP and other organisations.

Based on the current thesis and mindful of the above caution a number of more specific contributions to change management practice can be given.

An important contribution to change management practice from the current research is the necessity of working strategically. Change should be part of the overall strategy of the organisation and aligned with its aims and objectives.

An explanation for changing the organisation is that the environment and society is changing. Thus, when the organisation is faced with both internal and external challenges and pressures, a strategy is necessary in order to set direction in the organisation and to influence the external environment. A change management strategy should be seen to be top down with the executive leaders being visible in support of any change strategy. This is certainly the case with ADP.

The content of this research points to the fact and endorses that a change management strategy should identify the role of leaders and the skills and competencies to effect change.

As discussed in previous chapters, organisational character and specifically culture is often seen as a liability in terms of change management. An approach which acknowledges and treats the organisational character and culture as an essential asset rather than a liability is valuable in both the implementation phase as well as in the new organisational setting. This has been the case with ADP which acknowledges its organisational character and culture.

The contributions described above are relevant to ADP. However, other organisations facing rapid change may wish to consider the relevance of ADP in relation to their own organisation. This comes with certain caveats and cautions when comparing organisations.

The final point with regards contributions and implications to practice, specifically regards public organisations like ADP which serves its citizens with a public service, is that the

senior leaders and top management in these institutions should be aware of politics and be adept at statecraft. Such leaders of public organisations may be subject to politically decided governmental decisions on reform which in turn are normally implemented in organisations by their leadership. The experience of senior police leaders at a time of reform and change may have some relevance to other public organisations. Again this assumption comes with a caution when organisational leaders make comparisons with other organisational leaders from another entity; not are all organisations are identical and direct comparisons can be problematic.

6.15 Conclusion

Prior to the commencement in 2004 of the ADP change programme; most changes within ADP were discussed at a strategic level and at government level. In addition pre 2004 most reform and change analyses had been conducted by external consultants and people from outside the ADP focusing on what to change. Therefore, an organisation like ADP had to supplement these analyses with its own perspectives and knowledge of its organisational character, culture, and values in order to ensure that the organisational resources buy-in and are utilised in the implementation of the reform. In 2004 ADP created its own Strategy Department and learning from its past experience began to own and drive its own strategy using Emirati police officers and its own staff, rather than external consultants. Today in 2015 ADP runs its own change management programme building on its past experience and world best practice to effect change. Furthermore, it is the responsibility of senior leaders and the top management within ADP to assess and analyse what is expected from a modern police service, especially from the public and government. This research has shown that political awareness and statecraft are seen as essential criteria for senior police leaders and executive police leaders and their discussions with external entities and government itself.

With change in any organisation, there should be an evaluation of what are the demands on the leaders and staff who have to implement new operational, procedural and technological aspects of change management. These new operational, procedural and technological aspects of change management require that personnel and especially senior leaders, as exemplified by the ADP senior police leaders, have the qualifications and competencies needed to make the newly introduced practices work. Competency development, training, culture, development of staff and in general people aspects requires attention during change and therefore these aspects are interrelated and proven to be of uttermost importance in change management in ADP.

The results of the study support the hypothesis that change management within ADP has been largely effective and has led to better outcomes for the citizens of Abu Dhabi. The results of the literature review, pilot study and primary research give support to the hypothesis. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings have also been

discussed and they generally highlight that change management within ADP has been generally positive, albeit, recommendations for improvement have been given which could further enhance change management and other areas within ADP.

Finally, with any change to a public service organisation it is important to never forget the general public and it is perhaps fitting to note that it is the perception of senior police leaders that the main benefactor of the past decade of change and reform within ADP are the citizens of Abu Dhabi.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 'A'

POLICE OFFICERS IN UNIFORM.

(Photographs courtesy of Security Media Department, Abu Dhabi Police).

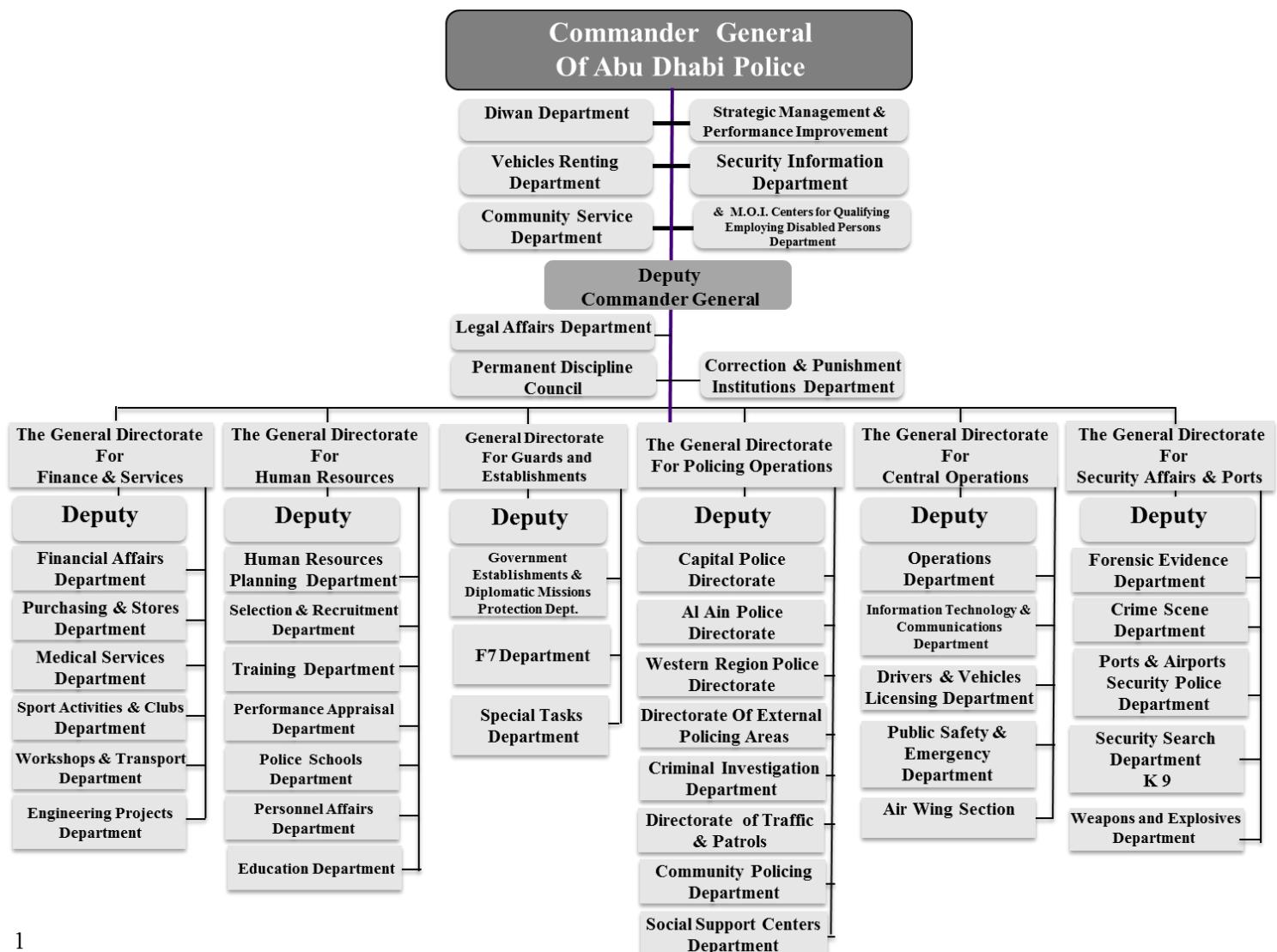
Abu Dhabi Police officer in uniform in the year 2013



Abu Dhabi Police officers in uniform circa 1971

APPENDIX 'B'

ABU DHABI POLICE ORGANISATIONAL CHART



APPENDIX 'C'

POLICE RANKS

	فريـق Lt. General		فريـق أول General
	عمـيد Brigadier		لـواء Major General
	مـقدم Lt. Colonel		عـيدـنـتـ Colonel
	نـقـيـبـ Captain		رـانـدـ Major
	مـلاـزمـ Lieutenant		مـلاـزمـ أـولـ 1st. Lieutenant
	مسـاعـدـ Warrant Officer		مسـاعـدـ أـولـ 1st. Warrant Officer
	رـقـيـبـ Sergeant		رـقـيـبـ أـولـ 1st. Sergeant
	شرـطـيـ أـولـ 1st. Policeman		عـرـيفـ Corporal
			شرـطـيـ Policeman
	القيادة العامة لشرطة أبوظبي Abu Dhabi Police GHQ.		www.adpolice.gov.ae

APPENDIX 'D'

NPIA PERSONAL QUALITIES / COMPETENCIES



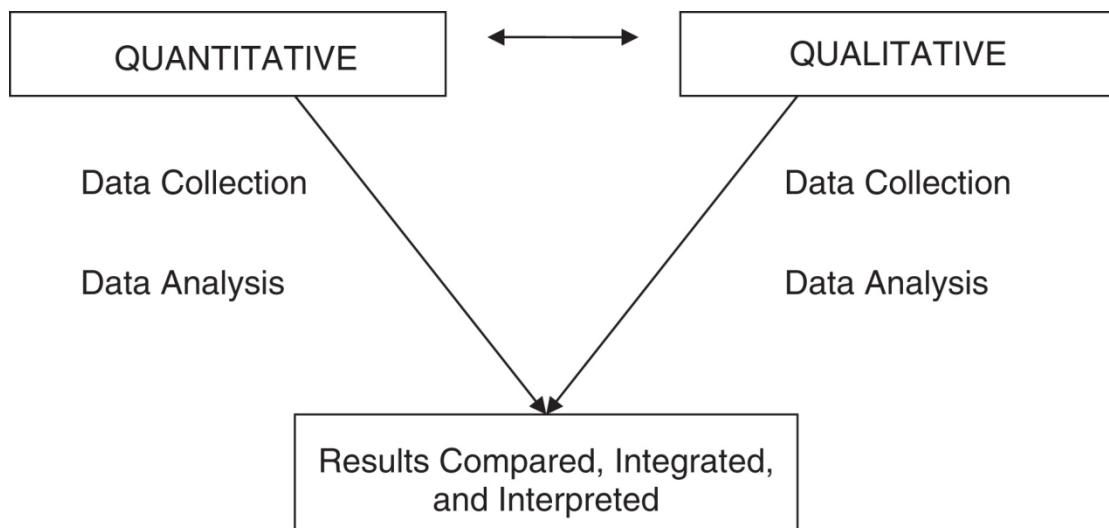
Personal Qualities / Competencies

- Serving the public
- Leading change
- Leading people
- Managing Performance
- Professionalism
- Decision making
- Working with others

www.npia.police.uk

APPENDIX 'E'

MIXED METHOD SEQUENTIAL EXPLORATORY DESIGN APPROACH



(Adopted from Creswell, J.W. 2012)

APPENDIX 'F'

INTERVIEW PROCESS

Process

This meeting will take about 35 to 45 minutes. During the meeting I will ask your views on leadership and change management within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP). You have been asked to take part because you are a Head of Department and are regarded to be an expert, based on your position and experience in policing. The meeting itself is composed of seven sections: 1) demographics, 2) interpreting police leadership, 3) self reflection on police leadership , 4) the recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others, 5) role and link between senior leadership and project execution, 6) leadership style and competencies in project management, and 7) working environment.

Introductory Remarks

The questions I will ask you will be related to your own police leadership history. Also you will have encounters and direct exposure to the 'executive police leadership' of ADP which is of interest to this research.

I would appreciate it if you would answer them as openly as possible, and I may take some notes during the interview. If you do not want to respond any of the questions, please just let me know and I will move on to the next question. If this is agreeable to you we will move onto the next question. Thank you for your permission and we will now start.

With your kind permission we will commence with the questions.

1) Demographics.

To start this meeting, please answer the following:

Age:

Rank:

Educational Achievement(s):

Years of service:

Years as a senior police leader:

2) Determining Police Leadership.

I will now be looking at how you personally define leadership and particularly police leadership.

- a.** Please explain whether or not, within ADP, there is or should be a shared definition of police leadership?
- b.** Please explain whether or not, within ADP, there is or should be a shared definition of police leadership? How do you define police leadership?
- c.** Please discuss whether explanations of leadership from other areas, such as business enterprises, are useful in the policing context?

3) Self Reflection on Police Leadership.

The concept that I would like to move to is self reflection.

- a.** How do you consider you were chosen for senior police leadership?
- b.** Who identified you as a senior police leader?
- c.** When in your career did this senior police leadership identification happen?
- d.** What situations were you involved in when you were recognised as having senior police leadership ability?

4) Recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others.

I will now be looking at how you identify those who you think have senior police leadership potential.

- a.** Tell me about a time when you discovered junior police officers with potential for senior police leadership?
- b.** What was it about the context that made this identification of senior police leadership potential possible?

- c. Describe a time when you identified a senior police leader with potential for higher executive police leadership?
- d. What was it about the context that made this identification of executive police leadership potential possible?

5) Role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution.

I would like to explore the linkage between senior police leadership, change management, projects and their importance.

- a. How effective is executive police leadership support in the execution of projects?
- b. How important is the role of the senior police leader in project execution?
- c. What is the most important aspect of project execution?
- d. What are the links between senior police leaders and other staff in project execution?
- e. How important are projects in relation to change management?
- f. Are projects the main tool for change management in ADP?

6) Leadership style and competencies in project management.

I would like to ask a few questions about the relationship between leaders, competencies and projects.

- a. What is the ADP senior police leadership style used in project management?
- b. What are the main competencies required by senior police leaders when involved in project management?
- c. Is a special type of competency required by a senior police leader to successfully complete a project?
- d. What is the predominant leadership style of senior police leaders when not conducting projects?
- e. Is 'Statecraft' used in ADP?

7) Working environment.

In this final theme I will be exploring the ADP working environment which includes its culture.

- a.** Describe the ADP working environment in general terms.
- b.** How appropriate is the working environment in which projects are executed?
- c.** Is the ADP culture conducive to change management?
- d.** Are there any barriers to change management in ADP?
- e.** Tell me about the politics at the upper level of police leadership?

Ending.

Many thanks for participating in this meeting. The results will be processed and used in the next stage of this research.

Major Bashar Badran Alkaraeen

February 2014. V20 1.12.14

APPENDIX 'G'

QUESTIONNAIRE

Survey Introduction and Consent

Dear fellow colleague,

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire to assist me in my doctoral research focusing on leadership within Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) and in particular senior police leadership in relation to change management. This research has been previously approved by ADP. Your participation will benefit policing in general and in particular ADP. Participation in this questionnaire is voluntary and you may withdraw your consent at any time. If you do submit your questionnaire and choose to withdraw at a later time, the submitted data will be included in the aggregate analyses.

This questionnaire should take approximately 25-30 minutes to complete. By returning your questionnaire, you are formally consenting to participate and your answers will be anonymously tabulated within the results. This data will be stored electronically for two years and then destroyed. The data will be used in completing my doctoral thesis. The questions posed in this survey were created, in part, from the analyses of a series of face-to-face interviews that occurred with a number of Heads of Department in ADP which occurred earlier in 2014. You have been selected to participate in this research because you are a Head of Department and hold the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier in ADP and as such, considered a '**senior police leader**' and also a subject matter expert. This research has also been approved by the University of East Anglia, UK. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this research, please contact me, Major Bashar at 050 4447455 or e-mail basharbadran@hotmail.com

Study Purpose

Before starting the questionnaire, there are some further details that will assist with the completion of the questionnaire.

There are specific purposes for this research which include:-

To investigate the factors that promotes or hinders change management and project success in ADP;

To evaluate and analyse the role played by leadership in project execution;

To evaluate and analyse the link between leadership at all levels in change management;

To identify effective leadership styles and competencies in ADP; and

To make recommendations for the enhancement of effective and efficient leadership.

For the purposes of this research questionnaire, the following brief definitions apply:

'Senior police leader' is defined as, a police officer employed by ADP and has reached the rank of Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel or Brigadier and is also a Head of Department.

'Head of Department' has the same definition as 'senior police leader' and both are interchangeable.

'Executive police leader' is defined as, a police officer above the rank of Brigadier.

'Wasta' is defined as, favouritism, which is an attempt to use the influence of relatives or acquaintances to achieve certain objectives (Urban Dictionary, 2006).

'Statecraft' is defined as, the art of conducting public affairs: statesmanship (Collins Dictionary 10thEd. 2009).

This survey is arranged into seven sections:

1. demographics,
2. determining police leadership,
3. self reflection on police leadership,
4. recognition of senior police leadership qualities in others,
5. role and link between senior police leadership, change management and project execution,
6. leadership styles and competencies in project management,
7. working environment.

Thank you

Major Bashar Badran Alkaraeen

1 December 2014.

Section 1

Demographics

I would like to ask you the following questions to get a picture of the demographic of how you became a senior police leader in Abu Dhabi Police (ADP).

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.

Years of Service

Q1. How many years have you worked as a police officer?

- 0-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- 21-25 years
- 26-30 years
- 31-35 years
- 36-40 years
- 41-45 years

AGE

Q2. What is your age?

- 18-24
- 25-30
- 31-35
- 36-40
- 41-45

46-50

51-55

56-60

61-65

66-70

RANK

Q3. What is your rank?

Lieutenant Colonel

Colonel

Brigadier

Gender

Q4. What is your gender?

Male

Female

Education

Q5. What is your highest academic qualification?

High School Certificate

College Diploma

Undergraduate University Degree

Master's Degree

Doctoral Degree

Senior Police Leadership Service

Q6. How many years have you served as a senior police leader?

Answer

- 1 year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years
- 5 years
- 6 years
- 7 years
- 8 years
- 9 years
- 10 and more years

Section 2.

Determining Police Leadership.

Section 2 focuses on certain indicators of potential and certain definitions relating to leadership.

The focus of this question (Q7) is to assess the early identifiers or indicators of potential in Deputy Heads of Department or other commissioned officers for advancement to senior police leader.

Q7. Commissioned officers with senior police leader potential have certain qualities. Please give a numeric score to these qualities.

(1 represents an extremely unfavorable opinion, and 11 represents an extremely favourable opinion (1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 -)

QUALITIES	SCORE 1 to 11 in the undernoted box
Foresight 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Solid operational skills 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Makes ethical decisions 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accountability 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Honest 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Predictable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Common sense 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Logic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Organisational supportive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Approachable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Preparedness 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vision 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Higher level thinker 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Creativity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Caring 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Empathetic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Takes responsibility 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Integrity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Respectful 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dynamic	<input type="checkbox"/>

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	
Sincerity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Polite 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Passionate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Self-reflective 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Desire to influence 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enthusiastic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Selflessness 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Politically astute 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work ethic 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Self-aware 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diligent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good communicator 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Dreamer 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Willingness to learn 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flexible 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Well versed 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Team builder 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Business acumen 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Initiative beyond years of service 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Quality in work 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Career, not a job 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Trustworthy	<input type="checkbox"/>

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	
Has 'wasta' 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competent in project management 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Is focused on outcomes 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>
Has 'statecraft' 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11	<input type="checkbox"/>

A number of Heads of Department were asked questions about police leadership and two themes emerged from the responses which have been arranged into two broad headings;

(a) common definition concerns

and

(b) the application of business leadership definitions within policing.

Common Definition Concerns

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q8. There should be a shared definition of police leadership in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q9. Differences in communities within Abu Dhabi Emirate prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q10. The leadership profile of a senior police leader should suit the community they serve.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q11. Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q12. I find it easy to define police leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Application Of Business Leadership Definitions

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q13. Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q14. Police experience is essential for future police leaders.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q15. Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q16. Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q17. There are no differences on how the Western world and the Arab world see and define leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Section 3

Self Reflection on Police Leadership.

A number of Heads of Department in ADP were interviewed and asked to describe their own leadership journey. As a result of the analyses of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; **opportunities, self-identification, mentorship, and timing**.

Please indicate in the following questions your level of agreement with the following statements.

Opportunities

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q18. Potential senior police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q19. Opportunities provided by Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) allow for the identification of early senior police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q20. Investigations are the best place where potential senior police	<input type="checkbox"/>				

leaders can display potential for senior police leadership.					
Q21. Successes within special projects allow senior police leaders with executive leadership potential to be noticed.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q22. Effective leadership qualities is the reason for promotion to Head of Department.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q23. 'Wasta' is the main reason why police officers are promoted to Head of Department.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Self- Identification

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q24. Police officers self- identify their own potential for senior police leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q25. Self-directing your own career is indicative of senior police leader potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q26. The police organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q27. A senior police leader is responsible for his or her advancement.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Mentorship

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q28. I was formally mentored to become a senior police leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q29. I was not mentored to become a senior police leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q30. All of my formal and informal mentors were other police officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q31. ADP has a formal mentorship program for senior police leaders.					
Q32. Personal relationships with police executive leaders played an important role in my leadership journey.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Timing

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q33. Timing played an important role in my leadership identification to Head of Department	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q34. When few promotional opportunities are available, the potential for senior police leadership identification is reduced.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q35. Short outside opportunities are useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in senior police officers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q36. Opportunities to display senior police leadership potential is within my own control and timing.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q37. Senior police leaders have the opportunity to display "Statecraft".	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q38. Promotion to the executive police leadership is well defined.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Section 4

Recognition of Senior and Executive Police Leadership in Others

A number of Heads of Department in ADP were asked several questions in an effort to describe how they identified senior and executive police leadership potential of police officers. As a result of the analyses of those interviews, several broad themes emerged and have been arranged into the following headings; **attitudinal potential**, **strategic potential**, and **demonstrated leadership potential**. Questions were also asked about **visceral responses** or gut feelings in the early identification of senior and executive police leadership potential. Several questions have been asked below to assist in the validation of those responses.

Attitudinal Potential

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Q39. Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential are community service oriented and give back to the community.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q40. Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q41. Selflessness demonstrates the potential for executive police leadership.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q42. The ADP performance appraisals (HOPAS) can evaluate senior police leaders effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q43. Teaching the appropriate attitude to other senior police leaders is difficult.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Strategic Potential

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q44. Junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q45. Big picture thinking is indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q46. Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of senior police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Demonstrated Leadership Potential

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q47. High performance as a senior police leader demonstrates executive police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q48. Establishing your reputation early is an important step in demonstrating executive police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q49. Doing things for the organisation and being proactive demonstrates executive police leadership potential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q50. ADP has a responsibility to create opportunities to allow senior police leaders to succeed.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q51. The "wasta" of a senior police leader promotes unfairness in promotional processes.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q52. "Wasta" is present at all levels of the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
--	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

Q53. I agree that visceral or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential for senior police leaders.

Yes

No

If you answered yes to the above question, please answer the following question.

In the following question please respond if you agree that you perceive visceral or gut feelings in the following contextual situations or through your observations of other senior police leaders.

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q54. When a senior police leader demonstrate charisma.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q55. When I sense that the senior police leader has a significant trait.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q56. When a senior police leader displays trustworthiness.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q57. When a senior police leader displays command presence.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q58. When a senior police leader demonstrates self- confidence.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q59. When a senior police leader displays "statecraft".	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Visceral Responses

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q60. Visceral responses or gut feelings are perceived when I observe or interact with other senior police leaders .	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q61. Likeability of a senior police leader has something to do with gut feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q62. Executive police leaders gravitate to senior police leaders who they believe they can trust.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q63. Visceral responses or gut feelings are nearly always proven correct.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q64. How important is the use of visceral or gut feelings in the identification of executive police leadership potential in senior police leaders?

Very Important	<input type="checkbox"/>
Important	<input type="checkbox"/>
Neutral	<input type="checkbox"/>
Somewhat Important	<input type="checkbox"/>
Not at all Important	<input type="checkbox"/>
N/A	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section 5

Role and link between Leadership, Change Management and Project Execution

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) operate at any given time one or more projects in each Department of ADP. At interview a number of Heads of Department indicated that projects and other related matters were relevant to leaders. The questions that follow will assist to validate this position.

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q65. Senior police leaders are usually put in charge of projects.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q66. Senior police leaders are held responsible for the success or failure of projects.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q67. Senior police leaders do not always know their role in project management.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q68. A successful project leads to a positive change in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q69. A team approach is the best way to manage a project.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q70. All members of an ADP project team know their role.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q71. Managing projects is a high priority for the senior police leaders of ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q72. ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Section 6

Leadership Styles, Competencies and Project Management

This section relates to the leadership element of project management and other related issues.

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q73. Senior police leadership style in project management does not matter.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q74. Abu Dhabi Police does not have one officially approved style of management.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q75. Executive police leaders interfere with the senior police leaders management of projects.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q76. All senior police leaders have the correct competencies to lead	<input type="checkbox"/>				

during change management.					
Q77. More training is required to ensure that senior police leaders manage projects professionally.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q78. It is important to know ADP politics in order to have a successful outcome.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q79. "Statecraft" is an essential competence of a senior police leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q80. "Statecraft" is an essential competence of an executive police leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

The ADP leadership course curriculum includes seven common leadership styles to study. These leadership styles are:

1. **Authoritarian**
2. **Paternalistic**
3. **Democratic**
4. **Laissez-faire**
5. **Transactional**
6. **Transformational**
7. **Situational**

Please indicate, in your opinion, which leadership style is most commonly used by the senior police leaders in ADP.

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q81. Authoritarian leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q82. Paternalistic leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q83. Democratic leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q84. Laissez-faire leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q85. Transactional leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q86. Transformational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q87. Situational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Q88. None of the above leadership styles listed above is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Q89. If none of the above leadership styles are the most commonly used in ADP, please enter details of the most common style here:

ADP has 5 leadership competences for senior police leaders in ADP which were developed by Mercer in 2014. The competencies are:

Strategic Thinking

People Leadership

Influencing Others

Decision Making

Credibility

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q90. The ADP leadership competencies are reflective of the competencies used by senior police leaders.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q91. Other competencies need to be included in the ADP senior leadership competencies.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Q92. Can you suggest other competencies that should be included in the ADP leadership competencies? If so please enter details here:

Section 7

Working Environments

When a number of Heads of Department were interviewed the working environment and other related issues were mentioned. These issues have been included in the underlined questions.

Please, select an answer to the questions hereunder by placing an 'X' in the appropriate box.					
Indicator	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q93. The prevailing ADP culture affects my leadership style.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q94. The prevailing ADP culture is totally different to a Western police culture.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q95. The prevailing ADP culture is open to change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q96. ADP reflects the changes happening currently within society in Abu Dhabi Emirate.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q97. The UAE government has been the main driver for change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q98. The ADP Mission Statement and Strategy has been the main driver for change.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q99. Senior police leaders and executive police leaders must be politically astute to be successful.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Q100. The Abu Dhabi communities have benefitted from the changes to ADP.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

ANY OTHER COMMENTS:

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

Please return, **before the 21 December 2014**, the completed questionnaire in the addressed envelope which has been provided.

V20 1.12.14

APPENDIX 'H'

Minitab 17 Statistical Analyses Report (v11 25.1.15)



Chart 1: Question 1 - Years of Service in the Police

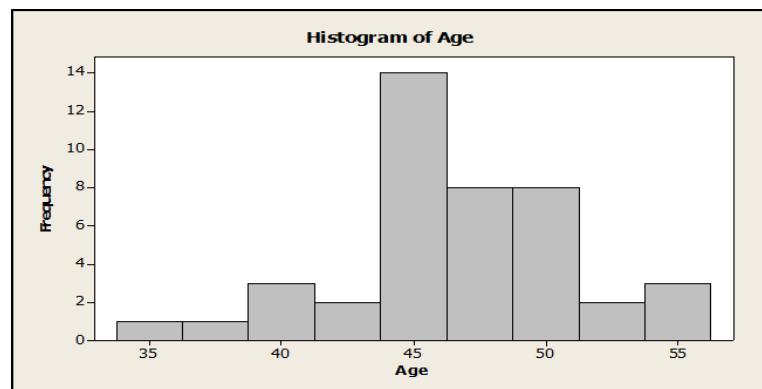


Chart 2: Question 2 - Age

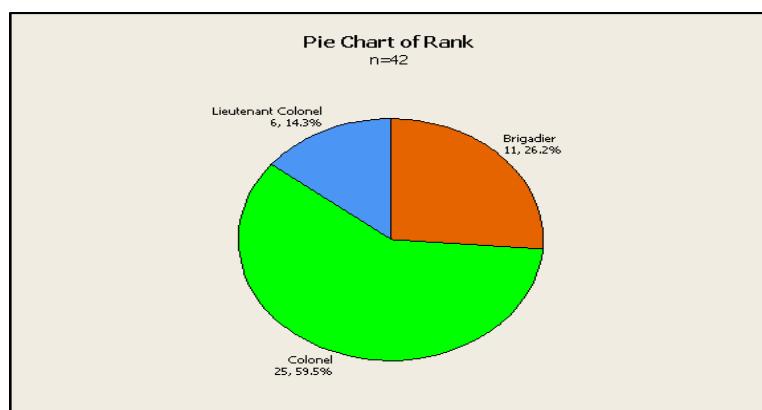


Chart 3: Question 3 – Rank

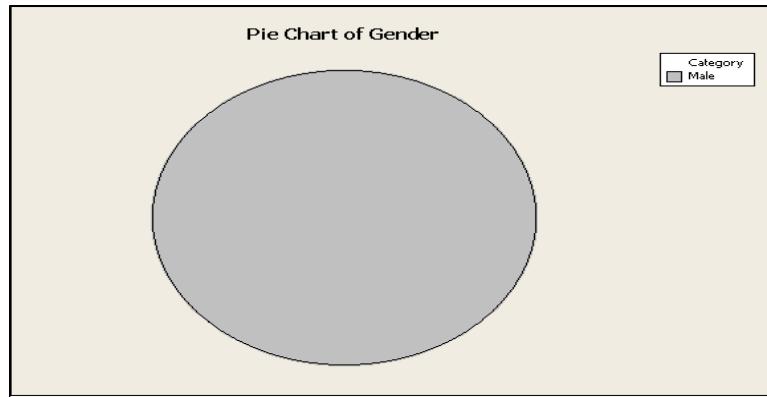


Chart 4: Question 4 - Gender

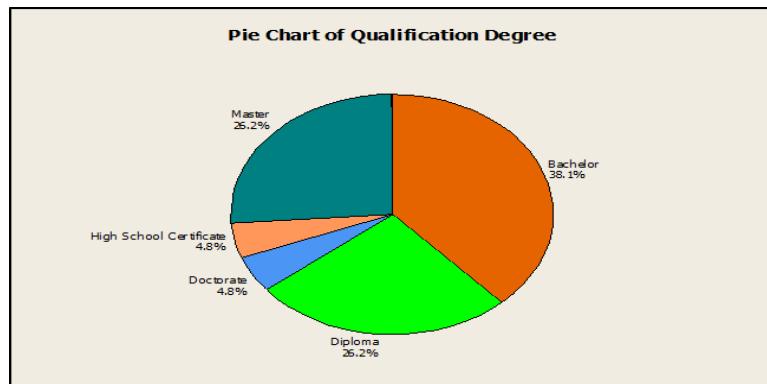


Chart 5: Question 5 - Education



Chart 6: Question 6 – Senior Police Leadership Service

Policing & None Policing					
Leadership Qualities	Average	Median	Q1	Q3	IQR
Honest	10.76	11	11	11	0
Respectful	10.50	11	10	11	1
Integrity	10.40	11	10	11	1
Trustworthy	10.29	10	10	11	1
Good communicator	10.26	11	9	11	2
Common Sense	10.05	10	10	11	1
Polite	9.52	9	9	10	1
Politically astute	9.52	9	9	10	1
Business acumen	9.50	10	8	11	3
Makes ethical decisions	9.43	9.5	9	10	1
Competent in Project Management	9.17	9	8	10	2
Has Statecraft	9.07	9	8	10	2
Career, not a job	9.05	9	8	10	2
Logic	8.93	8	8	10	2
Takes responsibility	8.88	9	8	10	2
Solid operational skills	8.76	9	8	9.75	1.75
Higher level thinker	8.71	9	8	9	1
Flexible	8.62	9	7	10	3
Quality in work	8.55	9	8	9	1
Team builder	8.50	9	7	10	3
Foresight	8.31	8	7	9	2
Vision	8.07	8	7	9	2
Accountability	7.83	8	7	9	2
Work ethic	7.67	8	7	8	1
Enthusiastic	7.62	8	7	8	1
Is focused on out come	7.55	7	7	8	1
Preparedness	7.50	8	6	9	3
Caring	7.43	8	6	9	3
Diligent	7.43	7.5	7	8	1
Approachable	7.12	7	6	8	2
Predictable	6.81	7	6	7.75	1.75
Organizationally supportive	6.71	7	5	8	3
Willingness to learn	6.62	6.5	6	7	1
Dynamic	6.38	7	5	7	2
Well versed	6.17	6	5	7	2
Self-Aware	5.79	6	5	6.75	1.75
Empathetic	5.74	6	5	7	2
Sincerity	5.52	5.5	5	6	1
Creativity	5.38	5	4	6.75	2.75
Passionate	4.81	5	4	6	2
Selflessness	4.50	4.5	3	6	3
Self-reflective	4.43	4	3.25	5	1.75
Initiative beyond years of service	4.31	4	4	5	1
Dreamer	4.05	4	3.25	5	1.75
Desire to influence	3.33	3	3	4	1
Has 'wasta'	1.10	1	1	1	0

Table 7: Question 7 – Indicators of Potential

APPENDIX 'H'

		Q8	Q8	Q9	Q9	Q10	Q10
LikertScale	Likert Scale Description	There should be a shared definition of police leaders hip in ADP.	There should be a shared definition of police leaders hip in ADP.	Differences in communities within Abu Dhabi Emirate prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition	Differences in communities within Abu Dhabi Emirate prohibit the use of a common police leadership definition	The leadership profile of a senior police leader should suit the community they serve	The leadership profile of a senior police leader should suit the community they serve
1	Strongly Agree	0	0%	0	0%	15	36%
2	Agree	21	50%	12	29%	12	29%
3	Neutral	12	29%	9	21%	8	19%
4	Disagree	9	21%	21	50%	7	17%
5	Strongly Disagree	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 8 to 10

Q11	Q11	Q12	Q12	Q13	Q13	Q14	Q14	Q15	Q15
Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership	Describing an excellent police leader is easier than defining police leadership	I find it easy to define police leadership	I find it easy to define police leadership	Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership	Definitions of leadership from the business sector are applicable to police leadership	Police experience is essential for future police leaders	Police experience is essential for future police leaders	Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions	Police leadership really isn't much different than other leadership definitions
0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	12	29%	0	0%
22	52%	7	17%	4	10%	26	62%	3	7%
9	21%	7	17%	14	33%	3	7%	12	29%
4	10%	12	29%	16	38%	0	0%	18	43%
7	17%	15	37%	6	14%	1	2%	9	21%

Question 11 to 15

Q16	Q16	Q17	Q17	Q18	Q18	Q19	Q19	Q20	Q20
Current police leadership definitions will quickly become out of date	Current police leadership	There are no differences on how the western world and the Arab world see and define leadership	There are no differences on how the western world and the Arab world see and define leadership	Potential senior police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities	Potential senior police leaders display their potential for leadership through self-initiated opportunities	Opportunities provided by Abu Dhabi police (ADP) allow for the identification of early senior police leadership potential	Opportunities provided by Abu Dhabi police (ADP) allow for the identification of early senior police leadership potential	Investigations are the best place where potential senior police leaders can display potential for senior police leadership	Investigations are the best place where potential senior police leaders can display potential for senior police leadership
0	0%	0	0%	6	14%	6	14%	0	0%
4	10%	4	10%	21	50%	24	57%	8	19%
26	62%	14	33%	15	36%	12	29%	8	19%
12	29%	19	45%	0	0%	0	0%	14	33%
0	0%	5	12%	0	0%	0	0%	12	29%

Question 16 to 20

Q21	Q21	Q22	Q22	Q23	Q23	Q24	Q24	Q25	Q25
Successes within special projects allow senior police leaders with executive leadership potential to be noticed	Successes within special projects	Effective leadership qualities is the reason for promotion to Head of Department	Effective leadership qualities is the reason for promotion to Head of Department	'Wasta' is the main reason why police officers are promoted to Head of Department	'Wasta' is the main reason why police officers are promoted to Head of Department	Police officers self-identify their own potential for senior police leadership	Police officers self-identify their own potential for senior police leadership	Self-directing your own career is indicative of senior police leader potential	Self-directing your own career is indicative of senior police leader potential
4	10%	3	7%	0	0%	2	5%	2	5%
21	50%	21	50%	0	0%	10	24%	11	26%
12	29%	9	21%	0	0%	10	24%	11	26%
5	12%	7	17%	9	21%	19	45%	18	43%
0	0%	2	5%	33	79%	1	2%	0	0%

Question 21 to 25

Q26	Q26	Q27	Q27	Q28	Q28	Q29	Q29	Q30	Q30
The police organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement	The police organisation is responsible for a senior police leader's advancement	A senior police leader is responsible for his or her advancement	A senior police leader is responsible for his or her advancement	I was formally mentored to become a senior police leader	I was formally mentored to become a senior police leader	I was not mentored to become a senior police leader	I was not mentored to become a senior police leader	All of my formal and informal mentors were other law enforcement professionals	All of my formal and informal mentors were other law enforcement professionals
0	0%	2	5%	3	7%	2	5%	2	5%
23	55%	10	24%	10	24%	13	31%	8	19%
9	21%	8	19%	17	40%	14	33%	23	55%
8	19%	22	52%	11	26%	11	26%	9	21%
2	5%	0	0%	1	2%	2	5%	0	0%

Question 26 to 30

Q31	Q31	Q32	Q32	Q33	Q33	Q34	Q34	Q35	Q35
ADP has a formal mentorship program for senior police leaders	ADP has a formal mentorship program for senior police leaders	Personal relationships with police executive leaders played an important role in my leadership journey	Personal relationships with police executive leaders played an important role in my leadership journey	Timing played an important role in my leadership identification to Head of Department	Timing played an important role in my leadership identification to Head of Department	When few promotional opportunities are available, the potential for senior police leadership identification is reduced	When few promotional opportunities are available, the potential for senior police leadership identification is reduced	Short outside opportunities are useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in senior police officers	Short outside opportunities are useful in assisting with the identification of leadership potential in senior police officers
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
2	5%	0	0%	14	33%	8	19%	4	10%
31	74%	0	0%	20	48%	23	55%	9	21%
9	21%	4	10%	8	19%	11	26%	26	62%
0	0%	38	90%	0	0%	0	0%	3	7%

Question 31 to 35

Q36	Q36	Q37	Q37	Q38	Q38	Q39	Q39	Q40	Q40
Opportunities to display senior police leadership potential is within my own control and timing	Opportunities to display senior police leadership potential is within my own control and timing	Senior police leaders have the opportunity to display "Statecraft".	Senior police leaders have the opportunity to display "Statecraft".	The Promotion process to an executive police leadership position is well defined	The Promotion process to an executive police leadership position is well defined	Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential are community service oriented and give back to the community	Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential are community service oriented and give back to the community	Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers	Senior police leaders with executive police leadership potential display an appropriate mind set early on in their careers
0	0%	0	0%	35	83%	18	43%	3	7%
23	55%	21	50%	7	17%	19	45%	24	57%
6	14%	10	24%	0	0%	0	0%	7	17%
13	31%	10	24%	0	0%	0	0%	8	19%
0	0%	1	2%	0	0%	5	12%	0	0%

Question 36 to 40

Q41	Q41	Q42	Q42	Q43	Q43	Q44	Q44	Q45	Q45
Selflessness demonstrates the potential for executive police leadership	Selflessness demonstrates the potential for executive police leadership	The ADP performance appraisals (HOPAS) can evaluate senior police leaders effectively	The ADP performance appraisals (HOPAS) can evaluate senior police leaders effectively	Teaching the appropriate attitude to other senior police leaders is difficult	Teaching the appropriate attitude to other senior police leaders is difficult	Junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement	Junior police officers with leadership potential understand the organisational mission statement	Big picture thinking is indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential	Big picture thinking is indicative of a senior police leader with executive police leadership potential
28	67%	0	0%	2	5%	4	10%	0	0%
13	31%	19	45%	24	57%	29	69%	20	48%
1	2%	5	12%	2	5%	6	14%	3	7%
0	0%	18	43%	13	31%	3	7%	19	45%
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 41 to 45

Q46	Q46	Q47	Q47	Q48	Q48	Q49	Q49	Q50	Q50
Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of senior police leadership potential	Knowing how your behaviour affects others is indicative of senior police leadership potential	High performance as a senior police leader demonstrates executive police leadership potential	High performance as a senior police leader demonstrates executive police leadership potential	Establishing your reputation early is an important step in demonstrating executive police leadership potential	Establishing your reputation early is an important step in demonstrating executive police leadership potential	Doing things for the organisation and being proactive demonstrates executive police leadership potential	Doing things for the organisation and being proactive demonstrates executive police leadership potential	ADP has a responsibility to create opportunities to allow senior police leaders to succeed	ADP has a responsibility to create opportunities to allow senior police leaders to succeed
0	0%	6	14%	0	0%	24	57%	8	19%
24	57%	23	55%	24	57%	15	36%	21	50%
4	10%	6	14%	4	10%	3	7%	13	31%
14	33%	7	17%	14	33%	0	0%	0	0%
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 46 to 50

Q51	Q51	Q52	Q52	Q53	Q54	Q55
The "wasta" of a senior police leader promotes unfairness in promotional processes	The "wasta" of a senior police leader promotes unfairness in promotional processes	"Wasta" is present at all levels of the organisation	"Wasta" is present at all levels of the organisation	I agree that visceral or gut feelings are considered when assessing potential for senior police leaders	When a senior police leader demonstrate charisma	When I sense that the senior police leader has a significant trait
30	71%	0	0%	9	0	0
12	29%	0	0%	0	5	6
0	0%	0	0%	0	4	3
0	0%	5	12%	0	0	0
0	0%	37	88%	0	0	0

Question 51 to 55

Q56	Q57	Q58	Q59	Q60
When a senior police leader displays trustworthiness	When a senior police leader displays command presence	When a senior police leader demonstrates self- confidence	When a senior police leader displays "statecraft".	Visceral responses or gut feelings are perceived when I observe or interact with other senior police leaders
0	2	3	7	0
4	2	3	1	0
5	5	3	1	2
0	0	0	0	7
0	0	0	0	0

Question 56 to 60

Q61	Q62	Q63	Q64	Q65	Q65
Likeability of a senior police leader has something to do with gut feelings	Executive police leaders gravitate to senior police leaders who they believe they can trust	Visceral responses or gut feelings are nearly always proven correct	How important is the use of visceral or gut feelings in the identification of executive police leadership potential in senior police leaders?	Senior police leaders are usually put in charge of projects	Senior police leaders are usually put in charge of projects
0	5	1	1	2	5%
0	3	5	3	27	64%
1	1	3	4	5	12%
8	0	0	1	8	19%
0	0	0	0	0	0%

Question 61 to 65

Question 66 to 70

Q66	Q66	Q67	Q67	Q68	Q68	Q69	Q69	Q70	Q70
Senior police leaders are held responsible for the success or failure of projects	Senior police leaders are held responsible for the success or failure of projects	Senior police leaders do not always know their role in project management	Senior police leaders do not always know their role in project management	A successful project leads to a positive change in the organisation	A successful project leads to a positive change in the organisation	A team approach is the best way to manage a project	A team approach is the best way to manage a project	All members of an ADP team know their role	All members of an ADP team know their role
2	5%	0	0%	1	2%	3	7%	1	2%
30	71%	20	48%	25	60%	26	62%	10	24%
6	14%	2	5%	9	21%	10	24%	1	2%
4	10%	20	48%	7	17%	3	7%	29	69%
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Q71	Q71	Q72	Q72	Q73	Q73	Q74	Q74	Q75	Q75
Managing projects is a high priority for the senior police leaders of ADP	Managing projects is a main tool in its change management project	ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project	ADP use projects as the main tool in its change management project	Senior police leadersh ip style in project does not matter	Senior police leadersh ip style in project does not matter	Abu Dhabi Police does not have one style of management	Abu Dhabi Police does not have one style of management	Executive police leaders interfere with the senior police leader's management of projects.	Executive police leaders interfere with the senior police leader's management of projects.
5	12%	1	2%	0	0%	5	12%	0	0%
29	69%	29	69%	10	24%	5	12%	11	26%
5	12%	4	10%	3	7%	10	24%	14	33%
2	5%	8	19%	29	69%	9	21%	15	36%
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	13	31%	0	0%

Question 71 to 75

Q76	Q76	Q77	Q77	Q78	Q78	Q79	Q79	Q80	Q80
All senior police leaders have the correct competencies to lead during change management	All senior police leaders is required to ensure that senior police leaders manage projects professionally	More training is required to ensure that senior police leaders manage projects professionally	More training is required to ensure that senior police leaders manage projects professionally	It is important to know ADP politic s in order to have a successsful outcome	It is important to have a successsful outcome	"Statecraft" is essential to police leadership	"Statecraft" is essential to police leadership	"Statecraft" is an essential executive police leader	"Statecraft" is an essential executive police leader
3	7%	0	0%	0	0%	2	5%	0	0%
19	45%	25	60%	17	40%	22	52%	30	71%
2	5%	5	12%	8	19%	10	24%	6	14%
16	38%	12	29%	17	40%	8	19%	6	14%
2	5%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 76 to 80

Q81	Q81	Q82	Q82	Q83	Q83	Q84	Q84	Q85	Q85
Authoritarian leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Authoritarian leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Paternalistic leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Paternalistic leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Democratic leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Democratic leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Laissez-faire leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Laissez-faire leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Transnational leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Transnational leadership is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP
4	10%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
4	10%	7	17%	2	5%	0	0%	18	43%
4	10%	5	12%	8	19%	0	0%	5	12%
18	43%	30	71%	30	71%	30	71%	19	45%
12	29%	0	0%	2	5%	12	29%	0	0%

Question 81 to 85

Q86	Q86	Q87	Q87	Q88	Q88	Q89	Q90	Q90
Transformational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Transformational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Situational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	Situational leadership style is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	None of the above leadership styles listed above is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	None of the above leadership styles listed above is the most common leadership style used by senior police leaders in ADP	If None of the above leadership styles are the most commonly used in AD, please enter details of the most common styles here	The ADP leadership competencies are reflective of the competencies used by senior police leaders	The ADP leadership competencies are reflective of the competencies used by senior police leaders
0	0%	1	2%	0	0%	Nil	0	0%
16	38%	34	81%	4	10%		21	50%
6	14%	2	5%	3	7%		4	10%
20	48%	5	12%	35	83%		17	40%
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%		0	0%

Question 86 to 90

Q91	Q91	Q92	Q93	Q93	Q94	Q94	Q95	Q95
Other competencies need to be included in the ADP senior leadership competencies	Other competencies need to be included in the ADP senior leadership competencies	Can you suggest other competencies that should be included in the ADP leadership competencies? If so please enter details here	The prevailing ADP culture affects my leadership style	The prevailing ADP culture affects my leadership style	The prevailing ADP culture is totally different to a Western police culture	The prevailing ADP culture is totally different to a Western police culture	The prevailing ADP culture is open to change	The prevailing ADP culture is open to change
0	0%	Statecraft (3)	4	10%	4	10%	0	0%
19	45%	Community Competency (1)	29	69%	27	64%	22	52%
3	7%	Information Technology (1)	4	10%	6	14%	2	5%
20	48%		5	12%	5	12%	18	43%
0	0%		0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 91 to 95

Q96	Q96	Q97	Q97	Q98	Q98	Q99	Q99	Q100	Q100
ADP reflects the changes happening currently within society in Abu Dhabi Emirate	ADP reflects the changes happening currently within society in Abu Dhabi Emirate	The UAE government has been the main driver for change	The UAE government has been the main driver for change	The ADP Mission Statement and Strategy has been the main driver for change	The ADP Mission Statement and Strategy has been the main driver for change	Senior police leaders and executive police leaders must be politically astute to be successful	Senior police leaders and executive police leaders must be politically astute to be successful	The Abu Dhabi communities have benefitted from the changes to ADP	The Abu Dhabi communities have benefitted from the changes to ADP
0	0%	33	79%	2	5%	18	43%	5	12%
30	71%	9	21%	24	57%	24	57%	34	81%
2	5%	0	0%	7	17%	0	0%	3	7%
10	24%	0	0%	8	19%	0	0%	0	0%
0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%

Question 96 to 100

APPENDIX 'I'

ACTION POINTS

Abu Dhabi Police (ADP) subscribes to the philosophy of action research and rapid action. In keeping with this philosophy, this research has highlighted a number of action points that ADP could consider for rapid action, viz:

Action Point 1

The research data indicated that senior police leaders did not always know their role in project management. This issue is addressed here at Action Point 1: it is proposed that further additional project management training be provided to senior police officers.

Action Point 2

The research highlighted the issue of *wasta* and the findings of the research have resulted in an Action Point to negate the negative aspects of *wasta*. Hence, Action Point 2: it is proposed that a Code of Conduct be introduced to ADP together with an equality audit in recruitment.

Action Point 3

A high proportion of senior police leaders were unaware of the ADP formal mentoring program for senior police officers. Based in this, it is proposed at Action Point 3: that ADP takes further steps to market and communicate the existence of its mentoring programme.

Action Point 4

The research, and in particular the literature review data, highlights that on 9 June 2015 the Abu Dhabi Systems and Information Centre (ADSIC) launched its directive and strategy of 2015 for Abu Dhabi entities to utilise social media to achieve excellence in government services. It is proposed that ADP embrace social media to

complement the change management programme of ADP in compliance with the directive and in keeping with good practice.

The above Action Points do not detract from the recommendations contained in the main body of the research. Such recommendations are primarily further research recommendations which are regarded as being separate to the rapid action philosophy of ADP, which arguably only requires limited research.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abu Dhabi Police Statistics, 2014. *Briefing Paper - Human Resources Planning* Department. Unpublished.

Adebayo, D. (2005). 'Perceived workplace fairness, transformational leadership and motivations in the Nigeria Police: implications for change'. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, Vol. 7(2), 110-122.

Allen, G. & Dempsey, N. (2016) *Briefing Paper: Police Service Strength*. London: House of Commons Library.

Althusser, L. (2006). *Philosophy of the Encounter: Later Writings, 1978-1987*. New York: Verso.

Althusser, L. (1994). Ideology and the Ideological State Apparatuses (Notes Towards an Investigation). In *Mapping Ideology*, Sisek, S., pp. 100-40. New York: Verso.

Amaratunga, D. and Baldry, D. (2001). Case study methodology as a means of theory building: Performance measurement in facilities management organisations. *Work Study*, 50(3), 95-104.

Anderson, T. D. (2000). *Every officer is a leader: Transforming leadership in police, justice and public safety*. Florida: St. Lucie Press.

Anthony J.D. (2002). *The United Arab Emirates; Dynamics of State Formation*. Abu Dhabi: ECSSR.

Austria. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2011) *Handbook on police accountability, oversight and integrity*. Vienna: United Nations.

Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O. and Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60, 421-449.

Bak, N. (2004). Completing your thesis. A practical guide. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Baldwin, D. A. (1985). *Economic Statecraft*. New York: Princeton University Press.

Baldwin, D. A. (1996). 'Security Studies and the End of the Cold War'. *World Politics*, 48 (1), pp. 117- 141.

Baldwin, D. A. (1997). 'The Concept of Security' . *Review of International Studies*, 23(1), pp. 5-26.

Baldwin, D.A. (1971). 'The Power of Positive Sanctions'. *World Politics*, 24(1), pp.19-38.

Balfour-Paul, G. (1974). *The End of Empire in the Middle East: Britain's Relinquishment of Power in Her Last Three Arab Dependencies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bass, B. (1990a). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990b). 'From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision'. *Organisational Dynamics*, 18 (3), 19-31.

Bayley, D. H. (2006) *Changing the Guard: Developing Democratic Police Abroad*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Beaton. L. (1972). *The Reform of Power: A Proposal for an International Security System*. London: Chatto and Windus.

Begley, T. M., Lee, C., Fang, Y. & Li, J. (2002). Power Distance as a Moderator of the Relationship between Justice and Employee Outcomes in a Sample of Chinese Employees. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 17, 8, 692-711.

Bennis, W.G. and Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charges*. New York: HarperCollins.

Blake, R.R. and Moulton, 1.S. (1964). *The managerial grid*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.

Blanchard, K. and Johnson, S. (2004). *The one minute manager*. London : HarperCollins.

Blondel, J. (1987). *Political Leadership: Towards a General Analysis*. London: Sage.

Bock, P. and Berkowits, M., (1966). 'The Emerging Field of National Security'. *World Politics*, 19(1) (Oct, 1966), pp.122-136. Available at http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/National_Security.aspx (Accessed: 1 January 2013).

Brief, A., Aldag, R., Russell, C. and Rude, D.(1981). 'Leader Behaviour in a Police Organisation Revisited'. *Human Relations*, Vol. 34(12), 1037-1051.

Bulpitt, J. (1983). *Territory and Power in the United Kingdom*, Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Bulpitt, J. (1986). *The Discipline of the New Democracy: Mrs. Thatcher's Domestic Statecraft*. *Political Studies*, 34(1), 19-39.

Bulpitt, J. (1988). "Rational Politicians and Conservative Statecraft in the Open Polity". In P. Byrd (ed.) *British Foreign Policy Under Thatcher*. London: Phillip Allan.

Bulpitt, J. (1989). 'Walking Back To Happiness? Conservative Party Governments and Elected Local Authorities in the 1980s'. In C. Crouch and D. Marquand (eds.), *The New Centralism*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bulpitt, J. (1995). 'Historical Politics: macro, in-time, governing regime analysis'. In J. Lovenduski and J. Stanyer (eds.), *Contemporary Political Studies Vol II*. Belfast: Political Studies Association.

Bulpitt, J. (1996) "The European Question". In D. Marquand & A. Seldon (eds), *The Ideas That Shaped Post-War Britain*. London: Fontana.

Busan, B. (1991a). *New Patterns of Global Security in the Twenty-First Century*. *International Affairs*, 67(3), pp.431-451. Available at: <http://xa.yimg.com/kq/groups/21842315/132824106/name/%EE%80%80BUSAN%EE%80%81-1991.pdf> (Accessed: 1 January 2013).

Busan. B. (1991b). *People, States and Fear: An Agenda for International Security Studies in the Post-Cold War Era* (2nd ed.). Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Busan. B., Waever, O. and de Wilde. J. (1998). *Security: A New Framework for Analysis*. Boulder: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Casimir, G. and Waldman, D. A. (2007). A Cross Cultural Comparison of the Importance of Leadership Traits for Effective Low-level and High-level Leaders: Australia and China. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, Vol. 7, 1,47-60.

Centrex (Central Police Training and Development Authority). (2006). *Leading for those we serve, The police leadership qualities framework*. Leadership Academy of Policing: Bramshill, Hampshire.

Chow, C. W., Shields, M. D. and Wu, A. (1999). The Importance of National Culture in the design of and Preference for Management Controls for Multi-National Operations *Accounting, Organisations and Society*, Vol. 24, 5, 441- 461.

Coates, K. (2011). "Bahrain's uncertain future". *Foreign Policy*. Available http://mideast.foreignpolicy.com/posts/2011/11/23/bahrain_s_uncertain_future (Accessed 6 September 2013).

Cohen, W.A. (2004). *The art of the strategist. 10 Essential principles for leading your company to victory*. New York: AMACOM American Management Association.

Compagnie Francaise D'assurance Pour Le Commerce Exterieur (COFACE) (French Export Agency)bulletin of 28 August 2013.

Congressional Research Service (CRS) Report for Congress, "The United Arab Emirates (UAE): Issues for U.S. Policy" RS21852, 20 August 2013 p4. Available at: <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/mideast/RS21852.pdf> . Accessed on 7 September 2013.

Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Densten, I.(1999). 'Senior Australian Law Enforcement Leadership Under Examination' *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, Vol. 22 (1),47-57.

Devitt, K. (2008). *Going for gold: A Study on Effective Strategic Leadership in Multi-Agency Major Incident Response Team.*, PhD thesis, University of Portsmouth.

Dobby, J., Anscombe, J., Tuffin, R. (2004). 'Police leadership: Expectations and impact' . London: Home Office Research, Development & Statistics Directorate.

Dooley, L., Lupton, G., and O'Sullivan, D. (2005). Multiple project management a modern competitive necessity. *Journal of Manufacturing Technology Management*, 16(5), 466-482.

Dorfinan, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, I. K., Tate, U. and Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in Western and Asian Countries: Commonalities and Differences and Effective Leadership Processes across Cultures. *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 8, 3, 233-274.

Elgin, R. (1995). Political leadership in liberal democracies. Basingstoke: Macmillan Hounds Mills.

Europol. Available at: www.europol.europa.eu/content/page/about-us (Accessed 28 June 2015)

Eurostat: Crime Statistics, 2014. *Eurostat Statistics Explained*. [Online] http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Crime_statistics . [Accessed 20 April 2016].

Foley, M. (1993). The Rise of the British Presidency. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), Travel Advice for Bahrain. Available at: www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice (Accessed 22 August 2013).

Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), Travel Advice for United Arab Emirates. Available at: www.gov.uk/foreign-travel-advice (Accessed 6 September 2013).

France. Economic Co-operation and Development, OECD DAC (2007) *Handbook on Security System*

Ghauri, P. and Fang, T. (2001). 'Negotiating with the Chinese: A Socio-Cultural Analysis'. *Journal of World Business* . Volume 36, Issue 3, Autumn 2001, Pages 303–325.

Gido, J., & Clements, J.P. (1999). Successful Project Management. Ohio: South-Western College Publishing.

Gramsci , A. 1971. Selections from the Prison Notebooks. New York: International Publishers

Green, J. (2006). 'Executive leadership in American law enforcement: The role of personality in leader effectiveness.' *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*.

Greenstein, P. I. (1988). *Leadership in the Modern Presidency*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Greenstein, P. I. (2000). *The Presidential Difference; Leadership Style from FDR to Clinton*. New York: Free Press.

Greenstein, P. I. (2004). *The Presidential Difference: Leadership Style from F.D.R. to George W. Bush* (2nd ed.). Princeton and Oxford: Princeton University Press.

Haberfeld, M. R. (2006). *Police Leadership*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hartman, A. (2004). *Ruthless execution. What the business leaders do when their companies hit the wall*. New York: Financial Times Prentice-Hall.

Hatry, H.P. (1978). 'The status of productivity measurement in the public sector'. *Public Administration Review*, 38(1), 28-33.

Hawkins, J. and Dulewics, V. (2007). 'The relationship between performance as a leader and emotional intelligence, intellectual and managerial competences,' *Journal of General Management*, Vol. 33(2).

Heard-Bey, F. (1984) *Trucial States to United Arab Emirates: A Society in Transition*. London: Longman.

Helplinlaw: Legal Solutions Worldwide. *Constitution of the UAE*. [Online] <http://www.helplinlaw.com/law/uae/constitution/constitution01.php>. [Accessed 20 April 2016]

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. and Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Herskovits, M. I. (1955). *Cultural Anthropology*. New York: Knopf.

Hirshleifer. J. (2001). *The Dark Side of the Force: Economic Foundations of Conflict Theory*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hitt, M. A., Dacin, M. T., Tyler, B., and Park, D. (1997). 'A Transnational Examination of Strategic Decision Models: Comparison of Korean and U.S. Executives'. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 8,2, 159-167.

Hofstede, O. (1980a). *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values*. Sage: Beverly Hills, CA.

Hofstede, O. (1980b). 'Motivation, Leadership, and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad?' *Organisational Dynamics*, Vol. 9, 1,42-63.

Hofstede, O. (1983). 'Dimensions of National Culture in Fifty Countries and Three Regions'. In J.B. Deregowski, S. Dsiurawiec and R.C. Annis (eds.), *Explications in Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 335-355, Lisse, Netherlands: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Hofstede, O. (1991). *Cultures and Organisations: Software of the Mind*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, O. (2006). 'What Did Globe Really Measure? Researchers' Minds versus Respondents' Minds'. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 37, 882-896.

Hofstede, O. and Bond, M. H. (1984). 'Hofstede's Culture Dimensions: An Independent Validation Using Rokeach's Value Survey'. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 15,4,417-433.

Hofstede, O. and Bond, M. H. (1988). 'The Confucius Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth'. *Organisational Dynamics*, Vol. 16,4,5-21.

Hofstede, O. and McCrae, R. R. (2004). 'Personality and Culture Revisited: Linking Traits and Dimensions of Culture'. *Cross-Cultural Research*, Vol. 38,1,52-88.

Hofstede, O., Bond, M. H. and Luk, C.L. (1993). 'Individual Perceptions of Organisational Cultures: A Methodological Treatise on Levels of Analysis'. *Organisation Studies*, Vol. 14,4,483-503.

Honeyman, V. (2007). Harold Wilson as Measured Using the Greenstein Criteria, PSA Conference, University of Bath, 11-13th April 2007.

House, R. J. (1996). 'Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory'. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 323-352.

Husain M. Al-Baharna. (1975). *The Arabian Gulf states : their legal and political status and their international problems*. Beirut : Librairie du Liban.

Ibn Khaidoon (1982), *Introduction*. Beirut :Lebanese Book Press.

Ibn Mandhoor, (1992), *Lisan Al-Arab* (2nd ed.). Beirut: Arab Heritage Revival Press.

Inglehart, R. (1990). *Culture Shift in Advanced Industrial Society*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Inglehart, R. and Baker, W. E. (2000). 'Modernisation, Cultural Change, and the Persistence of Traditional Values'. *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 65,1,19-51.

Inglehart, R. and Carballo, M. (1997). 'Does Latin America Exist? (And Is There A Confucian Culture?): A Global Analysis Of Cross-Cultural Differences'. *Political Science and Politics*, Vol. 30, 1,34-47.

Javidan, M., House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Hanges, P. 1. and Luque, M. S. D. (2006). 'Conceptualising and Measuring Cultures and Their Consequences: A Comparative Review of Globe's and Hofstede's Approaches'. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 37, 897-914.

Jermier, J. and Berkes, L. (1979). 'Leader Behaviour in a police command bureaucracy: A closer look at the quasi military style' *Administrative Service Quarterly*, Vol. 79, 1-23.

Jordan. A. and Taylor. W.(1999). *American National Security: Policy and Process* (6th ed.). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Kaplinsky, R., McCormick, D. and Morris, M. (2006). 'The Impact of China in Sub-Saharan Africa'. Available at: <http://www.ids.ac.uk/files/Wp291.pdf> (Accessed: 1 January 2013).

Kapstein, E. B. (2002) 'Two Dismal Science are Better Than One - Economics and the Study of National Security: a Review Essay'. *International Security*, 27(3), pp. 158-187.

Kersner, H. (2001). *Project management: A systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling* (7th ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Kersner, H. (2013). *Project management: A systems approach to planning, scheduling, and controlling* (11th ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons

Khaled Ahmad Omar, (1990). *Introduction to the Police Directorate*. Dubai: Police College.

Khedr, A. A. & Alnuaimi, B. (2010) *A Guide to United Arab Emirates Legal System*. [Online] New York. New York University. Available from: www.nyulawglobal.org/globalex/united_arab_emirates.htm. [Accessed: 20 April 2016]

King, A. (1988). Margaret Thatcher as a Political Leader. In R. Skidelsky (Ed.), *Thatcherism*. London: Chatto and Windus.

King, A. (2002). Leaders' Personalities and the Outcomes of Democratic Elections. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Knorr, K. (1977). 'Economic Interdependence and National Security'. *Economic Issues and National Security*, pp.1-18. Lawrence, KS: Allen Press.

Knorr, K.(1975). The Power of Nations: the Political Economy of International Relations. New York: Basic.

Kotter, J.P. (1996). Leading change. A Harvard Business Review Book. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kotter, J.P. (1999). What leaders really do. A Harvard Business Review Book. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kouses, J.M. and Posner, B.S. (2002). The leadership challenge. San Francisco CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Kouses, J. M., & Posner, B. S. (2007). The leadership challenge (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Krasner. S. (1996). The Accomplishment of International Political Economy. In: Smith Steve, Booth Ken and Salewski Marysia (1996) International Theory: Positivism and Beyond. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Krause. P. and Williams. M. C. (1996). 'Broadening the Agenda of Security Studies: Politics and Methods'. Mershon International Studies Quarterly, 40(2), pp.229-54.

Kreitner, R. and Kinicki, A. (2001). Organisational behaviour (5th ed.). Boston: Irwin-McGraw-Hill.

Kuykendall, J. and Unsinger, P.(1982). 'The leadership style of police managers', Journal of Criminal Justice, Vol. 10, 311-321.

Lefley, F. (2004). An assessment of various approaches for evaluating project strategic benefits. Recommending the strategic index. Management Decision, 42(7), 850-862.

Leung, K., Bhagat, R. S., Buchan, N. R., Eres, M. and Gibson, C. B. (2005). Culture and International Business: Recent Advances and Their Implications for Future Research. Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 36, 357-378.

Lewis, J. (2001). Fundamentals of project management (2nd ed.). New York: American Management Association.

Lewis, J.P. (2007). Fundamentals of project management (3rd ed.) New York, NY:American Management Association

Luo, Y. (1999). 'Toward a Conceptual Framework of International Joint Venture Negotiations'. Journal of International Management, Vol. 5,141-165.

Lynch, R. (2000). Corporate strategy (2nd ed.). London: Prentice-Hall.

Lynch, R. (2009). *Corporate strategy*(5 th ed.) Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Lynch, R. (2011). *Strategic strategies for corporate growth and strategy* (4th ed.) Harlow: Financial Times Prentice Hall.

Maravas, A. and Pantouvakis, J.P. (2012). "Project cash flow analysis in the presence of uncertainty in activity duration and cost". *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 30(3), pp. 374-384.

Maravas, A., Pantouvakis, J.P. and Lambropoulos, S. (2012). "Modeling Uncertainty during Cost Benefit Analysis of transportation projects with the aid of Fuzzy Set Theory". *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol.(48, pp. 3661-3670.

Marx, K, and Engels, F. 1977. *The City, the Division of Labour and the Emergence of Capitalism*. In *Third World Urbanisation*, ed. JA Abu-Lughod. New York: Methleen.

Marx, K. 1978. *The Eighteenth Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte*. In *Marx-Engels Reader*, ed. RC Tucker. New York: W.W. Morton & Company.

Matos, S. and Lopes, E. (2013). "Prince2 or PMBOK—a question of choice". Available at: <http://www.sciencedirect.com> . Accessed 7 September 2013).

McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McMillan, E. (2008). Considering organisation structure and design from a complexity paradigm perspective. Retrieved 1 January 2013, from: www.eBookstore.tandf.co.uk .

Meredith, J.R., and Mantel Jr., S.J. (2000). *Project management: A managerial approach* (4th ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Morreale, S.(2003). 'Analysis of perceived leader behaviours in law enforcement agencies,' *Dissertation Abstracts International*. Retrieved 1 January 2013, from: <http://www.getcited.org/pub/103393968>

Motohiro, O. (1995) "Merchants and Ruling Families, Tribal Society and its Change in Abu Dhabi and Dubai Emirates". *Annals of Japan Association for Middle East Studies* 10. p.165–168.

Motohiro, O. (2011) "*Reconsideration of the Meanings of the Tribal Ties in the United Arab Emirates: Abu Dhabi Emirate in Early 90s*". *Kyoto Bulletin of Islamic Area Studies* 4–1 (2). p.25–34.

Muageb Moadi Al Utaibi, (1996), *Police and Human Rights in the Islamic Police*, General Secretariat of Arab Ministers of Interior. Tunis: Ministry of Interior.

Murphy, A. and Ledwith, A. (2007). 'Project management tools and techniques in high technology SMEs'. *Management Research News*, 30(2), 153-166.

Murphy, C. (1999). The Current and Future State of Police of Police Research and Policy in Canada. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 41, (2), 205-215.

Nesadurai. H. (2004). 'Introduction: Economic Security, Globalisation and Governance'. *The Pacific Review*, 17(4), pp. 459-484.

Ng, S. 1., Lee, J. A. and Soutar, G. N. (2007). 'Are Hofstede's And Schwartz's Value Frameworks Cogruent?'. *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 24, 2, 164-180.

Ng, S. H., Hossain, A., Ball, P., Bond, M. H., Hayashi, K., Lim, S. P., O'driscoll, M. P., Sinha, D. and Yang, K. S. (1982). Human Values in Nine Countries. In Rath, R, Asthana, H.S., Sinha, D, Sinha, J.B.P (eds), *Diversity and Unity in Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 196-205, Lisse: Swets and Seitlinger

Norris, W. (2009). "Thinking Clearly About China's Economic Statecraft," *Precis* available at:

http://web.mit.edu/cis/pdf/precis/2009spring/china_economic_statecraft.pdf (Accessed 1 January 2013)

Nye, J. S. and Lynn-Jones, S.,(1988) 'International Security Studies: A Report of a Conference on the State of the Field'. *International Security* 12(4), pp. 5-27.

Nye, J.S., (1971). *Peace in Paris*. Boston: Little Brown.

Onwuegbusie, A.J., and Leech, N.L. (2007). 'Validity and qualitative research: An oxymoron? *Quality and Quantity*. Vol. 41,233-249.

Peterson, J. E. (1986). *Defending Arabia*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Peterson, J.E. (1991). "The Arabian Peninsula in Modern Times: A Historiographical Survey". In *American Historical Review*, Vol.96.

Picard, L.A. and Garity, M. (1995). Development management in Africa. In P. Fitzgerald, A McLennan, B. Munslow. (Eds.), *Managing Sustainable Development* (pp. 72-85). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

PMBOK Guide. (2000). *A guide to the project management body of knowledge* (2000 ed.) Pennsylvania: Project Management Institute, Inc.

PMBOK Guide. (2013). *A guide to the project management body of knowledge* (5th ed.). Pennsylvania: Project Management Institute, Inc.

Police Magazine 999 (2012), 'Strategy'. Ministry of Interior Police Magazine, February 2012 Issue (492), Abu Dhabi: Ministry of Interior.

PROjMAN - International Conference on Project Management held in Lisbon, Portugal, 2013. Available at: <http://www.icprojman.org>. Accessed 7 September 2013.

Ralston, D. A., Holt, D. H., Terpstra, R. H. and Kai-Cheng, Y. (1997). 'The Impact of National Culture and Economic Ideology on Managerial Work Values: A Study of the United States, Russia, Japan, and China'. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 28, 177-207.

Reform: Supporting Security and Justice. Paris: OECD.

Report of the Bahrain Independent Commission of Inquiry (BICI), 2011, page 298

Rogers, A. (2001). *A 360 Degree Evaluation of Leadership Competencies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Our Lady of the Lake University, San Antonio, Texas.

Romm, J. (1993). Defining National Security: the Non-military Aspects. New York: Council on Foreign Relations Press.

Rothschild, E., (1995). 'What is Security?'. *The Quest for World Order* (summer, 1995), pp.53-98.

Sabah, M. A. M. (2013) *UAE Company Law and Practice*, 5th ed. London: Wildy and Son.

Sakr, M.A.A. (2005) *The Courts System in the UAE*. Liberty magazine, Issue 03, March 2005.

Server, M. (2008). 'Leadership and effectiveness: An examination of the leadership styles of Texas police chiefs and the correlates of the most effective leaders'. Texas: Sam Houston State University.

Schafer, J. A. (2009). Developing effective leadership in policing: Perils, pitfalls and paths forward. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 32(2), 238-260.

Schwarzwald, J. Koslowsky, M., Agassi, V. (2001). 'Captain's leadership type and police officers: compliance to power bases'. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, Vol. 10, 273 - 290.

Schwartz, S. H. & Sagiv, L. (1995). Identifying Culture-Specifics in the Content and

Silva, K. (2004). 'A validation of the competencies of senior leadership in law enforcements' Ph: D. Thesis, San Diego: Alliant International University.

Singelis, T. M. (1994). 'The Measurement of Independent and Interdependent Self-Construal's'. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 20, 5, 580-591.

Singer, M. and Jonas, A. (1987). 'Perceived Leadership Style in the New Zealand Police' *Police Studies*, Vol. 10 (3), 118-121.

Spires, D.N. (2011) United Arab Emirates (UAE): Federal Research Study and Country Profile. Washington: Progressive Management.

Standish Group International, Inc. (1995). The Chaos Report. 1-8. Retrieved 1 January 2013 from: <http://net.educause.edu/ir/library/pdf/NCP08083B.pdf>

Standish Group International, Inc. (2011). The Chaos Report. Retrieved 5 September 2012 , from : <http://www.standishgroup.com>.

Steenkamp, J.B.E.M. and Trijp, H.C.M.V. (1991). 'The Use of LISREL in Validating Marketing Constructs'. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 8, 283-299.

Sterling, J. (2003). 'Translating strategy into effective implementation: Dispelling the myths and highlighting what works'. *Strategy and Leadership*, 31 (3), 27-34.

Steyn, P. (1999). Managing organisations through projects and programmes: The modern general management approach. Retrieved 5 September 2012, from <http://www.apmp.co.za>

Stid, D., & Bradach, J. (2009). 'How visionary non profits leaders are learning to enhance management capabilities'. *Strategy and Leadership*, 37(1), 35-40.

Tabellini, G. (2004). 'The role of the state in economic development'. Working paper Number 265. IGIER: SA: Bocconi University.

Theakston, K. (2007). What Makes for an Effective Prime Minister. *Quaderni Di Scienza*, 39-61.

Theakston, K. and Gill, M. (2006). Ranking 20th Century British Prime Ministers. The British Journal of Politics & International Relations Volume 8, Issue 2, pages 193–213, May 2006

Triandis, H. C. (1995). Individualism and Collectivism. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R. and Villareal, M. (1988). 'Individualism and Collectivism: Cross-Cultural Perspectives on Self-In-group Relationships'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 54, 2, 323-338.

Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R. et al. (1986). 'The Measurement of the Ethnic Aspects of Individualism and Collectivism across Cultures'. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 38, 3, 257-67.

Tse, D. K., Lee, K.H., Vertinsky, L. and Wehrung, D. A. (1988). 'Does Culture Matter? A Cross-Cultural Study of Executives" Choice, Decisiveness, and Risk Adjustment in International Marketing'. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 52, 4, 81-96.

U.S. Department of State Background Note. Available at:
<http://www.infoplease.com/country/profiles/united-arab-emirates.html> (Accessed 24.4.13).

UAE Government Strategy 2011-2013. Available at:
<http://www.uaecabinet.ae/English/Documents/PMO%20StrategyDocEngFinV2.pdf>
(Accessed 24.4.13)

United Arab Emirates. Federal Research Division (2010) *United Arab Emirates: A Country Study*. Whitefish: Kessinger Publishing.

Watkins, M. (2003). The first 90 days. Critical success strategies for new leaders at all levels. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Weiss, C. (2004). 'Police leadership competencies: A multi-rater validation study' Ph: D. Thesis, San Diego: Alliant International University.

Yehia Al-Moalami (1982), Police in Islam and its development in the 14th century, Riyadh: Okas Press.

Yukl, G. (2002). Leadership in Organisations, Boston, MA: Pearson Custom Publishing

Yukl, G. (2006). Leadership in Organisations (6th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall

Zahlan, R. S. (1978) *The Origin of the United Arab Emirates*. New York: St. Martin's Press.