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Leading change: Adopting a transformational approach to leadership within the Internal Security Forces of Lebanon, enabling a community based style of policing.

Kevin Michael Smith

The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Doctor of Criminal Justice of the University of Portsmouth

Dedication

To my wife Alison and our children Sarah, William and Anna, for all your unwavering support during a challenging career involving much separation.

Declaration

I confirm that, except where indicated through the proper use of citations and references, this is my own original work. Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

Signed:

Kevin Smith

30 September 2019

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List of Abbreviations

BPST	British Policing Support Team
CLT	Culturally Endorsed Leadership Theory
DG	Director General
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILT	Implicit Leadership Theory
INLEA	International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs
ISF	Internal Security Forces
LCF	Leadership Competency Framework
LDM	Lebanese Decision-Making Model
Lt	Lieutenant
M and E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MOI	Ministry of the Interior
NCO	Non-Commissioned Officer
NDM	National Decision-Making Model
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OCD	Organisational Change Development
PPP	Pilot Policing Project
PR	Public Relations
PSNI	Police Service of Northern Ireland
RUC	Royal Ulster Constabulary

SFCG	Search for Common Ground
SLC	Senior Leadership Course
SNCO	Senior Non-Commissioned Officer
SSR	Security Sector Reform
USA	United States of America

Abstract

The aim of this research is to ascertain whether a Middle Eastern quasi-military organisation with a hierarchical structure and centralised decision-making ethos can change its transactional leadership model to a transformation model that reflects a new community-based style of policing. It examines whether western-developed transformational leadership principles are culturally transferable, and it analyses the methodologies used by both the donor and recipient of the leadership development capacity building programmes.

This research examines the strategies and challenges for introducing a community policing style in the Lebanese Internal Security Forces (ISF), a journey which began in 2013 and continues to the time of writing (Summer, 2019).

It also highlights the necessity to adopt a collaborative participatory active research approach when researching a closed Middle Eastern security organisation where access is difficult, and the motives of researchers can be viewed with the utmost suspicion.

The research examines the literature in relation to culture and highlights the negative effects of an ethnocentric approach to capacity building programmes that fail to give cognisance to culture and context. It suggests that equal partners taking a collaborative approach can successfully adapt western models of transformational leadership and a community policing style to meet the needs of their organisation.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Western scholars have given precedence to certain geographical regions over others, resulting in a dearth of organisational and management literature on the Middle East (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2011). According to Gul et al. (2015), the creation of new knowledge and published research articles from the Middle East is far less than should be expected. This is slowly improving and there have been significant advances in knowledge production in countries such as the UAE and Qatar (Parcero and Ryan 2017). This study of the Internal Security Forces (ISF) of Lebanon will add to the limited knowledge that exists in relation to government security organisations in the Middle East and will build on previous cross-cultural leadership studies such as Hofstede's (1980) 'cultural consequences' and the large-scale GLOBE study where researchers measured culture at different levels of society in relation to both practice and values and how culture is related to societal, organisational and leadership effectiveness. In their discussion of the GLOBE studies of cultural values and leadership, Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) identified Lebanon as aligned to the Arab cluster of countries. Both of these studies will be examined in-depth, but the observation by Hofstede (1980) that ethnocentrism is 'an exaggerated tendency to think that the characteristics of one's group or race are superior to those of other groups or races' will be central to the primary research question relating to the cultural transferability of the principles of transformational leadership.

The motivation for this study comes from the researcher's own experience and observations working on several key capacity building programmes over a 15-year period throughout the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). region. Having witnessed the 'one size fits all' mentality and the ethnocentric approach that was adopted in Iraq following the 2003 war, the author, who served as a senior police officer there for 14 months as a mentor to the Chief of Police in Basra, was keen to examine the cultural implications of such interventions. The author, from his previous experience including working directly for the Qatar Ministry of Interior (MOI) for five years, knows how guarded government institutions can be against outsiders and the prospect of allowing unknown researchers access to their organisation is almost unthinkable. Budwar and Mellahi (2016) highlight the absence of a research culture in Lebanon, where organisations are suspicious of the motives of any outside researcher and how their data will be used and disseminated. The researcher held the position of 'component lead' for the British Police Support Team (BPST) project with the Lebanese ISF from 2016-2019 with responsibility for leadership development, development of scenario-based training, and for the design and delivery of a national community police training curriculum. The

relationships that were established whilst holding that position was key to the access that was afforded to the organisation and its officers, which is central to the success of this research study.

An active research approach was adopted as necessary to conduct any meaningful research in a quasi-military organisation in the Middle East, ensuring that the research process is collaborative, transparent and inclusive. Participatory research is a methodology that argues in favour of the significance, possibility and usefulness of involving research partners in the knowledge-building process (Bergold, 2007). A qualitative research strategy was applied, which is often referred to as interpretive research (Erickson, 1986). The ontological stance is constructionalist, describing outcomes of interactions between individual people (Bryman, 2012). Semi-structured interviews were carried out with 20 high ranking officers in the ISF and four key informants who were able to provide expert information enabling the collection of high-quality data over a relatively short period of time. A significant amount of secondary data was also available to the researcher. Secondary data analysis is described by Johnston (2014) as the analysis of data that has been collected by others for another primary purpose.

The aims of this research were two-fold: to ascertain whether or not a quasi-military police organisation with a hierarchical structure and centralised decision-making ethos can change its transactional leadership style to reflect a new community-based policing style, and to ascertain if the principles of transformational leadership are culturally transferable.

The research identified two key objectives:

1. Is transformational leadership culturally transferable?
2. Can a community-focused problem-solving police-style work in a centralised decision-making structure?

1.1 Structure

Following this introduction, **Chapter 2** positions the research in terms of context and includes the history of the country and the ISF. It also explains the structure of the organisation and the current position in respect of leadership development. **Chapter 3** looks at the existing literature related to culture and the extent to which leadership development is culturally contingent. It closely examines the work of Hofstede and the GLOBE study and examines the literature related to the region in general and Lebanon. **Chapter 4** covers the research methodology and data collection strategy, and **Chapter 5** examines the literature relating to transformational

leadership and the response of the participants from their semi-structured interviews. **Chapter 6** considers the literature relating to community policing and the responses of the participants from their semi-structured interviews. Finally, **Chapter 7** covers the implications arising from the research and what it all means in terms of knowledge generation, providing a summary, recommendations and final comments.

Chapter 2. Context

2.1 Country

Lebanon is situated on the Eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea and is one of the world's smaller countries, with a geographical size approximately half that of Wales. It is the site of some of the oldest settlements in the world, the Phoenician ports of Sidon, Tyre and Byblos having been dominant centres of trade and culture in the 3rd millennium BCE. For at least 8,000 years, its geographical position has allowed it to serve as a very successful trading corridor between Europe, North Africa and the Middle East, thereby fostering an entrepreneurial spirit that is shared by indigenous Christians and Muslims alike (Husseini, 1997).

The present state came into existence in 1920, being administered by France under a League of Nations mandate before becoming a republic in 1926 and then achieving full independence in 1943. Lebanese politics was defined by what was known as the *mithaq al-watani* or national pact between the dominant communities of the day, the Maronite Christians and the Sunni Muslims, and provided the terms of reference for Lebanon's independence (Norton, 2009).

Figure 1. Lebanon

The effects of the French occupation and its rational-legal influences can still be felt today, with an entrenched and cumbersome bureaucracy that pervades and which can only be bypassed or overcome by using *wasta*, one's network of contacts with influential others (Norton, 2000).

As a result of the six-day war in 1967, Israel extended its borders into Egypt, the Golan Heights and Jordan; and as a result, caused the displacement of many Palestinians into Lebanon. In 1975, the Lebanese Civil War is believed to have started as a result of a Christian faction known as the Phalangists, supported at the time by Israel, attacking a bus and killing 27 Palestinians. The next 15 years of civil war resulted in the deaths of approximately 150,000 people, with almost 20,000 killed during the 1982 Israeli bombardment of Beirut. Many Lebanese fled the country during this period and established successful business communities around the world (Asseily and Lawday, 2003).

The ISF's role during the civil war included the maintenance of order and peace, separating belligerent parties, helping civilians, evacuating civilians and collaborating with committees and organisations. In 1989, the Taif Agreement effectively brought an end to the long-running civil war and introduced a political system that ensured stability and democratic representation throughout the country. As a result of the Agreement, the President of Lebanon is a Maronite Christian, the Prime Minister is a Sunni Muslim and the Speaker of the House is a Shia Muslim and this system permeates all government institutions, including the ISF. There are now 18 official religious groups that make up Lebanese society: the major Muslim groups which include the Sunni, Shia and Druze; Christian sects which include Maronite, Greek Orthodox, Greek Catholic, Armenian Orthodox, Armenian Catholic and Protestant populations; and the official minority groups which include Alawites, Ismailis, Chaldeans, Copts, Roman Catholics, Syriac Catholics, Syriac Orthodox and Jews. These sectarian divides have significantly influenced much of modern-day Lebanon's social and political development (Fakhoury, 2014).

In 2005, former Prime Minister Rafik Hariri was assassinated as a result of a car bomb in Beirut and this caused outrage both in Lebanon and on the international stage and resulted in a series of protests which became known as the 'Cedar Revolution'. The United Nations Security Council (UNSC) unanimously adopted UNSC Resolution 1595, which called for an independent investigation into the assassination, the findings of which were published in October 2005 in the Mehlis report. As a result of the report and increased pressure from the

West, Syria started to withdraw its military presence from Lebanon and by April of 2006, all 15,000 uniformed Syrian soldiers had returned to Syria.

The next phase of Lebanon's troubled history began in July 2006 when Hezbollah, operating in the south of the country, captured two Israeli soldiers, leading to a conflict with Israel that was brought to an end in August 2006 by a United Nations ceasefire. The war lasted for 30 days and during this time half the population of northern Israel was displaced (approximately 500,000 people) and over 900,000 people from southern Lebanon were also evacuated. Both sides ended up paying a heavy price for the war; despite the fact that both sides entered the conflict to enhance their credibility and their ability to defeat their enemies, in neither case did they succeed (Norton, 2009).

Although Lebanon shares many of the cultural characteristics of the Arab world including the Arabic language, it has many attributes that differentiate it from other Arab countries. It has been described as a multicultural society forged by the interaction of the Christian West and the Islamic Middle East (Dirani, 2006). Though not blessed with a wealth of natural resources, with its high literacy rates and mercantile nature the country has long established itself as a cultural and commercial centre for the Middle East. The cosmopolitan nature of Lebanese society is demonstrated in a number of ways, particularly in relation to the treatment of women with even the most devout Muslims often dressing in a European style. Lebanese women also have jobs, interact freely with men and are not reluctant to express their opinions in public (Jamali et al., 2006). As in most other parts of the Levant, the Lebanese people accept and are comfortable with charismatic leaders such as the former Prime Minister Rafiq Hariri, and the popular and charismatic Hezbollah leader Hassan Nasrallah (Haydar, 2005).

There are many challenges facing the Lebanese people, including the country's position in relation to Israel and the Palestinian refugees and the pressures on the country resulting from the Syrian conflict from which, according to the UNHCR, over 1 million Syrian refugees are now registered in Lebanon. The sectarian political system, the presence of powerful non-state actors, perennial foreign interventions and interference have resulted in the weakening of Lebanon's formal state institutions and exercise limited effective control in their respective domains (BPST, 2016).

2.2 ISF background

Modern policing was established in Lebanon in 1861 with the creation of a Gendarmerie. The modern-day ISF was formally established in 1953 and by 1959 the first Director General of the

Figure 2. ISF badge

organisation had been appointed. The organisation at that time was made up of three main elements: the Gendarmerie, the Police and General Inspection. The ISF is still influenced by Lebanon's long history of policing, drawing on Ottoman, Arab and European styles. This has left a number of legacies that have fed into the culture of the organisation, described by ISF personnel as militaristic, hierarchical and masculine in nature and to some extent a mirror of national cultural norms. The ISF's quasi-military and masculine culture, the securitised approach to the delivery of policing and significant overlaps with other security providers all underline the difficulty in applying broad community policing principles.

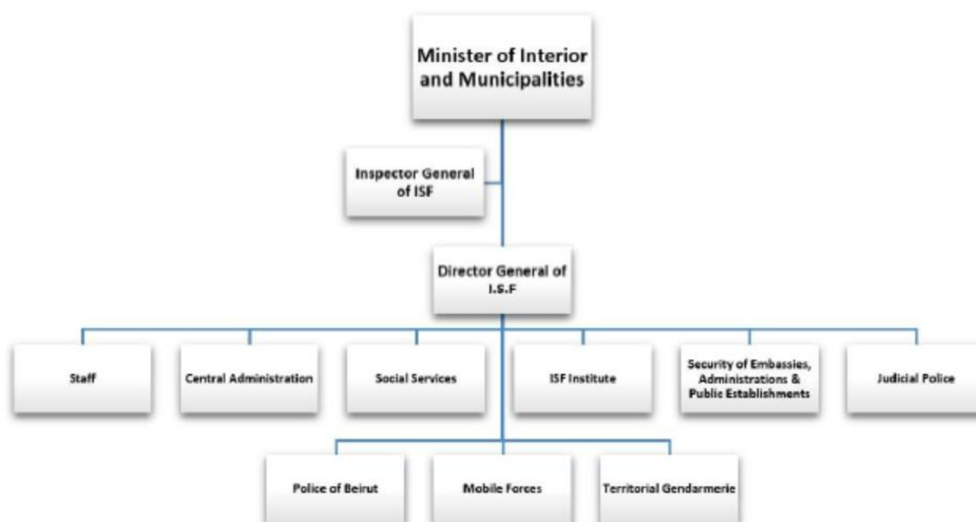
The ISF struggles to portray a culture of 'service' rather than one of 'force', a difficulty which is reinforced by the hierarchical nature of the organisation. This culture is further complicated by the confessional system and an institution that is highly reliant on patronage networks and nepotism (BPST, 2016). According to Nashabe (2009), the Lebanese security apparatus suffers from financial and administrative corruption, poor staff development, poor or inadequate equipment, rivalry, a lack of co-ordination and outdated organisation and regulations. He further highlights that ISF officers are not sufficiently trained in their specialist areas and lack skills, particularly in the area of street patrols, custody work and investigating crimes, and concludes that police training in Lebanon does not reach professional standards.

By November 2016, the ISF had an establishment of 29,902, comprising 28,899 male and 1,003 female officers. The organisation faces challenges in this respect: it is under establishment, has

too few ranked officers (1,325 officers and 60 cadets to 28,517 non-commissioned officers) and women represent under 4%, which is very low for an organisation of this size. The organisation is headed by a Director General and is made up of ten separate units, all reporting directly to the Director General except for the Inspectorate General which reports directly to the Minister of the Interior. The commanders of each unit form the Command Council, which is headed by the Director General and reports directly to the Minister of the Interior.

The current legal basis for the ISF is set out in Law 17, which was passed in 1990 and outlines the organisational structure, regulations and principles of the ISF and defines the core functions, split according to administrative, judicial and other functions. The administrative function includes the maintenance of order and security, protection of persons and property, protection of freedoms and the enforcement of the law. The judicial function requires the ISF to perform judicial police functions; carry out rogatory commissions and writs and to enforce judicial judgements and warrants. Finally, the 'other functions' include assisting other public authorities in discharging their duties, public guard duties, running prisons as and when required, and guarding diplomatic missions. Law 17 also codifies regulations concerning the ISF's definition and function, its structure and the specific function of the Command Council. It also provides general regulations for both officers and non-commissioned officers (NCOs) and provides personnel regulations. The relationship between the ISF and other government authorities is also stated, as are the basic rights and responsibilities of ISF members. In addition to Law 17, Decree number 1157 was approved by the Council of Ministers in 1991 and it sets out in detail the functions of the various ISF Units shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Sections of the ISF



The ISF is headed by a Director General and composed of ten units (see Table 1). This includes six 'frontline units': the Territorial Gendermerie, Mobile Forces, Police of Beirut, Judicial Police, Security of Embassies, Public Administration and Establishments and the ISF Institute. Also included are the Staff and Central Administration Units, which together with the Director General form the Directorate General. Social Services and the Inspectorate General comprise the remaining units. All units report directly to the Director General, with the exception of the Inspectorate General, which reports directly to the Minister of Interior. The commanders of each unit form the Command Council, headed by the Director General and reporting directly to the Minister of Interior.

In addition to the two legal instruments, the ISF Code of Conduct was officially introduced across the ISF in January 2011 and covers the core principles governing the organisation. Although not enacted in law, it is an integral part of the ISF's values, principles and regulations in delivering its mandate.

2.3 International support

The Lebanese ISF has received support from numerous international donors in recent years and one of the most notable donor programmes was the Security and Rule of Law (SAROL) programme delivered by the European Union, which ran from 2008 to 2014. The programme came under the framework of the EU-Lebanon Action Plan jointly agreed by the European Union and the Lebanese Government and adopted in 2007, fostering the professionalisation efforts of the ISF as a legitimate police force respected by all Lebanese citizens (Samaha, 2013). The programme's overall goal was to reform the ISF by providing comprehensive, human rights compliant training packages to ISF trainers so that they could cascade the training to all members of the ISF. The subjects were wide-ranging, including investigation techniques, crime scene examination and self-defence. The main legacy of the programme was the establishment of an ISF trainer capability, which could not only be used to deliver training to the ISF but proved to be an excellent resource to be maximised by future donor capacity building programmes.

The US has also been a significant donor in respect of capacity building programmes with the ISF, primarily delivered through the International Narcotics and Law Enforcement Affairs (INLEA) which is ultimately sponsored by the State Department. The mission started in 2008 and has contributed in excess of $100 million through the provision of infrastructure, vehicles, equipment and training. Their primary focus is on developing training capability in the ISF and

the introduction of a community policing model throughout Lebanon, which they have successfully demonstrated at Achraifia ISF station. In addition to providing training in Lebanon, Lebanese officers have also been afforded the opportunity to go to the USA to receive training, primarily in leadership development.

The UK began its own capacity building programme in 2008 with the overarching goal of strengthening the trust and relationship between the ISF and Lebanese citizens. As a result of a collaborative effort between the Ministry of the Interior, municipalities, the UK and the United Nations Human Rights Office, a Lebanese ISF code of conduct was adopted in 2012 and distributed to all members of the organisation. In addition to the implementation of the code of conduct, the UK-funded ISF PRO programme's mission was to develop a strategic plan, enhance human rights and enhance public outreach. In relation to the strategic plan, the main objective was to encourage the ISF to take ownership of its own strategic direction and to be able to coordinate donor activity and foreign training assistance programmes based on their needs and requirements. The programme was also the first to carry out a public survey, which revealed that only 13% of the Lebanese population fully trusted the ISF in discharging its duties (Samaha, 2013). The introduction of the Senior Leaders Course was also part of the ISF PRO programme, as was the establishment of the Ras Beirut community police station in West Beirut, both of which will receive closer scrutiny later in the thesis.

The British Police Support Team (BPST) project began in 2016, a follow-on from the previous UK-sponsored capacity building programmes with the ISF. Its activities were focused on building public trust and confidence in the ISF by further developing the organisation's strategic planning capability, professionalism, respect for human rights and community engagement. The UK continued to support the key enablers for change in the ISF, providing support to the Inspectorate General, ISF Academy, Mobile Forces and the development and roll-out of a community policing programme (BPST, 2016).

The introduction of community policing in Lebanon began at Ras Beirut station in 2013 as a pilot project. The station was extensively refurbished, creating an appropriate environment for both staff and the public. New staff were recruited following a strict recruitment process and they received extensive training in the principles of community policing and community engagement. The project was delivered through a collaboration between the ISF and the UK and US embassies. The staff and public survey results were very positive following the introduction of the new community policing style and this formed the basis for the extension

of the project to other police stations in Beirut, which was the main thrust of the BPST project of 2016. General Al Hajjar, the Head of the ISF Strategic Planning Team, worked in partnership with the BPST to introduce a community policing style throughout the organisation and the country. From the outset he identified transformational leadership as a key enabler to achieving this objective in order to decentralise decision-making and to change the organisational ethos from militaristic to community focussed

2.4 Leadership development in the ISF

The hierarchical nature of the ISF mirrors many other similar organisations in the Middle East, with a top-down approach that places responsibility with the most senior members in the organisation. This has resulted in 'autocratic decision-making', with the highest-ranking officers taking the majority of decisions, a process reinforced by Article 4 of Law 17, which states that Unit Commanders should answer directly to the Director General and are subject to his authority and they must manage their units in compliance with applicable laws and regulations. The hierarchical culture that pervades the organisation is also reinforced by its military culture (BPST, 2016).

Significant support has been given to the development of a new ISF National Training Academy in Aramoun under the ISF Institute. This is aligned with the drive to promote leadership training and ongoing professionalisation in the ISF, most notably through a revised Senior Leadership Course (SLC). The original SLC began in 2012 and ran for 2 years and was set at three different levels: level 1 for the ranks of General, Colonel and Lt Colonel; level 2 for Majors and Captains; and level 3 for First Lieutenants. The courses were delivered over a 4-day period by a UK police expert who had considerable expertise in the area of leadership development and had extensive experience in delivering leadership training in the Middle East. The courses introduced the principles of transformational leadership and the participants found them to be relevant to their work and transferable to their workplaces. However, at that time many officers believed that factors outside their control such as political interference, scarcity of resources, corruption and other related organisational development issues would prevent or delay any real organisational change (Consultant A).

At the beginning of the BPST project in 2016, General Al Hajjar, Commander of the ISF Academy at Aramoun, informed the BPST Academy component lead that he wanted the leadership principles from the SLC incorporated into the annual Captain to Major promotion course. This course was the only mandated leadership training course in the ISF and only

covered technical skills and regulatory requirements for the rank of Major. The component lead responded positively to this request and the first transformational leadership module was delivered in November 2016 to 25 Captains awaiting promotion to Major. After the successful delivery of the module, the component leads again met with General Al Hajjar and discussed a leadership development strategy for the ISF. It was agreed that it should be a collaborative effort, that the guiding principles would be leadership development, that it should be introduced at all levels of the organisation, and that where possible ISF trainers should deliver the training.

In addition to the transformational leadership principles, there were two key components of the training. The first was the introduction of the Lebanese National Decision-Making (NDM) model, which was based on the UK's NDM. This was particularly significant due to the hierarchical nature of the organisation and lack of a de-centralised decision-making process which had been highlighted in the 2016 strategic review (BPST, 2016). The model was

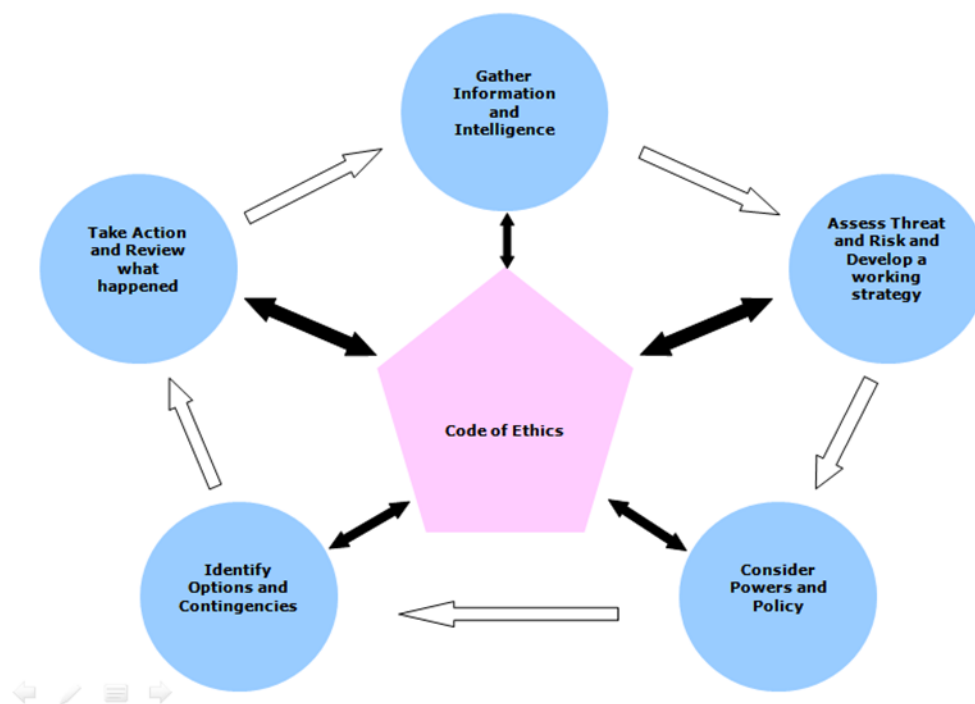


Figure 3. Lebanese national decision making model

presented to the ISF officers during the leadership trainers' workshops and they found it simple to use and easy to teach. Pursuant to the collaborative approach, they were given the opportunity to adapt it to the Lebanese culture and context. The most significant change they made was to put the ISF code of ethics at the centre of the decision-making model (see Figure 3).

The second key component was the operationalisation of an ISF Leadership Competency Framework and its application to the development of the Officer Cadet curriculum, also using it to assess the cadets undertaking the practical scenarios at the end of the course. Until then, the officer cadets, who attended the ISF Academy for six months training after three years of training at the Military College, only received training on the ISF regulations and technical skills with no provision for leadership development in the policing context. The ISF Leadership Competency Framework was introduced and developed towards the end of 2016, and prior to this there were no leadership competency frameworks in the organisation, General Al Hajjar fully supported the concept and instructed the BPST to work closely with the ISF Academy training department to design a framework that reflects the culture, context and needs of the Lebanese ISF.

2.5 Competency framework

The competencies in the framework were also separated by rank, to highlight the different competency requirements throughout the ISF rank structure. For example, Strategic Thinking and Leading Change were central at the Lt Colonel to General ranks, whereas the competencies of communication, teamwork, decision-making and personal responsibility were used at the Lieutenant ranks. The framework was also supported by a list of positive and negative behaviours which was constructed by a collaborative effort between the ISF trainers and the BPST leadership development experts.

The first transformational leadership module was successfully delivered in November 2017 to 52 officer cadets and on the final two days, each cadet underwent six separate scenarios and was assessed against the leadership competency framework and given developmental feedback in relation to their performance. Each scenario assessed the use of the ISF NDM model and at least two other competency areas to ensure the overall performance of each cadet could be properly assessed. The whole process including the delivery of the training, management and assessment of the scenarios and giving feedback was conducted for the first time by the officers from the ISF Academy taking the lead with minimal support from UK experts. A comprehensive evaluation took place following the delivery of the programme and the responses from the officer cadets were overwhelmingly positive with nearly all respondents commenting favourably on the realistic nature of the scenarios and how the course has helped them with their decision-making ability. They also requested more leadership training throughout their careers (Officer Cadet Leadership Module Evaluations Analysis, BPST).

The ISF was now in a position to deliver a transformational leadership module to cadets with practical scenarios assessed against an ISF competency framework and to bring the Lebanese NDM model into all relevant curricula in the Academy. From having no leadership training delivery capability, the Academy leadership trainers had now taken responsibility for the delivery of leadership training to all senior cadets and for the transformational leadership module for all Captains prior to being promoted to Major. During further discussions between the BPST Academy component lead and the General commanding the Academy, it was recognised that the gap from receiving leadership training on entering the service and the next leadership development opportunity at the Captain to Major level was approximately 10 years. It was agreed that the ISF leadership trainers would prepare and deliver a transformational leadership module to all 1st Lieutenants in the organisation prior to becoming promoted to Captain, the first courses were successfully delivered by the ISF trainers in 2018.

The cultural implications of the transferability of leadership theories in the Middle East in general and Lebanon in particular will be carefully considered in the next chapter.

Chapter 3. Cultural Considerations

Having now considered the context and culture of Lebanon and the ISF this chapter positions the research in terms of the cultural implications of leadership development in the Middle East in general and Lebanon in particular. Leadership studies have shown the necessity of considering language, cultural context and social interaction amongst leaders and followers, but few scholars have paid attention to the importance of history, national identity and extensive governance reforms (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2011). There is general agreement that leadership behaviour is determined culturally or socially and hence varies clearly from context to context (Adler, 1991; Ali et al., 2007; Randeree and Chaudry, 2007). Dominant leadership writings are premised on western values and norms, with current scholarship based on western constructions of leadership identities, relationships and behaviour (Syed, 2010). The seminal work of Hofstede's (1980) *Cultural Consequences* will be examined first, as it held an almost monopolistic position in research into cultural dimensions (Hadwick, 2011). The GLOBE study of 2004 was the first recognised alternative to Hofstede and drew heavily on Hofstede's (1980) and McClelland's (1975) motivational studies and this will also receive closer scrutiny with a view to gaining an understanding of leadership development through the cultural lens.

Understanding leadership is even more complex, fascinating and daunting when looking at it through a cross-cultural lens (House et al., 2004). A combination of family and tribal influences and overtly bureaucratic structures fosters authoritarian management practices in many Arab countries (Al-Kubaisy, 1985). According to Trompenaars (1993), there is a massive diversity of organisational practices in operation across the world, often declared effective and acceptable in one country but ineffective in a neighbouring country. House et al. (1997) highlight that a leader's competencies, behaviour and influences vary significantly as a result of culturally unique forces in the county or region where the leader functions.

Chemers (1997) and Poortinga and Malpass (1986) highlight the inherent limitations in relation to the transferability of theories across cultures and state that what works in one culture may not work in another. Countries where cultural norms are more tradition-bound often consider factors other than merit when considering salary increases (Bass et al., 1979; Ulin, 1976). Cross-cultural researchers have highlighted that people from different cultures tend to respond in characteristic ways. For example, people from Asia will tend to avoid the extremes of the scale to avoid diverging from the group, while those from the Mediterranean cultures would tend to avoid the average to avoid being non-committal (Hui and Triandis, 1986).

3.1 Hofstede – culture's consequences

Hofstede's (1980) study drew on data extracted from an existing database obtained from survey results from a multinational business organisation operating in 40 countries and included many value-laden questions. The survey was conducted between 1968 and 1972 and consisted of 116,000 questionnaires, matching respondents by age and sex. Additional data was collected from managers who were taking part in international management development courses. The original research has been used by many thousands of researchers in respect of national cultures, but has not been without its critics, particularly in terms of the monolithic nature of the data source (Hadwick, 2011; McSweeney, 2002).

Hofstede identified four cultural dimensions that were revealed by a combination of theoretical reasoning and statistical analysis: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism and masculinity. Hofstede (1980, p.21) describes culture as 'the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. Culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual'. Hofstede's work highlighted the differences between national cultures in 40 nations and showed evidence of differences and similarities in relation to the countries under study.

He draws our attention to the use of research instruments for the collection of data used in the 1960s and 1970s by social psychologists and PhD students based solely on questionnaires that were designed and pretested in the US and then simply translated and administered in other countries. Hofstede warns against this practice and advises that instruments used in cross-cultural research should be developed cross-culturally. He further states that ethnocentrism cannot be eliminated, but that research teams should be inclusive of bi- or multicultural researchers. This supports this study's position in relation to the importance of undertaking collaborative participative action research when studying a Middle Eastern security organisation.

The researcher witnessed first-hand the effects of this ethnocentric approach whilst serving as a Senior Police Advisor in Iraq in 2004 and 2005, where there was very little evidence that the culture or context of the Iraqi police or people were being considered in the programmes that were being delivered by coalition forces. The researcher took a different approach and worked collaboratively with the Iraqi police in Basra, resulting in the establishment of an Iraqi-led police training centre in 2004, by providing train-the-trainer programmes to develop Iraqi instructors and assisting in the development of an Iraqi-owned curriculum which reflected the

Iraqi culture and context. This awareness of the ethnocentric effect is further evidenced by Consultant B (2019), who stated that it was:

> 'essential to establish a mutual understanding of both words and concepts, not assuming what works in Sweden or other countries will work in the country you are engaged with, inter-cultural communication is very important throughout'.

The first of Hofstede's dimensions in national culture was power distance, relating to the degree to which members of society who are not in positions of power feel comfortable with the unequal distribution of power. He draws on the work of Mulder's power distance reduction theory in highlighting that subordinates try to reduce the power distance between them and their superiors, while their superiors try to maintain it or make it bigger. One of the main challenges in the ISF is the power distance between the NCOs and even the most junior of commissioned officers, and the transformational leadership training is aimed at reducing this gap (Consultant A, 2019). Three questions in the surveys used in Hofstede's research related to perceptions of the superior's decision-making style, the fear in the subordinate of disagreeing with the superior and the preferred style of decision-making. One of the most insightful questions chosen by Hofstede was 'How frequently, in your experience, does the following problem occur: employee being afraid to express disagreement with their managers?' This question had a five-point scale for the answer from 'very frequently' to 'very seldom'. Hofstede acknowledges that organisations will always have inequality in respect of the abilities and power of its members and that is the essentially the essence of an organisation. Hofstede cites Kipnis et al. (1976) in highlighting that the more powerful people are more likely to devalue the worth of the performance of other people and to take the credit for the less powerful efforts. In respect of the countries surveyed, the Philippines and Mexico were top of the list and Austria and Israel had the lowest scores (Hofstede, 1980 p.103). According to Consultant B (2019), the ISF has a very high power-distance dimension:

> 'There are clear visible signs that support this for example when a new floor plan was put to a senior officer in the organisation, he could not approve it because the officers did not have a private bathroom or sufficient office space befitting his rank. Also, every senior officer has a secretary outside their office and often has several drivers, all signs of their power and the distance between them and their subordinates and are symbols of their seniority in the organisation'.

Hofstede's second dimension of national culture arising from the data was labelled uncertainty avoidance, which is described as the desire to have predictable outcomes which can be achieved

through negotiation or a short-term focus (Cyrert and March, 1963). The data from Hofstede's study revealed that there were considerable variations in the tolerance for uncertainty from people in different countries and that different societies adapted to uncertainty in different ways. Hofstede, drawing on the work of Pugh (1976) from the Aston studies, states that societies with a greater need for uncertainty avoidance are generally more structured, formalised and standardised. House et al. (2004) questioned the measurement items used in the study, yet kept the dimension for their own research. Consultant B (2019) was of the opinion that the ISF have high levels of uncertainty avoidance which is demonstrated by 'a resistance against innovation and a heavy reliance on memos'.

Hofstede's third dimension was individualism; he compares the relationship between the individual and the collectivity that exists in a society and, according to Schimmack et al. (2004), this dimension has received the most attention. As a result of analysing the data from the study, Hofstede was able to allocate an individual index for each country and show that the more collectivist societies are linked to a greater emotional attachment to their organisations and the organisations, in turn, accept a broader responsibility for their members. When this is not the case, there can be disharmony leading to a shift in personal values towards more individualism. Hofstede (1980), citing Etzioni (1975), draws our attention to the level of moral involvement when the collectivist values prevail and a much more calculative involvement when the values of an individualist prevail. He states that there are many other factors that can affect the degree of individualism, including the education levels of the employees and the culture and sub-culture of the organisation. The size of the organisation can also have a bearing on the individualism of that organisation and Ingham (1970), studying large and small production firms in Bradford, discovered that there was more moral involvement in the smaller firms and more calculative in the larger firms. Some critics believe that individualism is often portrayed in an East versus West manner, evidenced by the fact that the USA has the highest score for individualism, with most Asian and Latin American countries in the lower half. Middle Eastern societies are considered highly family- and group-orientated, meaning that individuals who belong to these societies take pride in and are loyal to their families and organisations. The Lebanese ISF can be considered a collectivist organisation and there are many examples of officers remaining loyal to the organisation despite external pressure being exerted by political parties (Consultant B, 2019).

The fourth and final dimension of national culture emanating from Hofstede's work was masculinity, and this is probably the dimension that has been least studied; even the label did

not sit comfortably throughout the years (Javidan et al., 2006). The survey data revealed that in respect of 'work goals', men scored high achievement and earnings as the most important motivators, compared to women who showed a greater concern for inter-personal relationships, services and their physical environment. The study also revealed that countries with a high masculinity index showed a greater difference in values between men and women doing the same job.

The main findings of Hofstede's work are that organisations are culture-bound and that the cultural relativity is related to a number of specific areas such as leadership, motivation and decision-making, and also affects both management and organisational development. Hofstede also believed that his research highlighted the dangers of exporting management theories from the US to other countries, believing that we cannot assume that they are universally applicable. Hofstede concludes that there is a widespread tendency to fail to give sufficient credence to the deeply rooted societal norms prevalent in a country when recommending solutions. Citing Hall (1960), he argues that the cultural component has been resisted by many because it has cast doubt on many established and long-held beliefs, and that for some it is easier to ignore the culture concept that to face up to it. Notwithstanding the single-source shortcoming of Hofstede's work (McSweeney, 2002), his dimensions are most frequently used as a paradigm in the description of country differences (Søndergaard, 1994) and remain relevant today:

> 'It is important to do your cultural research before you go, I use Hofstede as a lens to prepare myself, he has given me a theoretical framework to operate from. The four dimensions matrix makes it easy to understand and apply through its simplicity it is often criticised but I think it is the main strength […] If I am working in an Arab country, I know that their culture is centred on relationships so much more time is spent on coffee and small talk before dealing with issues but if I work in Serbia on the other hand, they prefer a more direct approach' (Consultant B, 2019).

3.2 The GLOBE Study

The publication of the Global Leadership & Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) Study in 2004 represented the first true alternative to Hofstede and attracted the interest of a broad range of management and cross-cultural scholars (Hadwick, 2011). It was a huge research undertaking, with 170 researchers representing 62 different societies taking 11 years to complete and publish. 'The goals of the GLOBE project include identifying what aspects of leadership practice are comparable across cultures, whilst also identifying cultural-specific and organisational practice' (House et al., 2004, p.55). The study was conceived in 1991 and funded

in 1993 with the goal of understanding societal and organisational leadership effectiveness (Hadwick, 2011). It defined leadership as 'the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members'. Most of the empirical research in this field in the past 30 years has been ethnocentric research that has been designed and tested in one culture then replicated in another rather than truly comparative (House et al., 2004).

The GLOBE project uses implicit leadership theory (ILT) by Robert Lord, under which individuals hold a set of beliefs about the kind of attributes, personality characteristics, skills and behaviours that contribute to or impede outstanding leadership, with a focus on the beliefs about effective leaders shared by members of an organisation or society; it is widely regarded as a valid perspective (Yukl, 2002). These belief systems are often referred to as 'prototypes' and are assumed to affect the extent to which individuals accept and respond to other leaders (Lord and Maher, 1991), Gerstner and Day (1994) concluded that these leadership prototypes vary between cultures. GLOBE extends ILT to the cultural level of analysis by arguing that the structure and content of these belief systems will be shared among individuals in common cultures; this is referred to as culturally endorsed leadership theory (CLT). One of the main objectives of GLOBE was to empirically identify leadership attributes that are universally perceived as contributors to or inhibitors of outstanding leadership. Project GLOBE defines culture as 'shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations' (House et al., 2004, p.57). The study, with its nine dimensions, tried to understand the values and practices at both the societal and organisational level (Hadwick, 2011). In most societies, there is a large disparity between how performance is valued and how it is practised, with most societies generally valuing it more highly (House et al., 2004).

The GLOBE study claims the following major empirical contributions (ibid, p.726):

- Identified universally desirable dimensions; for example, performance orientation and universally undesirable dimensions such as power distance.
- Resulted in cluster scores on cultural values, practices and ILT.
- Identified 21 primary and six global leadership dimensions
- Identified universally desirable and universally undesirable and culturally contingent attributes of leadership.

- In terms of the relationship between leadership and culture, identified the cultural dimensions that can best predict CLT dimensions.

The driver for universality may lie in ethical values. Several authors have argued that transformational leadership is rooted in strong ethical values (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Mendonca, 2001).

3.2.1 Performance orientation

One of the key elements of performance orientation as a cultural dimension is the nature of the relationship with the outside world. The concept of performance orientation was not conceptualised or measured as a separate dimension in Hofstede's cross-cultural study (House et al., 2004). Dating back to the reformation, the medieval Catholic view towards external adaption was about total submission, believing that it brought in an era of self-confidence and a sense of power amongst the masses (House et al., 2004 p.239). Some cultures see this relationship as subjugation, whilst others see it as harmony or of dominance. The Moslem phrase '*Inshallah*' is cited as an example of subjugation and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) found that several Arab countries could see no value in attempting to control natural forces.

Highly performance-orientated societies are likely to value individuals and groups that produce results and high achievement, with a tendency to value tasks more than social relationships. High performance-orientated cultures tend to use more direct language low in context, emphasising the need to be direct, clear and explicit (Hall, 1959). The lesser performance-orientated societies tend to be less direct and more subtle (House et al., 2004). The Arab world can be broadly described as a 'high context' communication environment, in such environments, conflict-handling styles tend to be avoiding and obliging (Croucher et al., 2012).

The GLOBE project's empirically derived construct of leadership performance orientation directly supports the notion of ambition and challenge and this is supported by House (1997). and Bass (1985), who argue that performance-orientated leaders achieve ambitious goals by building their subordinates' self-confidence and by intellectually stimulating them. The GLOBE project directly assessed the extent to which a society is reported to encourage and reward setting challenging goals, innovation and improving performance (House et al., 2004). There is a strong desire for this attribute in all regions, and societies that value performance orientation look towards charismatic leaders that can paint a picture of an ambitious and enticing future yet leaves it to the people to build it. There are four questions in the interview

protocol that directly relate to the performance orientation dimension and the responses of the participants will be analysed later in the thesis.

3.2.2 Future orientation

This is described by House et al. (1999) as the degree to which a ‘collectivity’ rewards and encourages future-orientated behaviour such as planning and delaying reward. Cultures that have a low future orientation or high present orientation display the capability to be spontaneous and to enjoy the moment. Contrast this with cultures with a high future orientation that display a strong capability to identify future contingencies, goals and develop strategies for their future aspirations. The GLOBE definition of future orientation is:

> ‘the extent to which members of a society or an organisation believe their current actions will influence their future, focus on investment in their future, believe that their current actions will influence their future, believe that they will have a future that matters, believe in planning for developing their future, and look far into the future for assessing the effects of their current actions’ (House et al., 2004, p.285).

Future orientation in an organisational setting involves preparing the organisation to meet future environmental challenges and is, therefore, an essential leadership attribute (Brommer and De La Porte, 1992). In the Middle East, weak practices and strong values are attributable to a distinct approach to relationships with a belief that efforts and plans to develop family-like relationships provide insurance against any future challenges; thereby people in this culture would be less likely to plan for the future. This approach is also linked to the charismatic or value-based style of leadership, which is more likely to be a part of a shared leadership belief system in organisations reported espousing future-orientated values (House et al., p.330). In future-orientated organisations, the CLT is likely to comprise participative, humane-orientated, team-orientated, and charismatic and value-based leadership styles. Irrespective of practice, future orientation is almost universally valued. In the Middle East, people may aspire to future orientation to reform the authoritarian, kinship-orientated, and fragmented institutional fabric in their cultures (House et al., 2004). There are two questions in the interview protocol that directly relate to the future orientation dimension and the responses will be analysed later in the thesis.

3.2.3 Cross-cultural differences in gender egalitarianism

Gender egalitarianism is described by House et al. (2004) as the way societies divide the roles between men and women, stating that the more gender-egalitarian societies rely less on the

biological differences between men and women in determining their roles. They believe that men and women are suited for similar roles, as opposed to less egalitarian societies which believe men and women should have different roles defined by their gender.

The GLOBE study measured gender egalitarianism at the societal and organisational levels. At the societal level, the participants were asked for their perceptions of the current level of gender egalitarianism in their respective societies and their perceptions on what would be the ideal level of egalitarianism. The findings indicate that to some extent all societies rely on gender in the process of the allocation of roles to members, with the majority of managers who were interviewed reporting that the situation was not ideal. The lowest ideal gender egalitarianism in the overall study was found in the Middle East cluster (House et al., 2004). Societies where this dimension scores highly have more equal educational opportunities for women, and there is a higher representation of women in positions of power in organisations (Hadwick, 2011). There are two questions in the interview protocol that relate to female representation in the ISF and the responses of the participants will be analysed later in the thesis. In addition to this, there are further insights from a key informant and relevant secondary data that will also be taken into consideration.

3.2.4 Assertiveness

The assertiveness dimension of societal and organisational values and practices relates to whether or not people are or are encouraged to be assertive, aggressive and tough or to be non-assertive, non-aggressive and soft in social relationships (House et al., 2004). The concepts of assertiveness are closely linked to Hofstede's cultural dimension of masculinity, wherein masculine societies are labelled as assertive and tough and female societies as tender and modest. Cultures which have a high rating in respect of assertiveness are considered to be more tolerant of both strong and directive leaders as opposed to those with a low assertiveness culture, which have a preference for a more consultative and considerate style of leadership. According to Hadwick (2011), assertiveness is the level of acceptance in society of confrontation, assertiveness and aggression. Where assertiveness levels are high, communication is more direct and power is highly valued. The introduction of transformational leadership principles to the Lebanese ISF in an effort to encourage a more non-directive approach will be analysed later in the thesis.

3.2.5 Individualism and collectivism

The GLOBE study assessed individualism and collectivism at the societal and organisational levels and although the areas of individualism and collectivism have been the subject of much theoretical and empirical research over many years, House et al. (2004) would argue that previous research has not examined these levels at the same time. Collectivist cultures consist of multi-layered, interwoven social groups where every person is obliged to faithfully look after other members of the group (Oyserman et al., 2002). Individualistic people place their emphasis on their private lives without the need to bind with local groups or communities (Veiga et al., 2001).

The GLOBE study found that the countries with the highest collectivism practices were from Nordic Europe and Confucian Asia and those with lowest collectivism practices were from Latin America, Latin Europe and Germany. Although the GLOBE data was collected 25 years after Hofstede's (1980) work, the results in relation to in-group collectivism are highly and inversely correlated with Hofstede's nation scores on individualism (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE research also shone a light on the nature and effect of organisational collectivism, revealing that organisations can be differentiated on different forms of collectivism and that there is compelling evidence that societal-level collectivism is highly related to organisational-level collectivism. House et al. (2004) also claim that there is clear evidence that culture plays a major role in what leadership attributes are considered effective, stating that the data that has been compiled clearly illustrates that societal and organisational collectivism are directly related to effective leadership. The leadership attributes that were most commonly associated with collectivism were team-orientated, charismatic and value-based leadership.

3.2.6 Power distance

The GLOBE definition of power distance is 'the degree to which members of an organisation or society expect and agree that power should be shared unequally'. According to House et al. (2004, p.514), one of the most fundamental question concerning power is 'what gives an individual or a group influence over others?' French and Raven (1959) identified five classifications of power that were both common and important: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert and referent power. Coercive was described as being dependent on fear, with punishment resulting from a lack of compliance. At the other extreme is reward power, where people enact positive behaviour to obtain rewards which can be either intangible, such as praise, or tangible, such as pay or promotion. Legitimate power is described as the power vested in a person by their position. It is usually hierarchical in nature and also referred to as authority

and ‘position power’ (Stogdill, 1974). Expert power is the ability to influence on the basis of technical expertise. Individuals have credibility based on their expertise. Finally, referent power is described as a desire to identify with and emulate and internalise the values of the superior. It is operationalised by showing consideration for the needs and feelings of the subordinate by expressing feelings of trust, acceptance and concern for their welfare and by challenging them by a personal appeal to move beyond their roles (Bass, 1985; French and Raven, 1959).

Managers are motivated by three basic needs the need for achievement, affiliation and power (McClelland, 1975). McClelland and Burnham (1976) identified that effective managers were characterised primarily by their need for power and this power was characterised as either personalised, where the manager strives for dominance and seeks to pursue personal goals, or socialised, where the manager seeks to further the goals of subordinate individuals, groups and the organisation, with the latter being the most effective. High power-motivated individuals tend to inhibit group discussion (Fodor and Smith, 1982). Mulder (1977) defined power distance as ‘the degree of inequality in power between a less power individual (I) and a more power individual (O) in which I and O belong to the same (loosely or tight-knit) social system’.

In the organisational leadership domain, much of the literature stems from French and Ravens (1959) typology. Various leadership models have incorporated autocratic leadership regarding decision-making, expressing the relative degree of participation that the subordinate is allowed (Strauss, 1977). This continuum generally starts with autocratic decision-making, followed by some form of consultation, then joint decision-making and finally delegation (Yukl, 2002). Hofstede’s power distance index is also based on a similar typology of autocratic, paternalistic, democratic or consultative decision-making style of leaders.

Leader-member exchange theory, proposed by Dansereau et al. (1975), considers two vertical exchange techniques – supervision or leadership. Under the supervision style, there is virtually no rapport between the leader and the subordinate (transactional). It is the leadership style which corresponds closely with low power distance (transformational). On the basis of western research, Yukl (2002) argues that the use of autocratic power is very unlikely to create commitment among subordinates and at best achieves compliance. House et al. (2004) cite Hersey and Blanchard’s (1977) situational leadership theory, suggesting that a leader should be very directive and autocratic in defining the roles, objectives, standards and procedures if subordinates are very immature in relation to their task in the organisation. The introduction of

the Lebanese decision-making model and the training of transformational leadership principles and its relationship with power distance were covered in five of the questions to the interviewees and their responses will be analysed later in the thesis.

3.2.7 Humane orientation

The GLOBE definition of humane orientation is the level to which an organisation or society recognises and rewards the individual members for being altruistic, fair, friendly, generous, caring and kind to others (House et al. 1999). The GLOBE study allocated five questions to the humane orientation construct around the areas of being sensitive and concerned towards others, generosity and also in relation to tolerance levels regarding other people's mistakes (House et al., 2004).

A sense of belonging and levels of satisfaction regarding social needs have long been associated with a considerate leadership style, and although humane orientation is not usually identified as a leadership competency, it does relate to a number of leadership constructs. Yukl (2002) provided one of the best examples in leadership research that links the relationship between considerate leadership behaviours and employee performance. The cross-cultural work of Dorfman et al. (2012) also found strong links between supportive and considerate leadership and high levels of subordinate satisfaction. House et al. (2004) conclude that leaders who exhibit considerate and supportive behaviours through humane orientation are culturally generalisable, with the caveat that the same value is not placed on humane orientation by different societies.

The GLOBE study also revealed that a society's humane orientation is closely related to the physical, economic and psychological well-being of its members and modern societies that are economically developed were found to be lower in terms of humane orientation. In relation to the organisational context, the GLOBE study revealed that in highly humane-orientated societies social control derives from the emphasis on shared values, with informal relationships providing development opportunities to employees. In societies with a low humane orientation, social control is achieved through bureaucratic practice with an emphasis on formal procedures. Organisations also tend to be less trusted by their members. Leaders from societies that scored high in humane orientation tended to have a holistic concern for followers with informal and personal relationships with their employees. According to House et al. (2004), the results of the GLOBE study revealed the following generalisations. Firstly, that humane orientation at the societal level increases as a result of more challenging economic, physical and climatic

conditions. Secondly, because there is less solidarity and helping behaviour in less humane-orientated societies, there is a tendency for the state to intervene and provide the protection and support that is required by its members. Thirdly, in less humane-orientated societies, the state also provides legislation, unionisation and high levels of involvement in human resource practices. The fourth generalisation was that organisations reflect the culture in the society in which they are embedded. Finally, the more a society practises humaneness, the more humane-orientated leadership behaviours are considered effective.

3.2.8 Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance, according to the GLOBE study, refers to the extent to which members of organisations seek orderliness, consistency, structure and formalised laws and procedures to deal with situations in their daily lives. According to House et al. (2004), the dimension can be traced back to Frenkel-Brunswick (1949) and his work regarding 'ambiguity tolerance' that involved a study that assessed respondents' attitudes regarding ethnic prejudice. According to Triandis (1989, cited by House et al., 2004), this construct is characterised by rules and close supervision with an expectation that individuals will conform to standard practices. The establishment of rules, therefore, allows for the predictability of behaviour which in turn increases the levels of trust in both the organisation and society (Kale and McIntyre, 1991).

Four questions were used to measure the GLOBE defined uncertainty avoidance practices, including questions relating to the extent to which life is structured, predictable, orderly, consistent and how much emphasis is placed on the rules and regulations that are used to regulate societal practices (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study revealed that the Middle East region scored relatively high in relation to uncertainty avoidance practices and values and that organisations actually reflect the culture in the society in which they are embedded. The GLOBE study also highlights the links between uncertainty avoidance and selection practices and concludes that uncertainty-avoiding organisations may have high degrees of formalisation and decentralisation in the organisational structure. The implications of uncertainty avoidance in relation to leadership styles were also recognised in societies and organisations with higher uncertainty avoidance values associated with higher team-orientated, humane-orientated and self-protective leadership. According to Hofstede (2001), members of society create their own coping mechanisms to deal with the anxiety caused by excessive uncertainty. People are also affected in different ways, depending on their own dispositions.

3.2.9 GLOBE study conclusions and critics

Although yet to reach the heights of Hofstede's seminal work, the GLOBE study is still recognised as being highly relevant in the area of cross-cultural leadership research and was described by Morrison (2000) as '[t]he most ambitious study of global leadership'. The study resulted in the identification of 21 primary and six global leadership dimensions from which endorsed leadership profiles from across 10 cultural clusters were created which follow from the development of the culturally implicit leadership theory. The study also identified universally desirable and undesirable and culturally contingent attributes of leadership. In terms of the relationship between leadership and culture, the study also identified the cultural dimensions that can best predict CLT dimensions. The study evidences a strong relationship between societal and organisational culture demonstrating that, in the main, organisations reflect the societies from where they originate.

The findings show the difference between the cultural value score and cultural practice score is greater at the societal level than at the organisational level, indicating that it may be easier to change the culture at the organisational level than at the societal level. GLOBE helped to identify various leadership attributes, but as House et al. (1999 p. 727) state, integrity is a universally desirable attribute, but does it mean the same to a Chinese person as it does to an American? It also poses the question about whether or not integrity can be adequately measured with one survey instrument. House et al. (1999) claim to have demonstrated that culturally implicit leadership theories are shaped by societal and organisational culture and that as a result of leaders growing up in their cultures, they develop their own world view from their own learning and experience. The GLOBE study claims that there are universal attributes of leadership and that each culture develops its own culturally implicit theory of leadership. It also claims to empirically verify a significant relationship between culture and leadership.

Critics of the GLOBE study state that its authors have claimed too much cross-cultural construct validity and generalisability in relation to their research findings and recommendations. The main criticism is in relation to the methodology as highlighted by Graen and Lau (2005), who questioned how 300 managers from one area of China could truly represent the many sub-cultures of over a billion people. Further criticism related to inadequate sampling regarding GLOBE's national culture descriptions (Graen, 2006). The questions were also all written in English and only for the Anglo-American sub-cultures relating only to Anglo-American cultural management issues. The six leadership styles used in the GLOBE study: charismatic (universally effective), team (universally effective), shared (local), humane

(local), defensive (local), and autocratic (local), also came under criticism as being the only response alternatives offered. The respondents were not presented with a choice of transformational, leader-member exchange, or filial leadership. According to Graen (2006), the results of the GLOBE study were a large number of one-shot, self-reported, culturally biased studies.

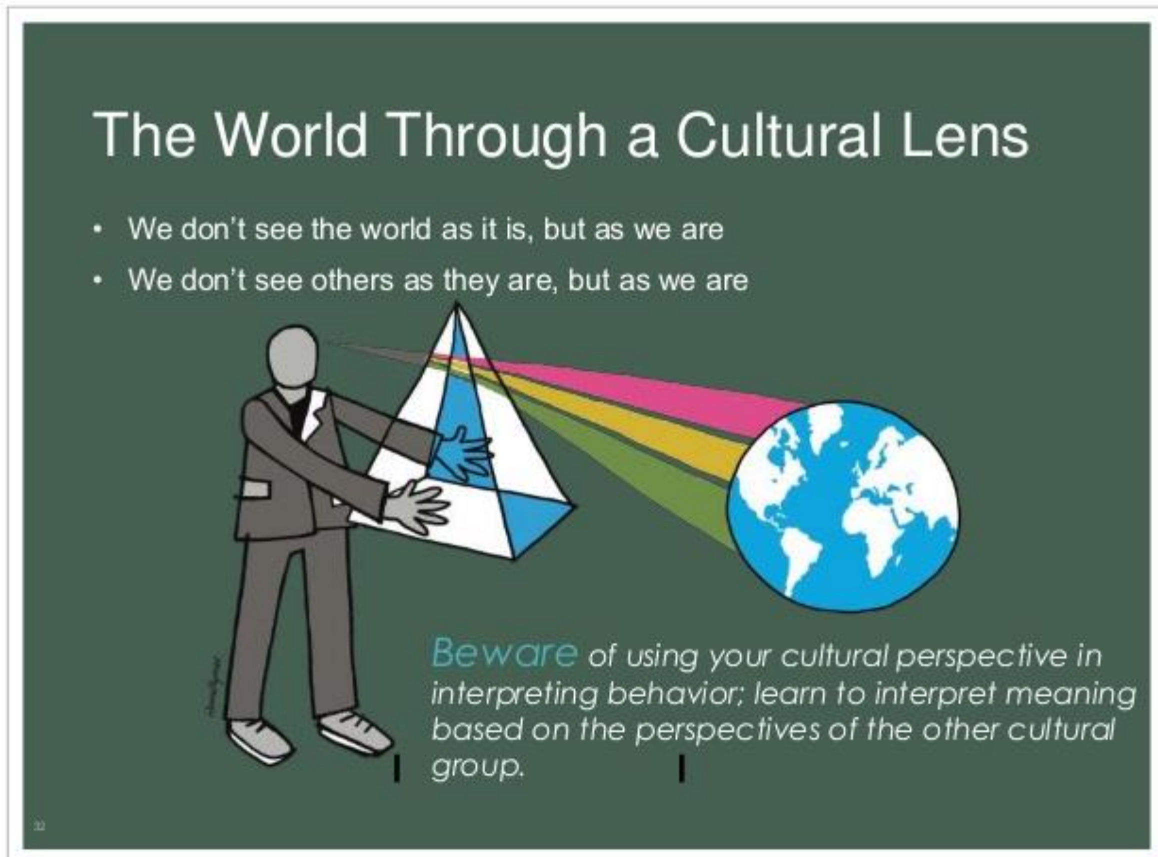


Figure 4. The world through a cultural lens

3.3 Cultural implications for leadership development in the Middle East

Culture has become a very complex research area in organisational studies primarily due to the interpretation differences between researchers (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). According to Budhwar and Mellahi (2016), the implementation of human resource management (HRM) policies and practices in the public sector in the Middle East are negatively affected by a number of contextual factors such as politicisation, family influence, religious values and gender inequality. The situation is further complicated by the effect of colonial and pre-colonial influence. These prevailing local and contextual factors can result in resistance to meaningful and sustainable change. The system of new public management that expounds the principles of

a business-like approach to public management including the introduction of reforms such as downsizing, effective management, decentralisation and a reduction in bureaucracy has been at the forefront of desired change (Hammami et al., 2006; Haque, 2001; Manning, 2001). Research in the Middle East reveals that there is a conflict between such issues as nepotism and the desire to develop transparent and more professional practice. This is also reflected in the leadership roles in organisations being filled by people as a result of their age as opposed to their ability or qualifications for the role (Iles et al., 2012). According to Aycan et al. (2007), relationships in the Middle East are also characterised by subordinate obedience and the avoidance of conflict. Although western influences have had a significant impact on management practices, this is not the case for the public sector, which is often viewed as the guardian of national customs and values and where locals must remain in charge (Iles et al., 2012; Siddique, 2004). It is also recognised that western practices can improve performance and competency in the public sector and there has been a significant drive for outcome-based appraisal systems (Siddique, 2004). However, this desire to adopt practices from the West often has its restrictions largely based on culture, religion and politics. Other important factors highlighted by Khoury and Analoui (2004) that limit the effect of western influence include high power distance, high levels of uncertainty avoidance and overly bureaucratic systems in organisations, especially in Arabic Middle Eastern countries. A good example of this is that performance appraisals with western principles require a two-way communication process with one party giving feedback and the other party receiving it (Khoury and Analoui, 2004).

Beekun and Badawi (1999) argue that in many Arab countries in the Middle East, leadership is rooted in the belief and willingness to submit to the creator, Allah. Key tasks include doing good deeds and working towards social cohesiveness whilst also demonstrating openness, a willingness to learn and showing compassion towards subordinates. Noor (1999) proposed an integrated model for organisational effectiveness based on the Prophet Mohammed's leadership style and interaction with his followers. One example of this is that Islamic scholars argue that feedback is a gift to be reflected and acted upon (Al Omar, 1999). Despite being recognised as a Middle East country, Lebanon has a diverse work population made up of the 18 different religious groups that have been officially recognised by the Lebanese government, making Lebanon the most diverse country in the Middle East in respect of religion (Faour, 2007).

Cultural intelligence is described as the ability to exhibit certain behaviours, including skills and qualities, which are culturally tuned to the attitudes and values of others (Peterson, 2004;

Chaney and Martin, 2011). Leaders who meet the cultural demands and expectations of their followers are the most effective (Dorfman et al., 2012); leaders need to be aware of the cultural differences and try to adapt to the local context (Byrne and Bradley, 2007). Al Qahtani (2006) highlighted the importance of change management as a powerful strategy to reform organisations in the Middle East and despite the tendency towards directive styles of leadership, existing literature on organisational change and development (OCD) indicates that resistance to change is a key issue that has to be addressed when leading change in organisations in the Middle East (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2012). Fewer than 30% of OCD initiatives are successful (Hartley 2002). Oakland and Tanner (2007) support this position and estimate the success rate as low as 10%. Bureaucracy may prove resistant to the types of change demanded by human resource (HR) theorists. For example, despite the adoption of western management techniques in general, Jabbra and Jabbra (2005) argue that this has been unsuccessful in the Gulf Region because of the pervasive and powerful traditional administration culture. There are, however, some positive examples of successful organisational change programmes as in the case of leaders in the Abu Dhabi Police who were actively seeking to delegate authority and decentralise decision-making in ways not often associated with styles of leadership traditionally associated with the Middle East (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2012). Abdeh (2006) interviewed 397 Jordanian managers to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and organisational development and found that to improve organisational development in the central ministries, attention should be paid to delegating authority to staff, simplifying work procedures, reviewing legislation and regulations and improving communication channels between managers and staff (Metcalfe and Mimouni, 2012). There is also less available literature in relation to HR management throughout the Middle East, with the majority of references focusing on the influence of Arab values in relation to management practices (Ali and Al-Shakis, 1985).

3.4 The Lebanese cultural context

Lebanon has a well-educated workforce that is highly skilled and generally tri-lingual with the ability to converse in Arabic, French and English (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016). Lebanese literacy rates are amongst the highest in the region, with an overall rate of 89.6% (CIA, 2014). When looking at the Lebanese context, it is interesting to note the findings of Harb (2010) in relation to the study of 1,200 Lebanese youths. He found that they were highly educated with over 41% educated to degree level, but that there were significant levels of sectarianism and only mild acceptance of other sects. This sectarian divide can have a negative impact on HR

management practices in organisations and may even affect job applicants from applying for jobs in organisations dominated by certain sects.

Under the terms of the Taif Agreement that came into effect in 1989, certain religious sects are guaranteed representation and employment in specific posts and ministries, and this is also the case in the Lebanese ISF (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016).

Unlike most of its neighbouring countries, Lebanon is a secular and democratic state with strong banking and healthcare sectors (Habib, 2013). There is a very modest body of literature available on HRM in Lebanon and until 2000, the HR function was carried out by a personnel department responsible for dealing with payrolls and employees' files. It was largely regarded as a female role that essentially dealt with employees and their problems. Most of the available research on HRM in Lebanon relates to the banking and health sectors (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016).

El-Jardali et al. (2010) studied the work environment in Lebanese hospitals and found that nurses were dissatisfied with the fact that they had very little involvement in the decision-making process and that younger nurses felt that their participation in the workplace did not amount to much. Another negative issue was the lack of professional and career opportunities afforded to young nurses. A study of primary health care workers in Lebanon also revealed a lack of professional development opportunities as the main reason for employees leaving their jobs (Alameddine et al., 2012). The majority of participants in the study by Tlaiss (2013) into women managers in the healthcare industry described the culture in their organisations as discriminatory and prejudiced. It revealed that the women felt they were deemed to be unsuitable for decision-making and management roles, solely based on their gender.

The banking sector in Lebanon is interesting in respect to gender, with nearly 50% of employees being female. Alfiouni (2007) found that most of the banks lacked a clear HRM strategy and even those that had a plan had serious difficulties in implementing it because of the lack of management buy-in, nepotism and other factors that affected proper selection, training and promotion. Despite this, the literature in relation to employee satisfaction in the banking sector revealed that respondents were largely satisfied with their conditions of employment (Crossman and Abou-Zaki, 2003). Studies in the banking sector also revealed that employees who were satisfied with their jobs demonstrated higher levels of commitment to their organisations and when they were involved in setting and implementing the vision of their banks with the managers (Dirani, 2009; Dirani and Kuchinke,. 2011).

The effect of the Lebanese culture's emphasis on family and religion can be felt throughout Lebanese organisations, leading to paternal rather than professional relationships. Female managers felt particularly disadvantaged in the workplace due to a lack of *wasta* and discriminatory organisational culture and practice. This has affected their career progression due to traditional barriers they faced, as opposed to their skills and abilities (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2010). *Wasta*, which is widespread in Arabic societies, is described by Touzani et al. (2015) as a characteristic of the lack of democracy in the region. In its most simple form, *wasta* can be described as interference with the decision-making process in the workplace, resulting in benefits be given to some people at the expense of others who may be more experienced or qualified. This results in lower motivation levels, less organisational commitment and higher levels of work-induced stress for those affected (Hayajenh et al., 1994). Although *wasta* often has negative connotations, it can also be regarded in Lebanon as operating as a circle of trust which could include groupings defined by religion, confession, political affiliation or family, which Al-Omian and Weir (2005) argue could not only be beneficial for the parties involved but also wider society.

According to Tlaiss (2013) and Moghadam (2004), Lebanese families live interdependently, providing both social and financial support. They generally follow a patriarchal structure relying on the father to provide the financial means on which the rest of the family is reliant. As a result, Lebanese women's access to career opportunities can be limited and they are expected to take up safe nurturing roles that suit the work-life balance (Latreille, 2008). Research into Lebanese women has revealed that there is a general dissatisfaction with salary, pensions and career progression, but a general satisfaction with their work (Al-Lamki,1998; 2000). Sectarian and institutionalised *wasta* is prevalent in Lebanese organisations and has a significant effect on recruitment, selection and progression (Tliass and Kauser, 2010). In the public sector, there is a 'quota' system in operation to ensure that all sects are properly represented in the organisation.

According to Yahchouchi (2009), the Lebanese management style is still largely unstudied and, citing Neal, Finlay and Tansey (2005), he concludes from the limited data available that Lebanon is characterised by low levels of traditional authority contrasted with very high levels of charismatic authority. Saidi (2004) found that over 90% of Lebanese small and medium-sized businesses are owned and run as family businesses, and paternal leadership is considered to be more compatible with transformational leadership resulting from religion, national culture and family influence (Cheng et al., 2004). Yahchouchi (2009) concluded that giving due

consideration to the collectivist culture, confession, *wasta* and family connections prevalent in Lebanese society, it can be assumed that the Lebanese leadership style leans towards transformational rather than transactional. Yahchouchi also found a significant difference between the Christian and Muslim societies regarding their perceptions of leadership with the Christian employees tending to perceive that their managers were more transformational.

Budhwar and Mellahi (2016) conclude that the HRM systems in Lebanon lack strategic focus and lead to poor employee satisfaction and discriminatory organisational practices relating to gender. Other studies in relation to HRM functions in Lebanon reveal that Lebanese organisations that invest in leadership and talent management benefit from higher levels of commitment and retention of high-potential employees (Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013). Overall, the private sector management practices in Lebanese organisations were regarded as positive and should be seen as having the potential to transfer knowledge to the public sector (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016).

Having considered the cultural implications of this study the next chapter will closely examine the research methodology and methods used for the research including an explanation of the rationale used in the decision making process.

Chapter 4. Research Methodology and Methods

Research methodology differs from research methods in that it has a more philosophical aspect and refers to the approach taken. Methodology refers to the strategy and plan or design relating to the choice of a particular method (Crotty, 1998). Research strategies, for example, quantitative and qualitative research, differ in respect of their epistemological foundations (Bryman, 2012). In both types, it is the measurement of the social world. Quantitative designs aim to result in a numerical description whereas qualitative creates an account or description, without numerical values (Gilbert, 2008). According to Cresswell (2003), situations today are less about a choice between quantitative and qualitative and more of a continuum between the two. With the development of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches and their perceived legitimacy, mixed methods, which combines the two methodologies has gained popularity (Cresswell, 2009). According to Gilbert (2008), mixed methods have been used to increase the accuracy of research findings and the levels of confidence in them. In this chapter, both these paradigms will be looked at more closely, this will help inform the justification process for the chosen methodology for this research project. Most of the empirical research in this field in the past 30 years has been ethnocentric research that has been designed and tested in one culture and then replicated in another culture (House et al., 2004). This belief that that one's country, culture, language and behaviour are superior to all is not just an issue with research, but can also be a major issue with overseas assistance programmes generally.

Participatory research is 'an orientation to inquiry' (Reason and Bradbury, 2008, p.1). According to Bergold (2007), it is a methodology that argues in terms of the possibility, significance and usefulness of involving the research partners in the knowledge production process. Participatory research has gained increasing importance in English-speaking countries as a research strategy in the field of qualitative social research (Bergold and Thomas, 2010). Although there are different labels attached to participatory methodology, the common aim of all the approaches is to change social reality through the insights into everyday practices based on collaborative research involving scientists, practitioners and other stakeholders. The author, based on his extensive experience of working in government security departments in the Middle East, understood the difficulty in obtaining access to carry out meaningful research in these organisations. For the respective organisation to approve of the research it must be an active collaborative research partner. The Lebanese ISF is a quasi-military organisation and would be very guarded in dealing with outside agencies and it would be almost unthinkable for it to allow researchers access without collaborating in the process.

4.1 Action research

Bryman (2012) describes action research as an approach that places the action researcher and members of a social setting together to work collaboratively in the diagnosis of a problem and in the development of a solution based on that diagnosis. Wadsworth (1998) states that all individuals involved in the action research process, researcher and subjects alike, are deliberate and contributing actors in the research enterprise. Action research is described by Stringer (1999) as a viable, practical strategy for social science that requires systematic, organised and reflective investigations. Action research is not linked to any one methodology and can be equally effective in the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data (Bryman, 2012). Flick (2009) stresses that there is more importance placed on the appropriateness of the method to the subject under study in participatory research than in other approaches to qualitative research. Kemmis and McTaggart (2005) describe the action research process as a spiral of activity: plan, act, observe and reflect. Stringer (1999) proposes a similar process: look, think and act. Particularly relevant to this research, Bryman (2012) highlights that the active research approach is advocated by some researchers because of its commitment to involving people in the diagnosis of and solutions to the problems as opposed to simply imposing solutions on predefined problems. The primary purpose of action research is to improve the capacity and subsequent practices of the researcher rather than the production of theoretical knowledge (Eliot, 1991). According to Denscombe (2010), an action research strategy's purpose is to solve a particular problem and to produce guidelines for best practice, and usually involves actively participating in a change situation often in an existing organisation whilst simultaneously conducting research.

The ISF has implemented a number of recent leadership development initiatives in the ISF Academy, including the introduction of a leadership competency framework, transformational leadership training at all levels of the organisation and the introduction of a Lebanese decision-making model. By holding a number of meetings with key senior staff at the Academy, it was apparent that there was a need to establish the effect these changes were having in the operational environment and to elicit the thoughts of the senior officers in the organisation, which in turn could support and inform the development of an overarching ISF leadership strategy.

One of the main principles of action research is to work collaboratively to produce beneficial change. Stringer (1999) highlights a number of activities that can be used by a researcher to

maximise the involvement of participants especially when those participants may include large numbers of diverse stakeholders. These are focus groups, informal meetings, agency or departmental meetings and community group meetings. This research proposal had to be approved by the Director General of the ISF and rather than send it directly to him, the researcher met with an ISF Major who was a key member of the ISF Strategic Planning team and informally discussed the proposal with him. As a result of the meeting and listening to the advice of the officer concerned the researcher arranged a meeting with the General commanding the ISF Training Academy, whom the author knew well as they had worked collaboratively together for two years. The author briefed him on the proposal, emphasising that there would be full collaboration with the ISF all the way through the process including confirmation of the research questions, methodology, research instruments, participants and the sharing of data. The author also outlined the potential benefits to the ISF as a result of the research in that the research presented an opportunity to validate the leadership development initiatives that have already taken place in the Academy and that the information that would be obtained could help to inform the development of a leadership development strategy for the ISF. The General stated that he would support the research and requested that the author prepare a formal letter from the University clearly outlining the research proposal and potential benefits to the ISF and address it to the Director General (DG). in charge of the ISF, but to send it to the General first and he would personally ensure it was forwarded to the DG with his endorsement.

Denzin (1997) highlights the growing need for a method of reporting that represents people's real lived experiences in a clear, everyday language moving away from the more traditional methods of presenting participants with highly scientific reports filled with jargon and meaningless to the average layperson. This position is also supported by McTaggart (1991) who argued that action researchers are advised to link the theory with the practice and to use everyday language as opposed to academic jargon. The General commanding the ISF Academy was informed of the researcher's role in the research process, in that the researcher stands alongside the community or group under study and not outside as an objective observer or external consultant and is a partner with the study population making this type of research significantly more value-laden than more traditional research methods (Berg and Eikeland, 2008). Action research has its critics and has been dismissed by some academics for lacking rigour and for being too partisan in approach (Bryman, 2012). Cooke and Kothari (2001) went

even further and challenged the whole premise of participant action research, describing the participative process as a tool for manipulation and a tyranny.

4.2 Qualitative research

Qualitative research is referred to as interpretive research (Erickson, 1986) and 'unlike quantitative work that can carry its meaning in its tables and summaries, qualitative work carries its meaning in its entire text [...] its meaning is in the reading' (Richardson and St Pierre, 2005). Bryman (2012) explains that qualitative research is concerned with words as opposed to numbers and highlights three noteworthy features. Firstly, there is an inductive relationship between theory and research, whereby the theory is generated from the research. Secondly, the epistemological stance is interpretivist and based on the understanding of the social world through the interpretation of that world by the participants. Thirdly, the ontological stance is constructivist, describing outcomes of interactions between individual people. The constructivist approach to research is described by Cohen and Manion (1994) as being related to the understanding of human experiences and that these experiences are continually shaped by human interaction. Cresswell (2003) argues that the vast majority of inductive research is interview-based and interpretivist.

When selecting the methodology for this large-scale research project, the researcher considered and assessed the suitability of all the qualitative methods. The first of these was phenomenology which was founded by Edmund Husserl and is described by Bryman (2012) as one of the main intellectual traditions for the anti-positivist position, which is concerned with how individuals interpret the world around them. Bogdan and Taylor (1975) observed that phenomenologists attempt to see things from a person's point of view. Another method considered was the case study approach. A case study is research which involves an investigation and analysis of a particular case, intended to capture the complexities of the object under study (Stake, 1995). The methodology is described by Merriam (2009, p.46) as maintaining deep connections to core values and intentions and is 'particularistic, descriptive and heuristic'. Case study research is growing in popularity amongst qualitative researchers (Thomas, 2011) and it has been described as a 'stand-alone' qualitative approach (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Another method that was considered was ethnography, which is recognised as one of the most important methods of social research and requires the observer to become involved in the daily lives of people, studying them and recording what they say and do (Gilbert 2008). Geertz (1973) describes ethnography as the 'thick description' that captures the reality

in as much depth as possible. He states that it involves going much deeper than just observing the behaviour or speech of individuals, but also considers their descriptions, times of day, rituals and other signs and symbols. Mitchell (2007) highlights the importance of long-term participation in ethnographic studies, arguing that this is what makes it different from other qualitative methods. It was described by Geertz (1973) as an attempt to be fully immersed in the culture and to balance the insiders' and outsiders' perspectives requiring the researcher to remain at the site for a considerable period of time. Issues are then uncovered through a combination of emic (insiders') and etic (outsiders') perspectives. The difficulties accessing closed organisations and the time limitations regarding this research resulted in ethnography not being identified as the primary research method. However, the role of the researcher as a consultant working alongside the ISF enabled him to gain a unique insight into how the participants interact in their natural environment. By observing their social interaction, it provided an understanding of how the participants see the world around them. This also helped the researcher to understand the challenges and share the experiences from an insider perspective. Most importantly and particularly relevant to this research it helped to view the participants lives through a cultural lens (Fetterman 2010). Many theorists have contributed to the idea of symbolic interactionism, and according to Gilbert (2008), it suggests that human behaviour involves social interaction and developing shared meaning. Interactionists concentrate on the subjective aspects of social life as opposed to the objective aspects of social systems.

In relation to this research, a grounded theory approach has been adopted to generate a hypothesis from the data obtained. Grounded theory is recognised as being the most widely used framework for analysing qualitative data (Bryman, 2012). It is also the theory that is identified by Gilbert (2008) as becoming the best-known approach to inductive social research. In the past, there was a tendency for social researchers to be pre-occupied with a small number of grand theories written by eminent theorists such as Marx and Weber. Emerging social scientists were not being encouraged to develop their own research-driven theories (Gilbert, 2008). Glaser and Strauss (1967) describe grounded theory as the discovery of theory from data systematically obtained from social research arriving at a theory suited to its supposed purpose. They explain that the generation of theory from data means most hypotheses not only conform to the data but are actually generated during the course of the research.

4.3 Quantitative research

Although quantitative research has not been adopted for this particular research, there is still value in considering it as a research option. Quantitative research is associated with the positivist paradigm and the research aims to measure by numbers and statistical analysis. According to Polit and Beck (2008), it is the study of research questions or hypotheses that can help to identify prevalence, test relationships and assess cause and effect between variables. Bryman (2012) describes quantitative research as a research strategy that places the emphasis on quantity in the collection and subsequent analysis of data. This entails a deductive approach between theory and research whereby the emphasis is on the testing of theories.

4.4 Mixed methods

Cresswell (2009) believes that the development and legitimacy of both qualitative and quantitative research have contributed to the popularity of the mixed methods approach, suggesting that it is part of an evolving process. The mixed methods paradigm was described by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003) as the 'third wave' or 'movement' of research. As Bryman (2012) highlights, it is tempting to automatically conclude that mixed strategy research will yield superior results to mono-strategy research. However, that is also dependent on the quality of the research (O'Cathain et al., 2007).

Gilbert (2008) draws our attention to the debate amongst theorists in relation to what constitutes mixed methods and highlights the fact that research with one data strand analysed with different methods could also be considered as mixed methods. Kelle (2001, cited by Gilbert, 2008) believes that mixed methods have been used to enhance the level of accuracy resulting in increased levels of confidence in the subsequent findings.

4.5 Researching closed organisations

According to Punch (1993) the police organisation is relatively resistant to the probing eyes of outsiders. Police research is especially sensitive to researcher status (Reiner, 2000) and this is also the case regarding access to the Lebanese ISF. This is further compounded by the absence of a research culture in Lebanon and the difficulty in accessing human subjects (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2016). According to Brown (1996), the four main types of statuses when researching police organisations are insider (a police officer), outsider (an external researcher), inside-outsider (e.g. a civilian who works for the police organisation) and outside-insider (e.g. ex-police officer), and there are associated advantages and disadvantages with each type. In this

case, the researcher was an outside-insider. Thapar-Bjorkert and Henry (2004) suggest that neither insider nor outsider status endows any essential form of power on researchers, but that power is dynamically negotiated between the researcher and the researched depending on the different constellations of identity and power at play. The experience of other police researchers supports the importance of status. Huggins and Glebbeek (2003) suggest that when researching the police, in many cultural settings, if interviewers are recognised as insiders, they are more readily accepted by police interviewees. It can also be argued that an insider researcher will always have more passion for the subject they are working on which would mean they will have more commitment to the research despite the obstacles they are facing (McClintock et al., 2003). According to Labaree (2002), there is an assumption that the insider will possess intimate knowledge of the researched community and therefore can interpret the findings and provide insights that outsiders will find impossible to access. This position is challenged by Kauffman (1994), who argues that an outsider will possess the objectivity and detachment to question the observed phenomenon, unencumbered by preconceived ideas, notions and prior prejudice.

The researcher's status as a former senior police officer with an in-depth knowledge of the Lebanese ISF culture and context in which they operate made it easy to establish and maintain a rapport throughout the interview process. According to Brewer (1990), the issues of rapport and trust are important in qualitative research, especially in research on the police. Despite this, the researcher still had to navigate the extra layers of protection that were mandated by the ISF before the research could take place. Since there are no suitable solutions for every peculiar situation arising in fieldwork, the researcher must take a moral or ethical decision based on individual conscience (Van Maanen, 2008).

One example was just before the beginning of the first interview a uniformed junior Non-Commissioned-Officer (NCO) came into the room and informed the researcher he would be present at all the interviews on behalf of ISF Headquarters just for record purposes. From the researcher's knowledge of the ISF and their processes, he knew that if he objected to the presence of the NCO, access to the participants would be denied and the research would not proceed. The researcher was also aware that all the participants were senior commissioned officers who would not be influenced or intimidated by such a junior NCO. The ability to understand how the power relations manifest in particular cultures and research contexts and how they inform the ethics of data collection and knowledge formation is essential (Elwood and Martin, 2000).

Horn (1997) found that researchers that attempted to access the police were seen as spies and there was a concerted effort by police officers to ensure that outside researchers were not given access to their secret world. At the time this study was being carried out in Lebanon, news broke that the British academic from Durham University, Matthew Hedges, had received a life sentence in the UAE for 'asking sensitive questions to sensitive departments seeking to gather classified information on the UAE' (Guardian, 21 November 2018) Although Hedges received a pardon, it highlights the sensitivity around researching security organisations in the Middle East.

According to Budhwar and Mellahi (2016), there are a number of challenges facing HR researchers in Lebanon including the absence of a research culture. Despite there being over 40 business schools operating in the country, only a small proportion conduct research. It is difficult to access human subjects and there is a lack of a country-specific database and statistics. Often an organisation will be suspicious of the motives of any outside researcher and how the data that has been collected will be used and disseminated. Many HR managers would be reluctant to be totally transparent, particularly around issues such as sectarianism, nepotism and patriarchy and would present a positive picture fearing their answers could be put in the public domain. Many organisations are reluctant to take part in research fearing that the results would make them look unprofessional. Many simply do not trust outside researchers as they are outside the trusted circle. Budhwar and Mellahi (2016) conclude that to conduct effective research in the field of HRM, the researcher needs to take their time in establishing and building a strong relationship with the HR community to engender trust and credibility.

In this study, the researcher was well-known to certain elements of the ISF, particularly the staff in the ISF Academy as the researcher had been the Academy component lead for the BPST since August 2016. This involved being present in Lebanon for approximately 8-10 working days a month and working directly with the Academy staff. The researcher had worked collaboratively with the Academy staff on all the leadership development initiatives that had been introduced and had also delivered leadership programmes to middle-ranking ISF officers. The researcher also had project responsibilities for the introduction of scenario-based training to the Academy curriculum through the maximisation of the newly constructed Tactical Village and, finally, responsibility for the development of a community police training curriculum. This privileged and unique insight into the ISF helped the researcher formulate the aims and the primary and secondary objectives for the research.

Despite the researcher having an excellent working relationship with the staff at the Academy, the process of gaining access to research participants had to be carefully choreographed given the hierarchical nature of the organisation and the intrusive nature of the research. As highlighted by Drummond (1989), the use of lateral thinking to achieve the research objectives rather than a focus on obstacles to gaining access to the data is a useful technique.

In the first instance, the researcher held an informal meeting with an ISF Major who held a key position in the ISF Strategic Planning team and was highly respected throughout the organisation. The Major was supportive of the initiative, believing that although the organisation did not have a research culture, it was essential in the modern world and he recommended that the idea should be presented to the General commanding the Academy with a view to obtaining his views and support before seeking the approval of the Director General. When conducting research of this nature, it is essential to seek the approval of the top-level administrators of the organisation (Fox and Lundman, 1974). The researcher held a meeting with the General, who was very supportive of the idea and requested that a formal letter should be prepared from the University outlining not only the research details but what the benefits would be to the ISF. On receipt of the letter, the General stated he would personally take it to the Director General of the ISF who would be ultimately responsible for making the decision (Letter dated 15th January 2018 attached). It took several weeks before conditional approval was received from the Director General's office to proceed with the research, the primary condition was that a copy of the questions contained in the interview schedule would be submitted in advance of the interviews. The secondary condition was that the Captain in charge of the Academy Training Bureau would carry out the role of gatekeeper, as he could navigate the organisation and be aware of the protocols that need to be followed in terms of arranging the interviews. Gatekeepers and a high level of bureaucracy stringently guard access to both police officers and institutional policies, but this was not the case with the appointed gatekeeper, who proved to be an excellent ally, relentlessly chasing up the researcher's requests and seeking answers from the Director General's office.

It took several months before the final approval was received and several of the questions were removed from the interview schedule, but that did not adversely affect the themes that were being explored and was taken in the spirit of collaboration. An example of a question that was removed was 'What are your views on the present staff appraisal system?' It is likely that the response from officers to this question would be negative given the 'closed' nature of the staff appraisal system which does not involve giving feedback and is viewed as a subjective process.

Another was 'At what level/rank of the organisation do you think decisions should be taken?' Although this question was removed from the interview schedule, the following question was not: 'There is a plan to accept the decision-making model throughout the organisation. What are your views on this?'

Discussions took place between the Director General's staff, the gatekeeper and the researcher as to the names of the participants and a timetable for the interviews. The researcher set out suggested criteria, which included the minimum rank of interviewees to be Captain and that there should be a minimum of 20 officers from both operational and non-operational roles in the organisation. Having seen the interview schedules, the Director General's office suggested that a further criterion should be applied: that the interviewees should have undertaken the transformational leadership module from the Captain to Major course. Although this had not been considered by the researcher, it was a very good suggestion as these officers would be familiar with many of the concepts contained in the interview protocols that would have otherwise had to be explained during the interviews. Rubin (2005) suggests that choosing interviewees who are knowledgeable about the research problem is more valuable than talking to people who know little about the issue.

The interviews with the participants took place over several months, but the majority were carried over a four-day period at the ISF Academy in a classroom that was arranged by the gatekeeper. Choice of appropriate interview sites is important as it has implications for the power and positionality of the researcher and participants (Elwood and Martin, 2000). In this case, the ISF provided a suitable interview room which did not detract from the interview process.

Consideration was given to extending the research to include elements of Lebanese civil society; however, based on the researcher's previous experience of the ISF's reluctance to engage with outside organisations and the sensitive nature of the research, it was not considered a realistic option. An example of the ISF's reluctance to engage with outsiders was when it was suggested that a local university drama group could provide role players for practical scenarios at the tactical village: this was immediately dismissed by the ISF as a potential breach of security. Consideration was also given to extending the scope of the semi-structured interviews to include junior officers and this was discussed with the ISF in accordance with the collaborative approach. The ISF were of the opinion that this was not necessary as there was extensive evaluation data already available. This included both quantative and qualitative

information about their feedback on the transformational leadership and community policing modules and this would be made available and accessible to the researcher.

4.6 Key informants

A key informant is described by Marshall (1996) as an expert source of information, an ethnographic research technique which is now widely used in the other branches of social science investigation. Bryman (2012) highlights the importance of key informants in terms of their appreciation of the research and their ability to direct the researcher to situations, events or people that would be likely to help the progress of the investigation. Tremblay (1957) describes key informants as 'natural observers' who, as a result of their position, in a society coupled with their personal skills can supply more information and a deeper understanding of what is going on around them. Key informants are usually interviewed intensively over a period of time with a view to providing a comprehensive description of the social and cultural patterns of the group under observation. Sjoberg and Nett (1968) describe key informants as 'strategic informants' and consider there to be two types of informant: the ones who conform to social norms in their society and those 'marginal men' who would present more extreme views and attitudes. The key characteristics of an 'ideal' key informant are described by Tremblay (1957) as:

1. **Role in the community**. The formal role of the informant should expose them to the kind of information that is being sought by the researcher.
2. **Knowledge**. In addition to having direct access to the information desired, the key informant should have absorbed the information meaningfully.
3. **Willingness**. The informant should be willing to communicate their knowledge to the researcher and to co-operate with them as fully as possible.
4. **Communicability**. They should be able to communicate their knowledge in such a manner that is intelligible to the researcher.
5. **Impartiality**. Ideally, personal bias should be at a minimum, but where such biases do exist, they should be known to the researcher.

Before deciding to use the key informant technique to support this research, the researcher carefully considered its advantages and disadvantages. According to Marshall (1996), the main

advantages of using the key informant technique relate to the quality of information that can be ascertained in a relatively short time when obtaining the same information from carrying out in-depth interviews with members of the community would be both expensive and time-consuming. The main weaknesses of the key informant technique were described by Williams (1967) as the potential for the key informant to misrepresent the majority view of those individuals in their community or fail to understand them. The key informant may not have the required skills, knowledge or experience required of a true key informant, or may only divulge information that in their opinion is politically acceptable. There can also be problems that result from the relationship between the key informant and the researcher, who in some circumstances can become very close (Spradley, 1979).

The key informants identified for this research all met the criteria outlined by Tremblay in terms of their role. They all had significant experience working with the ISF in Lebanon over a number of years. They all had ready access to the information that was being sought and they all had specialist knowledge in terms of leadership, community policing and governance structures in the ISF. All the key informants identified were willing to communicate their knowledge and agreed to be interviewed by the researcher. They were all experienced professionals in their field and had no difficulty in communicating their knowledge to the researcher in an intelligible manner. In terms of impartiality, all had worked on different aspects of the British Policing Support Team project and were honest enough to admit the negative aspects of their work, not just concentrating on the positive achievements. The four key informants have been anonymised for the purpose of this research and identified throughout the text as Consultants A, B, C and D.

4.7 Secondary data analysis

Secondary data analysis is described by Johnston (2014) as the analysis of data that has been collected by others for another primary purpose. The examination of the existing data provides a viable option to assist researchers who may have limited time and resources. It is also described as the re-analysing of data that was originally collected for another purpose (Glaser 1963). Bryman (2012) believes that secondary data analysis should be a consideration for all researchers, offering as it does the prospect of accessing good-quality data using far fewer resources than if the research had been carried out by the researcher. Access to secondary data presents opportunities for even the most inexperienced researcher and builds capacity for empirical research (Hakim, 1982).

The main advantages associated with secondary analysis are cost-effectiveness and convenience (Dale et al., 1988; Glaser, 1963; Smith, 2008). According to Doolan and Froelicher (2009), the use of data already in existence can accelerate the pace of the research because of the elimination of the most time-consuming steps such as data collection and measurement. The main disadvantages of the secondary data analysis method stem from the fact that the data has been collected for some other purpose and therefore not was collected to answer the specific research questions (Boslaugh, 2007), and that participants cannot be contacted in relation to follow-up questions and neither can additional data be collected. The use of secondary analysis must also comply with the consent conditions of the original study (Heaton, 2008). The secondary data researcher would not have been involved in the collection of the primary data so to ensure that the secondary data is reliable and valid they should find information by other means including documentation relating to the data collection procedures, technical reports and publications (Boslaugh, 2007; Dale et al., 1988).

There was significant secondary data available for analysis to support this research, particularly in relation to public surveys that had been carried in respect to public perceptions of the Lebanese ISF in 2009, 2013 and 2016. The studies were carried out using a quantitative approach, in the form of face-to-face interviews conducted in the homes of the respondents by specialised interviewers chosen and trained by the organisation. Detailed and well-structured questionnaires were used for the data collection designed to answer the needs of the study. Further secondary data that supported this research was contained in the detailed evaluation reports following training interventions given to the ISF officers. These reports were compiled by the Monitoring and Evaluation (M and E) department of the British Support Team Project by professional and experienced M and E expert staff.

4.8 The research instruments used in this research project.

This research was carried out to ensure the data collection methods and subsequent analysis resulted in answering the research questions. According to Gilbert (2008), the researcher must consider whether the chosen collection method is the most appropriate to answer the research questions and to reconsider the type of questions being asked. Gilbert also highlights the importance of choosing the most appropriate analytical methods to provide empirical or conceptual evidence to provide an answer to the research question. The most appropriate collection method in this study was an interview and the analysis of secondary data.

According to Patton (2001), qualitative methods are often used in evaluations because they tell the story of the programme by capturing and communicating the stories of the participants. This is exactly what this research set out to achieve. Patton (2001) also highlights that the sample size is often quite small, which again fits with this particular research as there were only 20 participants that underwent the semi-structured interviews.

Weiss (1994) is of the opinion that qualitative interviews are widely used to learn about people's interior experiences. The introduction of transformational leadership training, a leadership competency framework, an ISF decision-making model and a new style of community policing were significant developments and how the senior ISF officers in the organisation viewed these initiatives were the key issues of the research process. The secondary data that provided evaluations from the junior officers who had undertaken the transformational leadership module was key to obtaining their views on a number of issues; for example, how they felt when given developmental feedback on their performance which was a new experience for them. This was the first time this type of scenario-based competency assessment had been carried out at the ISF and was it culturally challenging, so it was important to capture the officer's views of how they felt about going through the process.

Collins (1998) believes that the dominant characteristics of interviews are based on the dichotomy between structured and unstructured interviews. Bryman (2012) highlights the most significant difference between each interview style as the amount of freedom afforded to the interviewees in their responses to each question. The semi-structured interview was chosen for this part of the research to give the participants the platform to answer open questions to enable the researcher to gain a true understanding of the participants' feelings and attitudes towards the process. Gilbert (2008) states that, although interviews take many forms, they are classified by how much structure is imposed on their format. Bryman (2012) highlights the flexibility of the semi-structured interview and how it captures what the interviewee considers as important in explaining understanding events, patterns and other forms of behaviour. For this research to be successful it was essential to obtain true information from the participants rather than rehearsed positions. Gilbert (2008) believes that is achieved by maximising open-ended questions and using questioning techniques that reveal underlying attitudes, values and beliefs rather than bland or easy answers. According to Adler and Adler (1997), quantitative research captures a shallow band of information from a large swathe of people, whereas qualitative researchers generally study far fewer people but delve much deeper into the individuals'

context, cultures and sub-cultures with the intention of understanding how and why people reflect, perceive and carry out their respective roles.

Bryman (2012) identifies five factors that should be considered by qualitative researchers before deciding on the number of participants they intend to interview for their research project. The first is theoretical saturation, described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as a process that the researcher undertakes until no new technical insights are being taken from the data. Bryman (2012) highlights the challenges of this process, including the researcher having to combine sampling, data collection and analysis of the data, rather than dealing with them as separate stages in a linear process. It also makes it virtually impossible for the researcher to know from the outset the number of interviews that will be required, making it difficult to plan and budget. There are many variables in relation to achieving saturation, as evidenced by Guest (2006) when conducting interviews in two West African countries and finding that saturation was reached after 12 interviews. The second factor highlighted by Bryman (2012) is described as the minimum requirements for sample size in qualitative research, citing Warren (2012) who suggested that the minimum number of interviews required is between 20 and 30 for an interview-based qualitative study to meet the publishing threshold. Bryman also draws our attention to Gerson and Horowitz (2002) who suggest that anything less than 60 interviews cannot support convincing conclusions and anything in excess of 150 produces too much data for effective and expeditious analysis. Mason (2002) discovered when he studied abstracts of doctoral theses relating to interview-based qualitative studies in Great Britain and Ireland, that the range was 1-95 with a mean of 31 and a median of 28. The third factor in relation to sample size is described by Bryman (2012) as the style or theoretical underpinnings of the study, and the fourth factor that influences the size of the sample is the heterogeneity of the population from which the sample is drawn. The fifth and final factor is variance in the breadth and scope of research questions in qualitative research. Based on the empirical research findings in relation to a number of qualitative interviews and the issues of accessing senior officers of the ISF in Lebanon, the researcher decided on interviewing 20 officers. There are many roles performed by ISF officers both operational and administrative in different geographical areas in urban and rural areas and this was taken into account to ensure a proper representation was achieved.

Rank	Role	Religion	Length of Service
3 x Major	4 x Academy	5 x Christian	1 x 10-15 years
17 x Captain	5 x Station Commander	7 x Sunni - Muslim	10 x 15-20 years
	2 x Investigation Unit	7 x Shia Muslim	3 x 20-25 years
	2 x Intelligence Unit	1 x Druze	6 x 25 – 30 years
	2 x Personnel Branch		
	2 x Emergency Battalion		
	3 x Security of Embassies		

Table 2: Anonymised chart of the ISF officers

4.9 Recording the interviews

The decision whether or not to record is not only culturally dependent; the risks associated with recording include potential unease among respondents, which could result in a negative impact on the quality of the data is gathered (Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis, 1997). Manual recording can be the safer option and can help to eliminate the lack of trust created by the unease of taping the interview, which may result in more stilted responses or other response bias that is caused by the interaction with the interviewee and their perceptions of the interviewer (Robson, 1993). Reiner (1991), in his study of Chief Constables, felt that some officers' refusal to be interviewed or to be taped possibly indicated a suspicion about the researcher. One of the Chief Constables who would not be taped said that it did not matter what the results turned out to be, there was a real danger that they would damage the image of the police and that direct quotes tended to make them look stupid. According to Manley and Hayes (2004), tape-recording an interview provides a full, unedited record of all the ground covered during the course of the interview and this remains available to the researcher after the interview has terminated to be replayed afterwards to support the researcher's analysis. Robson (1993) highlights the necessity to transcribe and edit the tape-recorded interviews and the associated costs in terms of time and finance, suggesting that a one-hour interview may take ten hours to transcribe.

In relation to this research, the researcher raised the issue of tape-recording the interviews with a senior officer in the ISF to ascertain their views before making a final decision, in keeping with the collaborative approach taken throughout the research. The senior officer was of the opinion that it would be better not to record the interviews as it may have an adverse effect on the interview process and result in a reluctance for the interviewee to fully engage. He believed that the presence of the tape recorder may raise suspicion and result in trust issues despite any

reassurances that may be given. In light of this advice, coupled with the fact the interviews would be conducted in Arabic and therefore the recordings would require both translation and transcription, the researcher decided against tape-recording the interviews and adopted a manual process of recording instead.

4.10 Interview schedule

The participants were contacted, and the interviews arranged by the ISF Captain that had been appointed gatekeeper and all the interviews were conducted in working hours. The gatekeeper was bi-lingual and had access to the participants' contact details and locations. The interview schedules for this research were designed to cover key themes but allowed for the freedom to alter the sequence of the questions and the ability to ask probing follow-up questions to explore areas where the participants had stronger views. Each interview started with an introduction about the aims and objectives of the research, the voluntary nature of participating and anonymity. All the participants were Lebanese ISF officers of the rank of Captain or above with Arabic as their first language, so their level of English was assessed on a case-by-case basis and where necessary an experienced interpreter was called in. The interpreter received a comprehensive briefing prior to the interviews to ensure that they were familiar with the structure, terminology and aims and objectives of the interview.

The interview schedule for this part of the research was created to ask questions that were formulated so as to get a proper and thorough understanding of the participants' views across a range of issues relating to leadership development and community policing in the organisation but also allowed the freedom for the interviewees to fully express themselves. The language used for the questions was also considered to ensure they were set at the right level and were comprehensible, especially when translated into Arabic. The researcher formulated the questions as an initial draft but in the spirit of collaborative action research the questions were presented to officers from the ISF Academy including the General in command, and their views were sought, and alterations or additions taken into account. The questions were themed and began with a question about the current situation regarding leadership development presently in place in the ISF and to elicit their views on the proposal to introduce leadership development at all levels of the organisation. Care had to be taken to ensure that the participants were still familiar with the concept, after their training, and were each handed a copy of the framework to refresh their memory and as a reference document. The next set of themed questions related to performance management to ascertain the views of the officers in relation

to the current closed system of appraisal and to ascertain if there was an appetite for change. The questions explored other areas relevant to performance management such as motivation and dealing with poor performers.

The questions relating to decision-making and the introduction of a Lebanese ISF decision-making model were highly important for the General as he wanted to take the model to the Command Council so that it could be adopted throughout the organisation. The model had been adopted at the Academy and placed in the curriculum where relevant, and the feedback had been highly positive. The opinions of the senior officers that were to be interviewed would support the evidence base for the proposed introduction which would be against a backdrop of a highly centralised decision-making system. The researcher faced the same challenge in relation to the participants understanding of the decision-making model and after consultation with the ISF Academy officers, it was agreed that the best way forward was for a copy of the model to be made available to each interviewee as a reminder and as a reference document.

The next set of questions related to strategic planning and forward-thinking. This was highly relevant given the recent introduction of a comprehensive 5-year ISF Strategic Plan. The questions also linked the strategy to operational effect and the role the senior officers would have in maximising that effect. The area of internal and external communication was also explored to ascertain the views of the participants about how the ISF is performing and how it may improve. The next theme concentrated on the community policing style being adopted by the ISF following on from the Director General's memorandum instructing all ISF stations to implement a community policing ethos throughout the country. It was important to ask questions about their views on this policy and on community policing as a policing style and linking this to the benefits and challenges particular to the organisation. The final set of questions related to female representation in the ISF, which currently stands at less than 10%. One of the most fundamental ways in which various societies differ is the way they prescribe and proscribe different roles for men and women (Hofstede, 1980). This area of questioning was discussed in advance with the host organisation in keeping with the collaborative approach and they were fully supportive and agreeable to the questions that were proposed. Finally, there was a catch-all question giving the participant an opportunity to discuss other areas they felt were important and relevant to the research.

Arab culture places great emphasis on building rapport before getting down to business, so each interview was conducted on that basis and the first question was designed to be generic

and to put the participants at ease. Although Mason (2002) argues against using general questions because the interviewees usually ask the question to clarify the question and the context in which it is being asked it was still deemed culturally appropriate in this case.

4.11 Reliability and validity in qualitative research

There are those that are critical of the qualitative research paradigm, Silverman (1993, cited in Bryman, 2012) is critical of those attempting to classify qualitative research as a general approach. He argues that there are not the required levels of sophistication in field research design and has concerns relating to reliability and validity of the data obtained. Bogdan and Biklen (1998) explain that qualitative research can be time-consuming and there can be problems classifying or reducing the data. Reliability and validity have been described as the 'tools of an essentially positivist epistemology' (Watling, cited by Winter, 2000, p.7). Joppe (2000) describes reliability as being determined by consistent results over a period of time and the ability to reproduce the results using similar methodologies. These observations were taken into account when choosing the methodology for this research project, but a qualitative approach was still deemed the most suitable to address the research question.

Bryman (2012 p.390) highlights an alternative position in relation to validity and reliability in relation to qualitative research, citing Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) the criteria for assessing qualitative research should be based on trustworthiness and authenticity. Trustworthiness is broken down into four criteria; credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Authenticity, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994), includes fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, catalytic authenticity and tactical authenticity. Credibility is described as ensuring that the research is conducted in accordance with good practice and that the findings have been submitted to the social world being studied to confirm the researcher has understood it. This is also known as respondent validation (Bryman, 2012). The collaborative nature of this research ensured that respondent validation was maintained throughout the process. According to Lincoln and Guba (1994), qualitative research is a 'thick description' transferability with rich descriptions of culture providing others with a database for making the required judgements about the possible transferability of the findings to other areas. The dependability criteria require an auditing approach to be taken, ensuring that comprehensive records and notes are kept throughout all phases of the research process. This includes the selection of participants, field notes and transcripts of the interviews. These records then allow peers to act as auditors both throughout the research process and afterwards

to ensure that proper procedures were followed throughout. The final criteria highlighted by Lincoln and Guba (1994) was confirmability and closely associated with this, the role of the auditors. They recognised that complete objectivity was impossible in the field of social research but that the researcher had to demonstrate that they had acted in good faith throughout and had not allowed undue influence to occur as a result of their own values and beliefs.

Lincoln and Guba (1994) also discuss authenticity and the wider political effect on social research. Particularly relevant to this study was the close relationship and affinity with action research. The first criterion of authenticity is fairness, which is concerned with the research representing the different viewpoints in the social setting. The participants in this research represented all commissioned ranks up to and including Brigadier General, enabling viewpoints to be taken into consideration from the strategic, tactical and operational levels of the organisation. The second criterion in relation to authenticity is ontological authenticity, questioning whether the research helped the participants to better understand their social environment. The third is educative authenticity, asking if the participants have gained a better appreciation of other members in their social setting. In relation to the qualitative semi-structured interviews, the participants were informed of the new initiatives being carried out in the ISF regarding leadership development and community policing and this process informed them of those initiatives, enabling them to gain a better understanding of the proposed changes. The fourth criterion is catalytic authenticity which relates to whether or not the research has acted as an impetus for those participants to change their circumstances. The final criterion is tactical authenticity which asks if the research empowered the participants to take the appropriate steps for engaging in action. Yardley (2008), cited in Bryman (2012), proposed four criteria to assess the quality of qualitative social research: sensitivity to context, commitment and rigour, transparency and coherence, and impact and importance. Patton (2001) believes the effective use of triangulation strengthens research studies by combining methods. This can include using both qualitative and quantitative methods. This position was supported by Cresswell and Miller (2000) who described triangulation as a validity procedure in which the researcher uses multiple and differing sources of information to establish themes and categories. The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews was triangulated with the data from the key informant interviews and the secondary data. In relation to this, the researcher adopted an approach taken by Johnson (1997) that the more the validity or trustworthiness can be tested and challenged, the more credible and defensible the results.

The researcher was also aware of the potential for researcher bias throughout the research, described by Polit and Beck (2014) as any influence that provides a distortion in the results of a study. The researcher held the position of component lead for the BPST project, responsible for working with the ISF in introducing a number of learning and development initiatives throughout the organisation. The researcher was aware of the potential bias in using his influence through the research to demonstrate a positive outcome and impact of the BPST project. Qualitative research, highlighted by certain scholars as lacking some of the safeguards employed in quantitative research, must ensure that what is produced is not just the well composed rhetoric of a biased researcher's opinion (Thirsk & Clark, 2017). To counter the possible effects of researcher bias, the researcher was transparent in his approach and carefully considered the potential for bias throughout the process of data collection, analysis and presentation.

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethical consent was obtained from the Ethics Committee of ICJS and a letter was delivered to the host organisation informing them of the research proposal and seeking their consent. The letter also highlighted the low-risks that were identified and considered at the outset of the research. It emphasised the voluntary nature of the research and the requirement for informed consent of the participants. According to Gilbert (2008) informed consent requires that those that are being researched have the right to know they are being researched and that they should have actively given their consent to take part. The issue of role-conflict was also brought to the attention of the host organisation, clarifying that the research would be carried out by the researcher in his capacity as a Professional Doctorate student and not as part of his role within the BPST project. Efforts were also made to ensure there was no potential harm to the participants' careers as a result of honestly answering the questions during the semi-structured interviews. Although the results were anonymised to ensure confidentiality, extra care had to be taken to make certain that comments were not attributable to individual participants. Bryman (2012) draws a distinction between quantitative and qualitative research in respect of confidentiality, highlighting the relative ease in quantitative research of producing anonymous records and findings that would prevent an individual from being identified. However, this is more difficult with qualitative research where extra care is required to prevent the identification of persons and places. The host organisation was also informed that the data obtained from the research would belong to the researcher and the University of Portsmouth and could not be used for performance related issues.

The next chapter will examine the cultural transferability of transformational leadership by examining the relevant literature and carefully considering the participant responses from the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter 5. Is Transformational Leadership Culturally Transferable?

This chapter will briefly look at the literature on leadership and then more closely at the literature on transformational leadership and how it contrasts to transactional leadership. According to Day and Antonakis (2012), leadership literature has divergent and contesting paradigms. The four components of Bass's (1985) framework of behaviours will also be examined and used as a vehicle to assess and analyse the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. The chapter will then look at the journey of leadership development in the ISF and conclude with the 20 interviewees' responses to themed leadership questions, supplemented by the information obtained from the key informants and secondary data.

5.1 Transformational leadership

There is no clearly agreed on definition of leadership (Bass 1990; Yukl 2002). With the vast majority of leadership research during the past 50 years being conducted in the US (Yukl 2002), Hofstede (1993) stated that 'US management theories have several idiosyncrasies not necessarily shared elsewhere'. One of these was the focus on managers rather than workers (individualistic as opposed to collectivist). Bass (1991) highlights cross-cultural evidence for the proposition that there is a hierarchy of leadership effectiveness among a variety of leadership styles and transformational leaders are more effective than transactional who in turn are more effective than laissez-faire leaders. Hartley et al. (1999), referring to the GLOBE data,

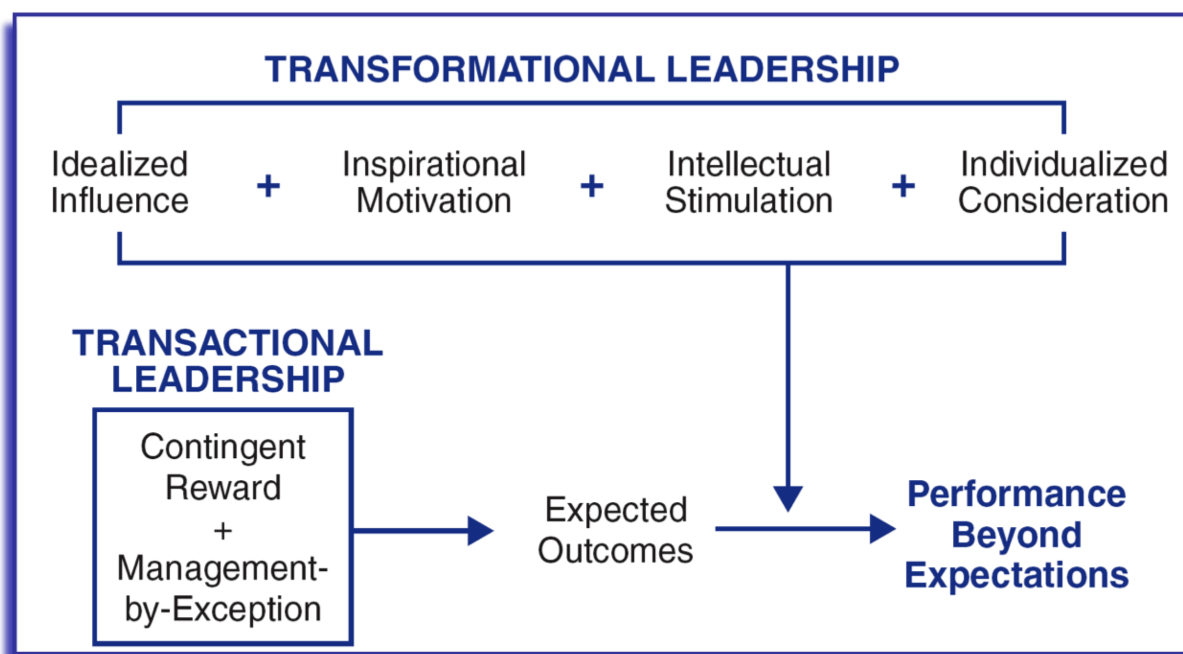


Figure 5. Transformational leadership

concluded that specific aspects of charismatic and transformational leadership are strongly and universally endorsed across cultures. Leadership effectiveness in the Middle East, given the strong role of Islam in the Arab world, has led to leadership effectiveness not being related to a supervisor's level of consideration, but rather to the supervisor's strong directive behaviour (Scandura et al., 1999).

Burns (1978) described leadership as a process of evolving inter-relationships in which leaders influence their followers and are influenced in turn to modify their behaviour as they meet responsiveness or resistance. He identified the existence of two distinct leadership styles transactional and transformational. Transactional leaders motivate their staff through a system of reward and punishment, with more emphasis placed on dealing with negative behaviour. Transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978), appeal to the higher ideals and values of their followers as opposed to their baser emotions. He contrasted transformational leadership with transactional leadership, highlighting that followers are motivated by appealing to their self-interest and influence based on bureaucratic authority, which emphasises legitimate power and respect for rules and tradition.

According to Bass (1985), transactional leaders are risk-averse and use process to maintain control. Leadership is delivered through a combination of 'contingent reward' or 'management by exception' through the application of negative sanctions when responding to undesired behaviour (Densten, 1999). Transactional leadership has been the normal leadership approach in police organisations and certain scholars believe that transformational leadership is simply incompatible with the transactional nature of police command (Neyroud, 2011). Transformational leadership approaches, according to Silvestri (2007), are based on values of 'participation, consultation and inclusion'. This position is supported by Densten (1999), who also highlights that the transformational leader creates a sense of mission and inspires and motivates their staff. Waldman et al. (1990) identified the 'augmentation hypotheses' as the transformational leaders' ability to achieve performance beyond the basic expectations of workers. Densten (1999) identifies one of the main benefits of transformational leadership as improved communication, which is one of the main challenges in many government ministries in the Middle East including the Lebanese ISF.

Some scholars have extolled the benefits of combining transformational and transactional leadership styles, believing they complement each other. Bass (1985) recognised that both styles were necessary to achieve the required goals and objectives. He believed that aligning

the goals of subordinates with those of the organisation's transformational leaders achieved better results and increased performance by employees. Bass identified four components of transformational leadership. The first was idealised influence which related to the leader acting as a role model and having a charismatic personality resulting in the employees wishing to be like the leader. The leader was also willing to take risks and was values-driven with ethical standards. As a result, the leader would build trust with the employees who in turn would operate with increased confidence. The second element was inspirational motivation, which refers to the transformational leader's ability to inspire the confidence of their employees and create a sense of purpose and set out a clear vision. The leader must also demonstrate their commitment to achieving the goals and have excellent communication skills to deliver messages with enthusiasm, optimism and a sense of authority. The third component was intellectual stimulation, which relates to the leader encouraging and recognising creativity and autonomy among their followers and involving them in the decision-making process and finding workplace solutions. By being challenging but not critical and by conveying a clear vision, the followers can see the bigger picture and are encouraged to work towards achieving it. The fourth and final component identified by Bass was individualised consideration, in which the transformational leader recognises that each team member has specific needs and motivations. Some team members are motivated by financial reward, others by challenge or increased responsibility and the transformational leader will take the time to assess their followers to gain an understanding of what motivates them, they will also coach and mentor them to increase their performance resulting in the employee feeling valued. Yukl (1989) described transformational leadership as the process of influencing major positive change in the assumptions and attitudes of members of an organisation and the process of building commitment to the organisation's mission, objectives and strategy. He also believes that transformational leaders can change culture, empowering their followers to actively participate in transforming the organisation.

Bass (1985) identified four transactional leadership behaviours. The first was contingent reward in relation to the exchange of tangible resources from the leader to obtain the followers' effort and performance. The second was described as 'management by exception-active' referring to the leader's focus on monitoring the performance of their staff against a clear set of standards and taking corrective action when necessary. The third was 'management by exception-passive' where the leader only makes an intervention when things become serious.

The fourth was ‘laissez-faire’, which is best described as non-leadership and the total avoidance of leadership responsibility.

Although some scholars argue that the transactional and transformational approach to leadership are diametrically opposed, there has been a shift in recent years to integrate the two with the expectation that leaders are competent in completing their transactional tasks in a transformational way. Densten (1999) related the suitability of transformational leaders in policing to the experiential learning process for officers in learning the ‘police craft’. Beverley Metcalfe’s (2002) work in distilling the core dimensions of transformational leadership is also worthy of closer scrutiny, as a result of extensive studies involving public sector leaders. She identified three clusters and 14 dimensions of transformational leadership. The first cluster related to ‘leading and developing others’ and included the attributes of showing genuine concern for others by valuing their contributions, coaching and mentoring them and giving them positive support. This cluster also included being highly visible and demonstrating trust in their staff by delegating both tasks and decisions to maximise their potential. The leader also encourages the staff to question the traditional approaches and to think strategically. The second cluster related to the ‘personal qualities’ of the transformational leader in that they should always act with integrity, honesty and demonstrate behaviour that is more concerned with the good of the organisation than personal gain or ambition. This cluster also requires the leader to be decisive and to be prepared to make difficult decisions and risks where appropriate. The final cluster was more strategic and related to ‘leading the organisation’ and highlighted the leader’s need to use inspiring communication to build a wide network of internal and external stakeholders and harness their support to achieve organisational goals. The leader also has to have a clear vision and strategic direction and can draw others together for the common purpose of achieving that vision. They can also create and foster an environment where support is in place when mistakes are made and actively encourages feedback on themselves and the service they provide.

Yahchouchi (2009) used Bass’s (1990) transactional and transformational leadership framework when conducting a study on the perceptions of the prevalent leadership style in Lebanon and its relationship with organisational commitment. Data was collected from 158 respondents from two different locations in Lebanon and the results showed that Lebanese leadership tended to be more transformational as opposed to transactional and there was also a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. Although the Lebanese leadership style is still largely unstudied, Neal et al. (2005), whilst

conducting a comparative study of Arab women's perceptions of leadership authority, discovered that Lebanon is characterised by a relatively low level of traditional authority and a high level of charismatic authority. Charismatic leadership is defined as a perception that the leader possesses a divinely inspired gift and is somehow unique and larger than life. Weber (1949) identified three levels of legitimate authority: traditional, legal rationale and charismatic. Charisma was seen as a revolutionary form of authority, described by Weber as an extraordinary supernatural power given to a specifically chosen person. Charismatic leaders, unlike traditional or legal rationale leaders, demand obedience from their followers not because of their status but due to their connection with mystical powers (Weber1949). Followers not only trust and respect the charismatic leader as they would a transformational leader, but they also idolise or worship the leader as a superman or spiritual figure (Bass, 1985). Sabri (2005) conducted an integrated comparative approach to studying the leadership styles of Jordanian managers in the International Air Transport Association (IATA). The results highlighted that IATA managers preferred transformational leadership styles in Jordan. The leaders in the ISF have historically adopted a 'transactional' approach to leadership based on order and structure and governed by rules and regulations.

The principles of the transformational style of leadership were first introduced into the Lebanese ISF through the delivery of the Senior Leaders Course (SLC) in 2013. The first courses were delivered to the highest levels of the organisation to those of General rank by the UK Project Senior Leadership Consultant who stated, 'It was very difficult at the start with a lot of resistance'. After the initial courses had been delivered, a small number of the senior participants were selected, on the basis of their role, interest in leadership development and their performance on the course, to attend a one-week workshop at the UK College of Policing at Bramshill. At the workshop, the Senior Leadership Consultant worked collaboratively with the ISF senior team to put together the topics and key components necessary to expand the SLC to three levels of course delivery: level 1 – General, Colonel and Lt Colonel; level 2 Major and Captain and, level 3 Lieutenant and First Lieutenant. The UK Project Senior Leadership Consultant A stated:

> 'There was very good engagement from the team attending the Bramshill workshop and it was also helped by having the top ranks of the organisation involved including General Basboos who was later appointed Director General of the ISF'.

Pilots for each level were delivered and validated by March 2013 and preparations made for a roll-out of the programme in 2013-2014. An evaluation reported that the majority of officers who attended these courses found the content to be relevant to their work and that they had transferred the learning to their working environments. However, many officers perceived that the prevailing political climate, a lack of resources, corruption issues and inconsistent organisational development activity delayed real progress (BPST, 2016). The UK Senior Leadership Consultant A observed:

> 'Some officers that were negative or in denial were also challenged by the other members of the course and on some occasions 'tore them to shreds' for being rude. It was good to see challenge coming from other officers on the course'.

Despite the challenges, there was a high level of support for the implementation of these courses and in particular key themes including the strategic planning process, human rights, implementation of the code of conduct, and the adoption of the core philosophy of the community policing model. It was mooted that the ISF would take over the delivery of the course and adapt it accordingly. Sixteen courses were delivered between May 2013 and February 2014: four at Level 1, six at Level 2 and six at Level 3. This level of weighting was intended to reflect officer representation at each level with a total of 256 delegates (Strategic Review 2016). The UK Senior Leadership Consultant concluded that:

> 'The courses were well received by the delegates and as it progressed it got easier, but despite accepting the transformational leadership concepts there was a general feeling that they were powerless to make the changes and the training was sort of hypothetical, they were unable to make the decisions necessary because the bosses would not let them'.

In August 2016, the BPST was asked by General Al Hajjar, the head of the ISF Academy, to deliver a transformational leadership module to the cadre of Captains attending the mandated course for promotion to Major based on the principles of the former SLC. The BPST took a collaborative approach to the preparation of the curriculum, working closely with the ISF Academy training department and ensuring that the transformational leadership principles of the SLC were included as per the General's direction. The success of this collaborative approach led to the identification of ISF trainers in the Academy to attend a series of leadership development trainer workshops to prepare them to deliver a transformational leadership module to the new cadets attending the Academy on completion of three years training at the Military Academy. Ten commissioned officers were selected from the ranks of 1st Lieutenant

to Lt Colonel and took part in a series of workshops delivered by UK experts from the BPST. Over the course of several workshops they developed a transformational leadership module which they would deliver to the new cadets. The cadets would also undertake a series of practical scenarios that would be assessed against a Lebanese competency framework, to evaluate their knowledge and understanding of the material and also to assess their leadership skills, behaviours and attitudes.

The first courses were successfully delivered by the ISF trainers in early 2018 and the feedback revealed 92% of the cadets felt the transformational leadership skills would be very useful in the performance of their duties; there was an 89% satisfaction rate in relation to the training methods used and 86% of the cadets felt the objectives of the course were fully met. In the qualitative responses, the cadets highlighted the use of practical scenarios, application of the decision-making model and the professionalism of the ISF trainers as the most positive aspects of the course. The only negative responses were that they felt the course should have been longer to take in all the information and to undertake more scenarios (BPST, 2018).

Building on the success of the delivery of the module, it was decided by the General in command in collaboration with the component lead of the BPST to hand over the delivery of the Captain to Major course to ISF trainers. This provided a number of challenges as the majority of ISF leadership trainers were themselves of or below the rank of Captain and it would be culturally unacceptable in Lebanon or anywhere in the Middle East for a subordinate to teach a superior. However, there were sufficient senior officers in the leadership training team to respond positively to the Generals request. The first course was co-delivered by a UK trainer and a Major from the ISF training team; the UK expert coached and mentored the ISF Major before, during and after the training course. The second course was delivered by the ISF Major with support from other ISF leadership trainers assisting, for example, in the delivery of role plays and practical scenario-based exercises. Sixteen of the 20 interviewees attended the Captain to Major course in 2018 and the other four were either ISF leadership trainers or involved in the leadership development process in the ISF Academy.

The officers were all asked the same leadership themed questions through semi-structured interviews, and the themes are set out below.

Participants views on the introduction of leadership development at all levels of the organisation.

These questions were asked to ascertain views on the current system of leadership development which relies on the only mandated leadership course being delivered to officers prior to promotion to the rank of Major. At this stage of their career, they already have approximately 14 years of service in the ISF and have reached the rank of Captain having not attended any previous formalised leadership development programmes. The question also sought the views of the ISF officers on the proposal to deliver leadership development programmes at all levels of the organisation, starting with the lieutenant cadets. A follow-up question was also asked of each participant in relation to the leadership development training being delivered by ISF officers and how they felt about this shift from relying on external international expertise.

Each of the 20 respondents gave a positive response to the introduction of transformational leadership development programmes at all levels of the organisation.

> 'This is an excellent idea it is important that all tiers of command receive leadership training appropriate to their level. It is wrong that there are no leadership courses or refresher training until reaching the Captain to Major course' (Interviewee 11).

> 'This is very essential and should have happened years ago and leadership training should be delivered more and more' (Interviewee 8).

Four of the interviewees also felt that leadership development was a continuous process throughout an officer's career and should start when an officer first joins the ISF.

> 'The ISF officers are in continuous development and it is a great idea to start with the root, the Lieutenants. They will be able to develop their skills as they progress from a strong base' (Interviewee 3).

Six of the officers felt that officers can have significant responsibilities well before reaching the rank of Major and it is essential that they are given the leadership tools early on in their careers to perform their roles effectively.

> 'Lts is being given big positions as station commanders or assistants and they should be trained before taking these positions up. The importance of self- awareness should be brought to their attention at the earliest opportunity so they will be able to develop as they progress throughout the ranks' (Interviewee 4).

Three highlighted the different leadership style required of a police officer as opposed to that of a military officer. They felt this was a particular challenge in the ISF as all the commissioned officers joining the organisation undertake a three-year course at the Military Academy and are trained as military officers.

> 'This is a great initiative for all the ranks but especially for Lieutenants who will be more used to a more rigid military approach after their military school training. The police leader is more in contact with the community and their approach should be community-focused not military focused' (Interviewee 10).

> 'It is of high importance that leaders undergo leadership training to discover the art of leadership. Graduates that join the ISF attend the military school for 3 years then have 6 months at the Academy where they learn about the ISF procedures so it is good that they will also receive practical leadership skills at this stage and have good habits instilled' (Interviewee 19).

Two of the interviewees were of the opinion that leadership development should also be extended to the most senior ranks in the organisation and should not stop when an officer reaches the rank of Major.

> 'It is also essential that there is leadership development for the higher ranks as well' (Interviewee 1).

> 'It is important that leadership development does not stop at the rank of Major but should be continuous throughout your career including to the higher ranks. This training will also help to reduce the barriers between the higher and lower ranks which is very important' (Interviewee 14).

It was interesting to note that eight of the 20 interviewees were strongly of the opinion that leadership development should not be just for the officer ranks and that it should also be available to NCOs. They felt that NCOs were often the first responders to operational incidents and had to adopt a leadership role until the arrival of an officer.

> 'I would go further and say that leadership and decision-making training should also be available to NCOs as they are often leading patrols and responding to incidents sometimes without the presence of an officer' (Interviewee 2).

> 'This is an excellent initiative, but it should not stop at the commissioned ranks the SNCOs needs to have leadership training and development. They are often the interface with public and are the patrols responding first to

> incidents they need to be qualified and have access to leadership training opportunities' (Interviewee 5).

This position challenges the GLOBE power/distance assumption in respect of the Arab cluster in that the officers would like to maximise the potential of the subordinates by equipping them with the necessary leadership skills to effectively carry out their duties.

> 'As a former NCO it is important that NCOs also receive leadership training as we are all one team and they have the skills and there should not be a division. They can also develop their skills it is like a bell boy who goes on to become a hotel manager' (Interviewee 8).

> 'The leadership and decision-making training should of course be also aimed at the SNCOs and NCOs as they are often the head of patrols and also have important roles in the investigations' (Interviewee 12).

Sixteen of the 20 officers had recently attended the Captain to Major transformational leadership module, and they were asked their opinions on ISF trainers delivering leadership training for the first time in Lebanon.

> 'ISF trainers taking the lead in delivering leadership is a positive step forward as we experienced on the recent Captain to Major course' (Interviewee 9).

> 'It is also really good that the ISF are now delivering the leadership training as we found with Major George on our course because they can apply the leadership principles in a Lebanese way taking into account our culture and best way of doing things' (Interviewee 6).

The opinions of the interviewees on the proposal for all future leadership development training to be delivered by ISF leadership trainers was particularly relevant as this would have been the first time they would have received such training delivered by their own officers.

> 'Anyone teaching leadership needs to be qualified but it is much better to have ISF officers teaching leadership as they understand the culture and can apply the principles much better to our situation' (Interviewee 5).

> 'ISF officers taking responsibility for leadership training is really important for the ISF to develop their own officers and who understand the situation' (Interviewee 7).

All of the interviewees were supportive and saw the benefits of having all leadership development courses delivered by the ISF, particularly in relation to their understanding of the context, culture and knowledge of the organisation in respect of the day-to-day challenges.

Two highlighted the need to benefit from international expertise in respect of leadership development, but felt that experience should be contextualised by the ISF trainers, not just brought in from another country and delivered off the shelf.

> 'It is also very positive that ISF trainers are now taking responsibility for delivering the leadership training after taking the international experience and making it relevant to the ISF' (Interviewee 8).

> 'It is a good development and it is important that the ISF officers take the lead in delivering the training after sharing your experience with them and they can take the broad themes and then really make it our own. ISF trainers understand the underlying issues and the environment in which we operate, they understand our culture and are most suited to train our officers' (Interviewee 15).

Two of the interviewees believed that there was also a difference in leadership training being delivered by an international expert and an ISF officer by highlighting the fact that an ISF officer delivering training, in uniform, will be seen as a role model, which they saw as a key part of being a leader and an international expert will not be held in the same regard.

> 'It is far better to have ISF officers teaching leadership they will be role models and can talk at the appropriate level and in the context of Lebanon, they should take good practices and learning on leadership from the UK and others but then 'Lebanise' it' (Interviewee 11).

This is in line with the Bass (1985) framework for idealised influence in respect of the ISF trainers being seen as role models and having a positive influence in terms of motivation and building trust.

Although all the interviewees responding positively to the proposal to introduce leadership development programmes at all levels of the organisation and that the training should be delivered by ISF trainers, three highlighted some of the leadership challenges prevailing in the organisation. This included the militaristic style of leadership that presently exists in the ISF and that there may be some resistance to the decentralisation process from certain senior ranks.

> 'The leadership style is not standardised throughout the organisation. It is down to the individual style; some leaders are competent, and others are in positions but do not have the necessary skills' (Interviewee 16).

> 'This is a really positive development and will help the organisation in the longer term in developing the officers as leaders. There will still be the challenge of dealing with the leaders from the old system as this will be a challenge to their old ways of doing things' (Interviewee 17).

> ‘Presently the system of leadership is very militaristic and centralised. We really need this training at all levels of the organisation’ (Interviewee 18).

With N=20 in terms of the interviewee responses, there is clear evidence that there is strong support to have transformational leadership development throughout the career of an ISF officer. The preference for an ISF trainer to deliver the transformational leadership training was N=17, which again is statistically significant. Consultant A, when asked about the evolution of transformational leadership development at the three levels of the organisation, stated:

> ‘This is an excellent development and had progressed really well from the early days of the SLC’, the ISF delivering their own training is also a positive step forward’.

Participants views on the ISF Leadership Competency Framework and the competencies required of an ISF officer.

The interviewees were handed a copy of the ISF Leadership Competency Framework (LCF). in Arabic when this question was asked to ascertain their views in relation to it. From the GLOBE study, House et al. (2004) claim that there is clear evidence that culture plays a major role in what leadership attributes are considered effective, stating that the data clearly illustrates that societal and organisational collectivism are directly related to effective leadership. The leadership attributes that were most commonly associated with collectivism were team-orientated and charismatic and value-based leadership.

Throughout the Middle East, high importance is placed on education, training and qualifications, the training and qualifications are not always aligned with a specific role with the majority of employees not having clear job descriptions or clearly defined career paths as a result of ineffective HRM in public sector organisations. This is further compounded by the fact in many public-sector organisations the employees regard their employment as a job for life, not dependent on individual performance (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007; Budhwar and Sparrow, 2002). The change required to improve the effectiveness of public sector organisations in the Middle East is often slow and constrained by high-level resistance to leadership norms and devolvement of power (Al-Yahya, 2009). The ISF promotion system is an example of this, where advancement is based on time served and is not performance-related and it is considered a job for life.

The ISF (LCF) was first introduced in 2016 to highlight 12 competencies required from a leader, with a description of each competency accompanied by a list of positive and negative

behaviours which indicate that a person is displaying that particular competence. The levels of competency are designed to be cumulative, resulting in those working at the higher levels demonstrating each preceding level of behaviour. The LCF, first introduced in 2016, was further developed before being adopted by the ISF leadership trainers to ensure that it was fit for purpose and reflected the culture and context of a leader in their organisation in accordance with the collaborative approach taken by the British Support Team trainers (Consultant A). The LCF competencies are comparable with the 14 transformational leadership dimensions highlighted by Metcalfe (2002) and set out in the three clusters of 'leading and developing others', 'personal qualities' and the more strategically aligned 'leading the organisation'.

The competency levels can be broadly categorised as follows:

- Level 1 – 2nd Lieutenant/1st Lieutenant (Operational level of Command/Team Leader).
- Level 2 – Captain/Major (Tactical level of Command/Middle Manager).
- Level 3 – Lt Colonel/Colonel/General (Strategic level of Command/Executive Manager).

Each of the 20 interviewees was familiar with the framework; 16 of them had recently attended the Captain to Major course where the framework was studied in depth and they would also have been assessed against the competencies for the rank of Major. The remaining four were familiar with the framework as part of their role in the Academy and would have used it in the design of training programmes and as part of the objective assessment process. A follow-up question was also asked about what competencies they thought were the most in need of development for ISF officers in the organisation.

All 20 interviewees were supportive of the introduction of the LCF and were of the opinion that the competencies reflected the competencies required for an ISF officer. Not only did they recognise the benefits of using the framework to assess and develop their staff, but a significant number also believed the framework could be a useful tool for self-development.

> 'The competency framework is really important for assessment, whether self-assessment or assessing staff. The competency framework reflects the competencies that are required at the different levels in the ISF. It should be used throughout the ISF for assessment and development' (Interviewee 4).

> 'The leadership framework is consistent with the competencies required by a leader. Currently, the assessment of officers is basic in that it gives good, bad or average and the framework will provide a much better assessment

> framework. The framework should be spread out more widely in the ISF' (Interviewee 14).

The interviewees also demonstrated a good understanding of the framework and that the competencies reflected the different ranks in the organisation and were applicable to strategic, tactical and operational levels of command.

> 'The competency framework is good and clearly outlines the competencies required for Lt's which are more operationally focused and the higher ranks the more strategic competencies are relevant. The competency framework is also a useful assessment tool' (Interviewee 9).

> 'It reflects the competencies for an officer at all levels of the organisation. The levels will differ between ranks so a Lt will be making smaller operational decisions and more senior ranks will be taking more important and strategic decisions' (Interviewee 1).

Although all the interviewees were broadly supportive of the introduction of the LCF, three were of the opinion that they were still areas for improvement and made constructive suggestions on how the framework could be made even better.

> 'It is about 80% representative of the competencies required for an ISF leader, but everyone has a different way of implementing them on the ground. You cannot just get all the competencies of a leader at once they need time to develop them from Lt and the competencies required of a Lt will differ from that of a Major' (Interviewee 3).

> 'The framework is a very good start but the competency areas still need some discussion, for example, the competency of communication is not included at the Major rank whereas communication is a key competency for all ranks including Major. The framework is a really good tool and will be better with further development' (Interviewee 7).

Three of the interviewees had differing opinions in respect of certain competencies for example strategic thinking. One interviewee felt that even the most junior officers needed to be aware of the organisation's strategy and that this competency could be developed throughout their career.

> 'It is really useful for all aspects of assessment although there are certain competencies that are not included for Lt that I think should be for example strategic thinking because he needs to be aware of the strategy and also to be able to develop that competency for when he a more strategic rank' (Interviewee 11).

Another interviewee was of the opinion that a junior officer is not required to think strategically.

> 'Of course, they fully represent the leadership competencies required for an officer in the ISF. They can be further developed and the breakdown is about right for example a Lt does not need strategic thinking at his level' (Interviewee 12).

The high levels of centralisation in Middle Eastern public-sector organisations often result in performance appraisal being undertaken purely as a legal requirement; it falls short of modern best practice, with traditional approaches and methods remaining strong (Khouri and Analoui, 2004). The introduction of the LCF and the positive responses from the interviewees challenge this position. The interviewees demonstrated a very good understanding of the framework and its applicability in respect of assessment and development and were fully supportive of the concept. The issues that were raised about improving the framework were both constructive and well informed.

The officers were asked this question to establish which competencies they believed were most in need of development. They were given the opportunity to refer to the LCF. Five interviewees believed that all the competencies set out in the LCF were of equal importance and needed to be developed throughout the ISF officer's career.

> 'All competencies are important at the different ranks' (Interviewee 3).

> 'All are important at the different levels. Take decision-making, for example, the Lieutenants will need to make operational decisions but the more senior ranks will be making more strategic decisions' (Interviewee 4).

Four highlighted the need for Lieutenants, who had completed their 3-year military training, to develop the competency of being 'community-focused' and to understand the importance of community engagement and partnership working. The community-focused competency in the LCF is described as: 'understanding the importance of community engagement and partnership working, works towards increasing public confidence in the ISF by professional and ethical performance'.

> 'For new Lieutenants, the area of community focus is the most important as they shift from a military style that they have learned over 3 years to a community style of policing' (Interviewee 8).

> ‘Most of the Lieutenants graduate from the Military Academy with a military mindset but their role is community orientated, so they need to develop the community focus competency as soon as possible. They also need to develop their openness to change to make this happen’ (Interviewee 12).

Four of the interviewees were of the opinion that ‘respect for others’ was the most important competency for a leader to have. Respect for others is described in the LCF as ‘considering and showing respect for the opinions, circumstances and feelings of others and deals with them in a modest, lawful, fair and impartial manner’.

> ‘Respect for others is the most important competency and without that, the others do not matter. How we treat and develop are staff is also really important, human resources are the most important resources so we must take care of them’ (Interviewee 6).

> ‘Respect for others is the key competency for newly appointed Lt’s, sometimes they can be quite snobbish towards their NCOs and do not acknowledge and respect their experience which they really should be utilising’. (Interviewee 11).

Six of the interviewees highlighted communication as the most important competency. Effective communication is described in the LCF as ‘communicating ideas and information effectively, both verbal and in writing, in a style that is appropriate to both the situation and audience. Listens effectively and ensures a clear understanding of the message’.

> ‘The main competency is communication, and this is important at all levels, for the entire chain of command, it is the cornerstone’ (Interviewee 13).

> ‘The most important competency is communication especially between the higher and lower ranks’ (Interviewee 14).

5.2 Performance management

There were three separate questions put to the interviewees with respect to performance management. These questions were linked to the performance orientation dimension of the GLOBE study in terms of assessing how the officers achieved their goals and to what extent they recognised the need to build up the self-confidence of their teams through intellectual stimulation. The first question related to the linkages between the performance of the ISF and how this affects public confidence; the second asked the interviewee for their opinions on how

poor performers should be dealt with; and the third asked how the ISF can maximise the potential of its officers.

Links between ISF performance and public confidence.

Seventeen of the 20 interviewees believed there was a clear link between ISF performance and public confidence.

> 'The performance of our officers directly reflects on the public confidence and public trust**.** The ISF must do its job professionally, not just in detecting crime but by doing their job in a way that respects all people on a fair and equal footing. They must uphold the rights of all citizens in Lebanon' (Interviewee 4).

> 'I think the ISF have taken a remarkable leap in terms of improving public confidence. There is always more we can do but definitely, the performance of the ISF is linked to the confidence the public have in us' (Interviewee 7).

Three of the 20 interviewees were of the opinion that public confidence is not just dependent on ISF performance, but is also affected by the area or region that the ISF are operating in.

> 'This really depends on the Region in which you are operating some communities are more responsive than others, that said it is important that the ISF does everything it can to maintain the trust of the community and gain their confidence' (Interviewee 12).

> 'It depends on the area. In the villages, people are generally happy with the ISF they do not have the same problems as the cities' (Interviewee 18).

Seven of the 20 stated that lack of public confidence had been an issue in the past, but that confidence had increased in recent years due to the improvements in the ISF. The ISF has been working hard to increase the trust of the citizens of Lebanon and to fully meet their expectations. Public surveys were carried out across Lebanon in 2009, 2013 and 2016 and the level of people feeling safe and secure was recorded in 2016 at 43% which was an increase of 26 percentage points from 2013. The 2016 survey highlighted that 84% of the population had a communication from the ISF which was a slight increase from 2013. Nearly all of those surveyed had witnessed the ISF performing their duties and the level of trust in the organisation was 39% which is a significant increase from 18% that was recorded in 2009 (ISPOS, 2016).

> 'Before trust was at an all-time low and the ISF was stagnating, but thanks to the courses at the Academy and from learning from past experience this

> has really helped to change the mindset and has resulted in much higher confidence and trust from the public' (Interviewee 3).

> 'The ISF faced many challenges in the past and had to operate where public order was not in place but now things are different and the ISF are continuing to make efforts to improve public confidence through their performance' (Interviewee 6).

This is further supported by the 2016 survey which revealed that the percentage of people surveyed who totally agree that the ISF are fulfilling their tasks increased by 20 percentage points in 3 years, going from 11% in 2013 to 31% in 2016 (ISPOS, 2016).

Two of the interviewees believed that public confidence had increased as a result of adopting a community policing approach and that the public now perceives the ISF as a service and not a force.

> 'Before there was no trust but currently the trust is improving as we move towards a community policing approach. The public now perceive the ISF as a service and not a force and the main function is not just to detect crime but also to work in partnership to prevent crime with the primary objectives being safety and partnership working' (Interviewee 2).

> 'After several years there has been a change in mindset from the ISF and this has helped to improve the public confidence and trust in the ISF. There will always be some that do not see the ISF in a positive way but the shift from a force to a service really help improve the confidence of the public' (Interviewee 9).

One of the interviewees believed that public confidence had increased as a result of the ISF effectively using social media as a means to reach out to the public.

> 'The ISF image has greatly improved and embracing social media has really helped improve public confidence, society is evolving and the ISF has to evolve with it. It is important that twitter and Facebook are maximised to engage with the public' (Interviewee 16).

One of the interviewees felt strongly that there was a lack of understanding as to the role and priorities of the ISF as opposed to the expectations of the public.

> 'This can quite frustrating in that often there is so much hard work that goes unnoticed by the public and sometimes our priorities are different in that we concentrate on solving major crime and the public is concerned with minor issues such as traffic congestion for example. Another example in relation to public confidence against police performance is when one of the motorbike officers was responding to an emergency call regarding a

> serious traffic collision and the public photographed him and recorded him to complain about his manner of driving instead of recognising his intent to respond to members of the public who were in need of his help' (Interviewee 8).

Consultant B involved with both the Pilot Policing Project (PPP) and BPST projects since 2008 believed that public confidence has definitely been improving in recent years and that the success of Ras Beirut has been a major contributing factor. The senior consultant also highlighted that external factors could also have impacted on the increase in public confidence such as the war in neighbouring Syria and the flood of refugees across the Lebanese border resulting in fear and uncertainty in the Lebanese communities.

Participants views on dealing with poor performance.

The second question relating to the performance of the ISF asked the interviewees how they think poor performers should be dealt with. This question can be directly linked to the power distance dimension of the GLOBE study. Four of the five classifications of power identified by French and Raven (1959) are considered relevant and describe coercive power as being dependent on fear, with punishment resulting from a lack of compliance. Reward power is described as power that rewards positive behaviour, either through intangible ways such as saying thank you and giving praise or tangible ways such as extra pay or promotion. Legitimate power is described as power vested by the position of the leader usually hierarchical in nature and finally referent power is described as showing consideration for the needs and feelings of subordinates and expressing concerns for their welfare (Stogdill, 1974). This question can also be linked to the 'humane orientation' dimension of the GLOBE study in terms of the tolerance levels displayed regarding others' mistakes (House et al., 2004).

The question was asked to ascertain what approach the officer would take in terms of resorting immediately to sanction or by taking a more supportive and transformative approach to the situation. Of the 20 interviewees, only two resorted to sanction as the first option. Their approach could be considered as transactional, as the transactional leader resorts to the application of negative sanctions when responding to undesired behaviour (Densten, 1999). It could also be considered a management function due to its transactional approach in relation to control, co-ordination and organisation (Zaleznik, 1992).

> 'They should be held accountable for their actions and there are disciplinary actions that can be taken' (Interviewee 1).

The remaining 18 interviewees adopted a transformational approach in addressing the poor performance of a member of staff. Five of the 20 believed that it was important to look for underlying issues that may be affecting the performance of the member of staff. This approach is in line with the fourth component of a transformational leader identified by Bass (1985) as '*individualised consideration'*, where the transformational leader recognises that each team member has specific needs and motivations.

> 'To get support I am supportive. If an officer is performing below the standards I expect, I look to see if there are underlying problems maybe he is feeling unwell and I would give him time to recover or has personal issues I would be supportive and the officer would then work even harder when he receives such support' (Interviewee 8).

> 'When someone is weak you have to address the issue and look into the factors that are causing the poor performance, every case is different. You need to check if there are underlying causes that are part of the problem' (Interviewee 15).

Three of the 20 interviewees linked addressing the poor performance with the need to consider further training or other developmental interventions for the member of staff. This approach is in line with the fourth component of a transformational leader identified by Bass (1985) as 'intellectual stimulation' by being challenging but not critical and by conveying a clear vision the followers can see the bigger picture and are encouraged to work towards it.

> 'Training can have an important role to play as well. For example, a member of staff was reported to be sub-standard so he was sent on a training course at the Academy and on his return, a plan put in place to mentor and develop him to reach his full potential' (Interviewee 5).

> 'The weaker officers need to be nurtured not just blame them and then hang them out to dry they need care and supervision and maybe pair them with a better or more experienced officer' (Interviewee 12).

Four of the 20 highlighted motivation as the key to improving the performance of staff. This approach is in line with the second component of a transformational leader identified by Bass (1985) as 'inspirational motivation' referring to the transformational leader's ability to inspire confidence and to deliver messages with enthusiasm, optimism and sense of authority.

> 'Motivation is the key, by keeping staff motivated they will perform well. If an officer is performing below standard the best approach is to coach and mentor the officer to improve their performance' (Interviewee 6).

> 'Again, this comes down to motivation and providing the opportunities for all officers to reach their full potential' (Interviewee 14).

Two of the 20 interviewees were of the opinion that selection for the role was the most important way of ensuring good performance from staff members.

> 'I place the emphasis here on prevention. It is really important that right people with the right skills and potential are recruited into the organisation. If your selection is poor at that stage you will struggle to improve the performance of staff' (Interviewee 7).

> 'By getting to know your team and identifying their strengths and weaknesses you can get the best out of them. It is important to have the right person with the right skills matched to their role' (Interviewee 9).

Two of the 20 interviewees were of the opinion that leading by example was the best way of improving the performance of the members of staff. This approach is in line with the second component of a transformational leader identified by Bass (1985) as 'idealised influence' relating to the transformational leaders acting as a role model and having a charismatic personality resulting in the employees wishing to be like the leader.

> 'It is also important to lead by example and to portray a positive image, and if a person is performing poorly to find out why'? (Interviewee 13).

> 'I believe by leading by example poor performance will be restricted. If a member of staff is not performing well you need to check if it is a professional or personal issue that is affecting their work. I also believe in instilling confidence in my staff so they believe they can do their job well' (Interviewee 5).

Two of the 20 interviewees highlighted 'teamwork' as the best way of ensuring all members of staff performed well. Teamwork is described in the LCF as 'working effectively as part of a team, breaking down barriers between groups and involves other team members in discussions and where appropriately the decision-making process'.

> 'By working effectively as a team, you are less likely to have poor performers, it essential that trust is established with the staff and that the leader also listens to his staff' (Interviewee 3).

> 'Given the nature of my work, teamwork is essential, so staff will not want to let the team down so will perform well' (Interviewee 10).

The first of Metcalfe's (2002) transformational leadership clusters relating to 'leading and developing others' included the attributes of showing genuine concern for others by valuing their contributions, coaching and mentoring them and giving them positive support. From the responses to the question, it is clear that 18 of the 20 interviewees demonstrated transformational leadership qualities in line with Metcalfe's first cluster relating to leading and developing others.

N=18 provides strong evidence that the ISF officers have adopted a transformational leadership style in terms of dealing with the performance of their staff in a militaristic and hierarchical organisation.

Participants views on maximising the potential of their officers.

The third question relating to the performance of the ISF was in relation to how the ISF can maximise the potential of its officers. The question was asked to ascertain what tools and other development opportunities the interviewees considered were available to them to get the best out of their staff. The LCF describes 'maximising potential' as 'actively encourages and supports the development of staff by effectively delegating tasks and by coaching and mentoring them in the workplace'.

Eight of the 20 interviewees believed that the best way to maximise the potential of ISF officers was to ensure that the skills of the officer were matched to the role they were being asked to perform. As is the case with most public sector organisations in the Middle East, many employees in the ISF do not have job descriptions or clearly defined career pathways and there is little or no recognition of the importance of establishing the links between HR development and business objectives, or the implementation of effective HR development (Al-Hamadi et al., 2007).

5.3 The quality of human resource

HR in an organisation highly depends on the quality of applicants attracted because the organisation is going to select employees from those who were attracted. Recruitment is an entrance of human capital into an organisation (Henry and Temtime, 2009). To make sure, an organisation must follow the steps to monitor that they have inducted the right individuals who can fit in their environment to achieve the goals (Henry and Temtime, 2009).

> 'It is really important to match the strengths of the officers with the roles that are suited to their strengths. Some officers are more adept at

> administration other at investigation so to maximise their potential they should be matched to the most suitable role' (Interviewee 6).

> 'Staff need to be assessed objectively and given developmental feedback. Also, staff need to be deployed into roles that they are suited to and their competencies match' (Interviewee 7).

These responses are in line with the fourth component 'individual consideration' of Bass's (1985) components of a transformational leader, in terms of knowing the strengths of their staff, and provides further evidence of adopting a transformational approach to leadership.

Four of the 20 interviewees highlighted the importance of motivation and getting the best out of their staff. In the ISF, as with many other parts of the public sector, the employees consider they have a job for life irrespective of their performance, which may provide challenges in terms of their motivation (Leat and El-Kot, 2007).

> 'Through motivation and building rapport with our officers. Officers will maximise their work if they appreciated and rewarded for their efforts' (Interviewee 3).

> 'The key to maximising performance is through motivation of the staff' (Interviewee 11).

These responses can be linked directly to the 'inspirational leadership' component of Bass's (1985) components of a transformational leader and provide additional evidence of the ISF officers adopting a transformational leadership style.

Three of the 20 interviewees believed that coaching and mentoring of staff was the best way to maximise their potential.

> 'When I took over my department, I was warned about two of my staff and told that I should get rid of them. Instead of that I assessed them over a period of time and mentored and encouraged them and they ended up as two of my best staff' (Interviewee 4).

> 'The officers need to be helped to reach their full potential and to improve their strengths and work on their weaknesses through coaching and mentoring' (Interviewee 12).

These responses are also in line with the 'individual consideration' component and the 'intellectual component' of the Bass (1985) components of a transformational leader.

Four of the 20 interviewees were of the opinion that giving the officers developmental opportunities would stretch them and enable them to reach their full potential and that providing developmental feedback would enable them to grow.

> 'Instilling confidence and providing developmental opportunities. It is really important that all officers are given the opportunity to reach their full potential' (Interviewee 5).

> 'To get the best out of your team you really need to get to know your team, know their individual strengths and maximise them. Officers should receive training and they should be given opportunities to stretch them to maximise their potential' (Interviewee 9).

These responses are clearly aligned to the 'intellectual stimulation' component of the Bass (1985) framework relating to a transformational leader.

Two of the 20 interviewees mentioned the current yearly staff appraisal system as a way of maximising the performance of staff but felt that the present closed nature of the system prevents this. In the present system, the appraisee only receives a grade; no developmental feedback is given to the officer and objectives are not set for the next year. The high degree of authoritarianism in the majority of public sector organisations with the Middle East results in performance appraisal being undertaken as a legal requirement rather than a modernisation of policy. As a result, traditional appraisal approaches may remain strong in certain country contexts, even if modernisation is considered desirable (Khoury and Analoui, 2004).

> 'The staff appraisal system works in that it is done yearly against a criteria but it is a 'closed' system therefore it is very limited in terms of developing staff' (Interviewee 17).

> 'The appraisal system is not given the importance it should have. It is not connected to HR systems and stands alone. It is also a closed system' (Interviewee 18).

5.4 Decision-making

Three questions were asked in relation to the interviewees' views on decision-making in the organisation and these questions can be directly linked with the 'assertiveness' dimension from the GLOBE study. Cultures with a high rating in respect of assertiveness are described by the GLOBE study as being considered more tolerant of strong and direct leaders, as opposed to a culture with a low assertiveness rating, which is likely to have a preference for a more consultative and considerate style of leadership (House 2004). In the Strategic Review (BPST,

2016), ISF staff described their organisation as essentially top-down, with the responsibility resting with the most senior members of the organisation, resulting in autocratic decision-making with the highest-ranking officers making the majority of decisions.

Sixteen of the 20 interviewees covered the topic of decision-making on the Captain to Major course they had recently attended and had received training on the Lebanese NDM model (see Section 2.4).

The first question asked the interviewees how they encourage their subordinates to make decisions. The second asked the interviewees their views on the training of junior officers with the ISF on the Lebanese decision-making model (an Arabic version of the model was handed to each interviewee as an aid and to refresh their memory). The third and final question sought views from the interviewees on the proposal to adopt the decision-making model as the model to be used throughout the organisation. Decision-making is described in the LCF 'as gathering and analysing information from different sources and identifying options to make effective decisions and solve problems, even in difficult and challenging situations'.

Participants views on decentralised decision-making.

Three of the 20 interviewees highlighted the importance of assessing the ability of their staff before and during the decision-making process and said it was the best way of giving confidence to their staff and encouraging them to make decisions.

> 'I assess them and give them a chance to find the solution themselves' (Interviewee 1).

> 'The officers' decisions should then be assessed and where they are good decisions they should be praised and encouraged and when they are poor decisions the officer should receive guidance on what went wrong and what could be done better the next time this will also give confidence to the officer' (Interviewee 6).

These responses are clearly in line with both individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation as outlined in Bass's (1985) components of a transformational leader.

Five of the 20 interviewees believed that adopting a non-directive approach was the best way of encouraging staff to make decisions. This approach involved delegating authority to their staff to enable them to take decisions in the workplace and then providing support through coaching and mentoring.

> 'By delegating responsibility and then through mentorship and supervision to support them' (Interviewee 7).

> 'I put the problem back to them and ask them their opinion rather than just making the decision for them. Ultimately I am responsible for all the big decisions but by watching the subordinates make some smaller decisions I can also coach and mentor them throughout the process to improve their decision-making ability' (Interviewee 2).

In Middle East organisations, there is usually clear centralisation at the top in respect of decision-making (Al-Rasheed, 2002). By taking such a non-directive approach and by delegating authority, the interviewees are demonstrating the Bass (1985) components of 'intellectual stimulation' and 'individual consideration' of a transformational leader. The interviewees in addition to delegating their authority, were also offering their support through coaching and mentoring to develop their staff and encourage them to take decisions.

Three of the 20 interviewees put the emphasis on trust and support, believing that their staff are more likely to make decisions in a supportive 'no-blame' environment and that they as leaders should provide that support.

> 'I encourage them to make decisions through trust, they have to trust me that I will support them and I have to trust them they are capable of taking the right decision. They should never be ridiculed and they should always be listened to, a two-way discussion' (Interviewee 11).

> 'It could have a negative effect if things go wrong but I make sure they are fully supported throughout' (Interviewee 1).

Encouraging their officers to take decisions and not being critical of them irrespective of the outcome again demonstrates the transformational leadership component of 'intellectual stimulation', in accordance with the Bass (1985) framework.

Three of the 20 interviewees highlighted the importance of setting parameters in terms of the delegated authority and ensuring that their staff made decisions within the parameters set. They were also prepared to extend those parameters once they were satisfied that the member of staff was making the correct decisions.

> 'By creating the opportunity for them to take responsibility for certain decisions gives them encouragement. The decisions must be in the parameters of their role and their ability to complete the tasks' (Interviewee 14).

> 'First of all, decision-making is not to be taken lightly. You cannot just delegate authority to your subordinates you need to properly assess the person before you give them that privilege and then they can be held accountable. You should start with small decisions and then they can move to bigger decisions once they have been assessed as capable' (Interviewee 12).

By delegating authority and supporting their staff in the decision-making process, the interviewees were demonstrating the component of 'intellectual stimulation' in respect of the Bass (1985) framework.

Two of the 20 interviewees believed that the decision-making process should not be considered in isolation and that it was connected to other aspects of leadership and should be viewed accordingly.

> 'It is really important that decision-making is not taken in isolation it is linked to all the other aspects of leadership. For example, the John Adair model clearly sets out the balance of team, task and individual and this has a direct effect on decision-making and these three things should also be considered when making decisions' (Interviewee 9).

> 'By motivation, by having group meetings I praise and give support and if there are areas of weakness I need to address I do on a one to one in private' (Interviewee 4).

Two were of the opinion that the way to encourage their staff members to make decisions was to remove the fear of sanctions arising from making the wrong decisions and to ensure that the staff member was not blamed and left unsupported.

> 'We can then analyse their decisions in a supportive way and not ridicule the officer, we all have a responsibility to overcome the fear of making decisions and not to try and blame officers when bad decisions are made' (Interviewee 3).

> 'I want my staff to have the trust and confidence to take decisions at their level and not to be constrained by the fear of sanctions. The officers need to know they will be supported when taking decisions' (Interviewee 4).

These views are in line both the 'individual consideration' and the 'intellectual stimulation components' of Bass's (1985) framework.

One of the 20 interviewees had taken the NDM model into the workplace and shared it with his staff members.

> 'I am a great proponent of sharing information and taking the views of my subordinates and I have already shared the NDM with my subordinates' (Interviewee 13).

One of the 20 linked the decision-making of staff to the new 'community policing' style that has been adopted by the ISF.

> 'Community policing means that decision-making should be at the patrol level. They should be empowered at that level to take decisions' (Interviewee 17).

The 20 responses provide strong evidence that the ISF officers have adopted a transformational leadership style in terms of encouraging and supporting their staff in respect of decision-making in a militaristic and hierarchical organisation.

Participants views on junior officers being trained and encouraged to make decisions.

Nineteen of the 20 interviewees were positive about this development, with only one expressing concerns about the application of the decision-making model in the present ISF chain of command. Given the hierarchical nature of the organisation, it was perhaps surprising that only one interviewee expressed concerns about the empowerment of junior officers to make decisions.

> 'It is a new model and may be in need of further development regarding its use in the ISF. The ISF has a chain of command and a rank structure so the implementation of the decision-making model must take this into account' (Interviewee 3).

Four of the 20 interviewees believed that the main strength of the decision-making model was its simplicity. They felt that it was a model that was simple to teach, easy to remember and apply.

> 'This is a very good development the LDM is an excellent model and simple to learn and use. After my Captain to Major course, I taught my team the LDM and they are using it now in the workplace' (Interviewee 4).

> 'This is a great idea, the model is simple to use and the officers can use it as they gain more experience of leadership and decision-making, it will form the base on which to build' (Interviewee 7).

Three of the 20 interviewees believed that the strength of the decision-making model provided a step by step approach to decision-making and a clear structure for the officers to follow. The

Police Executive Forum (2016). highlighted that the UK's NDM offers a structure for working through a series of steps that officers may already be following and questions they are probably asking already.

> 'It is a very good model; it is a common-sense model and most people were probably already applying the model without even knowing it but it does give structure to decision-making' (Interviewee 1).

> 'The decision-making model is clear in that you gather information and then go through the steps of the model. It is a great initiative that all officers are being trained in its use as it helps to organise their thoughts and prevent any rash decisions' (Interviewee 11).

Two of the 20 interviewees highlighted the importance of junior officers having a system and structure to follow in relation to making decisions as they do not have the necessary experience to draw on at that stage of their careers.

> 'It is important for junior officers and NCOs to have this model because they lack the experience to draw on and this will provide a really good start for them to build on' (Interviewee 5).

> 'I can use my experience to assist in making decisions but junior officers do not have that experience so the model will really help then as they gain experience it will be a great platform' (Interviewee 10).

Two of the 20 were of the opinion that the decision-making model is not only a tool for the officers to apply before making a decision, but also provides a framework for justifying their decisions and providing a rationale after they have taken them. The Police Executive Research Forum (2016) states that experience in the UK has demonstrated that the NDM can be a very useful tool in assisting officers as they describe and explain their actions, which lends credibility to their evidence and provides a clear rationale for their decision-making process.

> 'The decision-making model will assist with the decision-making process as the officers have something to go through both at the time and after making the decision when they are asked afterwards' (Interviewee 17).

> 'This is great and it gives the officers the tools to take the decisions by taking them through a decision-making process. It also means they can refer to it afterwards to explain why they took the decision' (Interviewee 18).

Two of the 20 interviewees believed that members of staff will have a much better chance of making the right decision by applying the model when making decisions.

> 'The new model is valuable to the ISF at all levels, decision-making is a responsible act. It really gives those applying the model a much better chance of making the right decisions' (Interviewee 12).

> 'Yes, this is great the DMM should be disseminated to all the officers as it helps them to organise their thoughts through a step by step process. In these days of social media poor decisions are very quickly shared with the world' (Interviewee 13).

Adopting the decision-making model throughout the ISF.

All 20 interviewees expressed positive views about the decision-making model being accepted throughout the organisation. Two believed that the introduction of the model across the ISF would encourage decision-making and would be particularly beneficial for junior officers.

> 'This will be very helpful to the ISF and will give the junior officers a starting point from which to gain experience. It will provide a roadmap for their development' (Interviewee 1).

> 'Excellent idea and it is important that officers take decisions at their level and the Decision-Making Model will greatly assist that process' (Interviewee 4).

Two gave practical examples of how the introduction of the decision-making model would assist the officers in performing their operational duties.

> 'This is an excellent idea as the model can be used at all levels including operational. There was an incident at a checkpoint involving an NCO who had not applied the model and ended up discharging a firearm which would have been prevented by applying the model' (Interviewee 6).

> 'The decision-making model can be used operationally for example if you have information that there are armed groups in the area you are being deployed to by assessing the threat you would make sure you patrols have the right equipment and briefing before responding so the decision-making model in these circumstances is very useful across the ISF' (Interviewee 16).

Two interviewees, although very positive about the introduction of the model across the ISF, highlighted some of the difficulties and the need to have buy-in from the very top of the organisation.

> 'Excellent, this will really make a difference as everyone will be operating in the same way and taking decisions the same way throughout the ISF. It will not be easy to achieve but will definitely make a difference' (Interviewee 7).

> 'This is a very good thing. For it to fully succeed it will have to come from the Director General it will definitely have to come from the top down' (Interviewee 18).

Two of the 20 interviewees highlighted the benefits of the decision-making model in their workplace and how it would positively affect the rest of the organisation.

> 'In the Academy, we are including it in our entire curriculum and testing it through scenarios. It is also a strategic objective for my department as part of the Strategic Plan' (Interviewee 17).

> 'This is an excellent idea and can be used for the higher-level decisions and for all officers on the ground for example when using force. This will be really useful in their self-defence training and application of force' (Interviewee 19).

Overall, the responses provide strong evidence of the interviewees displaying a transformational leadership approach by supporting the decentralising of decision-making in a militaristic and hierarchical organisation.

5.5 Strategic planning and thinking

The interviewees were asked two questions in relation to strategic planning and strategic thinking in the ISF and this area of questioning is closely linked to the 'future orientation' dimension of the GLOBE study which describes cultures with high future orientation as displaying an ability to identify future goals, contingencies and develop the necessary strategies to achieve their future aspirations (House, 2004). The questions were asked to reveal the extent to which the ISF as an organisation identifies goals and develops strategies to achieve them, and to what extent their current actions affect the future and how much they feel that matters. The LCF describes strategic thinking as 'looking at issues of strategic importance with a broad view to achieving the organisation's goals. Thinks ahead and prepares for the future'.

The ISF published a five-year Strategic Plan in 2018 and according to Consultant B, the process in developing the plan between the BPST and the ISF Strategic Planning Team (SPT) was, 'highly collaborative and consultative, contrary to the normal power distance way of operating, where independent thinking and the toleration of ambiguity were encouraged'. He also explained that the plan had a good chance of success:

> 'General Al Hajjar has the lead for the ISF Strategic Plan and he is totally committed to its successful implementation, he is both well respected and well connected in the organisation, the calibre of ISF officers working in

> the SPT on a full-time basis was very high after being carefully selected. The BPST matched the ISF commitment by appointing a full-time mentor to work alongside the team in a guidance and support role' (Consultant B).

The first question asked the interviewees whether or not the ISF was a forward-looking organisation which had a vision and plan for the future. The second sought their views on whether the officers on the ground needed to be aware of the ISF Strategic Plan to carry out their role. All the interviewees demonstrated an excellent knowledge of the 5-year ISF Strategic Plan, its content and their role in it. All 20 believed that the ISF was a forward-looking organisation, however, four of the 20 believed that this had not always been the case although things had improved in recent years.

> 'In the distant past given all the problems in the country there was not a strategic plan that all the organisation was part of, but in recent years and especially with the new DG that has improved significantly. The strategic intent is now tangible' (Interviewee 5).

> 'In the past there were a lot of problems facing the country and the ISF were stuck in the day-to-day issues. Now it is different we have a Strategic Plan and a new community police style of policing based on trust and partnership' (Interviewee 10).

Five of the 20 interviewees believed the 5-year ISF Strategic Plan was evidence that the ISF was a forward-looking organisation and had a clear plan for the future.

> 'The ISF plans for now and in the future and has a clear Strategic Plan from 2018 to 2022 which will ensure we are planning for the future and this will be highly productive' (Interviewee 9).

> 'The ISF is a forward-looking organisation and has short-medium and long-term plans. All big business organisations need to have a strategic plan and the ISF is no different. The 2018-2022 ISF Strategic Plan is a clear demonstration of planning ahead for the future' (Interviewee 14).

Three of the 20 interviewees believed that in addition to the organisation having a strategic plan it was also important that each unit and department had its own strategic plan.

> 'By definition strategic planning involves long-term planning and the ISF have developed a 5-year plan and that has been adopted by the higher command. This needs also to be adopted by all the units and implemented on a day-to-day basis' (Interviewee 15).

> 'Yes, it is supposed to be like that. Each unit in the ISF must have its own strategic plan, take for example the vehicles if there is no plan to replace

> them there would be a serious operational impact when they become unroadworthy' (Interviewee 4).

Two of the 20 interviewees highlighted the development of the strategic planning skills, resourcing, training and benefitting from international experience as key factors in the development of strategic thinking of ISF officers.

> 'Yes, the most important thing is strategic planning and the ISF in recent times not only has a strategic plan but has also developed the ISF officer's strategic planning skills. The ISF is now operating at an internationally recognised level and this is further enhanced by officers going abroad and bringing back skills and experience that they have learned and disseminating it throughout the ISF' (Interviewee 3).

> Yes, of course it is a forward-looking organisation, and this is evidenced by the 5-year Strategic Plan from 2018-2022. We are striving towards sustainability assisted by the recruitment plan which will give us the necessary resources to deliver the plan. The strategy around community policing and the training being provided is a quantum leap for the ISF (Interviewee 13).

Two of the 20 interviewees were of the opinion that the ISF Strategic Plan was aligned to the values of the organisation and should be delivered in partnership with the community.

> 'Yes, the ISF have an excellent Strategic Plan 'that strives towards a safer community' It also from the outset sets out the values of the organisation, it gives all the organisation clear direction so all the staff knows where they are going. It is also good for the community that we have a Strategic Plan' (Interviewee 7).

> 'Yes, as you can see the ISF Strategic Plan from 2018-2022 [interviewee has copy of plan with him and presents it to the researcher]. this is as a result of good managers at the helm of the organisation. The plan in excellent and will be delivered in partnership with the community, although we are busy day-to-day it is important to plan for the future' (Interviewee 12).

Two of the 20 interviewees believed that there could be some difficulties implementing the Strategic Plan and that it was clearly linked to the strategic intent of enhancing public confidence.

> 'Yes, the ISF is a forward-looking organisation and has a Strategic plan in place with the strategic intent of increasing public trust and confidence' (Interviewee 6).

> 'Certainly, and the ISF has announced its five-year plan and of course there will be some challenges in relation to implementation, but it is important to have a plan. There will be ups and downs which is normal in any change process' (Interviewee 16).

Awareness of the Strategic Plan.

Three of the 20 interviewees highlighted the fact that all officers irrespective of rank or position needed to be aware of the Strategic Plan and their role in supporting it.

> 'It is essential that all the hierarchy from senior command to the smallest ranks works as one team to deliver the Strategic Plan, even the most junior has a vital role to play in implementing the plan and providing the direct link to the community. The image of a patrol officer will be key to success or failure' (Interviewee 9).

> 'From the commanders to the foot soldiers they all need to be aware and to support the Strategic Plan. The implementation of the plan needs to be tracked at all levels whether in administration or operational roles. It is really important that everyone works to the plan to achieve our desired outcome of providing a service to the community and everyone in the ISF can influence that outcome' (Interviewee 3).

Three believed that the most junior officers were often the face of the ISF and would be more likely to interact with the public in their day-to-day activities and therefore it was essential they were aware of the ISF Strategic Plan.

> 'It is really important that the officers on the ground feel part of the Strategic Plan and that they are contributing to it. The officers on the ground are in direct contact with the people and how they perform directly relates to public confidence' (Interviewee 4).

> 'The officers on the ground should know the Strategic Plan even better than the senior ranks because they are dealing directly with the public and their performance directly affects public trust' (Interviewee 6).

Five were supportive of officers on the ground being aware of the Strategic Plan and believed that the Academy was playing an important role in educating all members of staff about the importance of the Strategic Plan.

> 'It is really important that all ranks have knowledge of the plan and this should be backed up by training. I am aware that batches of staff attend the Academy for workshops/training on the plan which is a really good development' (Interviewee 16).

> 'From an Academy point of view, we include an input from the strategic planning team on every course to raise awareness of the plan and how it relates to their role' (Interviewee 17).

One was of the opinion that officers on the ground did not have the time to consider the Strategic Plan and should concentrate on doing their day-to-day work.

> 'The officers on the ground take orders and have to react immediately so may not have the time to consider the Strategic Plan and how it affects their work' (Interviewee 8).

Four believed that the officers on the ground needed to be aware of the Strategic Plan but the organisation still had more to do to achieve that objective.

> 'Brochures have been printed and the plan has been included in the ISF magazine but there needs to be more done to make sure they read and fully understand the plan. A good way would be for the station commanders to brief their staff about the plan' (Interviewee 2).

> 'The Strategic Plan has been disseminated to all officers the same as the code of conduct. It is also important that commanders take the time to explain the content to their subordinates and emphasise the importance of the plan' (Interviewee 12).

During the Strategic Review process which formed the basis for the five-year Strategic Plan, representatives from all ranks of the organisation were consulted, taking part in interviews and focus groups in a comprehensive consultative process (Consultant B, 2019). Therefore, it could be argued that the officers on the ground informed the content of the Strategic Plan and its priorities. Further steps were taken to promote the Strategic Plan in the organisation:

> 'A communications plan was drawn up to promote the Strategic Plan in the organisation and project managers were identified and appointed to represent each department of the ISF to ensure the plan was part of the organisation and not just held in the confines of the SPT' (Consultant B, 2019).

5.6 Summary and conclusions

Positive responses from the interviewees in relation to the question of the introduction of transformational leadership training at all levels of the organisation provide supporting evidence that transformational leadership is culturally transferable. Seventeen positive responses to the question of their views on ISF officers delivering the leadership training in Lebanon for the first time indicate that the transformational leadership is not only culturally

transferable, but culturally deliverable. The interviewees highlighted the fact that an ISF officer delivering the training in uniform will be seen as a role model to the students and would have a better understanding of the context, culture and organisation than any outsider.

All the interviewees were of the opinion that leadership development is a continuous process and six highlighted the fact that officers of below the rank of Major are often holding important positions with significant responsibilities such as Station Commander or Assistant Station Commander, and it is too late to start providing leadership training just before they become Majors. Eight were strongly of the opinion that leadership training and development should not just be for officers but should be extended to NCOs as well, as they were often the first responders to an incident and were the ISF's face for the public.

All were positive in response to the question of introducing a Lebanese LCF based on 12 transformational leadership competencies and the positive and negative behaviours that underpin the framework is further evidence of an acceptance of the transformational leadership style. The interviewees agreed that the competencies in the framework reflect those required of an ISF officer at the strategic, tactical and operational levels of the organisation. They also demonstrated a good understanding of the framework throughout the course of the interviews and three also offered constructive comments on how the framework could be further improved. The impression was that the officers really wanted to operationalise the framework and integrate it into the ISF appraisal system as a useful tool for training and assessment. The interviewees when asked about the competencies of ISF officers which were the most important. They identified 'respect for others' (N=4) and 'communication' (N=6). It was interesting to note that four identified community focus as the key competency in need of development for Lieutenants who had just joined the ISF after completing three years of military training, indicating that they need to learn to be a service and not a force.

Seventeen believed that there was a link between the performance of the ISF and public confidence, with seven believing that improvements in public confidence have only occurred in recent years. This is corroborated by the public survey results which reveal that the confidence in the ISF was 18% in 2009, rising to 39% in 2016.

In respect of the question of how poor performers should be dealt with, only two interviewees resorted to using sanctions, with the majority (N=18) taking a supportive and transformational approach to deal with the under-performing officer. This question provided clear evidence of the interviewees taking a transformational leadership approach and fully satisfying Bass's

(1985) four components of a transformational leader. Seven interviewees stated that they would look for underlying issues that were affecting the performance of the officer, which is directly related to the 4th component of Bass (1985), ‘individualised consideration’. Three stated they would seek out training and development opportunities for the under-performing officer, which satisfies the 3rd component of Bass (1985), ‘intellectual stimulation’. Four stated they would motivate the officer to improve his/her performance, which satisfies the 2nd component of Bass (1985), ‘inspirational motivation’. Two stated that they would set the example by their own performance and standards, which is in line with the 1st component of Bass (1985), ‘idealised influence’. Eighteen responses provide strong evidence that the ISF officers have also adopted a transformational leadership style in respect of the question relating to maximising the potential of their officers, the four components of Bass (1985) were again fully met.

The interviewee responses to the three questions on decision-making provide clear evidence of a transformational leadership approach, with twenty responding positively in terms of encouraging and supporting their staff to take decisions, in line with the components of intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration of Bass’s (1985) framework. Nineteen supported the idea of training all junior officers in the decision-making model and 20 supported the idea of adopting the decision-making model throughout the organisation; again, this provides strong supporting evidence of a transformational approach, especially given the militaristic and hierarchical nature of the organisation.

The next chapter will consider whether a community focussed problem-solving policing style will work in a centralised decision making structure. The relevant literature will be carefully considered alongside the responses of the participants.

Chapter 6. Can a Community-Focused Problem-Solving Police Style Work in a Centralised Decision-Making Structure?

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will look at the meaning of community policing and in particular community policing in a post conflict environment, drawing from the experiences in Northern Ireland following the report of the Independent Commission on Policing Northern Ireland in1999 as a comparison with the Lebanese experience. The community policing pilot project (PPP) that was launched in Ras Beirut in January 2014 will be closely examined and the subsequent expansion of community policing to other areas of Lebanon through the BPST launched in 2016. A key part of the BPST project was the 'twinning' component with the Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI), involving training, work placements and other activities designed to transfer and share the PSNI's experiences, particularly around community policing. The interview responses of 20 senior ISF officers in relation to their thoughts on community policing, female representation, communication and partnership working will also be analysed, augmented by inputs from four key informants. Secondary data in the form of public surveys, training evaluations and inspection reports will also be scrutinised in an effort to answer the research question.

6.2 Community policing

When Sir Robert Peel established the London Metropolitan Police, he laid down a number of principles, one of which could be considered the seed of community policing: 'the police are the public and the public are the police' (Braiden, 1992). In more recent times, the community policing philosophy has its roots in the USA and UK in the1970s and 1980s, where tried and tested methods of policing were considered ineffective in terms of reducing crime and protecting the community from social unrest. Community policing is, in essence, a collaboration between the police and the community that identifies and solves community problems. Povey (2001) stated that:

> 'a police officer in uniform on an unhurried patrol suggests "all is well with the world". However, a marked police vehicle with blue lights and sirens activated sends a different message. This is currently visible policing but we would suggest it is far from reassuring'.

Goldstein (1979) developed the concept of problem-orientated policing (POP) which encouraged the police to think differently about their purpose. He argued that police should concentrate on problem resolution by identifying and addressing the root causes of problems that often lead to repeat calls for service. Community policing and partnership increase public trust and can create an enhanced relationship between law enforcement agencies and the community they serve (Meares et al., 2016). Cordner (2000) concluded that the tactical elements of the community policing ethos were producing many beneficial outcomes for both citizens and officers and had the potential to have a positive on crime and disorder. Partnership working encourages the community to co-operate with the police to reduce crime in their communities (Meares et al., 2016).

There are also many scholars who question the whole ethos of community policing. Some question the motives behind community policing, arguing that the police will usually engage with sections of the community that they are comfortable with so they can preserve their interests and maintain the status quo (Bobov, 1999). Mazzola (2018) argues that community policing and similar reforms are fundamentally flawed, as they do not necessarily tackle deeper underlying problems of policing in the countries where they originate, let alone in Lebanon. This view is supported by Brogden (2005), who stated that the PSNI had failed to accept and take account of the complexities of policing in a transitional society and the deep-rooted divisions that exist.

Comparing the introduction of the community policing philosophy in Lebanon to the experiences of a stable democratic society would be of little value, but when comparing the Lebanese experience with Northern Ireland there are a number of commonalities. Both societies are divided on grounds of religion, both have emerged from prolonged conflict and the two countries' police organisations are at different stages of a transformational change process. Throughout the conflict, the policing of Northern Ireland was characterised by its militaristic nature, which was due to the need to combat the activity of paramilitary activity and to deal with sectarian violence (Byrne, 2015). The Report of the Independent Commission on Policing for Northern Ireland (1999), more readily known as the Patten Report, was described as the most significant and complex blueprint for police reform in the world (Topping, 2008). The Patten Report contained 175 recommendations, with recommendation 44 stating that 'Policing with the community should be the core of its function' (Patten Report, 1999, para 7.9). Recommendation 44 described policing with the community as working in partnership with the community; with the community taking an active part in their own

policing; both working together, mobilising resources to effectively solve problems that affect public safety over the longer term, as opposed to the police, acting alone, responding to short-term incidents as they occur (ibid, para 7.9). Although there is no overarching Pattenesque reform document that guides the ISF in their efforts to transform to a community style policing posture, the ISF police and community co-operation falls in the ISF Strategic Plan to move towards a community policing approach (Walsh, 2019).

The concept of community policing in Lebanon was first raised at an international conference in Vienna in 2008, when the Lebanese Government wanted to re-establish security and order in the Palestinian Nahr-al Barid refugee camp in Northern Lebanon (Mazzola, 2018). The proposal from the Lebanese government met the required criteria for community policing, emphasising the need for the deployment of a police service at the camp that would be both culturally and politically sensitive to the Palestinian residents and build a good relationship with them through a partnership and problem-solving approach (Ismael and Hanafi, 2010). In Northern Ireland, partnership was described by the PSNI as a logical extension to the problem-solving process and should be broadly representative of the community. If the police service reflects the society it polices, it can better understand their local needs and concerns; this should be seen as co-operation in an effort to facilitate problem-solving (PSNI, 2002).

6.3 Ras Beirut

In January 2014, the PPP was formally launched in the West Beirut neighbourhood of Ras Beirut and has been well received as a potential policing model for Lebanon (BPST, 2016). The project enabled the complete refurbishment of the station, recruitment by assessment of a new workforce, extensive community police training and the creation of new functions and operational procedures aligned to a community policing approach. The project was delivered in collaboration with the ISF by the UK and US governments (BPST, 2016).

Community engagement was a key feature of the community policing philosophy and the PPP in collaboration with the ISF at Ras Beirut engaged the services of an NGO called Search for Common Ground (SFCG). The senior community policing consultant leading on this aspect of the project was an experienced UK community police officer and he also had a lead role in developing the Lebanese national community police curriculum central to the BPST program. Their programme called 'Better Together' had the clear aim of working in partnership with the Ras Beirut ISF Station to build trust and a healthy relationship between the ISF and the local community (Consultant D). SFCG had to overcome deep suspicion, especially among the

younger members of the community, and started a process of citizen engagement in an effort to identify common ground. They also trained a number of Ras Beirut ISF officers in skills of communication, mediation and conflict resolution and encouraged them to engage with social media to increase their outreach and ability to connect with the community. The community

Photo 22: Community members and ISF members hold a stand at the Hamra festival in central Beirut, explaining the role of the police. Photo Credit: Search for Common Ground

Figure 6. Search for Common Ground image

partnership initiatives were well received by the public and staff and the community meetings provided an excellent conduit between the police and the community.

> 'The first two years went very well and community policing was working well with highly visible patrols operating from Ras Beirut station and good community engagement and partnership working. The station was a big success and it 'proved the concept' of community policing in Beirut' (Consultant D).

This was in line with how the Patten Report described partnership working in the Northern Ireland context:

> 'Partnership is a matter of policing style, but it is also an attitude of mind, both for police officers and for the public. It is at least as much a matter of philosophy as it is one of method, and it amounts to a profound shift in police thinking and community thinking' (Patten, 1999; para 7.4).

An internal survey carried out in 2014 highlighted concerns that some senior ISF officers had not fully embraced the community policing philosophy, revealing that there were 'tensions between directive military-style management and the more communal, problem-solving objectives of a civilian police service (BPST, 2016 p.128). According to Neyroud (2001), decision-making and police command need to be de-centralised for effective and flexible community engagement to occur. Managers believed that a lack of autonomy for the officers on the beat was a barrier to the implementation of community policing, also highlighting a fear of punishment and an unwillingness to make mistakes as a reason for a lack of decision-making at the lower levels (Vito, 2005). Findings from an internal ISF survey conducted in 2016 are more encouraging with over 70% of staff believing their Station Commanders and their Assistants inspire them with confidence. Despite this improvement, there was a perceived lack of support from senior officers for the proper application of intelligence-led policing in a community policing framework. There was a need for senior officers to take ownership and responsibility for driving a fully functioning analytical capability in the station (BPST, 2016, p.128).

> 'There was a change in command in the organisation and this seemed to have an adverse effect on Ras Beirut with personnel being abstracted to support other areas in the police of Beirut and leaving the station with insufficient resources to send out community police patrols. The station continued to operate under these constraints until the present time, still delivering in the community police model where possible but lacked the resources for full implementation' (Consultant D, 2019).

There is a widely held view that community policing must be regarded as 'business as usual' and not the domain of specialist units. For it to work, it must be adopted throughout the organisation and not regarded as an add-on to core business or as 'nice to have'. If this is not implemented correctly, then the work itself may be afforded low status and officers will be abstracted to carry out duties that are regarded as core business (Skogan, 2004). The PSNI experienced similar challenges despite having one of the highest police-to-population ratios in the western world. As a result of providing a police service in the context of a ubiquitous terrorist threat, there were concerns among senior officers about the manpower required to deliver community policing effectively. There were also other concerns in terms of the police managers concentrating their resources on the quantifiable aspects of police work with the old adage 'if you can't measure it, you can't manage it'. There is strong empirical evidence that supports the position that performance management systems that are based on traditional indicators are a barrier to implementing community policing models, both at the organisational

and individual levels (Cordner, 2004). Rosenbaum and Lurigio (2000) concluded that because community policing programmes are seldom implemented as they were planned and rarely implemented on a large scale, the ability to conclude that it works or does not has been severely restricted.

Despite these challenges, the main goal to improve the trust between the public and the ISF was achieved with the results from public survey data on perceptions of the local police at Ras Beirut showing that full trust had increased from 21% in 2013 to 46% in 2017. The data also showed that Ras Beirut police are more visible than those from surrounding stations, more professional and demonstrated an ability to intervene to protect the rule of law (Morris, 2019). The PPP project director stated that the early results have been encouraging; in the first 12 months of the project the local crime rate was reduced by 40%, traffic violations decreased by 20%, and there was a substantial decrease in levels of anti-social behaviour. These positive views were also corroborated by Schirch and Griffoli (2015), who highlighted that through effective training, joint activities and public outreach, trust gradually started to replace suspicion and fear. The project had demonstrated that the Ras Beirut ISF Station had become a model police station with both officers and members of the community understanding and acting with a joint sense of responsibility and bring the concept into a reality.

6.4 British Police Support Team (BPST)

The BPST project was established in 2016, emerging as the follow-on project from the PPP. The cornerstone of the project was the Strategic Review that was commissioned by the British Embassy in Beirut and provided a holistic and overarching analysis of the ISF by adopting a 'systems thinking approach' (BPST, 2016, p.15). The authors of the ISF Strategic Review highlighted from the outset that although the use of policing terminology was widespread, the interpretation was subject to significant academic debate' across criminological, sociological and police-related matters (BPST, 2016, p.4). This issue was also highlighted by Byrne (2012), stating that the language that was used and the interpretation of key words and phrases and what they meant to both the police and the communities were critical components for the successful introduction of the PSNI community policing strategy. Terms such as 'community safety' were viewed as positive and empowering, while 'security' was considered as something that is done to the community by the state. The BPST was a far broader project than the PPP and had components that were working with the ISF in preparing and delivering a Strategic Plan, working with mobile forces to enhance their public order capabilities, command and

control and human rights compliance. A component was created to work with the ISF Academy in the areas of leadership development, preparation of a national community police curriculum and the development of scenario-based training, and another component was working with the Inspector General's Department in the areas of human rights, complaints and inspections. The components were categorised as 'enablers' to the main effort, which was the establishment of two further Ras Beirut type community police stations at Raouche and Ramlet Al Bayda. There was also a significant 'twinning' element with the PSNI built into the project, where Lebanese ISF officers were hosted for themed visits in Northern Ireland and exposed to PSNI practices, particularly in respect of community policing, human rights, training and public order policing. A significant part of the BPST budget was to be used in the construction of the Raouche and Ramlet Al Bayda stations to ensure that they were fit for purpose and met the highest international standards, particularly in the area of prisoner reception and detention. Running parallel to the BPST project was a US-funded project with the objective of opening a community police station in the Achrafieh District of Beirut. The BPST worked collaboratively with the ISF police of Beirut and the Academy to put in place a robust assessment process for identifying suitable police officers and NCOs to staff the new community police stations. The assessment included written IQ tests and an interview conducted by a mixed panel of ISF and BPST representatives.

6.5 Training

The success of community policing is dependent on role-specific training for both new and existing officers. There needs to be an improvement in the theoretical, field and supervisory training (Cordner, 2004). General Al Hajjar, the Commander of the ISF Academy, was clear in his strategic intention in that he wanted a Lebanese ISF community police curriculum and not a UK or US version. He wanted all stakeholders to work collaboratively in the interests of the ISF and not in national self-interest.

> 'I worked closely with the American Community Police advisor to ensure there was good synergies, sharing all the materials with him and taking on board his views and experience and ensuring that we were all working together to produce an ISF curriculum and ISF trainers as per the Generals instructions' (Consultant D).

Working collaboratively, the UK and American consultants held a series of interactive and themed 'train-the-trainer' workshops with ISF trainers and senior officers from Achrafieh,

Raouche and Ramlet Al Bayda. The workshops enabled the ISF trainers and officers to 'Lebanise' the materials and to develop their own curriculum and develop their trainer skills:

> 'After the material was delivered and Lebanised and after lengthy discussion and debate those attending the course were given the chance to deliver the lessons and to receive developmental feedback. There were also some subject matter experts involved in the delivery of the curriculum for example the ISF Human Rights department who again prepared lessons that were related to the delivery of the community policing training' (Consultant D).

The Level 1 Kirkpatrick evaluation sheets given to the course participants at the end of the series of workshops revealed an overall satisfaction rate of 85.4%, with participants highlighting the interactive nature of the training and gaining an understanding of the benefits of adopting a community policing style as being the most positive aspects of the training.

Bradford and Pynes (1999) examined the curricula of 22 police academies and discovered that less than 3% of their basic training was spent on decision-making and practical application through simulated scenarios, effective communication and the development of skills and behaviours suited to a community policing style. The ISF curriculum had the Lebanese decision-making model at its core and every student had to pass a number of practical scenario-based assessments at the end of each course.

On 30 April 2018, the ISF Training Department, with support from Achrafieh Police Station, delivered its first community policing training to 45 NCOs recruited to the Station. The NCOs were divided into groups of 15 and each group undertook a week's refresher training in policing skills, before progressing to the community policing module. Each module included four days of interactive training including topics such as communication techniques, broken glass theory, human rights, signal crime, and an input from the Strategic Planning Team on the ISF's Strategic Plan. The fifth day of training concluded with scenario-based training that tested trainees on what they learned throughout the course, including how to deal with cases of domestic violence.

A Kirkpatrick Level 1 evaluation at the end of each training course revealed that 88.4% of the participants felt that they fully understood their role in delivering community policing and 89% believed that the course had equipped them with the knowledge and skills to deliver community policing. Overall, there was a 90.6% trainer satisfaction rate, with the participants commenting favourably on the interactive, discussion-based and practical nature of the training (BPST,

2018). The Achrafieh station was formally opened by the US Ambassador on 22 May 2018. He stated that, for this project, the US Embassy had worked with the ISF to convert the existing location into a new community policing station, focused on direct engagement with the local community. The changes to the Achrafieh police station would make it more community friendly by adding a reception area, separate interview and investigation rooms, an analysis department, and additional security features. This station will also feature bicycle and scooter patrols and community outreach activities (Lebanon Daily Star, 2018).

The BPST-supported stations of Raouche and Ramlet Al Bayda started training their staff three months after the opening of Achrafieh station. This enabled a review of the course to be carried out through a comprehensive de-briefing process, carried out by the ISF trainers, and amended where necessary before being delivered to the staff at Raouche and Ramlet Al Bayda (Consultant D). Six cohorts of 20 NCOs were trained consecutively by the ISF trainers and the commissioned officers from the stations that had attended the training workshops. At the end of the training, a Level 1 Kirkpatrick evaluation revealed that there was a range of between 83.6% and 87.4% in respect of the participants fully understanding their role in delivering community policing. The trainer satisfaction rate ranged between 85.8% and 88.6%. Focus groups were also held with 25% of the participants and they commented favourably on the standard of ISF trainer and the methods they used highlighting group work and scenario-based training as being particularly beneficial (Consultant D).

6.6 The officers' views

Three themes were covered in the questions that were asked of the 20 interviewees. The first related to how the ISF were getting their messages out to the communities in Lebanon, the second sought their views on the introduction of community policing, and the third theme related to their views on female representation in the ISF.

6.6.1 Communication

Six of the 20 interviewees highlighted the excellent performance of the ISF Public Relations (PR) department and the key role they are planning in getting positive messages out to the public of Lebanon.

> 'The ISF PR department are making great strides especially with the social media but also TV and the newspapers and it is having a good impact on the whole community which is evidenced by the good relations we are having. This is helping the prevention of terrorism and crime prevention' (Interviewee 12).

> 'Through the work of the PR department we have a lot of community outreach programmes, we also have a specialised team in charge of social media which shares information about solved crimes and we also receive a lot of information through social media about problems and issues. This is also a platform for getting feedback from the community and this is evidenced by the number of thank you messages received by the ISF' (Interviewee 3).

Four were of the opinion that the ISF were now much better at getting their message out to the public and that their proactive approach was improving public confidence.

> 'We are now 200% or 300% better at getting positive messages out to the public but there is always room for improvement. It would be good to have a radio or TV channel dedicated to the ISF and we need to be proactive not waiting for the media but actively seeking opportunities to get our messages out' (Interviewee 5).

> 'In the past 2/3 years it has got much better than it was in previous years with the PR department responding immediately as in the case previously mentioned about the motorcycle officer and generally they are far more proactive' (Interviewee 8).

The case the officer mentions involving the motorcycle officer was in relation to a member of the public posting on social media footage of a speeding ISF motorcycle officer driving through the streets of Beirut with blatant disregard for the traffic laws. The officer was actually responding to a serious injury road traffic accident and the PR department were quick to supply the correct information to the public. In the past, this would have just been left to reinforce the stereotypical views that were held in respect of the Lebanese ISF.

Two interviewees linked the question of increasing public confidence to also providing the opportunity to inform the public about potential terrorist threats and crime trends.

> 'The PR department who are very proactive. Very good at raising awareness and informing the public not just about ISF successes but also crime trends' (Interview2).

> 'The new Director General is really informing the public of our successes and actively seeking their support. Press releases and appeals for public support are put out daily. This really adds to public confidence and can prevent crime by increasing public awareness about what sorts of crime are happening' (Interviewee 4).

Three felt that more could be done by the ISF to improve getting their message out to the public to maximise the confidence of the public.

> 'It is important that the press and PR opportunities are taken. The PR department are now putting out press releases on positive stories for the ISF but we could do more' (Interviewee 10).

> 'I believe we could do more and the details of some of our successful cases such as breaking up drug networks are not getting out to the media. There is a need to improve on this so we can maximise public confidence' (Interviewee 13).

Two interviewees highlighted the need for transparency and for the ISF not just to put out the positive messages of their successes, but also to deal openly when they fall short as this honesty will in itself improve public confidence.

> 'We are already doing many things to improve our image such as camps for the kids, community outreach, working with universities. Also, we engage with social media through our PR department and have a face book page to get out positive messages and to explain our role. It is also important to not 'hide' from bad behaviour and explain how we dealt with it in an open way' (Interviewee 17).

> 'Not all the ISF successes are getting out to the public but this has really improved recently in terms of the media and social media. Transparency is really important for the credibility of the ISF but with safeguards in relation to sensitive information that cannot be shared' (Interviewee 6).

Two were of the opinion that the ISF performance was key to increasing public confidence. One felt that the ISF were falling short, especially in the area of dealing with victims of crime and keeping the victims informed as to the progress of the investigation.

> 'We could and should be much, much better! Victims of crime for example should be kept informed of the investigation; there should be policy and resources to do this. This will have a real positive effect on public confidence. There should be more community engagement at station level finding out what their communities need and responding to their needs, this will give a positive impression of the ISF' (Interviewee 18).

> 'There is always room for improvement but positive messages are not just about better PR it is also about improving our performance and behaviour so the public can see the positive actions not just hear about them. Each ISF leader in his area of responsibility should make every effort to improve performance and build public confidence at the local level' (Interviewee 19).

The PSNI gained support for the change to policing with the community through the generation of positive outcomes and improving the quality of lives of the residents. By listening to their

concerns, they were able to put working strategies in place to address them by reducing crime, anti-social behaviour and providing reassurance through high visibility (Byrne 2014).

6.6.2 Community focus

Two questions were asked of the 20 interviewees to elicit their views on the ISF's strategic intention to introduce a community policing style throughout Lebanon. Their views were also sought in relation to partnership working and community engagement and whether or not they felt the public of Lebanon were ready to engage with this new style of policing.

All 20 interviewees responded positively to the introduction of a community police style throughout the ISF. Two linked their answers directly to the strategic objectives of gaining the trust of the community through partnership working.

> 'This helps to achieve the strategic intent to help keep the community safer through partnership working. It is really important in relation to preventing crime and problem-solving. There have been some positive outcomes in Ras Beirut, Raouche, Ramlet al Bayda and Achrafieh through the introduction of community policing' (Interviewee 2).

> 'It is a really good model and supports the strategic objective of gaining trust of the community. I have attended a community policing course and this training needs to be for all officers' (Interviewee 6).

Three interviewees were of the opinion that the concept of community policing had been proven in the Ras Beirut experience and that it was now time to spread the concept throughout all the stations and departments across Lebanon.

> 'This is a great thing but it should not be limited to just Beirut it should be for the whole of Lebanon. It also should be in the specialist departments in terms of how we interrogate people, making sure our stations are welcoming and clean and that the person is dealt with professionally and with empathy. This way victims will share their experience of the ISF with others and this will really show that the ISF has shifted to a community police style' (Interviewee 4).

> 'This is a really good idea and community policing should be spread throughout Lebanon. At first it was quite a difficult concept to grasp but when we saw its applicability, we were convinced of it' (Interviewee 10).

Morris (2019) argues that Security Sector Reform (SSR) efforts in the ISF are bearing fruit, most measurably in Ras Beirut and is the most visible part of the co-operation between UK and ISF. He believes that trust among the residents in Ras Beirut improved between 2013 and 2017

and the proportion of respondents with full trust in the station increased from 21% to 46 %. Although all 20 interviewees were supportive of the ISF shift to a community policing style, three highlighted the need to also maintain their capability to use force when the situation required it.

> 'It is excellent, and we should provide both a Force and Service as they go hand in hand. I have attended a community police course and agree with the approach' (Interviewee 8).

> 'Because we are entrusted with ensuring there is public order and public safety, we need the public support to achieve this. The community policing approach has proven successful and I have seen the effect at Ramlet Station when NCOs returned to the station after completing the community police training it really works. We need to embrace community policing to the full, but we also need to maintain our public order capabilities as well' (Interviewee 13).

There is evidence that previously-held beliefs about the need for focus to remain on law enforcement and a harsher approach to crime control might prove difficult to counter (Alhanaee, 2018). Whereas soft power is thought to be effective in crime prevention, hard power policing was expressed as being imperative in instances where reactionary measures were needed, such as in the apprehension of offenders (Drennan, 2013).

Three of the interviewees placed their emphasis on the need to not only introduce a new style of community policing but also to support the concept in terms of resources and logistics if it is to bring about meaningful change in the ISF. They also highlighted the need to adopt a standardised approach across the ISF with the perception being that Ras Beirut was given a disproportionate amount of resources and it is unfair to ask other ISF station commanders to introduce community policing without providing them with the same support.

> 'This is an excellent idea but we need the personnel and the logistics to make it happen across the ISF. The police of Ras Beirut have more staff per shift than my whole station. Community policing works well and problems and issues can be resolved locally in a good way' (Interviewee 5).

> 'There must be a clear policy and standardised approach not just relying on the orders of the Chief. Also, the public need to be educated about the approach to make it work' (Interviewee 18).

Consultant D identified resourcing as the biggest challenge to the wider implementation of the community policing model throughout Lebanon.

> 'The community policing stations in Beirut have received significant investment in terms of improving the working conditions for the officers and the reception areas for the public. It will be very difficult to replicate this throughout Lebanon'.

Three of the interviewees were of the opinion that the introduction of a community policing style would help to increase the trust of the public as they moved from being a force to providing a service to the communities of Lebanon.

> 'It is important to get closer to the community and to receive them well and to fully meet their needs when they look for our help. We must also secure their trust and always respect human rights' (Interviewee 14).

> 'There has been a quantum leap as we move from a force to a service this has helped to gain the trust of the public. The ISF still has to enforce the law and protect the community but must do so from apposition of trust from both sides' (Interviewee 11).

Two highlighted the success of community policing internationally and believed that the concept could be successfully replicated by the ISF for the citizens of Lebanon.

> 'At the international level community policing has proven to be a great success and it is also good for the ISF. It is important for the community to acknowledge the role of the police officer' (Interviewee 15).

> 'It is a proven concept all over the world in that the police should be providing a service to the community. It is a democratic concept and it is based on partnership between the police and the community. It has accelerated a lot in the ISF in recent years and this is showcased by the safer community we enjoy' (Interviewee 12).

Two linked their answers directly to the Ras Beirut experience in terms of highlighting the success of the community policing model and some of the challenges involved.

> 'It is definitely a positive move; we have to forget the past and move forward with community policing. It will create a good impression with the public regardless of the result. There may be some resistance to change but the concept works as can be seen in Ras Beirut but it will also very much depend on the area it is being introduced' (Interviewee 19).

> 'This is a positive step I have seen the difference it makes at Ras Beirut and now it will be spread out across other stations' (Interviewee 18).

The Ras Beirut experience was proof of concept for the delegates on the Senior Leadership Courses. Some from outlying stations felt that it was all very well for Ras Beirut, as the station

had been given significant infrastructure and resourcing improvements, and that it was a model station not representative of other areas of Beirut or Lebanon. Others took forward the principles they had seen and wanted to try and apply them in their own context (Consultant A).

Participants views on Community Engagement.

Three interviewees believed that it would take time for the communities of Lebanon to get used to the new community policing approach as the ISF changes from being a force to a service.

> 'This will take some time for the community to get used to the shift. The more positive experiences they have the more they are likely to realise they have a duty to co-operate with the ISF' (Interviewee 1).
>
> 'It will take time but the more positive experiences the public have the more they will be willing to work in partnership with the ISF' (Interviewee 4).

Research carried out with the Abu Dhabi Police revealed that 84% of the respondents believe that local communities must be better informed about the functioning of the police and how it operates to ensure that they are fully committed to the police functions and to supporting the police work. Also, in the opinion of respondents, a better explanation of community policing tools is important in gaining public trust, and being open and transparent (Alhanaee, 2018). Through a process of consultation, the PSNI was able to include the views, opinions and fears of the community into their operational planning processes and, by doing so, inform the community that they play an important part in delivering the community policing strategy (Byrne, 2014).

Two interviewees highlighted the need for the ISF to engage not just with their respective communities and to work in partnership with government and non-government organisations.

> 'Partnership is really important not just with the public but also with the municipalities, NGO's and government department, with everyone having a stake in solving problems and preventing crime. I would also recommend a national crime prevention committee' (Interviewee 2).
>
> 'It is not just about making the police out to be the hero's but to share the mission with the community. It is important to have partnerships with the universities and the schools also the NGO's. It important that our officers develop the competency of 'negotiating and influencing', so that they can have a positive impact on our partners through community engagement' (Interviewee 9).

Three interviewees were of the opinion that the success of community policing in Lebanon would be dependent on the area or region in which it is being applied. The model would need to be adapted to reflect and meet the particular needs of the community.

> 'This is essential if community policing is going to work but it will also depend on the area in which you are working and a different approach will need to be taken depending on the area in which your operating. Most people will welcome working in partnership' (Interviewee 19).

> 'There will be a different reaction depending on the region you are working in. Some regions are perhaps more wealthy and are not so concerned with working in partnership with the ISF and other regions are so poor they just think about surviving day-to-day so this must be taken into consideration' (Interviewee 8).

There is consistent evidence that one size does not fit all in relation to community engagement and that the community policing model should be tailored to a community's specific needs and context (Neyroud, 2001). According to Skogan (2004), police practitioners should also be wary of using 'best practice', highlighting that the best practice is one that meets the specific needs of the community and is compatible with the resources of their partners. Consultant D highlighted the importance of adapting the model to suit the policing area. For example, community policing may look a little different in the Bekaa valley or at the Syrian Border than in it does in Ras Beirut, but the principles remain the same.

Two raised concerns about the possible resistance and lack of support for the concept of community engagement but offered positive solutions.

> 'Change does not happen overnight and there will always be resistance and not everyone will welcome it but we must keep at it and make every effort to obtain the trust of the community and gain them as partners. It takes two to tango' (Interviewee 12).

> 'Not everyone accepts change but there is more support from the community now. If gradually we increase to 80% support then we can work on the other 20% who will hopefully be encouraged as well by the other 80%' (Interviewee 16).

Byrne (2014) highlighted the importance of clear, continuous and unambiguous lines of communication between the police and the public for community policing to work effectively. One of the main challenges for the community of Northern Ireland was to understand the hierarchical structure of the police which did not exist in the community, with communities

basing everything on relationship and trust. Parallels could also be drawn with the centralised system that governs community policing officers in the ISF.

Two highlighted the benefits of community engagement to the ISF and how community engagement and adopting community policing principles will assist the ISF in delivering a police service.

> 'It is essential to work in partnership with the community. In Sidon, there was an area that had very little ISF presence and would have been quite hostile towards the ISF but by applying the community policing principles we were able to get to know the community and they built up their trust in us. Now the ISF presence is welcomed' (Interviewee 10).

> 'As we change from a police force to police service this will lead to working in partnership with the community. It is important to also work with the NGO's and to develop a community culture with the citizens and all residents of Lebanon. It is important to work with community given that we are only 30,000 strong and have a population that includes over 2 million refugees. We need the eyes and ears of the community' (Interviewee 14).

Two interviewees were of the opinion that establishing trust was key to the principles of community policing and this could be achieved through community engagement.

> 'Our ethos is Partnership- Trust – Service and to achieve this we need the trust of the community and a shared responsibility with the community whereby the community also shoulders its responsibilities. We have seen this implemented and the good results that have followed this partnership approach' (Interview3).

> 'From my experience, the public wishes to have partnership with the ISF and has been waiting for this to happen. As long as the officers take it seriously and the public are prepared to meet halfway then it will be successful, and after all we need to enforce the law but it is how we do it that counts' (Interviewee 13).

Goldsmith (2005) characterised citizen trust in the police as difficult to gain but easy to lose. In his analysis of the development of modern policing in the UK, Reiner (2000) argued that modernising police forces sought to draw legitimacy both from their professionalism and from their responsiveness to citizens.

6.6.3 Female representation

The Lebanese ISF are lagging behind in relation to the recruitment of women when compared to other countries in the region. They are also behind in terms of female representation when

compared to the Lebanese Armed Forces and the General Security. There were only two female officers in the ISF in 2012, and they were recruited as a result of an error in an advertising campaign for specialist officers in 2001 which omitted the requirement to be male. The two officers progressed well in the organisation and held a variety of operational and non-operational roles, reaching the ranks of Major and Captain (Samaha, 2013). The female Major, when talking to *Women Police* magazine in 2010, highlighted the fact that women can form a prompt co-operation with the community which leads to the success of the performance of community policing and crime prevention. In 2012, 550 women were recruited into the ISF. Those with high school degrees were trained as Sergeants and those with high school level education were recruited as cadets. In 2016 there were a total of 1,003 women in the ISF. Despite this, the organisation has retained a masculine ethos which is embedded in its culture and that may affect the way in which officers co-operate with the general public (BPST, 2016). In a public survey conducted throughout Lebanon in 2016, 96% of the population were aware of the presence of women in the ISF. This was largely due to increased visibility and the social media platforms being used by the ISF for promotional purposes. The Independent Commission on Policing in Northern Ireland (1999) recommended major reforms which included a staff profile that was more reflective of the community. As a result of positive action, female representation increased from 12% in 2001 to 26.7% in 2012 (PSNI, 2012).

The 20 interviewees were asked two specific questions in relation to female representation in the ISF and these questions were directly linked to the gender egalitarianism dimension of the GLOBE study (see Section 3.2). The first question was asked to obtain their views on what roles women should perform in the organisation. The second asked what roles they believed were best suited to women in the organisation.

Participants views on female roles within the ISF.

Four interviewees were of the opinion that female ISF officers should be kept away from violent and operational situations and should be used primarily in administrative roles.

> ‘I do not think they should be operational and arresting people but they should be involved in domestic violence and rape cases so it is a female dealing with a female’ (Interviewee 18).

> ‘I did my research on domestic violence and female officers have a very important role to play in dealing with the victims of domestic violence and investigating that crime’ (Interviewee 3).

This view is also held by the population at large when surveyed, with 68% of respondents in a 2016 survey stating that they believed female ISF officers are suited to administrative roles in the organisation; 69% of the respondents believed that women were less physically able to handle violence. This was at variance with the strategic direction of General Arifi, the Director General of the ISF in 2011, who stated that as part of the reform process, women in the ISF should be active in the force contributing in the improvement of police work and not restricted to a desk job (Samaha, 2013).

Four interviewees believed that that female victims of crime prefer to deal with a female officer and that a female officer's natural caring instinct makes her more likely to display empathy and compassion in certain situations.

> 'Women by their nature are soft hearted and can perform roles requiring empathy and understanding better than men. The public view of females is very positive' (Interviewee 14).

> 'In the past there were no females in the ISF but gradually that is changing. They should be used primarily when the victim is a female for example domestic violence. The victim would much rather deal with a female in such a sensitive case' (Interviewee 4).

> 'Women are not half of society they are society. They are soft and tender and add great value to the ISF. The presence of a female officer encourages women to report crimes of a sexual or domestic nature which is really important' (Interviewee 16).

These views were echoed by the highest-ranking Lebanese female officer in a 2010 interview with *Women Police* magazine when she stated that women have attributes that are essential to policing that will improve the quality of work and remediate the flaws in the system, further highlighting that women's humanity and compassion contribute to the application of human rights (Samaha, 2013).

Four highlighted the cultural issues that affect the role of female officers in the ISF.

> 'If a female joins the ISF in her twenties then she should be able to do any of the roles and she gets older she can take up more administrative duties. We must not forget about cultural sensitivities and there affect. It would be a good idea to have females join the organisation in batches each year rather than all at the same time' (Interviewee 8).

> 'In the levant women are appreciated members of society like the former princesses they are held in high esteem. Modern history has slightly

> changed this but the deep-rooted feelings are still the same. That said the females have a key role to play in the ISF organisation' (Interviewee 12).

Three were of the opinion that female representation had increased in the ISF in recent years and their visibility was having a positive effect on the organisation.

> 'Previously in the ISF there were only civilian women in the organisation mainly performing administrative jobs. 8 years ago was the first time you would see a female ISF officer on the street and now it is very normal to see women everywhere in the ISF' (Interviewee 15).

> 'Women represent 50% of society so they need to be represented in the ISF and this is reflected by the DG recruiting more women in the recent process, they play a key role in all fields of work' (Interviewee 3).

Two interviewees believed that women should perform a full range of roles in the ISF and should be judged on their suitability for roles by their competency and not by their gender.

> 'Both administrative and operational at the airports, police stations and judicial police. They often perform better than males in all roles' (Interviewee 17).

> 'We cannot discriminate and for example some females are better marksmen than males. We need to assess males and females according to competency and allocate their roles accordingly' (Interviewee 9).

Three highlighted issues around the practicalities of female officers and also some of the female officers themselves did not want to work in the operational environment with its unsociable hours.

> 'All roles are suited to females in the ISF but the females themselves are not asking for change some are happy with the present situation because when they are married there are more family demands on them' (Interviewee 5).

> 'Female representation is relatively new and will take more time to fully integrate them into the organisation even with just some of the practicalities' (Interviewee 7).

Four interviewees were of the opinion that there should be no restrictions to the roles women could have in the ISF and should include access to the full range of duties.

> 'I believe they can have full range of roles including riot control, night shifts and accompanying raids. Of course, they can also play a full role in investigation and administration' (Interviewee 13).

> 'There should be no restriction on the roles that females could have in the ISF' (Interviewee 1).

Four believed that there were only specific roles that are suitable for women, mainly centred on tasks that male officers could not do such as personal searching of women and dealing with female detainees.

> 'They should perform the roles that men cannot do such as searching females, dealing with female prisons, dealing with domestic violence and dealing with children and juveniles as they are more likely to open up to a female officer. They are also excellent at administrative work' (Interviewee 12).

> 'Females are best suited to specialist roles such as airport and immigration and roles in the female prison system' (Interviewee 19).

Four highlighted the cultural issues that can obstruct the roles performed by female officers in the ISF.

> 'They could have roles in the traffic police and other roles but the culture in the Middle East causes some issues regarding female roles' (Interviewee 10).

> 'Women are best suited to administrative roles and if they are in roles involving arrests we get very protective towards them. There are a number of cultural issues as well such as not sleeping at stations but there are a number of other roles they can perform such as security at prisons, searching females, forensic work, intelligence and IT work as well' (Interviewee 14).

One of the interviewees highlighted the cultural differences in terms of certain regions in Lebanon that would not have the same visibility in terms of female officers as that of Beirut.

> 'There are also cultural limitations, not so much in Beirut but in other parts of the country it is not so normal to have female officers patrolling the area' (Interviewee 5).

Two highlighted some of the cultural and practical restrictions that exist, and which must be overcome to assist the full integration of female officers into the workplace.

> 'It is important that our buildings are made suitable for females and everything is in place in the workplace to make the females feel comfortable. If this is done, then there should be no distinction in terms of the role' (Interviewee 16).

> 'They can do most roles including patrols, but we must be aware of the cultural barriers that are in existence and find ways of overcoming them. There is an excellent female 1st Lt in Achrafia who is doing an excellent job in community policing' (Interviewee 15).

Three based their opinions on their own positive experiences of working with women whilst discharging their duties.

> 'I have three women in my team, and they are highly effective, females are especially suited and needed in administrative, investigative and search related roles' (Interviewee 3).

> 'This was a new experience for the ISF and only started in 2011 and I personally have had a good experience of their work in the ISF having several female subordinates when I worked in the judicial police' (Interviewee 13).

6.7 Conclusion and summary

Seventeen interviewees believed that the ISF were doing a very good job in getting out their positive messages to the public. The interviewees also highlighted the excellent work of the PR department in its engagement with the public through all types of media, including social media. It is clear that this was not always the case with significant improvements over the last 2 or 3 years and three believed that there is still room for improvement in this area.

All interviewees gave positive responses when asked about the introduction of a community policing style throughout Lebanon. They identified clear benefits of changing from a 'force' to a 'service' in terms of increasing public confidence and trust. They also identified clear linkages to the Strategic Plan and the strategic direction of the organisation in terms of the shift in policing style.

The interviewees were of the opinion that the introduction of community policing at Ras Beirut had proven that the concept works in Lebanon. Although there was a consensus that Ras Beirut was now a model to be followed in Lebanon, there were also legitimate concerns raised that the resources provided in terms of finance and personnel would not be replicated in other parts of Lebanon. As highlighted by Goldsmith (2005), the negativity or pre-existing attitudes stemming from previous experiences of the ISF implies a need for a set of confidence-enhancing steps that will foster trust and assurance and the Ras Beirut experience may be the start of that process for the ISF.

Following the success of Ras Beirut and later the model police stations at Achrafieh, Raouche and Ramlet Bayda, the Director General issued a memo in 2018 to all Station Commanders throughout Lebanon to introduce into their respective area the principles of community poling and partnership working. This is a very positive development given the hierarchical nature of the ISF, but this also presents challenges in terms of resourcing and finance as the hundreds of ISF stations will not have the same support as the model stations, so it is perhaps unfair to hold them to the same standards of implementation.

The Inspector General's report based on the inspection of 83 stations across all Lebanese Territories in late 2018 to assess their compliance with introducing the principles of community policing reveals that the four model stations were the only ones to have received community police training and were fully compliant with the Director General's memo; 58% of the heads of the stations had not implemented the memo; and 60% did not have the resources to deploy patrols to communicate with the citizens. The fact that Ras Beirut and Achrafieh police stations are the only ones that deploy officers on bicycles is not surprising given that they are the only two stations in the country that are equipped with bicycles.

All interviewees identified the benefits and value of partnership working, also recognising that the community will also take time to adjust to the new style of policing and to build the trust necessary to allow partnership working. The interviewees also saw merit in working not just in partnership with the public but with NGOs and other agencies in a collaborative problem-solving approach. The interviewees also identified that each geographical area may require a different approach and that a 'one size fits all' model will not work, as highlighted by one interview: 'the requirements of the community in the Bekaa valley may be totally different to that of the communities in downtown Beirut' (Interviewee 8).

The responses in respect of female representation in the ISF ranged from protective to practical. Only four of the interviewees believe that women could and should undertake a full range of duties, with the majority believing they were more suited to administrative roles and tasks that specifically required a female, such as searching another female. The interviewees also highlighted the important role that women have in respect of dealing with victims of domestic violence. It was also encouraging to see that domestic violence was given such priority. The researcher joined the Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC) in 1984 and at that time the late Chief Constable Sir John Herman had banned women from joining the organisation due to the terrorist threat, coupled with the fact that female police officers were not armed. The women

already serving in the RUC at the time largely performed administrative duties and juvenile liaison type roles and would provide a search capability for female suspects and act as jailers for female prisoners in police custody. The PSNI went through fundamental change over a number of years and, as a result, the role and representation of female officers now bear no resemblance to those earlier years. The ISF is also going through a transformational change process not dissimilar to that of the RUC and in years to come hopefully will have the same outcomes in respect of female representation. Six of the interviewees also highlighted the cultural challenges that exist in respect of women carrying out a full range of duties and some practical challenges such as police stations not being equipped to accommodate women. All of the interviewees felt that the presence of female officers in the ISF was having a positive impact on the organisation and public perception.

The next and final chapter will draw conclusions from the findings and their implications and will make clear recommendations for both donor agencies and the ISF. It will also highlight the contribution to knowledge made by this study.

Chapter 7. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to ascertain whether a Middle Eastern quasi-military organisation with a hierarchical structure and centralised decision-making ethos can change its transactional leadership model to reflect a new community-based policing style, and to ascertain if transformational leadership principles are culturally transferable.

The findings strongly suggest that the ISF in Lebanon can change its transactional approach to leadership and there was significant evidence from the participants that they had understood and adopted the principles of transformational leadership. There is also evidence to indicate that transformational leadership principles are culturally transferable if presented in a culturally sensitive way, for example the participants showed a clear preference for a Lebanese ISF trainer to train them on these principles, who would have an in depth understanding of the national and organisational culture and could deliver the training in the language and context of Lebanon.

7.1 Relating the findings to previous research

The GLOBE study Middle East cluster included Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco, Qatar and Turkey and although Lebanon was not a participating country, it is aligned with the Middle East cluster. The findings are broadly consistent with the societal cultural practices in terms of collectivism, power distance and gender egalitarianism but the findings were at odds with those of the GLOBE study in terms of future orientation and performance orientation. The results in relation to societal values expressed in the GLOBE study showed a desire to be more future-orientated and to have lower levels of power distance and these societal values have been significantly realised when the responses from the participants are analysed.

7.2 Limitations of the research

The findings of this study are limited by the small number of participants who took part in the qualitative interviews, affecting the generalisability of the findings. Accessing governmental security organisations in the Middle East for research is very difficult; despite a collaborative approach the researcher had to respond positively to the directions of the ISF in terms of the number of participants and timelines for collecting the data. This was mitigated to some extent by the use of key informants and secondary data which helped to corroborate the primary data obtained during the interviews.

7.2.1 Problems arising during the research

Several problems occurred during the data collection process. Part of the agreed collaborative process was the submission of the interview protocol questions to the ISF before the beginning of the interviews. Several of the questions were removed by ISF Headquarters staff; however, they were individual questions in the 'themed' areas so did not detract from the data collection process. If the removal of the questions had adversely affected the interview process, the researcher would have raised this with the ISF and tried to find a compromise, but on this occasion it was not deemed necessary.

During the qualitative interview stage, the gatekeeper had arranged a timetable for the participants to attend for interview and the researcher had arranged for an interpreter to be present. Just before the beginning of the first interview, a uniformed junior NCO came into the room and informed the researcher that he would be present at all the interviews on behalf of ISF Headquarters, just for record purposes. From close knowledge of the ISF and its processes, the researcher knew that, if he objected to the presence of the NCO, access would be denied to the participants and the research could not have proceeded. However, he was also aware that all the participants were senior officers who would not be influenced or intimidated by such a junior NCO. As a further safeguard, the researcher ensured every participant was aware of the role of the NCO and that they were not obliged to undertake the interview and could leave at any time. There was no adverse reaction from any of the participants who seemed to accept it as routine ISF practice. Had this been handled differently, it could have had a very negative impact on the research and data collection process.

The conditions of the ethical approval stipulated by the research ethics committee also created some difficulties; for example, the requirement for a debrief with the participants; referring them to a list of supporting organisations; and the requirement to conduct the interviews in a neutral space so as not to inhibit the authenticity of the responses. These are all very good practices in the UK research environment, but in the culture and context of the ISF in Lebanon were simply not practical and were inhibiting to the process.

7.3 Implications of the findings

According to Malterud (2001 p.486), '[t]he findings from a qualitative study are not thought of as facts that are applicable to the population at large, but rather as descriptions, notions, or theories applicable with a specified setting'. The results from this qualitative study provide in-depth and rich information that will make a meaningful impact on the field (Tracy, 2010).

7.3.1 Is transformational leadership culturally transferable?

This study offers evidence that transformational leadership is culturally transferable, with 100% of the participants giving a positive response to having transformational leadership training delivered at all levels of the organisation. The transformational leadership courses were a collaborative effort between the UK experts and the ISF with the ISF trainers taking the lead and delivering the courses, and 85% of the participants highlighted the importance of an ISF trainer delivering the training as they appreciated the culture and context which could never be replicated by western outsiders. The approach to the delivery of the programme also contributed to the acceptance of transformational leadership principles by the participants as much as the content. All the participants were supportive of the implementation of a competency framework which outlines the competencies of a transformational leader.

The findings also challenge the GLOBE performance-orientated cultural practices for the Middle East cluster and the findings tend to support the societal values in terms of having the desire to be performance-orientated and achieve ambitious goals by building up the self-confidence of staff and providing them with the opportunities for intellectual stimulation. The cultural transferability of transformational leadership was further evidenced in the responses of the participants in terms of dealing with poor performers in the workplace, with 90% fully satisfying Bass's four components of transformational leadership. The ISF has a hierarchical centralised system resulting in autocratic decision-making with the highest-ranking officers making the majority of decisions (BPST, 2016), but the findings challenge that perception, with all participants stating that they encourage their subordinates to make decisions and would support them in the process. The findings also challenge the GLOBE findings in respect of the 'future orientation' dimension, where the Middle East cluster scored low in terms of cultural practice but is aligned to the societal values with a desire to be future-orientated – all the participants believed that the ISF is a forward-looking organisation and supported that claim with an evidence-based response. However, according to 25% of the participants, this was not always the case and there had been a shift in recent years.

To summarise, the findings offer supporting evidence that the principles of transformational leadership are culturally transferable. These principles are best delivered by ISF trainers who have credibility and understand the context and culture better than any western expert. Although we should recognise countries with a high 'power distance' culture, it does not mean that change cannot occur in the organisation if the approach is carefully considered.

7.3.2 Can a community-focused problem-solving policing style work in a centralised decision-making structure?

Some 95% of participants supported the idea of junior officers being trained in using the decision-making model. These findings provide evidence that supports the theory that a community-focused problem-solving policing style can be adopted in the Lebanese ISF where, for community policing to work, decision-making and problem-solving have to be delegated to the officers on the ground. All the interviewees were positive about the introduction of a community policing style throughout the ISF in Lebanon. The Ras Beirut experience provided further evidence of the success of adopting a community-based approach with only 21% of the Ras Beirut community having full trust in the ISF in 2013 increasing to 46% in 2016 after the shift in policing style. Ras Beirut has proved the concept of adopting a community policing style, but the findings suggest that the success of Ras Beirut was dependent on the resources that were made available to transform the buildings and provide equipment, and the selection of the best staff and high-quality training. The Director General's memorandum that was issued in 2017 to all stations across Lebanon to adopt community policing principles clearly set out his strategic intention, but without the additional resources, personnel and training it will remain a vision.

The ISF Academy trainers are now teaching their own community policing curriculum to all new recruits and there is a community policing module included in all the Academy leadership development courses. Over 4,000 ISF Gendarmerie officers and NCOs will also receive the community police training package delivered by ISF trainers by the end of 2020.

The findings indicate that a community-focused problem-solving police style can work in a centralised decision-making structure if the officers receive the appropriate training, the stations are given the necessary resources, and a transformational leadership approach is adopted in terms of empowering patrol officers to make decisions on the ground. The findings also suggest that the collaborative approach to the design of the community policing curriculum to ensure it was culturally sensitive and contextualised, and the training of ISF trainers to deliver the training, were also key to the success of the programme. This provided local ownership and sustainability in terms of spreading the community policing ethos throughout the ISF in Lebanon.

7.3.3 Cross-cutting themes emerging across the research questions.

The introduction of the Lebanese Decision Making model was positively received by 95% of the respondents and the decentralisation of decision making is a key factor in both transformational leadership and the delivery of community policing throughout Lebanon. If the ISF officer on the ground is not empowered to take decisions then community policing at the local level cannot be effective; and if the leader does not adopt the principles of transformational leadership, they will not devolve decision-making.

The approach taken by the BPST project was to work with the ISF as equal partners both in the Leadership Development programmes and the Community Policing programmes. The collaboration took place throughout the training cycle of both programmes, in identifying the training need, designing the program, delivering and evaluating the programme. The design of both programs reflected the culture and context of Lebanon and sustainability was achieved by training ISF trainers to deliver both programmes.

The lack of resources allocated to ISF stations will have a negative effect on both the leadership development programme and the community police programme. The leader, if not sufficiently resourced in terms of manpower and infrastructure, will have to remain transactional and securitised in his or her approach. The implications of not resourcing the Director General's memo to introduce community policing throughout Lebanon will result in community policing in name only.

The responses around female representation again impact on both research questions. The ISF as an organisation is seriously under-represented in terms of female members and there are only a very small number of female commissioned officers. For community policing to be effective the police force should reflect the composition of the community it polices, and that is not possible at present due to the small number of females and the non-operational roles they are assigned.

7.4 Recommendations

7.4.1 For the ISF

1. Take the decision-making model to the ISF Command Council and recommend its implementation throughout the organisation.
2. Integrate the Leadership Competency Framework in all assessment activities at the ISF Academy.

3. Integrate the Leadership Competency Framework into the annual appraisal system.
4. Use the Competency Framework as a basis for creating job descriptions and role profiles in the ISF.
5. Create an ISF executive leadership development capability for the strategic ranks (Colonel and above).
6. Consider extending leadership development training to the NCO ranks, particularly in relation to first responder and team leader skills.
7. Provide logistics and training to support the role out of community policing throughout Lebanon, as per the Director General's memo.
8. Create appropriate working conditions and more integrated roles for women in the organisation in line with the culture and context of Lebanon.

7.4.2 For donor organisations

1. Adopt a collaborative, inclusive and partnership approach to capacity building programmes.
2. Involve the host organisation as equal partners in every aspect of the training cycle – training needs analysis, training design, training delivery and training evaluation.
3. Be aware of the pitfalls of adopting an ethnocentric approach and ensure the culture and context of the host organisation are given high priority.
4. To ensure ownership and sustainability, exploit every opportunity to 'train the trainer' and to develop the local systems and processes.
5. Avoid competing with other donor organisations but allow the host organisation to take the lead and support them without self-interest.
6. Ensure technical expertise is not the only consideration when selecting personnel to work with the host organisation, but that the competencies of cultural awareness, flexibility and emotional intelligence are given due consideration.
7. Consider reviewing the present time bound 'tick-box' system governing capacity building donor-funded programmes. This may serve the audit process but can seriously inhibit the delivery process and create unnecessary pressure on the delivery partners.
8. Capacity building programmes in the Middle East should accept that there is nothing wrong with host countries adopting western leadership values whilst simultaneously hanging on to traditional leadership values. This is the only way western leadership models will be truly accepted and integrated into the Middle Eastern culture and context.

7.5 The contribution to knowledge

Firstly, the research findings support the idea that transformational leadership is culturally transferable if the leadership development process is collaborative, locally owned and delivered with cultural sensitivity.

Secondly, the adoption of a community policing style in a quasi-military organisation can be achieved with positive outcomes if the process is collaborative, has buy-in from the top and is locally owned and delivered.

Thirdly, cultural awareness and sensitivity are key components to the successful delivery of donor-funded interventions.

Although not designed for that purpose, this research adds to the GLOBE study in terms of providing supporting data for Lebanon in respect of several of the GLOBE leadership dimensions.

7.6 Autobiographical reflection

Four years ago, I was driving down to Portsmouth full of apprehension as I approached the University to attend my induction session and commence my Professional Doctorate. My previous experiences of academia were limited to taking a distance learning BSc in police studies and an MSc in international criminal justice; the only motivation for taking these courses was to obtain the level of education I would need for future employment. For my Master's degree, I had not even attended the university, I took a very minimalistic approach to study and my focus was on my operational role in the PSNI. My motivation for undertaking the Professional Doctorate was completely different. I wanted to take time to reflect on my previous experience and examine the available literature relevant to my area of expertise. I wanted to contribute to the existing knowledge by undertaking meaningful research. The first session at the University involved meeting the academics who would be supporting the delivery of the programme and also meeting my fellow students. I felt I did not belong in the room, that I would never be able to talk in such academic language and I could not understand terms such as 'epistemological' and 'ontological'. As the months progressed, and with the excellent support of the staff, I started to grow in confidence and realised that what I lacked in academic writing and critical analysis I more than made up for in professional knowledge and experience.

At the end of the two-year taught element of the programme, I felt I was ready to undertake my research and had secured access to the Lebanese ISF through the work I was already engaged

in through the BPST. Despite my relationships, gaining access and conducting the research was not without its challenges, but this also reinforced my view that the best way to conduct research into a Middle East security organisation is through a collaborative, transparent and inclusive action research approach.

I feel I have grown as a researcher throughout the programme, both in terms of confidence and ability and I am grateful to all the staff at ICJS for their support and guidance. Finally, I hope that in the future consideration for cultural sensitivity and context receives the attention it deserves before capacity building programmes are undertaken and we can avoid some of the mistakes caused by ethnocentric interventions of the past.

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Appendix 1: Form UPR 16

FORM UPR16

Research Ethics Review Checklist

Please include this completed form as an appendix to your thesis (see the Research Degrees Operational Handbook for more information

Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information		Student ID:	17350
PGRS Name:	Kevin Smith		
Department:	ICJS	First Supervisor:	John Fox
Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students)		1.10.2017	

Study Mode and Route:						
	Part-time	☒	MPhil	☐	MD	☐
	Full-time	☐	PhD	☐	Professional Doctorate	☒

Title of Thesis:	Leading change: Adopting a transformational approach to leadership within the Internal Security Forces of Lebanon.
Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data)	52,700

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:
(If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/)

Question		
a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?	YES NO	☒ ☐
b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?	YES NO	☒ ☐
c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?	YES NO	☒ ☐
d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?	YES NO	☒ ☐
e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?	YES NO	☒ ☐

Candidate Statement:

I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)

Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):	FHSS 2018-012

If you have *not* submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so:

Signed *(PGRS)*:		Date: 20.09.2019

UPR16 – April 2018

Appendix 2: Ethics Committee confirmation letter

UNIVERSITY OF PORTSMOUTH

Professor Matthew Weait,
BA (Hons) MA MPhil DPhil FAcSS
Professor of Law and Society
Dean of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

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FAVOURABLE ETHICAL OPINION (with conditions)

Name: Kevin Smith

Study Title: Leading change: Adopting a transformational approach to leadership within Internal Security Forces of Lebanon.

Reference Number: FHSS 2018-012

Date: 19/02/2018

Thank you for submitting your application to the FHSS Ethics Committee

I am pleased to inform you that FHSS Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable ethical opinion of the above research on the basis described in the submitted documents listed at Annex A, and subject to standard general conditions (*See Annex B*).

With this there are a number of ethical conditions to comply with, and some additional advisory notes you may wish to consider, all shown below.

Condition(s)[1]

1. Consent: Fully informed and written consent is necessary for this study. Verbal consent can also be obtained but it is not a substitute for fully informed and written consent. A consent form must be completed in full and the template provided by the University of Portsmouth must be used. Therefore, Participant Information sheets (see also point 5 below) should be emailed to all potential participants at least 48 hours before data collection so that the potential participants have time to consider whether they would like to participate or not. This includes sending this information in Arabic if appropriate, to ensure that the terms of consent and information are accessible.
2. Debrief: the committee requires that a debrief procedure is included. For example, a debrief sheet provided at the end of the data collection session with a list of organisations that can give information, advice and support if necessary.
3. Methodology and method: The researcher must be clear and consistent in design and research language as to what type of research is being conducted and construct a proposal that is coherent with the methodology and method. The application form lacked this coherence across many aspects. Just one example is that the interview questions reflect the focused positivist nature of research based on prior assumptions: ie., "There is reluctance for some officers within the organisation to make decisions without referring them up why do think this is the case?". This is not participatory action research (see also advisory note, point 2, below).
4. Gatekeepers: the researcher must identify appropriate gatekeepers who will distribute the letter of invitation and participant information sheet. The researcher should have no direct contact with the potential participants prior to recruitment, so the researcher UOP contact details should be on the invitation to participate and

[1] A favourable opinion will be dependent upon the study adhering to the conditions stated, which are based on the application document(s) submitted. It is appreciated that Principal Investigators may wish to challenge conditions or propose amendments to these in the resubmission to this ethical review.

participant information sheet, so that the potential participant contacts the researcher in the first instance.

5. Participant information sheet: the researcher must fully complete the template Participant Information Sheet and, through the gatekeeper, distribute this, along with the invitation to participate and consent form, to the potential participant.
6. Ethical measures to safeguard participants: these are too vague and must be fully developed prior to the operationalization of the research
7. Inclusion criteria: this is vague and must be clearly specified. The ethical measures to safeguard participants (see point 6 above) can not be fully articulated until it is clear who the participants will be.

Advisory Note(s)[2]

A. Potential bias and Location of interviews: where possible, interviews and focus groups should take place in a neutral space. When employees are asked about working culture on work premises, this can inhibit the authenticity of their responses.
B. Research language: in section 9, reference needs to be changed from 'methodologies' to 'methods' when referring to semi-structured interviews and focus groups. The language in section 11.1 refers to how focus groups will be 'administered', which is not an appropriate terms for qualitative research.
C. Clarity: the researcher claims that this is a participatory action research project but then refers to it as active research. These are not the same thing.

Please note that the favourable opinion of FHSS Ethics Committee does not grant permission or approval to undertake the research/ work. Management permission or approval must be obtained from any host organisation, including the University of Portsmouth or supervisor, prior to the start of the study.

Wishing you every success in your research

Chair

Dr Jane Winstone

Email: ethics-fhss@port.ac.uk

Annexes

A - Documents reviewed

B - After ethical review

[2] The comments are given in good faith and it is hoped they are accepted as such. The PI does not need to adhere to these, or respond to them, unless they wish to.

ANNEX A - Documents reviewed

The documents ethically reviewed for this application

Document	Version	Date
Application Form	2	05/02/2018
Invitation Letter	1	22/01/2018
Peer/Independent Review	N/A	Took place during taught phase of professional doctorate
Supervisor Email Confirming Application	N/A	Email from Barry Loveday
Evidence From External Organisation Showing Support	N/A	
Interview Questions / Topic List	1	22/01/2018
Focus Group Questions/ Topic List	1	22/01/2018
Focus Group Ground Rules	1	22/01/2018

ANNEX B - After ethical review

1. This Annex sets out important guidance for those with a favourable opinion from a University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee. Please read the guidance carefully. A failure to follow the guidance could lead to the committee reviewing and possibly revoking its opinion on the research.

2. It is assumed that the work will commence within 1 year of the date of the favourable ethical opinion or the start date stated in the application, whichever is the latest.

3. The work must not commence until the researcher has obtained any necessary management permissions or approvals – this is particularly pertinent in cases of research hosted by external organisations. The appropriate head of department should be aware of a member of staff's plans.

4. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study beyond that stated in the application, the Ethics Committee must be informed.

5. Any proposed substantial amendments must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for review. A substantial amendment is any amendment to the terms of the application for ethical review, or to the protocol or other supporting documentation approved by the Committee that is likely to affect to a significant degree:

(a) the safety or physical or mental integrity of participants
(b) the scientific value of the study
(c) the conduct or management of the study.

5.1 A substantial amendment should not be implemented until a favourable ethical opinion has been given by the Committee.

6. At the end of the work a final report should be submitted to the ethics committee. A template for this can be found on the University Ethics webpage.

7. Researchers are reminded of the University's commitments as stated in the Concordat to Support Research Integrity viz:

- maintaining the highest standards of rigour and integrity in all aspects of research
- ensuring that research is conducted according to appropriate ethical, legal and professional frameworks, obligations and standards
- supporting a research environment that is underpinned by a culture of integrity and based on good governance, best practice and support for the development of researchers
- using transparent, robust and fair processes to deal with allegations of research misconduct should they arise
- working together to strengthen the integrity of research and to reviewing progress regularly and openly.

8. In ensuring that it meets these commitments the University has adopted the UKRIO Code of Practice for Research. Any breach of this code may be considered as misconduct and may be investigated following the University Procedure for the Investigation of Allegations of Misconduct in Research. Researchers are advised to use the UKRIO checklist as a simple guide to integrity.

Appendix 3: Informed consent sheet

Consent Form

Principle Researcher Kevin Smith

Supervisor Dr. John Fox

Study Title: Leading change: Adopting a transformational approach to leadership within the Internal Security Forces of Lebanon.

Name of Researcher: Kevin Smith

Please initial box

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 8/4/2018 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, (up to the point when the data are analysed. ☐
2. I understand that data collected during the study, may be looked at by individuals from the ISF and University of Portsmouth, or from regulatory authorities I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data ☐

Add other clauses as necessary, examples might include:

- I agree to being quoted verbatim
- I agree to the data I contribute being retained for future, REC approved, research

x. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant: Date: Signature:

Name of Person taking consent : Date: Signature:

Appendix 4: Participant information sheet

Principle Researcher Kevin Smith

Kevin.Smith2@myport.ac.uk

Supervisor Dr John Fox

John.Fox@port.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

8th April 2018

Study Title: Leading change: Adopting a transformational approach to leadership within the Internal Security Forces of Lebanon.

We would like to invite you to take part in our research study. Before you decide we would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Talk to others about the study if you wish and please ask any questions at any time.

What is the purpose of the study?
This study relates to the leadership style within the ISF and considers a number of recent initiatives within the organisation in the area of leadership development and decision making. The research will also be used by the researcher as part of his professional doctorate award through Portsmouth University.

Why have I been invited?
You have been chosen as you meet the criteria in terms of your rank and experience and your participation has been approved by the Director General of the ISF.

Do I have to take part?
You do not have to take part in the research study and you can end your involvement at any time. If you do agree to take part, I will ask you sign a consent form indicating your willingness to take part.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you agree to take part you will be interviewed by the researcher for approximately 40 minutes, the interview will be audio recorded subject to your approval. Your responses will be anonymized and none of your comments will be attributable to you.

Expenses and payments
There will be no expenses or payments made in relation to taking part in the research.

What will I have to do?
Make yourself available at the time and place for the interview, which will be arranged at a time and place of your choosing.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?
The only disadvantage of taking part in the research study is the loss of your time, however, all interviews will take place hours and have been authorised by the Director General of the ISF.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
The information you provide will form part of the knowledge that will be could used to shape leadership development and a leadership strategy within the ISF.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?
Yes. However, it is possible that some of the data collected will be looked at by authorised persons from the ISF. Data may also be looked at by authorised people to check that the study is being carried out correctly, all will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.
All data will be treated as confidential and will be stored on the password protected University N Drive. Only fully encrypted memory sticks will be used should there be a requirement for this type of data storage.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?
You may withdraw from taking part in this research project at any time, however, after the data has been collected and processed due to practical reasons may be impossible to withdraw any individual's personal contribution. The retention of any research data will be for the sole purpose of enabling verification of the research results and original consent forms will be retained in a secure place by the researcher for 30 years from the completion of the study.

What if there is a problem?
If you have any concerns about any aspect of this study, you should ask to speak to the researcher or their supervisor, who will do everything they can to answer your question and in the first instance can be contacted on 00447724199616. If you wish to take the matter further and wish to make a formal complaint then you can contact the complaints officer at the University of Portsmouth.

What will happen to the results of the research study?
Participants will be provided with access to a summary of the results from this research study. No participant will be identified in any report/publication unless they have given their full consent.

Who is organising and funding the research?
The research in organised through the University of Portsmouth in collaboration with the Lebanese ISF. The research is fully self-funded by the researcher.

Who has reviewed the study?
Research in the University of Portsmouth is looked at by independent group of people, called an Ethics Committee, to protect your interests. This study has been reviewed and given a favourable ethical opinion by University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee.

Further information and contact details

1. General information about research and specific information about this research study. Please contact Kevin Smith, Principal Investigator, Kevin.Smith2@myport.ac.uk

2. Should you require advice as to whether you should participate in this research please contact Captain Hamze ISF designated liaison officer, hamzehaidar86@gmail.com

Concluding statement
I would like to thank you for taking the time to read and consider this information sheet If you decide to participate you will be given a copy of the information sheet to keep and your written consent will be sought.

Yours sincerely,

Kevin Smith(January 2018)

Appendix 5: Letter to host organisation

Director General Internal Security Forces Lebanon

ISF Headquarters, Beirut

26th January 2018

Proposal to undertake Doctoral Research with the Internal Security Forces of Lebanon.

Introduction.

I am a former senior officer of the Police Service of Northern Ireland having completed 27 years service including 2 years as a United Nations Regional Police Commander and 3 years working for the UK College of Policing as their Middle East and North Africa region police advisor. Prior to taking up my role within the British Police Support Team in Beirut I worked for 5 years as the training and development expert within the office of the Qatar Minister of Interior.

I have been privileged to work with the Lebanese Internal Security Forces (ISF) since 2008 both as a senior UK Police officer representing the UK College of Policing and for the last eighteen months as the Academy component lead for the British Police Support Team in Beirut.

I am presently in the third year of a part-time Professional Doctorate at Portsmouth University and now have to undertake a significant research project in the area of leadership development and submit a final Doctoral thesis.

Proposal.

My intention is to carry out research in collaboration with the Lebanese ISF and at every stage of the research project agreement will be sought from the host organisation in terms of the 'research questions', methodologies, participants, time lines and sharing of data.

The area identified for research is leadership development within the ISF which could include areas such as;

- Soliciting the views of senior officers within the organisation about the preferred leadership style for the ISF.
- Obtain the views of senior officers on how to maximise the operational effect of the ISF Strategic plan.

- Explore issues around delegation of authority and decentralisation of decision making.

- Obtaining the views of senior officers on the proposed introduction of an ISF Decision Making model

- Obtain the views of senior officers in relation to leadership development at all levels of the organisation and the proposed competency framework.

- Explore the linkages between leadership and performance management/motivation.

- Obtain the views of those Lt. Cadet officers and Majors that have recently attended the transformational leadership modules.

In terms of methodologies subject to ISF approval a Participative Action Research strategy will be adopted resulting in all aspects of the study being carried out in collaboration with the ISF. A 'mixed methods' approach will be undertaken whereby a combination of focus groups and semi-structured qualitative interviews will be used to gather the necessary data. I have attached a 'draft' interview schedule and would anticipate interviewing approximately 25 ISF Officers of Major rank or above.

All expenses in relation to the research study will be covered by the researcher and there will be no costs to the ISF or to the British Police Support Team project. Although provisional approval for the research project is sought now it is anticipated that the collection of data will take place from March to May 2018.

Potential Benefits to the ISF.

- By adopting a collaborative approach this will ensure the research meets the needs of the researcher and more importantly the needs of the ISF.
- The data will be made available to the ISF throughout the process and in the final thesis.
- Effective leadership is a key priority for the ISF and this research will help to validate the leadership development steps already being taken and identify other areas for consideration.
- The information obtained from the research will help to inform the development of an ISF Leadership Development Strategy.
- The published thesis will add to the public confidence in the ISF by highlighting the importance placed on leadership development within the organisation. Donors may also wish to further support the area of leadership development as a result of the findings.

- The researcher's knowledge of Lebanon and the ISF provides a unique opportunity and will greatly benefit the process as trust and mutual respect are already established.

The research is ethically compliant and formal ethical approval will be provided by the ethics committee of ICJS at Portsmouth University

Kevin Smith

Professional Doctorate Student

Portsmouth University

Appendix 6: Interview Protocol

Protocol for Senior Officer (Senior Captain and above) Interviews

General

Introduction

Introduce myself and exchange pleasantries to put the participant at ease. Explain the nature of my research and how the interview will progress thanking the participant for taking the time from their busy schedule to see me. Provide a copy of the participant information sheet and complete participant consent form.

Present leadership style/progression path

Q. Presently there is only one mandated leadership training course from the Rank of Captain to Major, the ISF Academy are now introducing leadership development programs at all levels of the organisation, what are your views around this?

Q. There is now an ISF Leadership Competency Framework (hand the interviewee a one-page copy) Do you think they reflect the competencies required for an officer in the ISF?

Q. What competency areas do you think are in the most need of development for ISF officers?

Performance Management

Q. How do think the present performance affects public confidence in the ISF? (how can we get more out of our staff?)

Q. How do you think poor performers should be dealt with?

Q. How can the ISF maximise the potential of its officers?

Decision making

Q. How do you encourage your subordinates to make decisions?

Q. Junior officers joining the ISF are now being trained and encouraged to make decisions what are your views on this? (hand participant NDM model)

Q. There is a plan to accept the decision-making model throughout the organisation what are your views regarding this.

Strategic Plan/Thinking

Q. Do you think the ISF is a forward-looking organisation/How can the ISF be a more forward-looking organisation?

Q. Do you think the officers on the ground need to be aware of the ISF Strategic plan/How can leaders of the ISF make officers on the ground aware of and support the ISF Strategic plan?

Communication

Q. How could internal communication within the organisation be improved?

Q. How could the ISF improve in relation to getting positive messages out to the public?

Community Focus

Q. What are your views about the introduction of a Community Policing Style throughout the ISF? (potential challenges)

Q. What are your views on partnership working through community engagement? (are public ready)

Female representation

Q. What roles do you think females are best suited to within the ISF? (including leadership)

Q. What roles do you think females could have within the ISF?

General

Is there anything else you would like to add in addition to what we have already covered?

Again I would like to thank you for your time it is very much appreciated.

Kevin Smith

UoP Researcher