

THE IMPACT OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS IN THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES EDUCATION SYSTEM

by

WILFRED CARLO BOCK

Submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in the subject

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

PROMOTER: PROF S SCHULZE

MARCH 2014

DECLARATION

I declare that THE IMPACT OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS IN THE UNITED ARAB EMIRATES EDUCATION SYSTEM is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



(Mr) WC Bock

Student number: 3569-928-0

24 February 2014

DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is a distinct honour to thank the following people for making this study possible:

- Firstly, to **God Almighty**, I am grateful that through His infinite blessings I am able to achieve so many things in life, this study being one of them.
- To my stunning wife, **Simone Bock**, for your love, tireless efforts, great care, support and inspirational guidance throughout my study. God blessed me with you, and for that I will be forever grateful. I love you dearly!
- To my beautiful daughters, **Wrenn and Sarai Bock**, thanks for making me a proud dad, and may this study inspire you both, to go out into the world and make a difference.
- To my late mother, **Cecelia Bock**, I honour you for always believing in me and for teaching me, that if we put God first, the rest will follow. I love you and will always treasure your memory.
- To my father and brother, **Gert and Gerrit Bock**, I appreciate all your prayers, love and encouragement throughout this study.
- To my promoter, **Professor Salomé Schulze**, who has been a phenomenal source of support, inspiration and guidance. I honour you for investing quality time in your students.
- To **Professor Eleanor Lemmer** and **Mrs. Mariette Van Zijl**, for providing the professional editing and the professional layout for this thesis respectively.
- To all my **family and friends**, I appreciate your interest, love, support and words of encouragement.

- To my dear friend, **Dr. Gail Bradley**, for being my source of support and voice of reason throughout this journey.
- To all the **participants** in this research. I appreciate your invaluable contributions.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to:

All expatriate teaching professionals that have sacrificed time away from their families to work abroad, and especially to those expatriates that continually strive to make a difference, in order to reform the UAE education system.

“What counts in life, is not the mere fact that we have lived. It is what difference we have made to the lives of others, that will determine the significance of the life we lead.”

Nelson Mandela (1918-2013)

Former President Of South Africa

ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to investigate the impact of expatriate school leaders in the education system of the United Arab Emirates (UAE). This study was motivated by a concern regarding the short-term entry of expatriates into the UAE education system, thereby questioning their overall impact in the UAE educational reform. The literature reviews focused on mentoring and leadership within education, and how these related to the UAE educational reform in particular. The empirical investigation used a qualitative, ethnographical case study design. The situated learning theory and the social constructivist theory were used as conceptual frameworks for the study. Purposive and convenient sampling was employed to select five indigenous and five expatriate school leaders as participants for this study. Qualitative data collection was preceded by a pilot study in which an indigenous and an expatriate school leaders were informally interviewed. Individual interviews were thereafter conducted whereby participants were interviewed over a two-week period. The interviews were followed by focus group sessions that were gender specific. Notes were kept and all observations were documented throughout the study. Findings were that, according to the participants' views, expatriate school leaders seemed to make little impact on current UAE education reform. Their impact was inhibited by dubious motives of many expatriate school leaders working in the UAE; cultural and religious barriers between expatriate and indigenous school leaders; language as a barrier; lack of role modelling; continuous changes in the UAE education system; poor attitudes of some indigenous school leaders; resistance to change; lack of sustainability and poor communication between school leaders and policy makers. Recommendations were provided to enhance the impact of expatriate school leaders within the UAE system. Firstly, expatriate impact could be enhanced through an intensive two-week induction programme and secondly, by means of a partnership development framework to improve the mentoring relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders. Ways to overcome the language barrier were also recommended. Additionally, the study provided recommendations for further research.

KEY WORDS

- Educational reform
- Expatriate
- Impact
- Indigenous
- Leadership
- Mentoring
- School leader
- Situated learning theory
- Social-constructivist theory
- United Arab Emirates

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

UAE	United Arab Emirates
DAAERA	Division Administration of the American Educational Research Association
ADEC	Abu Dhabi Education Council
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
PPP	Public Private Partnership
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
CUREE	Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education
RO	Reflective Observation
AE	Active Experimentation
CE	Concrete Experience
AC	Abstract Conceptualisation
CfLS	Centre for Leadership Studies

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ABSTRACT	v
KEY WORDS	vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	vii

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

1.1	INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY	1
1.2	RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH	6
1.3	RESEARCH PARADIGM	7
	1.3.1 Epistemological approach	7
	1.3.2 Situated learning theory	8
	1.3.3 Social constructivist theory	8
1.4	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	11
	1.4.1 Ethnographical case study	11
	1.4.2 Sampling	12
	1.4.3 Data collection methods	12
	1.4.3.1 Focus groups	13
	1.4.3.2 Individual interviews	13
	1.4.3.3 Observations	13
	1.4.3.4 Reflective journal	14
	1.4.4 Trustworthiness (validity and reliability)	14
	1.4.5 Ethical considerations	15
1.5	CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS	16
	1.5.1 Mentoring	16
	1.5.2 Sustainability	17
	1.5.3 Emiratisation	18

1.5.4	Educational reform	19
1.5.5	Emirati (indigenous national)	19
1.5.6	Expatriate.....	19
1.5.7	School leader	20
1.6	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	20
1.6.1	Academic/theoretical	20
1.6.2	Practical	21
1.7	DIVISION OF CHAPTERS	21
1.8	SUMMARY	

CHAPTER 2: MENTORING IN EDUCATION

2.1	INTRODUCTION	23
2.2	THE AIM OF MENTORING	23
2.3	THE MENTORING PROCESS	25
2.3.1	Initiation stage	25
2.3.2	Getting established stage	26
2.3.3	Maturation stage	26
2.3.4	Termination stage	27
2.4	LEARNING THEORIES AND LEARNING STYLES RELEVANT TO MENTORING	27
2.4.1	Learning styles relevant to mentoring	27
2.4.2	Cyclical learning theory	31
2.4.2.1	Stage 1: Concrete experience	32
2.4.2.2	Stage 2: Reflective observation	32
2.4.2.3	Stage 3: Abstract conceptualization	32
2.4.2.4	Stage 4: Active experimentation	32
2.4.3	Learning styles in mentoring	34
2.4.3.1	The activist learning style	36
2.4.3.2	The reflective learning style	36
2.4.3.3	The theorist learning style	36
2.4.3.4	The pragmatist learning style	37
2.5	THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP	37
2.6	MODELS OF MENTORING	39

2.6.1	Skilled helper model	39
2.6.1.1	Stage 1	41
2.6.1.2	Stage 2	41
2.6.1.3	Stage 3	42
2.6.2	The CUREE model of mentoring	43
2.6.3	The community of practice model	46
2.6.4	Implications of the models	47
2.7	MENTORING AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM	49
2.8	SUMMARY	51

CHAPTER 3: LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

3.1	INTRODUCTION	53
3.2	THE FUNCTION OF LEADERSHIP	53
3.3	QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS	56
3.4	LEADERSHIP MODELS AND STYLES	60
3.4.1	Instructional leadership	61
3.4.2	Transformational leadership	63
3.4.3	Instructional vs Transformational leadership	65
3.5	LEADERSHIP AND SUSTAINABILITY	68
3.5.1	Seven principles of sustainable leadership	68
3.5.1.1	Sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustainable learning	68
3.5.1.2	Sustainable leadership secures success over time	69
3.5.1.3	Sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others	70
3.5.1.4	Sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice	70
3.5.1.5	Sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources	71
3.5.1.6	Sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity	71
3.5.1.7	Sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment	72

3.6	LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT	72
3.7	LEADERSHIP AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM	76
3.8	SUMMARY	78

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

4.1	INTRODUCTION	80
4.2	ETHICAL MEASURES	80
	4.2.1 Informed consent	81
	4.2.2 Voluntary participation	81
	4.2.3 Anonymity and confidentiality	82
	4.2.4 Deception and privacy	82
	4.2.5 Competence of the researcher	82
	4.2.6 Acknowledging financial support	83
4.3	RESEARCH DESIGN	83
4.4	DATA COLLECTION	85
	4.4.1 The school context	85
	4.4.2 The sample	86
	4.4.3 The researcher as instrument	87
4.5	DATA COLLECTION METHODS	88
	4.5.1 The pilot study	88
	4.5.2 Interviews	88
	4.5.3 Focus groups	89
	4.5.4 Observations and field notes	89
	4.5.5 Reflective journal	91
4.6	DATA ANALYSIS	91
	4.6.1 Segmenting	91
	4.6.2 Coding	92
	4.6.3 Forming categories or themes	92
	4.6.4 Discovering patterns	92
4.7	MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS	92
4.8	SUMMARY	93

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1	INTRODUCTION	94
5.2	REALISATION OF THE SAMPLE	94
5.3	THE VIEWS OF INDIGENOUS SCHOOL LEADERS OF THE UAE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND THE ROLE OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS	95
5.3.1	Indigenous school leaders' views of education reform in the UAE	96
5.3.2	Indigenous school leaders' views of expatriate school leaders	99
5.3.3	Indigenous school leaders' views regarding expatriates' mentoring and up skilling them	103
5.3.4	Indigenous school leaders' views of the successes and challenges of expatriate school leaders	107
5.3.4.1	The successes of working with expatriate school leaders	107
5.3.4.2	The challenges of working with expatriate school leaders	108
5.3.5	Indigenous school leaders' views of how to improve the partnership between indigenous and expatriate school leaders	110
5.4	THE VIEWS OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS OF THE UAE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND OF THEIR ROLE	112
5.4.1	Expatriate school leaders' reasons for working in the UAE	113
5.4.2	Expatriate school leaders' views of education reform in the UAE	115
5.4.3	Expatriate school leaders' views of indigenous and other expatriate school leaders	117
5.4.3.1	Expatriate school leaders' views of indigenous school leaders	117
5.4.3.2	Expatriate school leaders' views of expatriate school leaders	120

5.4.4	Expatriate school leaders' views of the mentoring and up skilling process of indigenous school leaders	122
5.4.5	Expatriate school leaders' views of some of the successes and challenges of working alongside indigenous school leaders	125
5.4.5.1	Expatriate school leaders' views of the successes of working with indigenous school leaders	125
5.4.5.2	Expatriate school leaders' views of the challenges of working with indigenous school leaders	128
5.4.6	Expatriate school leaders' views of how to enhance their own role and performance when working alongside indigenous school leaders	129
5.5	COMPARATIVE RESPONSE TABLE	130
5.6	SUMMARY	133

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1	INTRODUCTION	134
6.2	CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEWS	134
6.2.1	Mentoring in educational reform	134
6.2.2	Leadership in educational reform	136
6.3	CONCLUSIONS FROM THE FINDINGS	137
6.3.1	The role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system	137
6.3.1.1	Responsibility towards successful reform	137
6.3.1.2	Providing support	137
6.3.2	Views and beliefs of expatriate and indigenous school leaders in UAE education that enhanced the impact of expatriate school leaders	138
6.3.2.1	Mentoring as a tool for development	138
6.3.3	Factors that constrained the impact of expatriate school leaders in UAE education	139

6.3.3.1	Questionable motives of expatriate school leaders for working in the UAE	139
6.3.3.2	Cultural and religious barriers	139
6.3.3.3	Language as a barrier	140
6.3.3.4	Lack of modelling	140
6.3.3.5	Continuous changes in the UAE education system	140
6.3.3.6	Poor attitudes of some indigenous school leaders	141
6.3.3.7	Resistance to change	141
6.3.3.8	Lack of sustainability	142
6.3.3.9	Poor communication with policy makers	142
6.4	RECOMMENDATIONS	143
6.4.1	Recommendations for improving the impact of expatriate school leaders	143
6.4.1.1	An induction programme for new expatriate school leaders	143
6.4.1.2	The partnership development framework	147
6.4.1.3	Recommendations to resolve possible language barriers	149
6.4.2	Recommendations for further study	152
6.5	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	153
6.6	CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	154
6.7	CONCLUSION	155
	LIST OF REFERENCES	157

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:	APPROVAL LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH	170
APPENDIX B:	RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	171
APPENDIX C:	CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS	172
APPENDIX D:	CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT FORM FOR RESEARCH ASSISTANT	173

APPENDIX E:	INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS	174
APPENDIX F:	INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR LOCAL/INDIGENOUS SCHOOL LEADERS	175
APPENDIX G:	FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS FOR EXPATRIATE AND INDIGENOUS LEADERS	176

TABLES

Table 3.1:	A comparison of the characteristics of instructional and transformational leadership	66
Table 4.1:	Biographical data of the sample	87
Table 5.1:	Comparative table: Views during interviews and focus groups	131
Table 6.1:	Induction programme for new expatriate school leaders	144
Table 6.2:	English and Arabic pocket size booklet	151

FIGURES

Figure 1.1:	Vygotsky's ZPD	10
Figure 2.1:	Kolb's learning cycle	31
Figure 2.2:	Learning styles	35
Figure 2.3:	Egan's skilled helper model	40
Figure 3.1:	Individual differences framework	57
Figure 3.2:	Leadership development framework	74
Figure 5.1:	Views of indigenous school leaders	95
Figure 5.2:	Views of expatriate school leaders	113
Figure 6.1:	Partnership development framework	148

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND

*“Leadership and learning are
indispensable to each other.”*

John F. Kennedy

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The reasons for selecting this research topic are twofold. Firstly, it stems from my personal interest in the ideas surrounding educational reform, and my interest in the role that expatriates in particular play in the international educational arena regarding reform. As an expatriate working in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), I constantly question my contribution to the international education system. Some of the questions that come to mind are: Why am I here? Do I make a difference, and if so, what difference do I make to education in a foreign country? How do I help others that aspire to make a difference? More specifically, what do I need to do to gain more insight in order to make a difference to education in an international context? Secondly, as an education specialist in the field of school leadership, I am also concerned by the fact that expatriate educators enter the UAE system only for short periods of time. The important question of how sustainable their impact is on the UAE education system therefore arises.

A brief review of international education papers with reference to education reform, highlights the need for various reform agendas, sustainable educational reform processes, the persistence in expatriate academic assignments, and the importance of high-quality school leadership.

Regarding high-quality school leadership, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:1) point out that such leaders are perceived as vital elements of high-quality education systems. They state that when one "scratches the surface of an excellent school, one is likely to find an excellent principal" (Leithwood & Riehl 2003:1). Such principals allow teachers and other staff to do their jobs in an effective manner, offering academic guidance and support to improve their performance, and providing models of best

practice (Leithwood and others in Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe & Meyerson, 2005:6-7). Moreover, in a study conducted by the Division Administration of the American Educational Research Association (DAAERA) (in Leithwood & Riehl, 2003:1-8), it was concluded that there is a core set of leadership skills ranging from basic abilities to the fundamental leadership practices that ensures success in all educational contexts. Some of the core practices include setting directions, developing people, developing organisations, responding productively to challenges and opportunities, and an awareness of cultural diversity.

In addition to the above, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:3-7) emphasise a deeper understanding of the fundamental practices that are essential for first class leadership since a range of fundamental skills are embedded in the core practices of principals. They suggest that effective school leaders support visions that embody best practice underpinned by teaching and learning, and that school leaders inspire others to aim for ambitious goals related to these visions. To set clear goals, a strategic planning phase is a vital component for school improvement. During planning, leaders convey their expectations for quality and high performance, and allow for reflection on whether the set goals are in fact achievable. Monitoring on progress toward set goals is also important. A key feature is for leaders to assess how well the school is performing in its quest to reach set goals by using multiple indicators and to use the data appropriately to develop and review priorities.

A study conducted by DAAERA (in Leithwood & Riehl, 2003:1-8), also suggests that effective leaders encourage cooperation and assist staff to work in collaboration towards a shared goal. In this regard, skilful leaders focus attention on key aspects of communication with multiple stakeholders in a clear and convincing manner. Furthermore, the study also revealed that if school leaders wish to strengthen the school culture, they need to expand on the concept of shared norms, values, beliefs and attitudes, that promote mutual caring and trust amongst all members regardless of background or traditions. Such leaders strive to expand their own knowledge and help to identify and implement various types of teaching and learning experiences, that are suitable and effective for all people they serve. Finally, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:6) mention that creating a strong school community is essential for leaders to be successful because it creates a strong connection between students, staff and parents. This emphasis on accountability has influenced a shift in the models of

leadership for which principals are prepared. Accordingly, Barber and Meyerson (2001:3), point out that effective school principals are the key change agents that are responsible for improving school performance.

In reference to sustainability, high performing schools have skilled school leaders who are able to engage in sustained work over an extended period of time. Hargreaves and Fink (in Thorne, 2011:173) point out the fact that leadership succession is the final challenge for leadership sustainability. The challenge is to let go, move on and work towards a stage where newly trained leaders can work independently.

With regards to the UAE education system in particular, and leadership within the system, the UAE government made a number of attempts to reform the education system in the early 70's (Gardner, 1995:290-299). One of the priorities was to seek new and higher levels of expertise for the teaching force. Since then, the education system has undergone various reform agendas. In 2005, Sheikh Al Nahayan (in Thorne, 2011:173) referred to a public education in crisis. One reason for this crisis was the poor academic qualifications of teaching and management staff. According to Gardner (1995:294), many of the indigenous professionals working in the education sector had qualifications below the reasonable international standard. They were also less qualified on average when compared with expatriate professionals. As a result, the leaders of the country realised the need to improve education by relying on the skills and expertise of foreigners. This resulted in the hiring of a large number of expatriate educational leaders with an intention of them raising the bar within schools.

Dr Lynne Pearson (in Thorne, 2011:173-175), Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) Head of School Education, stated that the expatriates were an asset to the education reform process. However, since most expatriates would not be around forever, nationals were to be professionally developed to take over the reins and sustain their own education system in years to come. The objective was for expatriates to train nationals over time and eventually exit the system. In this regard, Hargreaves and Fink (in Thorne, 2011:175-183) emphasised the importance of continuity when the expatriates left the country. Their view was that "sustainable leadership is not achieved by charismatic leaders whose shoes are too big to fill; instead it spreads

beyond individuals in chains of influence that connect the actions of leaders to their predecessors and successors”.

Reform in the UAE could be compared to reform in Thailand. A case study conducted on educational reform in Thailand (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000:198-201) highlighted the role of the school leader as a catalyst for change. The school principals made extensive and varied use of social networks in and around their school communities during the implementation of the reform project. The principal was viewed as the driving force behind successful change and ultimately regarded as the catalyst for a sustainable transformation. Accordingly, indigenous principals in the UAE often rely on communal support, including expatriate training, when implementing new programmes associated with the reform agenda. However, the effectiveness of expatriate influence and the sustainability of the training process have not been investigated.

According to Hokal and Shaw (1999:176-178), the change process in education is a high priority for the UAE leaders. Authors such as Avis, Krugman, and Reich (in Hokal & Shaw, 1999:178) emphasise the fact that the UAE has the wealth to ensure a quality education system. Ryan (2012:3) highlights the fact that the consequence of expatriate failure could be high not only in human and financial terms, but also in terms of disrupting an organisation due to a high staff turnover. Ultimately, if expatriate leaders are satisfied with their work, it is assumed that they will stay for longer periods of time, resulting in the achievement of a sustainable system in a shorter time frame (Ryan, 2012:1-132). However, it is uncertain if the expatriate school leaders hold the same educational vision as the country's leaders with regard to the overall improvement of the UAE education system. No research has been conducted to investigate the reasons why expatriate school leaders become involved in the mentoring of indigenous school leaders in the UAE.

Challenges pertaining to expatriates mentoring indigenous school leaders in the UAE exist. For example, a variety of English proficient academics (i.e. Australians, New Zealanders and South Africans) are being recruited to work in the UAE to mentor indigenous leaders (Ryan, 2012:1-54). However, the sustainability of the transference of skills approach is questionable, when a variety of models are involved. Among others, Daresh and Male (2000:91-97) compared the criteria for

school principalship in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA). In the U.K., a traditional apprenticeship model is being followed where school principals have been prepared mostly by being promoted, according to Daresh and LaPlant (in Daresh & Male, 2000:90-96). In the USA, it is acceptable that students can be prepared for principalship on a university campus. A minimum of three years teaching experience and a university Master's degree would be required to become a school principal.

The above is different in the UAE where leaders were traditionally less qualified. Thus, in the UAE, there have been attempts to re-evaluate the roles and skill set of nationals and to improve these skills. One strategy was to motivate more national males to enter the education sector and to encourage female nationals to study for a formal qualification (Gardner, 1995:294-296). This emiritisation process aims to ensure that key positions are filled by nationals. However, it does not guarantee that nationals are skilled for the relevant position (Gardner, 1995:294-300). The extent to which the hiring of qualified and experienced expatriate school leaders to mentor UAE citizens could be threatening for nationals, who are under qualified and less experienced, has not been investigated.

Another problem relates to the following: One of the key elements in the UAE reform plan mentioned before, was the creation of the Private Public Partnership (PPP) programme. This project consisted of profit and non-profit management organisations in selected government schools, aiming to raise educational standards (Thorne, 2011:173). In this regard, Reynolds (2006:1-12) emphasises the need for more consistency during a reform process, highlighting the fact that the PPP programme made use of models from six different countries in schools throughout the UAE. Although exploring a *variety of ideologies* may be worthwhile, there is a possibility that conflicting ideas and approaches could hinder the transfer of skills.

Sowa and De La Vega (2008:4) also point out that *culture* is a key aspect of educational change and highlight the customary practice by UAE nationals of welcoming expatriates into the working organisation. They mention that collaboration is optimal when the nationals are welcoming and the expatriates embrace the cultural context. Thus, a closer examination of the current system of expatriates mentoring of indigenous leaders is needed, to determine whether it is realistic to

collaborate and try and transfer skills to indigenous leaders without paying attention to the overarching cultural umbrella.

Finally, a problem also relates to the *time* that expatriates spend in the UAE. Shouly (in Gardner, 1995:296-300) believes that the sustainability of the work of expatriate leaders is questionable, in that the typical employment pattern for foreigners in education is a short term contract of three to five years. These short term contracts are based on the assumption that indigenous school leaders will be fully skilled when expatriates exit the UAE education system. In this regard, ADEC was working on a ten-year strategic plan in an attempt to complete the reform by 2018 (Thorne, 2011:172-183).

In consideration of the above mentioned unexplored issues, Thorne (2011:182) points out that very few studies have been conducted to evaluate the current practices and to inform future policy. Thorne (2011:182) also emphasises an urgent need to monitor the progress of UAE nationals with regards to taking ownership of their own education system. The quality of the skills transferred from expatriates to indigenous school leaders are in question, and the large turnover of expatriate professionals makes it difficult to track any progress (Ryan, 2012:117-132). It is against this background that I decided to undertake this research project.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The main research question that emerged from the above is:

According to the views of expatriate and indigenous school leaders, what is the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system?

The sub-questions logically implied by the main research question include:

- According to the literature, what role does mentoring play in educational reform?
- According to the literature, what is the role of leadership in educational reform?
- According to the empirical investigation, what are the views and beliefs of expatriate and indigenous school leaders regarding the impact of expatriate

school leaders in the UAE education system, and of the various aspects related to this impact?

In accordance with the above, the main aim of the research is to investigate the impact of expatriate school leaders within the UAE school system. This will be done in consideration of the perceptions of selected indigenous and expatriate role players.

This research will explore both theoretical and empirical evidence to enhance the understanding of the role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE schooling system. More specifically, it aims to explore the current practice of expatriate experts entering the field to coach and mentor indigenous school leaders. It can be argued that a coaching and mentoring approach could lead to an increase in skill acquisition and ultimately this approach has the potential to facilitate a sustainable learning process in the UAE.

1.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

1.3.1 Epistemological approach

Epistemology is a study or theory of how we gain knowledge, the validity of the knowledge gained and what limitations exist (Opie, 2007:70-191). During research new knowledge is gained and this knowledge influences the way in which the researcher conducts the study and the way in which the data is interpreted.

Constructionism suggests that both the viewer and the viewed are aware of the fact that social interaction creates knowledge. The aim is to understand how participants' perceive their reality (McPhee & Bronstein, 2002:76). The focus of this epistemological stance is to gather qualitative data from the participants and in turn interpret the participants' perspective of the situation, in order to develop a conclusive argument.

Patton's (2002:19) viewpoint on the constructionist researcher explains that the researcher should tap into different perspectives using qualitative methods such as interviews during the research phase. Similarly, Robson (2002:146) supports the constructionist approach based on the fact that it favours numerous perspectives

and allows the researcher flexibility to gather more information to support and enhance a study.

1.3.2 Situated learning theory

Lave and Wenger (1991:29), emphasise both the social and situated nature of learning. This social theory of learning is based on the notion that learning is not only an individual process but also a social one. Situated learning theory proposes that learning cannot be separated from the context or activity in which it occurs.

Similarly, Rovegno (in Patton, Griffin, Sheehy, Arnold & Gallo, 2005:305), refers to the situated perspective in which the individual, the activity and the environment are viewed as an inseparable unit of analysis. During mentoring, the teacher (individual), the mentoring process (activity), and the school context (environment) are all critical components and cannot be disregarded.

With regards to mentoring, the situated learning theory is significant to this study in that it highlights the fact that learning is influenced by the context, culture and activity. Furthermore, the theory suggests that social activity is a vital component for learning (Wenger, 2000:225-246). Community of practice and legitimate peripheral participation are two key concepts central to the situated learning theory. The authors' viewpoints regarding a community of practice are based on an apprenticeship approach.

By describing the role of the apprentice among midwives, tailors, butchers and other similar occupations, the authors provide examples of how learning in practice takes place and what it means to move toward full participation in a community of practice. In a community of practice, knowledge is created, held and transferred and in these communities individuals develop their practices and identities (Patton et al., 2005:304-306).

Legitimate peripheral participation occurs within a series of relationships wherein newcomers can move towards maximum participation. Novices engage in particular experiences or practices thus developing new sets of relationships. Learning in this respect is legitimate because apprentices' participation is important to the community's successful performance of its work.

Lave and Wenger (1991:26-27) are of the viewpoint that learning is a social process where one's interpersonal relations are developed. This is in accordance with Vygotskian theory that speaks of how our thinking and actions are structured by the social engagements we encounter (Bradley, 2010:33-70). Lave and Wenger suggest that learning occurs when individuals immerse themselves within a specific environment and when they interact with others. Within the environment, members often organise themselves around a particular area of knowledge and activity, and this in turn, gives members a sense of joint enterprise and identity (Lave & Wenger, 2003:2).

The above mentioned theory on situated learning is important for this study with its focus on mentoring. By means of mentoring, expatriate school leaders strive to train indigenous school leaders in several skills and strategies. Therefore, the importance of mentoring as a learning strategy, and how useful the strategy may be for expatriates acting in a mentoring capacity, will be explored in an extensive literature study in chapter two.

1.3.3 Social constructivist theory

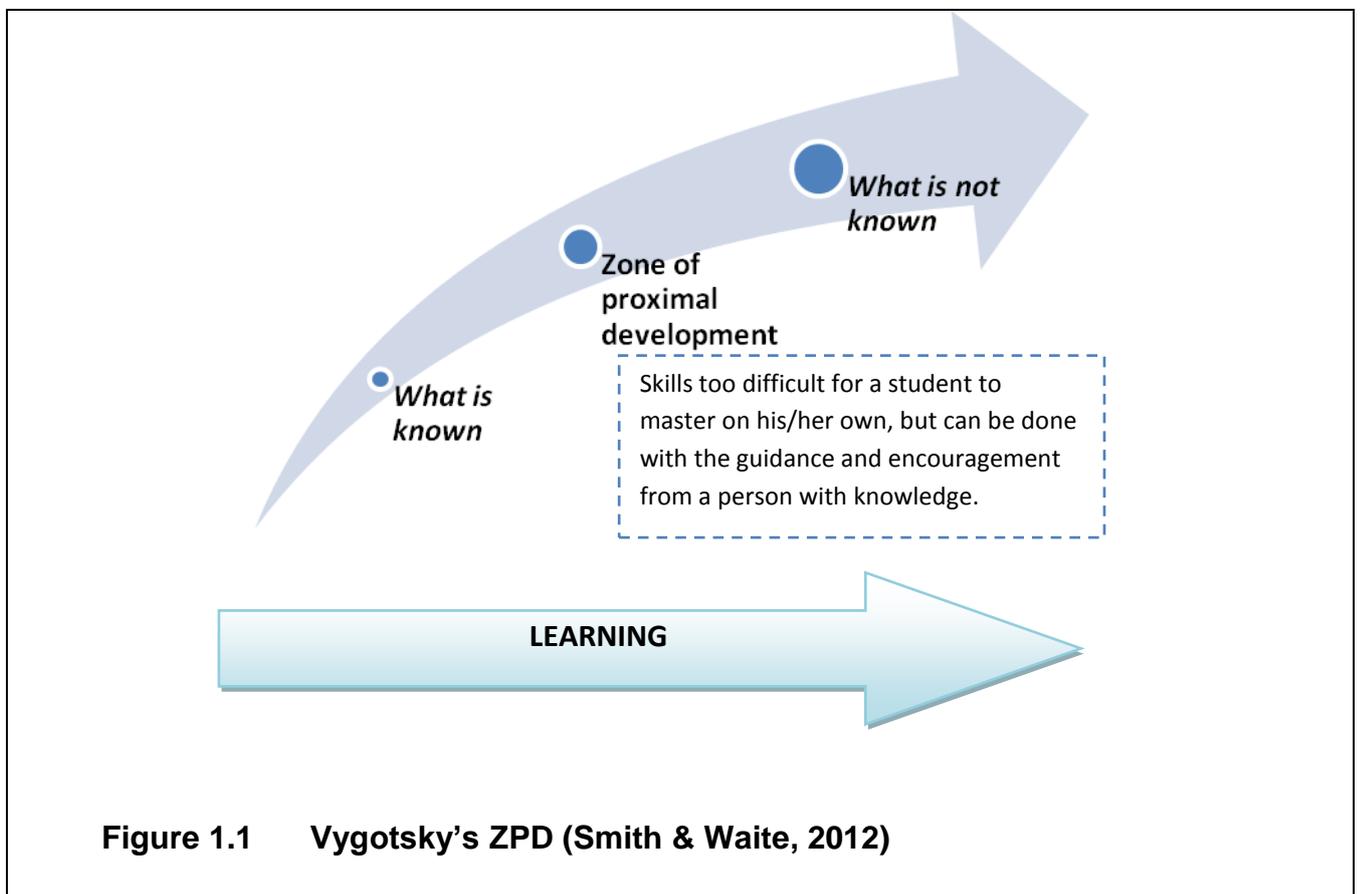
Social constructivist theory is "a theory of mind... that recognises the central role that social relationships and culturally constructed artefacts play in organising uniquely human forms of thinking" (Thorne in Bradley, 2010:33). The assumption could therefore be made that learning is not fixed, but influenced by culture and context. Social constructivist theory clearly draws attention to the social, cultural and historical influences on individual development (Daniels in Bradley, 2010:33-42). Hence, this study focuses on cultural and social elements that play a role in the relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders.

Emphasising the significance of the cultural and social contexts in learning, Vygotsky regarded cognitive development as a process dependent upon social interaction (Daniels and others in Bradley, 2010:33-42), a notion underpinning his whole theory. Focusing highly on the relation between humans and the socio-cultural context in which they operate, this theory presumes agency in the process of 'coming to know' (Gipps & MacGilchrist in Bradley, 2010:33-42). With reference to this study, the

notion is that indigenous leaders will learn and construct new knowledge when interacting and working alongside the expatriate school leaders.

Vygotskian theory (in Bradley, 2010:4), speaks of a zone of proximal development (ZPD). In this theory, the establishment of a partnership is crucial to guiding the indigenous leaders from what is known to what is unknown. The zone of proximal development implies that indigenous school leaders can learn more by means of mentoring and support by expatriate school leaders, than they would have learned on their own.

Figure 1.1 illustrates Vygotsky's ZPD (in Bradley, 2010:4):



In Figure 1.1 Vygotsky's zone of proximal development theory is illustrated, referring to the collaboration between the student and a more knowledgeable other. The more knowledgeable individuals can assess the students' level and what they are capable of, assisting them to achieve their potential. Through the learning process, the

students are guided from what is known to what is not known. Therefore, indigenous leaders will engage in such learning processes and the expatriate leaders will assist them in an attempt to reach their desired goals.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Ethnographical case study

This research adopted a qualitative, ethnographical case study design. According to Dawson (2009:18), “ethnography has its roots in anthropology and was a popular form of inquiry at the turn of the century when anthropologists travelled the world in search of remote tribes. The emphasis in ethnography is on describing and interpreting cultural behaviour”. Dawson mentions that researchers immerse themselves in the lives and culture of the group being studied. It is often the case that researchers live with the group for many months studying behaviour, taking notes, analysing information and writing reports on observations made. This method is particularly relevant to this study in that I have been immersed in the cultural context of the UAE for a number of years and I aspire to offer ground breaking findings related to the study.

The investigation is not only ethnographic but is also a case study. Opie (2007:85-191) defines a case study as “an in depth study of a single instance in an enclosed system”. Under normal circumstances, the researcher should be comfortable within the research environment and the study should be undertaken with actual participants experiencing a real life situation. In addition, Eisenhardt (1989:534) defines a case study as “a research strategy that focuses on the dynamics present within a single setting”. According to Garg and Eisenhardt (2012:6-24), case studies can be used in various ways to define the aim of the research study namely to provide a description, to test a theory and to generate new findings regarding the theory. In this study, the aim is to describe the views of expatriate and indigenous school leaders on various factors related to the impact of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system.

1.4.2 Sampling

According to Patton (2002:143-209), all types of sampling in qualitative research may be encompassed under the broad term of purposeful sampling. The underlying notion is to select information rich cases purposefully to fit the study. In this study, I have chosen a purposive sampling method, selecting information rich participants according to the needs of the study.

Sandelowski (in Beck, 2013:348-349) suggests that maximum variation is one of the most frequently employed kinds of purposeful sampling methods, when samples include participants of a variety of race, class, gender or other person-related characteristics. As more insight is gained during the study, sampling variation may occur to maximise findings.

In view of the above, I have selected a combination of expatriate and indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system. Both target groups are actively involved in coaching and mentoring with the aim of education reform.

1.4.3 Data collection methods

This study has employed a decision orientated approach as mentioned by Hearn (in McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:436), that focuses on gathering information by making use of a variety of methods in order to make developmental decisions related to the research study. In this study, the data collection methods consist of focus group interviews, individual interviews and observations. Wisker (2008:191) explains how the use of all three qualitative research methods can enhance the research study by “capturing people's opinions, feelings, practice, their experience and the kind of atmosphere and context in which individuals act and respond”.

Detail of the research design and data collection methods will be provided in Chapter four. A brief overview of the data collection methods now follows.

1.4.3.1 Focus groups

The focus group method is a popular tool that is used in educational research. Dawson (2009:29) explains that focus groups are groups of people who come together for research purposes. According to Kamberelis and Dimitriadis (2005:6), focus groups are an efficient way of gathering a lot of information in a short time period. Because of their synergistic nature, focus groups capitalise on group dynamics to gather richer data than is possible with individual interviews only.

The questions posed during a focus group session are important in gaining insight into the feelings, beliefs and opinions of participants regarding the reform process in the UAE. Information gathered during the focus group sessions was later transcribed in preparation for data processing.

1.4.3.2 Individual interviews

Individual, semi-structured interviews create a platform for the researcher to gain specific information related to the study and to compare and contrast information gathered during other interviews. This provides greater scope for discussion and learning about the research problem, opinions and views of the participants (Dawson, 2009:28). Such interviews provide the researcher with a platform to obtain detailed explanations from participants regarding their experiences and perceptions (Cousin, 2009:7). Leadership perspectives of factors that are related to the impact that expatriates make in the UAE reform process were thus obtained by individual interviews and compared to field notes taken to compare with the interview data.

1.4.3.3 Observations

Participant observation is the primary method of data collection in ethnographic research. It provides a description of the study of human beings interacting in a given context. Therefore, observations can take place within various communities, cultures and contexts (Dawson, 2009:33). Field notes form an important part of the observation process.

Emerson (1995:1-40) defines field notes in an ethnography as a description of people's experiences and a record of the researcher's observations during the data collection stage. According to Garg and Eisenhardt (2012:26), this data collection method requires the consistent creation of field notes immediately after observations have been made or during an interview process. All observations are recorded systematically in preparation for data analysis.

The purpose of using field notes in this study was to capture the actual work related activities of the participants being studied. This implied writing down every impression as it occurred, instead of writing what seemed to be important.

1.4.3.4 Reflective journal

Etherington (in Ortlipp, 2008:695) speaks of reflective journals as a common practice in qualitative research. Keeping a reflective journal is a strategy that can aid reflexivity. During this process researchers use their journals to examine "personal assumptions and goals" and clarify "individual belief systems and subjectivities" (Russell & Kelly, 2002:2). In this study, I kept a reflective journal to record my personal journey during the research process.

More detail about the data collection methods appear in Chapter 4.

1.4.4 Trustworthiness (validity and reliability)

Shenton (2004:63) points out that the term 'trustworthiness' is often in connection with a qualitative study. The researcher is usually the main agent during the data collection process and the focus is mainly on the quality of the data collection methods employed by the researcher (Conrad & Serlin, 2006:409).

In this study, I followed the strategies proposed by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:330) in order to ensure trustworthiness, and to avoid biases during the study. These strategies are: a prolonged data collection period; using the participants' own language; doing field research; employing disciplined subjectivity; using triangulation of different methods; and involving member checking.

A detailed description of measures to ensure trustworthiness will be given in section 4.6.5.

1.4.5 Ethical considerations

David and Resnik (in Lanre-Abass, 2012:173-184) point out that there are good reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research:

Norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth, and avoidance of error. Second, since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people, ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness.

This study is based on the four guidelines mentioned by Christians (2005:6-8). First, informed consent is obtained from individuals who voluntarily agree to participate based on full and open information; second, a basic moral principle is that deception and misrepresentation are not credible means to extract information from participants; third, privacy and confidentiality needs to be respected, and finally, there needs to be an assurance that data is accurate without fabrications, fraudulent materials and omissions.

A process of assent was followed when doing individual interviews and focus groups. Participant assent was attained in the form of a written agreement stipulating the boundaries and extent to which information would be shared. (See Appendix C.)

Although the study aims to create an awareness of the cultural influence on reform within the UAE education sector, all information gathered throughout the process was handled confidentially, ensuring that individuals' careers were not compromised. A state approved translator was consulted where necessary, and all translated data and information were treated confidentially.

Furthermore, I am familiar with the Handbook for Ethical Research of the University of South Africa (Unisa), and am aware of the fact that the primary responsibility for the conduct of ethical research lies with the researcher. All of the points mentioned in

the handbook were considered in full. Ethical clearance for the study was also obtained from the relevant body in the College of Education at UNISA. (See Appendix B.)

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Herewith follows a definition of relevant key concepts which have not been previously defined.

1.5.1 Mentoring

Mentoring is a complex notion, and many have attempted to define it. However, as Clutterbuck (2004:12) maintains "all of these definitions are valid in the specific context which they are intended to describe, none, however, can truly be said to be generic". In the context of teaching, Pollard (2005:29) suggests that mentoring is:

A means of providing support, challenge and extension of the learning of one person through the guidance of another who is more skilled, knowledgeable and experienced, particularly in relation to the context in which learning is taking place.

Rolfe (2006:4) confirms that it is not possible for a single, concise definition of mentoring to express the wealth it can offer to an organisation as a tool for a change process. I have therefore considered the views and definitions of different authors (as follows), in order to provide a working definition of mentoring relevant to this study:

Rolfe (2006:4) expresses the view that mentoring aims to facilitate the individuals' self-development and it serves as a tool for self-directed learning. The mentors are sources of support to help the individuals achieve their own aspirations. Accordingly, mentoring is defined as a relationship between an inexperienced individual, called a mentee or protégé, and a more experienced individual, known as a mentor.

Traditionally, mentoring is viewed as a face-to-face, long standing relationship between a supervisor and a novice whereby the mentee's professional, academic, or personal development is fostered (Wai-Packard, 2009:1).

Connor and Pokora (2007:40) speak of clients becoming more hopeful about future possibilities and they develop the courage to act, make changes and deliver results when they have the necessary coaching and mentoring behind them. "As a coach or mentor, although we may have experience and expertise, our primary role is to help the client to find for themselves resourceful ways forward in dealing with issues facing them" (Connor & Pokora, 2007:40). The ultimate prize is for the mentees to explore their own experiences and one could assume that through this transition the mentee will develop insight and be able to generate solutions for current and future obstacles.

In consideration of the above, I adopted the following definition of mentoring for the purpose of this study:

Mentoring refers to a process whereby an experienced and knowledgeable individual (the mentor) is able to guide and support a less experienced individual (the mentee), enabling the mentee to reflect on his/her current practices and in so doing, to become self-sufficient.

In the context of this research, mentoring was explored and investigated as a tool for change whereby the expatriate school leaders mentor the indigenous school leaders to develop their skill set.

Mentoring will be explored in more detail in chapter two.

1.5.2 Sustainability

Most definitions of sustainability refer to sustainable living to preserve nature for future generations. For example, the definition which is found in the report of the Brundtland Commission of the United Nations states that sustainable development is "development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Barlett, 2012:2).

However, in the context of this study the Thesaurus definition of 'sustainable' as meaning 'maintainable, workable and viable', is more relevant. Accordingly, the following definition of Landorf, Doscher and Rocco (2008:221) is accepted for this research. Education for sustainable human development is:

... educational practice that results in the enhancement of human well-being, conceived in terms of the expansion of individuals' agency, capabilities and participation in democratic dialogue, both now and for future generations.

1.5.3 Emiratisation

Emiratisation is an affirmative action policy in the UAE, aiming to give preference to UAE national citizens in various fields of employment (Mashood, Verhoeven, & Chansarkar, 2009:12). Furthermore, emiratisation is the government sponsored process that seeks to encourage and introduce Emiratis to reach out to the private sector for employment opportunities.

The UAE, similar to other Gulf Cooperation Council states, has capitalised the revenue generated from oil export to build its economy. However, the influx of expatriate labourers has influenced the social, political and economic sectors in a way that was not anticipated by the government (Forstenlechner in Al Marzouqi, 2012:22). While the UAE head count is on the increase progressively as a result of soaring birth rates, the government continues to depend on foreign workers to fill the vacancies that are created (Forstenlechner in Al Marzouqi, 2012:22).

In 1999, the UAE government arrived at a moment of change in the expansion of its workforce. Realising that the foreign workforces were over represented in the private sectors, the local authorities initiated the new human resources management plan and nationalisation programme known as emiratisation (Forstenlechner in Al Marzouqi, 2012:22).

1.5.4 Educational reform

Educational reform refers to change in education systems that are government directed, driven by a political analysis of a system and justified on the basis of a need to refrain from the current practice (Young & Levin, 1999:2).

Fullan (2008b:1-17) mentions that educational reform is based on the improvement of relationships. Reform does not only refer to a change in the latest policy, but it also means a change in the culture of the classrooms, schools, districts and universities.

Changing culture is paramount to introducing, developing and growing reform. The heart of any school is the people and the relationships between the people. These relationships dictate how work is done or not done. Forming and developing relationships at all levels and creating cultures to support inquiry, reflection, trust and innovation is essential for school reform to occur.

1.5.5 Emirati (indigenous national)

Emirati refers to an UAE national of Arab descent, who speaks Arabic and follows an Islamic belief system (Mashood et al., 2009:4). For this study, the Emirati refers to an indigenous school leader being mentored by the expatriate school leader. The aim is for the Emirati to gain new knowledge and skills related to best practice in educational leadership, as an element of the reform agenda.

1.5.6 Expatriate

An expatriate refers to a person living and working abroad (in a foreign country) on a temporary assignment (Richardson & McKenna, 2003:6). With reference to the UAE education system, expatriates usually leave their home countries and are employed in the UAE education sector on a contract basis. The education council serves as the sponsor for the duration of the contract.

For this study, an *expatriate* refers to a foreign educational leader employed to mentor the indigenous (Emirati) school leader.

1.5.7 School leader

School leaders are persons, occupying diverse roles in the school i.e. providing, direction and exerting influence to achieve the intended goals of the school. Those leaders in formal authority positions are genuine leaders only to the extent that they fulfil these functions; and it depends entirely on individual leaders, the context and the nature of the goals being pursued (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003:2).

A school leader sets direction, highlights the aims and objectives of the school and plans how progress will be made to achieve the goals that were set for the school. The leader takes action where and when appropriate and focuses on improving organisational standards. The leader is viewed as the adhesive that holds the organisation together (Everard, Morris & Wilson, 2012:1-11).

Throughout this study, the term school leader has been referred to frequently in consideration of the leader's overall impact within the schooling system.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study can be summarised as follows:

1.6.1 Academic/theoretical

An exploration of the available literature on expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system indicated that the literature on this issue is sparse. This study appears to be the first of its kind in many respects in that research pertaining to the Arabian Gulf is in its infancy, and information gathered from this study could be ground breaking. Although this study is based on the UAE context, various aspects of the study could relate to other contexts as well. The findings from the study could inform educational reform in other developing countries.

It is clear that there is a contribution to be made on the extent to which expatriate school leaders have an impact on the UAE school system, according to participant views, and whether the intended mentoring model is feasible and sustainable for future generations.

1.6.2 Practical

The study:

- provides a potential framework for sustainable education reform;
- provides further research into the area of education reform and expatriate influence;
- presents a deeper understanding of the partnership of expatriate and indigenous school leaders;
- highlights the impact of expatriates leaving their home countries to work in the UAE.

1.7 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter one contains an introduction and overview of the study. The research question and aims of the study were indicated and justified, a brief overview of the research design and data collection methods were given, the key concepts that underpin this study were defined, and finally, the significance of the study was explained.

Chapter two explores diverse views and definitions of mentoring and how it relates to educational leadership. The mentoring process is discussed and its role in educational reform, followed by a discussion on the theories and styles of learning through mentoring. The establishment of mentoring relationships and its ability to produce a sustainable outcome with particular reference to the context and the culture are discussed. Lastly, various models of mentoring are critically explored, and how these models relate to educational reform.

Chapter three provides an overview of leadership and how it relates to educational reform.

Chapter four describes the research design, the methods of data collection and the way in which the data have been analysed.

Chapter five presents the research findings and how these findings relate to the theoretical framework and the literature.

Chapter six emphasises the conclusions drawn from the literature and the actual data with reference to the research questions and aims of the study. The limitations of the study are highlighted and recommendations regarding expatriate influence and mentoring are offered as they relate to the UAE education reform agenda.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter commenced with an introduction, background and justification for the study. The research problem has been highlighted and the aims for the study have been clarified. The research design and methodology employed during the study have also been briefly explained. Lastly, some key concepts were addressed and an outline of the division of the chapters was presented.

In the next chapter, a literature review on mentoring as a tool for leadership development will be discussed with the aim to uncover its position within educational reform.

CHAPTER 2

MENTORING IN EDUCATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two explores various views and definitions of mentoring, and how it relates to education. The four key stages within the mentoring process as mentioned by Hay (in McKimm, Jollie, & Hatter, 2007:7-10) will be critically examined, followed by an analysis of the cyclical learning theory of mentoring as it relates to individual learning styles. This theory focuses on the development of individuals within the mentoring process, and this forms the basis for the study. The chapter will also critically analyse various authors' viewpoints regarding mentoring relationships, and their impact on a successful and sustainable reform agenda. Three models of mentoring have been specifically selected based on their relevance to this research study and these will be explained in detail. Finally, the role of mentoring in educational reform will be addressed.

2.2 THE AIM OF MENTORING

According to Megginson, Clutterbuck, Garvey, Stokes and Garrett-Harris (2006:21), the purpose of mentoring is to create a reflective environment in which the mentees think about their own development and their progression through various stages of the mentoring process. Pollard (2005:29) maintains that such mentoring is a complex and highly skilled activity that centres round the judgment of the mentor. In this, the mentor decides on the actions to follow and the strategies to use, to encourage the mentees (e.g. teachers) to reflect on their practice.

During the last ten years, there has been a significant growth in the literature and research related to mentoring in teaching (Cunningham, 2007; Brockbank and McGill, 2006; Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education [CUREE], 2004; Jones & Straker, 2006; Maynard & Furlong, 2004; Brooks & Sikes, 1997). This increase in interest in the notion of mentoring can be associated with the changing priorities of governments, in relation to the school-based teacher training models,

and hence the role of mentoring within education (Pollard, 2005:32-36). In the context of this study, one of the major government initiatives focuses on educational reform in the UAE and this initiative currently uses mentoring (Thorne, 2011: 173).

In 2004, The Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education (CUREE) developed a National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching, which is based on ten principles to help increase the impact of continuing professional development in schools. Whilst this framework clearly attempts to distinguish between the notions of 'mentoring' and 'coaching', it also recognises that there are shared elements in both practices. CUREE (2004:2) describes effective mentoring as a process involving elements of a learning conversation; a thoughtful relationship; growing self-direction; setting challenging and personal goals; and understanding why different approaches work.

Maynard and Furlong (2004:8-10) maintain that mentoring strategies should be built on an informed understanding of how mentees develop. If mentors are not aware of this before the mentoring process commences, their mentoring plan may lead to inappropriate mentoring strategies, which could impact on the mentees' learning and progress. It is, therefore, vital that the mentor has the knowledge and understanding of the appropriate concepts in order to respond appropriately to the changing needs of mentees. This implies that expatriate school leaders in the UAE would need to have a clear understanding of the developmental needs of indigenous school leaders, in order to ensure that these leaders gain new knowledge and that their skills are developed. Furthermore, it is equally important for expatriate mentors to familiarise themselves with the cultural context and have an understanding of the appropriate code of conduct in order to have a greater impact on the learning.

Connor and Pokora (2007:28) are of the viewpoint that mentoring is different from the kind of support which many of us offer in everyday working life, when we give advice to people who benefit from our expertise. They speak of 'clients' (mentees) becoming more self-sufficient and excited about future challenges, due to the guidance and encouragement of the mentoring relationship. Even though the mentor has a vast range of knowledge and expertise, the primary task of the mentor is to lead the mentee through a journey of self-discovery, whereby the mentees are able to explore their own experiences, to find solutions for challenging situations.

According to Wai-Packard (2009:1), mentors are seen as the experienced individuals and the mentees are often less experienced. Mentors are therefore valued for their breadth of experience, and although some mentors are generally more senior in age and position, once a good relationship is established, it often becomes more like a conversation amongst colleagues (Rolfe, 2006:2).

The mentoring relationship progresses through certain stages. This issue is addressed in the next section.

2.3 THE MENTORING PROCESS

There are many viewpoints with regard to the process of mentoring. However, for the purposes of this study, the work of Hay (in McKimm et al., 2007:7-10) is particularly significant, given that each of the four stages that are identified have relevance to the UAE education context. These stages will be explained and I will highlight relevant links pertinent to this study. The four stages that Hay (in Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:4-5) identified include the initiation stage, the getting established stage, a maturation stage and a termination stage as explained next.

2.3.1 Initiation stage

During the first stage, the mentor attempts to create an alliance with the mentee by forming the relationship and agreeing on some ground rules that will strengthen the relationship (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:4). It is, therefore, vital for both parties to have an idea of what they hope to gain from the mentoring experience, and in so doing, are prepared for scheduled mentoring sessions.

In the UAE context, within this stage, the expatriate leader makes initial contact with the indigenous school leader and some ground rules are generally established. During this stage, the expatriate usually gets a glimpse of the cultural situation within schools as well the daily customs, i.e. with regard to the practice of the local handshake, inquiring about the wellbeing of relatives and the acceptance of Arabic coffee and dates before dealing with any work related discussions. Visitors partaking

of this ritual are usually considered to be respectful, and this, in turn, could support the initial bonding process.

2.3.2 Getting established stage

In this stage the mentee may be insecure and might require some added support from the mentor. Once a trusting relationship has been established, the mentor is able to guide the mentee through the learning process, and this in turn will lead to a kind of relationship where the mentee is more comfortable. It is at this stage where the agreed responsibilities move from planning to actual execution (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5).

In the UAE, all indigenous school leaders are first language Arabic speakers, therefore there is an assumption that the exposure to an English proficient mentor can be intimidating. The accent of the expatriate leader, as well as the use of difficult academic concepts, might be 'lost in translation' when the mentor communicates with the mentee. Thus, mentors may find it difficult to get their viewpoints across and will need to be creative in order to move the learning forward and establish a trusting relationship.

2.3.3 Maturation stage

The main goal of ADEC's reform agenda is sustainable leadership within schools. During the maturation stage, the mentor acts as a facilitator and aims is to encourage the mentee to think critically, to problem solve, to reflect on goals or targets, and to explore all possible options that are available when executing a task. At this stage, the mentor's role starts to change, and the mentee is encouraged to take more risks and to draw on different perspectives, in an innovative and creative manner (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5). This stage within the mentoring process relates to the ZPD, whereby the more knowledgeable other (expatriate mentor), guides the mentee (indigenous school leader) from what is known, to what is unknown (see Figure 1.1 in section 1.3.3).

At some point the mentor (expatriate) will have to step back and allow the mentee the freedom to implement what they have gained from the mentoring experience. This leads to the termination stage.

2.3.4 Termination stage

In the final stage of the mentoring process, the relationship between the mentor and the mentee will either end earlier than expected, or it will cease naturally. Some of the positive reasons for the termination of the mentoring relationship, are based on the fact that both parties have achieved the intended goals; the project has been completed, and/or promotional opportunities for either party has brought about an end to the interaction. In contrast, the sudden termination of the mentoring relationship could be as a result of inappropriate partnering, personality clashes, the fact that the mentees' needs are not being met or that either of the individuals is not committed to attending scheduled meetings (Dixon & Bonfield, 2013:5).

Within the UAE context, there is currently a high turnover of expatriates exiting the school system for various reasons, and this leads to a disruption in the mentoring process (Ryan, 2012:3-6). Indigenous school leaders are, in turn, affected by a constant adjustment when new mentors are allocated to their schools. Consequently, I question the reform agenda in that the current mentoring allocations appear to be carried out on a quantity versus quality basis, whereby mentors are merely filling gaps, and this, in turn, may not guarantee sustainable learning.

2.4 LEARNING THEORIES AND LEARNING STYLES RELEVANT TO MENTORING

2.4.1 Learning styles relevant to mentoring

According to Fullan (2008a:4), "Reform is not just putting into place the latest policy. It means changing the culture of the classrooms, the schools, the districts, the universities and so on". In order to reform and transform an education system by means of mentoring, many ideas, viewpoints and processes are reviewed. Geber and Nyanjom (2009:896), in consideration of transformation theory, state that

mentoring is more extensive than the professional development of an individual. This is due to the fact that the organisation and its educational goals are transformed by the mentoring process.

Regarding learning from mentors, Ryan (2012:2) mentions the fact that expatriates hail from various parts of the world and all have different levels of expertise. One could assume that Emirati school leaders might be more open to leaders stemming from first world origins and this, in turn, would have an impact on the intended mentoring process.

During mentoring, learning takes place in various ways. According to Brockbank and McGill (2006:25), there is no particular theory of learning that embraces all the activities involved during the learning process. They suggest, that the theories related to learning are vast, because most of what we think, speak, do, feel or believe is learnt. Furthermore, the authors are of the viewpoint that traditional academic learning tends to view learning as a mental process only, whereas other more advanced approaches to learning claim that mentees must also be active, and put what has been learnt into practice (Brockbank & McGill, 2006:26). Some relevant theories of learning include reflective learning theory, situated learning theory, social-constructivist learning theory and experiential learning theory.

Reflective learning theory views learning as an intentional process. It focuses on reflection as an essential element for deep and significant learning. During this process, the mentees embrace the social context, engage with others, is an active participant, and is open to new challenges. The end result is not only a transformation of the individual, but also of the organisation (Brockbank, McGill & Beech, 2002:6).

Situated learning theory is also relevant to this study. In situated learning theory, learning takes place in the specific context, culture and social setting that the knowledge and skills are needed and will be applied (Lave & Wenger, 1991:32; Schulze, 2009:3). Lave and Wenger (1991:32) further maintain that learning is not simply the transference of knowledge from individual to individual, but is based on shared knowledge when individuals collaborate in a social environment or community of practice. The authors speak of legitimate peripheral participation,

whereby individuals participate in communities as learner practitioners. In these communities, the novice gains new knowledge and skills, eventually moving towards full participation. Only when the participant fully engages within the socio-cultural community, can the true meaning of the learning be configured (Lave & Wenger, 1991:29-43).

Much of the research related to effective mentoring practice appears to conclude that effective practice, measured by trainee learning, is based around Vygotskian and socio-cultural perspectives, that are underpinned by social constructivist approaches in mentoring (Bradley, 2010:41). These perspectives maintain that human activities are rooted in social participation, and learned not in isolation but with the assistance of others (Rogoff in Bradley, 2010:42). Social constructivist theory recognises the importance of social and cultural relationships, and the role these relationships play in the organisation of human thinking (Thorne in Bradley, 2010:33).

With regard to constructivist learning theories, Fox (in Schulze, 2009:4-5) identifies six notions that define the constructivist view of learning. These include active participation in the learning process; creating or inventing knowledge; knowledge that is personally and socially constructed; learning being the key element in the sense making process and learning that requires problem solving. Furthermore, according to Vygotsky (1978), lifelong learning is dependent on social interaction. He was of the view that social learning leads to cognitive development and this phenomenon is referred to as the zone of potential development.

Kolb (1994:2) suggests that learning is at the heart of the mentoring process and stresses that it is equally important for both the mentor and mentee to understand the learning process. He highlights the importance of the experiential learning theory, whereby learning can be perceived as a cyclical process. During this process, individuals gain experience by participating in an activity. Participants then reflect on the experience, and attempt to make sense of their experience through analysis and conceptualisation. They then make choices based on the analysis and finally they decide on further steps leading to the next experience. According to Kolb (1994:6), learning is thus cyclical and never ending, and the learning process is always repeated. Furthermore, he suggests that the experiential learning theory provides a

comprehensive model of the learning process that is consistent with what we know about how people learn, grow, and develop (McKimm et al., 2007:11-15).

When the mentoring activities, interactions, benefits and expected outcomes are viewed through the lens of learning theories, all of the above mentioned learning theories are relevant in the context of this study. The mentioned theories hold some form of relevance pertaining to the UAE context, in that indigenous school leaders are currently being mentored by expatriates in the social contexts of their natural environments. This highlights the relevance of social constructivist and situated learning theories.

The significance of the social constructivist and the situated learning theory for this study is also based around the culture, customs and communities prevalent in the UAE. Arab culture generally supports the notion of individuals working together and supporting each other. The social element is a common practice amongst Arabs, which may be advantageous during the mentoring process. It would be in the best interest of the mentors (expatriates), to familiarise themselves with the existing customs and cultural expectations, to allow for a successful mentoring relationships. The current professional development model also supports the ideas surrounding communities of practice, whereby school leaders work in partnership and collaborate with other leaders in their communities in the UAE.

In the context of the UAE, it is equally important for both the expatriate and indigenous school leaders to understand the culture, context and background within the mentor-mentee relationship. The assumption is, if there is a thorough understanding of the UAE culture and context from the perspective of the mentor (expatriate), and a clear understanding of the mentors' background from the mentees' perspective (Emirati), it is more likely that the mentoring relationship will be successful, due to a change in the thinking of both parties.

With regard to the reflective learning theory, the mentor (expatriate) and the mentee (Emirati) are expected to work together and to collaborate with other school leaders, in order to broaden their knowledge base through reflection. In so doing they may be able to lead the schools successfully. This process currently occurs under the guidance of the expatriate mentor.

Another learning theory, that is an experiential learning theory, is the cyclical learning theory. The cyclical learning theory, as discussed in Kolb (1994: 6-24), may be of particular significance for this thesis as will be indicated. It has four stages as follows.

2.4.2 Cyclical learning theory

Kolb and Kolb (2009:4) speak of the cyclical learning theory where the learners are challenged to choose a set of abilities that they will use in a given learning situation. Within the cycle, four key learning stages are identified namely, concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation and active experimentation. These four stages (see Figure 2.1) will now be discussed in further detail.

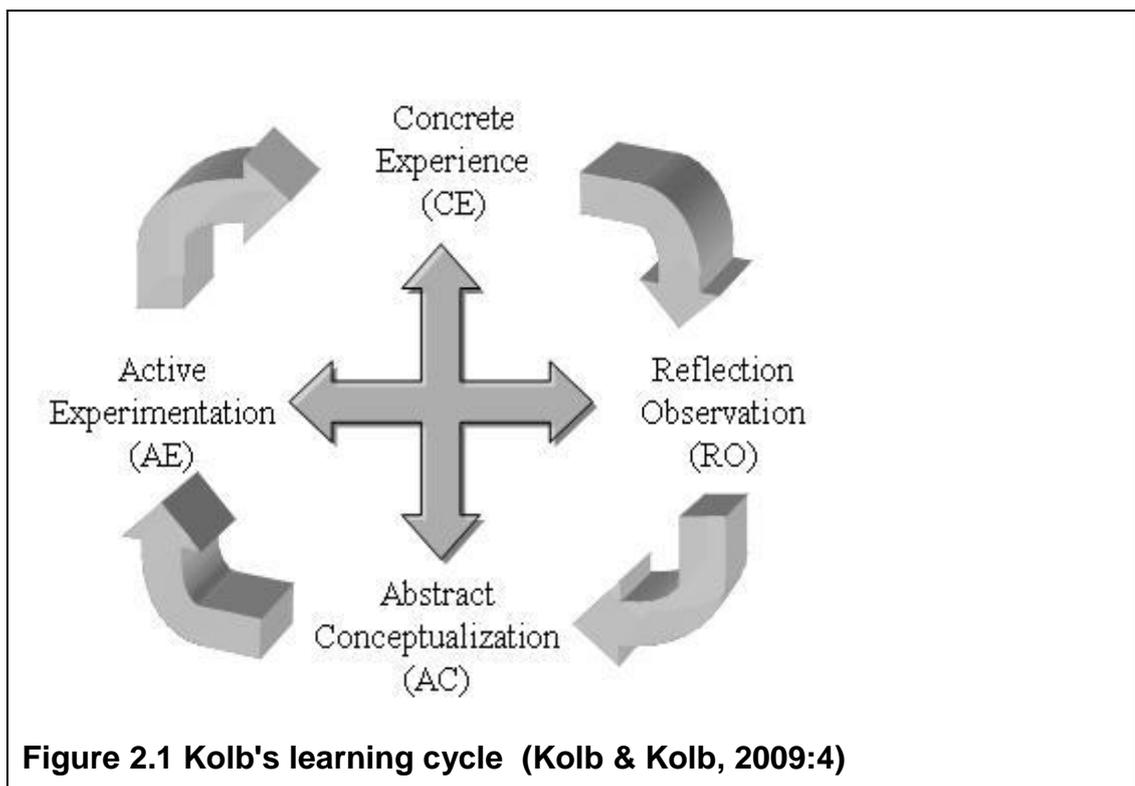


Figure 2.1 illustrates the experiential learning cycle and suggests that learning requires abilities that are on opposite sides of the spectrum. The learners are challenged to continuously choose the set of abilities they will use in a given learning situation. In grasping different experiences, some individuals perceive new information through experiencing the concrete (things we can feel, see, make sense

of), whilst others make sense of new information through abstract conceptualisation (thinking, planning, analysing).

Similarly, in processing a new experience, some mentees take time to reflect on what is happening around them by simply observing, whilst others leap at the opportunity with no time to reflect. The former favours reflective observation (RO) whilst the latter favours active experimentation (AE) (Kolb, Boyatzis & Mainemelis, 1999:2-4).

The four possible stages of the cycle are now explained in more detail in the context of the mentor, mentee relationship in the UAE.

2.4.2.1 Stage 1: Concrete experience

During the concrete experience (CE) stage, mentees view concrete situations from many different points of view. In the current context, the indigenous school leaders are being exposed to various educational disciplines, due to the fact that their expatriate mentors are from different backgrounds, and foster diverse views regarding educational reform. Similarly, indigenous leaders may be knowledgeable regarding certain disciplines therefore their points of view should not be disregarded.

The learning occurs by relating one's own experiences to those around you. At this point, the mentor is sensitive to the needs and feelings of others. For example, the expatriate mentors are expected to be sensitive to cultural customs i.e. prayer times at various times of the day.

The reform agenda stipulates the transference of skills. As the mentor, the expatriate is expected to guide the indigenous leader to a point where he or she is able to lead without guidance or support, and to a point where they themselves can become mentors in their own right (Thorne, 2011:175-183). Therefore, through concrete mentoring experiences, the mentees need to be guided to a point where they can support others.

2.4.2.2 Stage 2: Reflective observation

Reflective observation (RO) refers to a process of observing before making a decision, and observing a context from different points of view and reflecting about it. This stage is applicable to both the expatriate and indigenous leaders within the mentoring process, because the reflection process will enable both parties to use the gathered information to guide their future mentoring objectives. Thus, the mentor and mentee search for meaning by studying a wide range of information, in order to make sense of this information, or to establish whether the information they have studied can add practical value to the context.

In my view, the mentors need to explore and reflect on how others mentor, in order to enhance their own learning. It is also imperative for the expatriate mentors to reflect on mentoring sessions that were less successful, in order to achieve the ultimate goal, whereby expatriates have to develop the necessary skills of the indigenous school leaders in accordance with ADEC's reform agenda (Thorne, 2011:172).

2.4.2.3 Stage 3: Abstract conceptualisation

During the third stage, called abstract conceptualisation (AC), the mentees take time to think about the ideas they have learnt, and to use their intellectual knowledge to solve problems, make decisions and find the best solutions. In this stage, mentees research the best options by analysing different methods pertaining to their situations. In the current professional development model, school leaders are encouraged to sustain their own learning by researching up to date ideas pertaining to school leadership, and whilst these ideas are initially introduced by the mentors, the mentees gradually assume more responsibility for their own learning. Hargreaves and Fink (2003:10) highlight the fact that (indigenous) leaders develop sustainability by how they approach and commit to their own learning.

2.4.2.4 Stage 4: Active experimentation

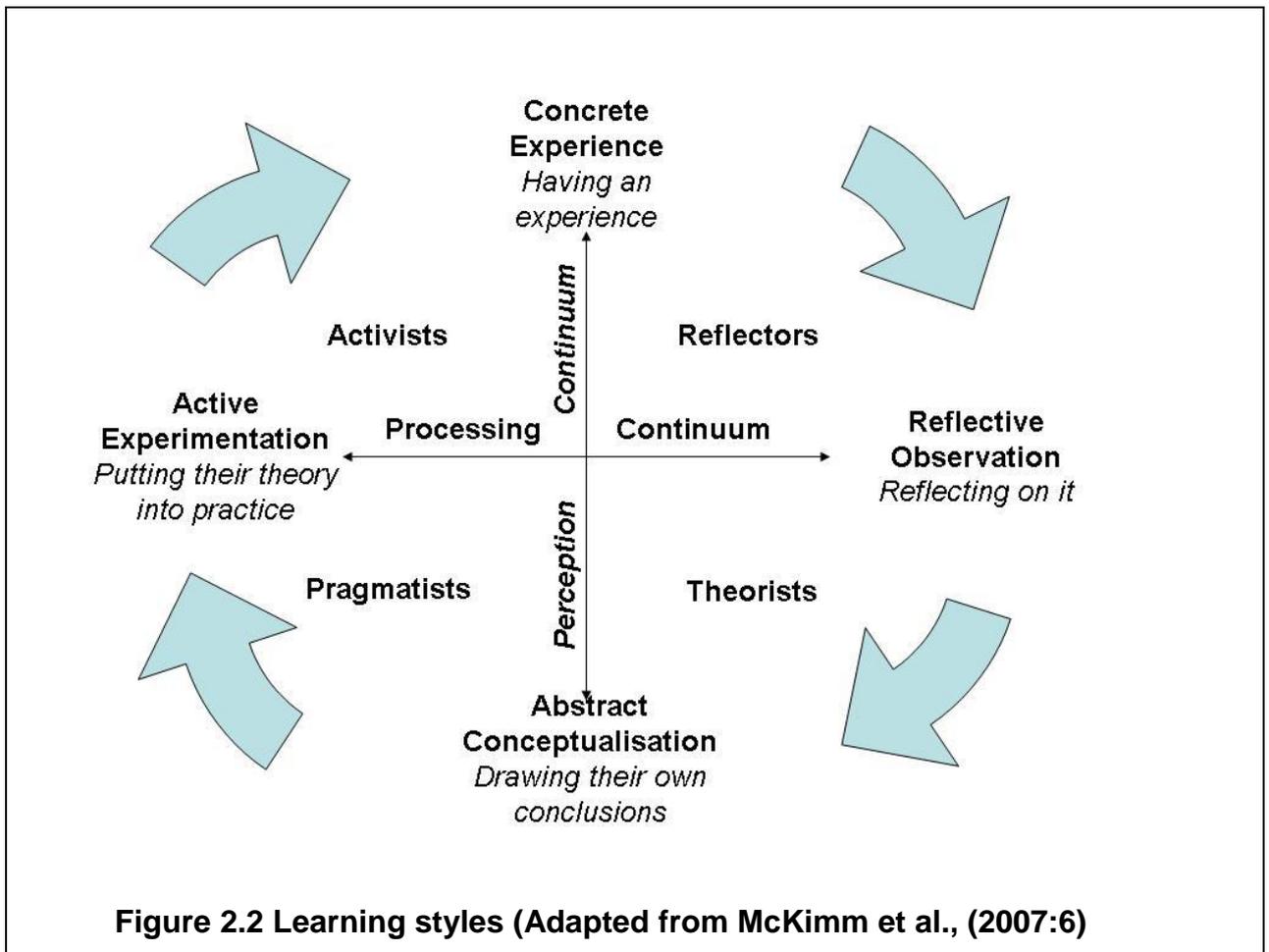
During the final stage called active experimentation (AE) of the cyclical model, mentees use their influence to motivate others to become involved in the work that needs to be done. At this stage, the mentees are comfortable in their leadership roles and use what they have learned during the mentoring process to adopt their own style to start experimenting how to mentor others.

The current professional development model is designed to provide indigenous leaders with leadership support and training, in the form of specific educational activities within a given time frame. Leaders are encouraged to use what they have learned during mentoring, to share best practices with their staff and others. This is the most rewarding stage for both the mentors and mentees in that the mentors (expatriates) should be able to release control, and the mentees (indigenous leader) should be in the position to model what they have learned.

2.4.3 Learning styles in mentoring

Individuals learn in different ways. Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:5) emphasise the fact that individuals do not possess the same skills set, nor are they comfortable at each of the four stages in Kolb's learning cycle (which is explained in the next section). The authors argue that people favour a specific stage in the cycle, and some are more competent in certain stages than in others.

In relation to Kolb's learning cycle, Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:6-10), classified four basic learning styles that compliment learning within the mentoring process. According to Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:5), the four learning styles that are exhibited during the mentoring process are the activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist styles. These learning styles, as depicted in Figure 2.2, will now be explained in further detail.



The four main learning styles as illustrated in Figure 2.2 are the activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist. The activist enjoys a new challenge; the reflector thinks things through before taking action; the theorist groups ideas in a logical sequence; and the pragmatist is a problem solver, who tests new ideas.

Whatever the mentee’s learning style, it is the responsibility of the mentor to ensure that the mentee completes a learning cycle in a mentoring relationship. The mentor (expatriate school leader) should allow the mentee (indigenous school leader) the opportunity to explore various learning styles, and to adopt the style best suited for a specific situation. There may be certain stages that the mentee chooses to avoid, but the mentor should respect the mentee’s decision in order to strengthen the mentoring relationship (Lewis, 1996:107).

Each of the learning styles is now explained in more detail.

2.4.3.1 The activist learning style

Activists are generally very comfortable at the onset of new experiences. Mentees who are activists enjoy generating new ideas and they tend to lose interest during the implementation phase. During learning, activists tend to respond to challenges quickly without thinking about the repercussions of their actions. They enjoy working in a team but prefer to take the lead. Their learning style does not favour lecturing, tedious explanations and following exact instructions. Within the learning cycle as illustrated in Figure 2.2, activists learn best by being actively involved in the process (AE) and by taking part in the learning experience (CE).

2.4.3.2 The reflective learning style

Mentors that are reflectors tend to take their time to analyse a new situation from various points of view, before making a decision. They are team players. However, they prefer to listen to the views of team members first, before expressing their own points of view. Reflectors perform best when they have the freedom to complete a task within flexible time frames, and when they are not compelled to lead a group. According to Kolb's learning cycle (Figure 2.2), the reflector enjoys being a part of the learning (CE) but from a distance i.e. observing the learning of others. This process presents the mentees with the opportunity to reflect on their own understanding (RO).

2.4.3.3 The theorist learning style

Mentees who are theorists are logical planners who solve problems according to a sequence. This learning style involves individuals who are perfectionists and have a need to justify the rationale behind their learning. Theorists are analytical, rarely displaying any emotion and they perform best when they are faced with complex situations that provide them with the opportunity to utilise their skills and knowledge. They find it difficult to work in an unstructured environment or when the task requires an emotional element. With reference to Figure 2.2, the theorists spend time

reflecting on a situation (RO) and thereafter draw their own conclusions on the next steps (AC).

2.4.3.4 The pragmatist learning style

Mentees who are pragmatists are eager to learn new things. They are seen to be practically minded and require learning that is useful for their daily roles. They are not in favour of lengthy talks and enjoy tasks where they are able to demonstrate their understanding. These mentees do not enjoy activities that are theory based or when there is no opportunity to put their learning into practice. In the learning cycle depicted in Figure 2.2, the pragmatists explore various practical conclusions (AC), that in turn allow them to test these ideas in given settings (AE).

2.5 THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

McKimm et al., (2007:5-6) describe the mentoring relationship as a special bond between two individuals. This bond is formed when these individuals make a connection built on mutual respect and trust. Once the connection is formed, the mentee is able to develop new skills in a safe environment. Furthermore, the authors are of the viewpoint that if both the mentor and mentee are not comfortable within the partnership, no learning and development will be sustained.

Any good relationship understands the need for personal development, where both partners have an idea of where they want to go (Clutterbuck, 2004:120). Similarly, Megginson et al., (2006:16) state that both parties need to have an understanding of the way in which the mentoring relationship is progressing in order to sustain the relationship. Hay (in McKimm et al., 2007:7-10) confirms the fact that mentoring is a two way process, whereby both parties are encouraged to make a contribution and where they perform as equals. In the context of this study, the onus therefore lies with both the expatriate and the indigenous school leaders to formulate sound relationships in order to sustain these partnerships, leading to the success of the reform agenda.

Megginson et al. (2006:15) draw attention to some key circumstances that can affect the mentoring relationship. Some of these include:

- *The social environment or context in which the mentoring relationship takes place:* I believe that mentoring leaders in the UAE is likely to follow a different relationship dynamic, compared to mentoring in a western setting. This is chiefly based on cultural and religious restrictions that may impact on the mentoring relationship.
- *The age, expertise and ability of the participants:* Within the context of this study these variables could have an effect on the mentoring relationship because some of the expatriate school leaders (mentors) are much younger than the indigenous leaders (mentees), or the opposite may also apply.
- *The duration period of the mentoring relationship:* The expected and the actual duration period of the mentoring relationship could be anything from a few months to many years. This is significant based on the fact that the current reform agenda has specified a long term mentoring process in UAE schools. However, the possibility exists that expatriate mentors may not honour this expectation (Thorne, 2011:173).
- *The rapport between the mentor and the mentee:* The bond between the mentoring partners and how this evolves over time is also a factor that can affect the mentoring relationship. I would argue that an agreeable rapport between expatriates and Emirati leaders is needed to ensure a dynamic interaction and a successful mentoring process.
- *The motivation of both parties to achieve the intended goal:* The drive of the mentors and the mentees will also influence the relationship between mentor and mentee, and their success in reaching set goals. In this regard, the intended goal of the reform agenda is to develop the skills of UAE school leaders through a mentoring process. This research paper intends to explore the viewpoints of school leaders within this regard.

All of the above mentioned factors can have an impact on the behaviour patterns of the mentors and the mentees within the mentoring relationships. The success of the relationships is not solely dependent on the organisational expectations, but also on the quality of the partnership (Ragins, Cotton & Miller, 2000:1179-1184).

Megginson et al. (2006:14-20) view mentoring relationships as dynamic partnerships between individuals. They are of the viewpoint that this relationship is only dynamic if the circumstances, purpose and personalities involved, are favourable. These authors emphasise the fact that time is a key aspect within this relationship, and when the relationship evolves, both parties begin to see the benefits of the partnership. Furthermore, they highlight the fact that the mentoring relationships can take on various forms, underpinned by different philosophies or dissimilar mentoring models. These different models will be explained in the next section.

2.6 MODELS OF MENTORING

Rhodes and Beneicke (2002:301) mention the fact that mentoring models cover a variety of different practices and are based on a range of philosophies. They stress that some of the main characteristics of all models include a supportive relationship between individuals that aims at the professional development of the one participant. Thus, the relationship is characterised by one individual being the expert and the other the novice (Clutterbuck, 2004:113-145).

Brockbank and McGill (2006:25-30) assert that there is no specific model that relates to the way in which individuals learn, and the chosen model usually relates to the *context* in which the learning takes place. For this study, three models of mentoring have been selected namely, Egan (2007)'s skilled helper model, the CUREE model of mentoring and the community of practice model. A detailed discussion of these models will now ensue.

2.6.1 Skilled helper model

Connor and Pokora (2007:28) described Egan's skilled helper model as a solution focused framework for the mentoring process. The aim of the model is to help the mentee identify valued outcomes and then decide how these outcomes will be achieved. The core values underpinned in this model focuses on respect and genuine concern for the mentee throughout the mentoring process. This model is designed to be easily understood and interpreted by the mentee with the mentor acting in the role of facilitator of the learning and change process.

Egan (2007:68) places great emphasis on the idea of empowerment by supporting the mentee to solve problems, and by developing opportunities for further growth. The model also seeks to move the mentee towards action, leading to the outcomes which they have chosen and which they value. Three stages of this model are mentioned: (i) What is going on? (ii) What solutions make sense to me? (iii) How do I get what I need and want?

The three stages in Egan's (2007) skilled helper model (see Figure 2.3) will now be discussed in further detail.

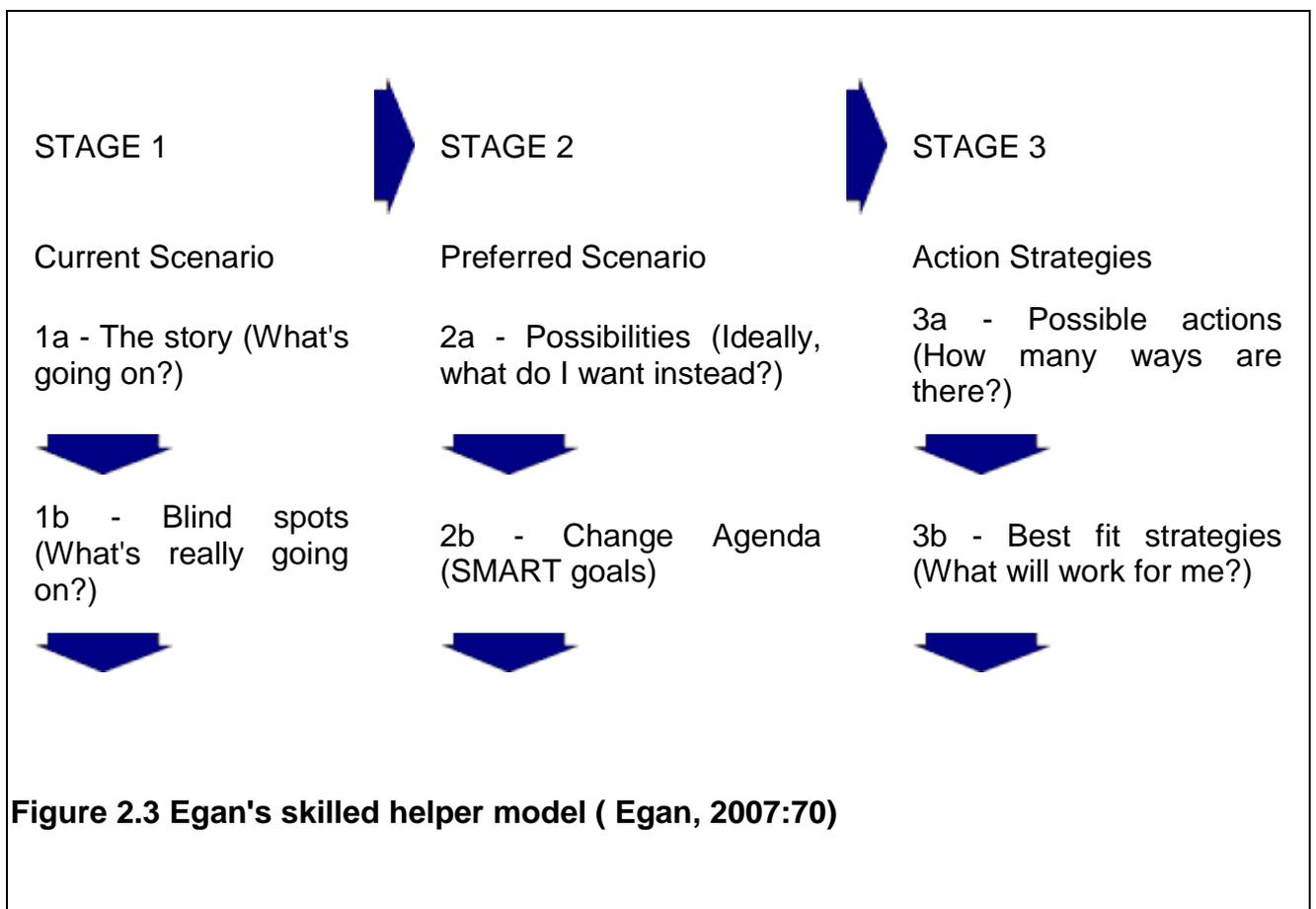


Figure 2.3 outlines the stages that mentees go through during the mentoring process. The first stage represents a period of getting to know the context and making sense of what is really happening in this context. In stage two, the mentee looks at all the possibilities and opportunities at their disposal in order to set goals. During the final stage, the mentee implements the plan and establishes new future targets.

2.6.1.1 *Stage 1*

In the first stage of the model, establishing a safe environment necessitates a platform where the mentee is able to speak freely and be listened to with continuous acknowledgement from the mentor. The mentor in turn gently helps the mentee see the wider picture, as well as a variety of perspectives to encourage the mentee to move forward. Ultimately, the mentee should gain a sense of optimism that their future initiatives will be successful.

Stage 1a in Figure 2.3 describes how the mentors encourage the mentees to share information about themselves. Through active listening, the mentors are able to elicit further discussion, leading the mentees to reflect on their situation. Some of the important skills that the mentors need to possess include sound listening skills; the ability to reflect, to use open questioning techniques and to check for meaning; and the skill to summarise key aspects of a discussion.

The challenges depicted in 1b of Figure 2.3, stem from the fact that the mentees are involved in the process and are unable to see their situation from an objective point of view. Through a process of reflection, the mentors expose certain gaps in the mentees' assessment of situations and their perceptions of others. The skills involved during stage 1b include: challenging various perspectives, identifying patterns, making relevant connections, and identifying strengths.

At stage 1c, the mentees experience various difficulties and have the need to talk to the mentors. The opportunity arises when the mentors move the mentees from difficult situations to a point where the mentees select courses of action that are beneficial. The prominent mentoring skills that are displayed at this stage are the ability to facilitate discussions and to prioritise achievable goals.

2.6.1.2 *Stage 2*

During stage two in Figure 2.3, individuals have problems and they usually leap into action, trying to solve the problems without reflecting on the nature of the problems

i.e. what they hope to gain from the solutions or the opportunities that the problems may present.

Egan (2007:70) is of the viewpoint, that this stage is important because it generates a sense of optimism for the future. The mentees are able to reflect on what they really want from the situation and the steps that are needed to create an optimal working environment.

According to the model, this stage (2a) represents a specific phase in the relationship between the helpers (mentors) and the speakers (mentees), where the mentors urge the mentees to brainstorm and make some suggestions surrounding an idyllic setting. The mentees are encouraged to use imagination as a technique, instead of reflecting on the context as it exists in reality. In the end, Egan (2007) believes the experience to be a liberating one, where mentees are free to imagine and to realise that opportunities are endless. The mentoring skills that are used during this stage include brainstorming, facilitating, prompting and allowing for thinking and processing time.

After the completion of the brainstorming phase, the mentees develop a set of goals that are specific, measurable, achievable and realistic in a given context (2b). There is an expectation that these goals will be achieved within a given time frame and that once the goals are accomplished, it will motivate the mentees to develop new goals. Facilitation is the major skill employed during this phase, where the mentors pose certain pertinent questions related to the realisation of the mentees' goals.

The final phase during stage 2c involves testing the feasibility of the proposed goals, by examining the mentees' commitment to the goals and considering all the risks and benefits involved. This process occurs in consultation with the mentors who act as facilitators guiding the reflection process.

2.6.1.3 *Stage 3*

In stage three (see Figure 2.3), the mentors look at various alternatives in order to move the mentees towards the goals identified in stage two. This stage is significant in that it considers all possible approaches or strategies that may be used during the

change process and it highlights individualised actions that can be taken to achieve these goals. Through reflection, the individuals can consider all factors that may aid or hinder change.

In phase 3a, the mentees are encouraged to brainstorm a number of strategies in order to generate new and innovative ways of working. It is at this stage where the mentors prompt the mentees to consider all the resources at their disposal in order to develop unique systems and methods within the working environment.

During phase 3b, the mentees select a realistic strategy that fits the context. The mentees get the opportunity to assess all factors, both internal (individuals) and external (organisational), that may support or hinder the change process.

The final stage in Egan (2007)'s model involves the planning of the next steps in the developmental process. The mentees get the opportunity to develop an action plan outlining their intentions. The mentors, in turn, support the process by promoting a more functional plan set against realistic timeframes.

Egan (2007:70) is of the viewpoint that the mentee should not be forced to establish unrealistic objectives in order to please the mentor, and that once the action plan has been developed, the implementation of the action plan could serve as a starting point for the follow up mentoring sessions. Furthermore, the author believes that goals that have not been achieved on the action plan could be the extended and implemented over a period of time.

In summary, the model is flexible and the mentees do not necessarily have to explore all three stages in order to develop. Mentees may revisit the stages at any point in order to uncover unanswered questions. The stages in Egan (2007)'s skilled helper model and its approach to mentoring are applicable to the context of the UAE, and relevant links will be discussed at the end of this section.

2.6.2 The CUREE model of mentoring

In 1997, CUREE produced a national model for mentoring and coaching which would focus primarily on educator development. The CUREE (1997:2) model, underpins much of the mentoring practice that is currently occurring within UAE education

system. Even though this model focuses predominantly on the continuing professional development of educators, it has some significance with regard to initial teacher training as well. An element of this model aims to draw attention to the relationship between the coach and the mentor and suggest solutions for possible issues that may occur within the coaching and mentoring relationship.

The CUREE model outlines certain key roles such as *mentor*, *specialist coach* and *co-coach*. For the purposes of this study, the role of the mentor will be addressed more closely, as it relates to the reform strategy currently being used within the UAE education system.

CUREE (1997:3) mentions that mentoring unfolds in different ways depending on the context in which it takes place. The model has ten principles of mentoring based on evidence from research and consultation and these mentoring principles are recommended to support professional development within schools. The ten principles by CUREE (1997:2) are as follows:

- A learning conversation that includes professional dialogue between the mentor and mentee should be embedded in evidence from the mentee's current practice, and this should articulate the current beliefs and practices to allow the mentee to reflect.
- A thoughtful relationship that focuses on the development of trust and respect between the mentor and the mentee, and that aims to be sensitive to each other's needs, in order to guarantee deep professional learning, should be formed. During the beginning stage, much consideration and thought goes into the creation of the mentoring relationship, and both the mentor and mentee are responsible for contributing to this process.
- A learning agreement needs to be established that encourages the mentor and mentee to agree on some ground rules before the commencement of their mentoring sessions. McKimm et al., (2007:14) emphasise the fact that it is vital for the mentor and mentee to exchange views of their expectations during the preparation stage, to ensure a good and effective mentoring relationship.

- Combining support from fellow professional learners and specialists ensures that there is an important element of collaboration whereby the mentee interacts with others to share new knowledge and relates this knowledge to current practice. This encourages the mentee to stay motivated and committed to the learning process, and this provides further opportunity for the mentee to extend his/her skills and knowledge by putting it into practice. Clutterbuck (2004:113-145) supports this notion, highlighting the fact that the mentor should encourage the mentee to share his/her knowledge and skills with fellow colleagues.
- Growing self-direction enables the mentee to become more independent and to take more responsibility for his/her professional development. At this point the mentee becomes more confident and this in turn leads to the expansion of the individuals' knowledge and skills. Clutterbuck (2004:113-145) asserts that the mentee should take responsibility for directing his/her own professional development by drawing up a professional development plan.
- Setting challenges and personal goals provides an opportunity for the mentee to identify goals that he/she is familiar with or ones that he/she is unable to achieve by his/herself. The mentor will support and guide the mentee through the goal-setting process, aiming to achieve the goals within a set timeframe. Brockbank and McGill (2006:75-77) support this notion as part of evolutionary mentoring, in that this type of mentoring suggests that mentees will generate their own goals, follow a people-centred relational approach, and in doing so the learning outcome will have the potential for transformation.
- Understanding why different approaches work addresses the fact that one develops an understanding of the theory that underpins new practice so that it can be interpreted and adapted for various contexts.
- Acknowledging the benefits of mentors and coaches highlights the importance of recognising the professional learning that mentors are able to offer the mentees and in so doing, the mentors extend their own learning through the mentoring process.

- Experimenting and observing focuses on the creation of a learning environment that supports risk-taking and innovation, whereby the professional learners (mentees) are encouraged to reflect continuously on the evidence in their own practice, in order to develop additional skills and knowledge.
- Using resources effectively, stresses the importance of making and using time and other resources in a creative way, in order to safeguard and sustain the learning process. The aim is to encourage the mentees to reflect on their learning on a regular basis.

In summary, the ten principles of the CUREE model each addresses essential aspects of mentoring, as it relates to the professional development of individuals. Within the context of this study, mentoring is considered to be an essential tool for the professional development of indigenous leaders, as a component of the UAE reform agenda. The CUREE model of mentoring is significant to this thesis and how it relates to the UAE context will be explored at the end of this section.

2.6.3 The community of practice model

The community of practice model, as a mentoring model, focuses on the relationship between individuals within a professional community and how they mutually support one another. The fundamental difference when compared to other mentoring models stems from the fact that a community of practice generally involves more than two individuals, and confidentiality is not necessarily a prerequisite.

Wenger (1998:95) argues that learning in various communities of practice requires three important processes. These processes include mutual engagement that evolves over time; the understanding of activities; and the development of repertoire, styles and discourses. According to Wenger's social and situated theory of learning, the belief exists that learning takes place as a result of the interactions within a community and not as a result of pre-planned learning programmes. The individual's awareness of the existence of such a community is essential to their internalisation of the learning process. Learning within a community of practice, is dependent on the role that the individual plays within the team. This experience can either be positive

or negative, where dominant members of the team could influence the thinking of other members in the community.

Boreham (2000:505) highlights the significance of learning within communities, whereby individual knowledge is combined with the ideas of different individuals within the community of practice, and this in turn leads to the establishment of new knowledge.

Wenger (1998:81) draws attention to the issue of power as another important factor, with regards to mentoring within the community of practice. He also argues that a community of practice should create a common understanding of the activity that members are involved in, thereby allowing members control over the task at hand. Learning should take place naturally and not within the constraints of performance management and accountability.

Furthermore, Wenger (1998:82) is of the view that a shared venture enhances the relationship between members; it is more likely to promote transformation whereby members share accountability. It can be therefore be argued, that under certain conditions, communities of practice can function as the foundation for a transformational process, where the individual's skill and knowledge is enhanced through the collective experience.

The community of practice model signifies the value that is encompassed in a mutually supportive learning community. This concept is applicable to the learning culture whereby Emiratis prefer to work in a communal setting. In relation to the UAE, this perspective will be reviewed at the end of this section.

2.6.4 Implications of the models

In summary, various authors (Brockbank & McGill, 2006:25; Megginson et al., 2006:16-19; Kennedy, 2005:1-21) assert that mentoring models differ depending on the context in which it takes place, and individuals could make use of a combination of practices, to instigate a transformative agenda. From a critical point of view, the above three models of mentoring have been selected as they bear reference to this study. The following links will now be discussed as it relates to the context:

- In the early stages, it is important for the expatriate school leader to gather information in order to determine what skills and knowledge the indigenous leaders possess. The expatriate mentor then formulates a plan of action, to guide and support the indigenous leaders through a mentoring process (Skilled helper model/CUREE model).
- The Emirati leaders usually have many questions when they are first introduced to the western expatriates. They are generally unsure of the changes that need to take place, are often confused by the expectations related to the reform agenda, and apprehensive with regards to working alongside foreigners. Here, the sole responsibility falls on the expatriate to ease the indigenous leaders of any anxiety they may be experiencing, while attempting to establish the working relationship (CUREE model/ skilled helper model).
- With reference to the uncertainty experienced by the indigenous leaders, and because most of the information is usually lost during translation (reform jargon), the expatriate leader may devise a strategy to convey information in a visual format. Indigenous leaders are encouraged to work with other school leaders in the community, to ensure a common understanding of key concepts or tasks that need to be executed (Community of practice model/skilled helper model/CUREE model).
- As the mentoring relationship progresses, the Emirati leaders (mentees), assume more control of their own learning by setting personal goals and devising strategies linked to school improvement. There is an expectation that the expatriate leader will guide and support this process (Community of practice model/skilled helper model/CUREE model).
- The goals that have been agreed upon are aligned to an action plan, whereby the indigenous leaders are expected to actively lead this process. The mentor (expatriate) acts as a facilitator to ensure that the goals are put into practice. The mentees (indigenous leaders) are encouraged to make use of the resources and peers within the community, as a means of support, to ensure

that the goals are realistic and achievable (Community of practice model/skilled helper model/CUREE model).

- Common practice within the models suggests, that the mentors allow the mentees the opportunity to develop on their own. Using the trainer approach, the expatriates share new knowledge with the indigenous leaders and there is an expectation that the indigenous school leaders will develop an understanding of the new concepts, in order to share it with the school staff (Community of practice model/skilled helper model/CUREE model).
- When the mentors (expatriate leaders) revisit the mentoring goals to verify the implementation of concepts within the school setting, the mentees (indigenous leaders) generally have useful ideas. However, they are not always able to articulate their points of view. It is important for the expatriate (mentor) to have an awareness of these factors in order to support the indigenous school leaders (mentees) in the developmental process (skilled helper model/CUREE model).
- During the final stages of the mentoring process, the expatriate school leaders (mentors) have a responsibility to produce evidence that some learning has taken place during the mentoring process. The influence of expatriate school leaders is crucial during this process, and this in turn will create an opportunity for indigenous school leaders (mentees) to set new goals for the new academic year, and the expatriates will continue to support and guide this process (Community of practice model/skilled helper model/CUREE model).

The role of mentoring in educational reform is now considered.

2.7 MENTORING AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM

When principals go through a period of reform, they do not necessarily possess the skills and knowledge to perform effectively. In fact, some school leaders are ill prepared for the difficulties that this job presents. Daloz (1999:210) confirms that educational leaders are in need of support, as they attend to reform initiatives in their respective schools. According to Miller (2013:1-4), 21st-century schools undergoing a reform and wishing to compete internationally, require a leader who not only deals

with daily administrative tasks, but one who acknowledges the importance of teaching and learning. Therefore school leaders require a mentoring programme that will assist them in developing their full potential.

Mentoring as a developmental tool, will allow experienced school leaders the opportunity to share their expertise with inexperienced leaders, and the transference of skills could enhance the reform agenda. Hudson et al.,(2012:8) therefore argue that education reform needs teachers and school leaders that are able to seize opportunities for mentoring, in order to learn and develop as individuals. Hudson et al. (2012:8) also refer to the fact that experienced mentors are vital in guiding school leaders to consider an appropriate vision for their school, that is supportive of educational reform.

Daloz (in Monahan, 2012:4) points out that the success of organisational change during a reform period, is dependent on the support and knowledge from an experienced leader who has encountered similar obstacles, has an understanding of the leadership role, possesses the knowledge, and is able to share all of these skills with an inexperienced other. The guidance and support that school leaders receive from mentors may be the determining factor in how they embrace reform, and the way in which they excel within their schools.

In addition to the above, mentoring during a period of educational reform can help sustain the longevity of inexperienced school leaders (Monahan 2012:5). With regard to sustainability during a period of educational change, it is imperative that school leaders establish clear goals during the mentoring process, and that these goals are consistently implemented and monitored (Cordingley & Bell, 2007:9). Lastly, the sustainability of any reform is dependent on a concrete mentoring relationship, where the learning is consistently applied in any given context.

A critical analysis of the above mentioned viewpoints suggests that school leaders do require support and mentoring when they partake in educational reform. It is also imperative for the mentors to be aware of the cultural context in which mentoring takes place, in order to initiate change. To lead reform, school leaders must understand the rationale behind the change, and to create change, the leaders need

to have an understanding of the cultural context. This understanding usually takes time.

Darling-Hammond (in Miller, 2013:1-4) speaks of “high-performing principals who are not just born, but can be made”. The author lists five common steps that should be considered to improve principal training namely:

- to ensure a selection process is in place in order for principals to attend training programmes;
- to redesign training material that enable school leaders to improve classroom pedagogy;
- to raise the quality of pre-service training in order to furnish school principals with the necessary skills to lead effectively;
- to encourage quality leadership training programmes based on accreditation and certification; and
- to ensure that principals receive high quality mentoring and professional development based on their individual needs in order to improve performance. This step is significant because it emphasises the supportive partnership between the mentor and mentee that is essential for educational change (Miller, 2013:4).

The above confirms the significant role that mentoring can play, to facilitate educational reform.

2.8 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a review of mentoring as a tool for professional development and its significance for educational reform. Within the mentoring process, the novice progresses through certain developmental stages i.e. the initiation stage, where the mentor creates an alliance with the mentee and the bond is established; the getting established stage refers to the mentor eliminating any anxiety that the mentee might experience during the initial stages; the maturation stage is when the mentor assumes a facilitator role, allowing the mentee to become more independent within the relationship; and the termination stage refers to the final stage where the relationship ends positively or unexpectedly based on various reasons.

Different theories of learning have also been critically discussed and the argument exists that there is no particular theory of learning, that embraces all the activities involved during learning. This stems from the fact that people learn differently, depending on the context. The cyclical learning theory has been selected due to the fact that learners choose their learning within a given situation. The cyclical learning theory has been linked to the stages in Kolb's learning cycle, and these highlight the key notion that individuals learn in different ways. Learning styles have been discussed in detail and relevant links to the UAE context have been made.

Mentoring relationships have been explored and various theorists agree that a dynamic partnership exists between the mentor and the mentee. Furthermore, there are a number of contingent factors that can affect the mentoring relationship (i.e. motivation, rapport, duration of the mentoring relationship, age, expertise, and context). The success of the mentoring relationship also depends on the input from both individuals (mentor and mentee).

Models of mentoring have been critically analysed and three models have been selected as it relates significantly to this study. Firstly, the skilled helper model by Egan (2007) encompasses a gentle approach to mentoring, whereby the mentor listens and ensures that the mentee is comfortable within the mentoring relationship. Secondly, the CUREE model of mentoring promotes ten principles of mentoring. Furthermore, the community of practice model infers that learning occurs within a community whereby individuals share their expertise in a social context.

Lastly, it is evident that mentoring serves as an important tool for professional development of school leaders participating in educational reform. The section on mentoring and reform highlights the importance of a partnership between the mentor and the mentee. This relationship is particularly relevant to the context being researched, because a reform process is currently underway in the UAE, and indigenous school leaders are relying on the expertise of expatriate leaders to guide and support the change process.

In the next chapter literature pertaining to leadership and its relevance to educational reform is examined.

CHAPTER 3

LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three examines different perspectives of leadership, as it relates to education and reform. The qualities and characteristics of leaders will be discussed, with the aim to identify the key characteristics displayed by leaders working in an educational setting. Various viewpoints regarding models and styles of leadership will be explored, with particular reference to transformational and instructional leadership, and relevant links will be formulated as it relates to the current research study. The chapter will also discuss leadership and sustainability, looking closely at seven principles of sustainable leadership. A discussion of leadership development will follow, and lastly, the role of leadership in educational reform will be addressed.

3.2 THE FUNCTION OF LEADERSHIP

Ciulla (1998:61-63) describes leadership as more than a person or a position, and view it as a complex moral relationship between individuals, based on trust, obligation, commitment, emotion and a shared vision. Leadership requires individuals that willingly follow certain directives. Duignan (2008:11) maintains that leadership is strengthened when leaders take responsibility for their decisions, and are accountable to the organisations that they serve. The leader's ability to step forward and lead the organisation is both essential and inimitable.

There are many different views regarding the function of leadership. Yukl (2002:4-5) supports this viewpoint and points out that this results in different definitions of a school leader (as illustrated in section 1.5.7).

Through their leadership, leaders deliver relevant services to the staff in an organisation. For example, the leaders ensure that there are the necessary equipment, resources and training for employees to do their work effectively (DePree, 1989:1-6). Leaders also provide their staff with much needed support, in

order to achieve the organisational goals, and to hold the staff accountable for achieving these goals.

Leadership in education is viewed as an essential component for ensuring that all schools succeed in providing quality instruction. Although educators are at the forefront of learning, school principals are challenged to set high expectations and a clear vision to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. The execution of this vision could be referred to as leadership (DeVita in The Wallace Foundation, 2007:2). Leithwood, Jantzi, Coffin and Wilson (1996:318-319) state "that there is not a single documented case of a school, successfully turning around its pupil achievement trajectory, in the absence of talented leadership." Leithwood et al. (1996:321-324) therefore suggests, that leadership is not measured exclusively by the school principal, but by a number of other variables including capacity, motivation, working conditions and student achievement. Total leadership therefore refers to the combined influence from all of these sources.

Leadership also influences reform. Leadership in education is referred to as a 'bridge' that seamlessly brings together various reform endeavours. The leader exerts a degree of influence to gain support from the followers, in order to achieve the goal or transformational objectives of an organisation or department (Avolio & Bass, 2002:6).

The above indicates that leadership focuses on set aims and objectives. Knapp, Copeland, Honig, Plecki and Portin (2010:4) speak of leadership as a shared work experience where individuals are committed to influence the direction that a school pursues with regard to learning, and employ every effort in pursuing the agenda for school improvement. Similarly, Bush (2011:5) mentions the fact that leadership involves influence that is generally social by nature, where intentional influence is exerted by one person (or group) over others (or groups), in order to organise activities and relationships within the organisation. The leader's ability to influence or achieve organisational objectives is seen as an important element in evaluating the leader's performance or degree of effectiveness (Bush, 2011:6).

Bhugra, Ruiz and Gupta (2013:4) also maintain, that leaders lead because there is an expectation that they will act in accordance with the vision and goals of an

organisation. The task of any leader is to provide the plan of action for the followers, and the authors stress that leaders are only in existence because they have individuals who are willing to follow and take direction from them (Bhugra et al., 2013:4).

Leadership to reach set goals can function in many ways. Cuban (in Bush 2011:6) maintains that during leadership, there is a need for the influencing process to have a purpose, in that it is intended to lead to a targeted outcome. The leaders influence the motivations and actions of others in order to achieve that specific goal. *Influence* is thus the principle concept in leadership, rather than power or authority. In fact, according to Heifetz (1994:2-24) authority can constrain leadership, because in times of crisis, individuals place a huge amount of strain on leaders because they have high expectations of them to solve problems. The author thus refers to individuals forming unsuitable dependencies that delude leaders into thinking that they have all the answers.

In contrast, to the above, Argyris (1998:98-105) examines the idea of *empowerment* in relation to leadership. He mentions that various tensions could arise when forcing staff to comply, versus raising their internal commitment to change. If staff is encouraged to buy into an idea because it will benefit them in the long run, they are more likely to contribute positively. If they fail to see the benefit, they tend to resist change. Similarly, one could make the assumption that empowering all staff within the school to analyse their areas of strength and tapping into these strengths, one not only delegates responsibility, but creates a platform for staff to be a part of whole school development.

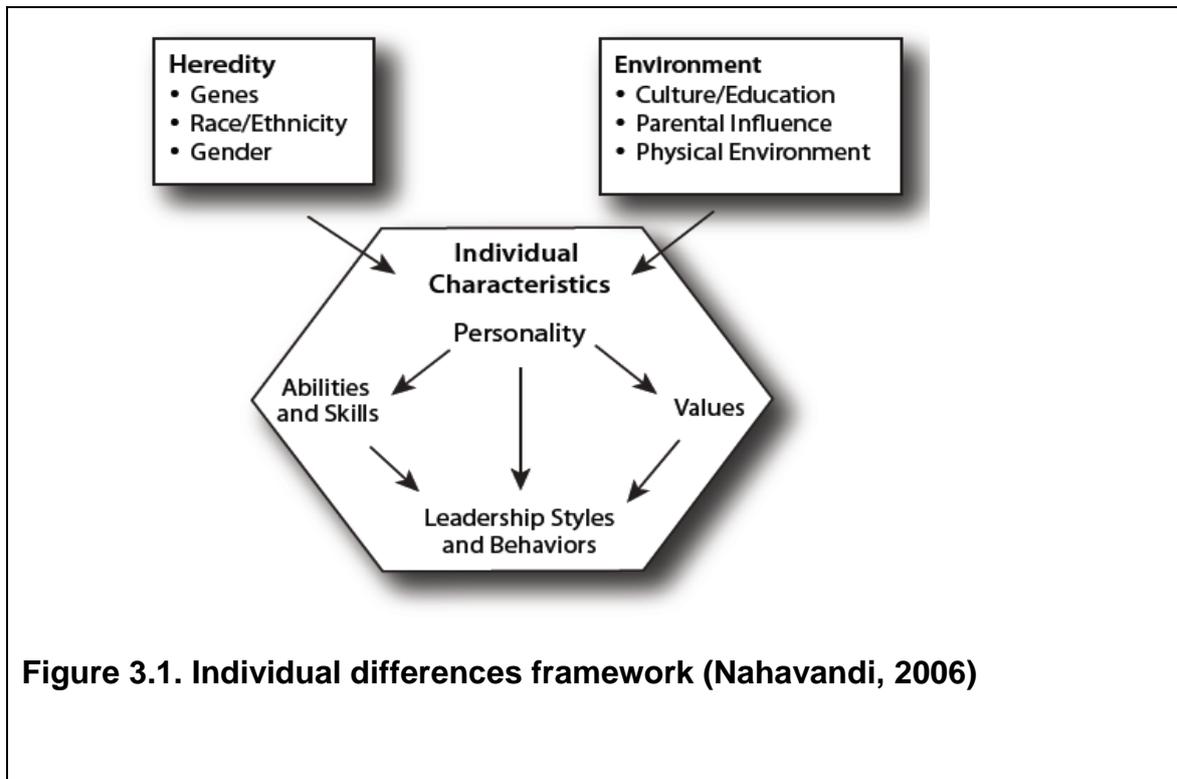
In the context of the UAE, it could be argued that Emirati school leaders are more likely to resist authoritative leadership, rather than leadership through subtle influence. It is for this reason, that the function of leadership through *influence* is seen as important, in that it produces a collaborative effort by both the leaders (expatriates) and the followers (Emirati) (Bolman & Deal, 2008:345).

3.3 QUALITIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS

According to Tracy (2012:3), leadership is the single most important factor in the success or failure of an organisation. Furthermore, the author is of the viewpoint that leaders are largely self-made and they consistently develop their capabilities, becoming more experienced over a period of time. Leaders therefore learn certain qualities through their daily practice and consistently apply their skills within the organisation.

Ricketts (2009:2) argues that effective leadership relies on specific qualities that the leaders possess. Leaders need to be able to forge positive relationships with group members or staff. Some of the traits that leaders need to possess therefore include popularity, originality, sociability, intelligence, confidence, persistence and responsibility. Although these leadership traits are important, the author stresses the need for these characteristics to bear relevance to the context in which the leader performs.

The unique characteristics of every leader could be attributed to a combination of factors as mentioned by Ricketts (2009:3). These factors include various environmental and physical characteristics that impact on several individual characteristics as illustrated in Figure 3.1.



The Individual Differences Framework in Figure 3.1, as developed by Nahavandi (2006), hones in on two important factors that determine leadership characteristics namely, heredity and environmental factors. Heredity highlights the characteristics or traits that are genetically handed down i.e. genetic patterns, race or ethnicity, and gender. Environment refers to the setting to which individuals are exposed to during their lives i.e. education systems, cultural factors or upbringing.

The above figure illustrates that both heredity and environment can influence the development of differences we see exhibited in different leaders, and that the environment and other social conditions can serve to influence the leader's personality. A good example of this is the cultural expectation within the UAE for males to be role models within the community which often influences their behaviour as leaders.

The above mentioned factors are particularly significant for UAE school leaders, due to the fact that they generally have a high regard for the rulers of the country, or their elders and they strive to emulate these leadership traits. This notion of heredity and

environment presents a noteworthy dilemma, in that indigenous leaders are currently working under the guidance of expatriates, and this raises the question of the extent to which expatriates can influence the leadership traits of indigenous school leaders.

Tracy (2012:5) asserts that there are over 50 qualities that are pertinent to leadership, but draws attention to seven qualities that are deemed to be crucial and should be practised through repetition for learning to occur. The seven qualities are as follows:

- Having a vision is seen as the most important quality of leadership. This suggests that leaders should have a clear vision of where they are going and what they would like to accomplish. In order to develop a vision, the author states that leaders should consider the values and beliefs held by the employees of an organisation. Within the UAE, the current vision of schools is dictated by the education reform agenda in the country, and principals are therefore required to align their school vision accordingly. The current structure (expatriates working alongside indigenous leaders), draws attention to the possibility of disagreements arising, as a result of conflicting views regarding visions for schools.
- Having courage refers to a process whereby leaders take risks to achieve their targeted goals, without having any guarantee that these goals will be successfully achieved. Monahan (2012:18-20) states that reform brings about stressful situations, increased demands, and increased accountability. These ever changing factors need to be understood in order to minimise stress. The current reform in the UAE has initiated a process whereby both expatriate and indigenous leaders are placed in an unknown situation. These leaders usually rely on prior knowledge and skills to accomplish their goals as defined by the reform agenda. The ever changing nature of the reform across UAE schools alludes to the idea that leaders need to be courageous in order to comply with the demands and expectations of them.
- Integrity represents the importance of honesty in all assigned responsibilities. Leaders ensure that they complete their tasks in an honest and professional manner. Within the UAE religious and cultural context, school leaders and

revered community figure heads place an enormous emphasis on honesty and integrity. There is usually an expectation that expatriates will demonstrate the same qualities in the day to day working environment.

- Humility relates to being self-confident but recognising the value in others without feeling threatened. Humble leaders are able to admit their wrong doing and are able to realise that they do not necessarily have all the answers. Furthermore, Tracy (2012:13) asserts that humble leaders continuously strive to learn and get better. This characteristic is significant for expatriate school leaders, as it would be in their best interest to recognise the prior skills and knowledge that indigenous leaders possess. Failing to do so, may have a negative effect on the working relationship. Moreover, it could be valuable for expatriates to model humility when facilitating skills development in indigenous leaders, as this in turn could promote sustainable leadership.
- The fifth quality refers to the ability to have foresight, or to predict what will happen in the future. Leaders possess the quality to think strategically in order to improve the organisation. Daloz (1999:21) stresses the importance of experienced (expatriate) leaders who support and guide inexperienced (indigenous) leaders through educational reform, in order to ensure the success of change within an organisation. With reference to this study, experienced (expatriate) school leaders have certain key tasks to perform, in order to support and guide inexperienced (indigenous) school leaders through a strategic planning process.
- The sixth quality refers to the ability to focus on the essential strengths within the organisation, in order to ensure that everyone stays on task to reach organisational goals. These leaders also strive to find solutions instead of placing blame on others. Deming and Senge (in The Wallace Foundation, 2007:20) mention that learning within an organisation is created by developing teams who collaborate effectively, gather information to inform organisational goals or decisions, and who participate in an ongoing learning process. The current reform agenda within UAE schools, emphasises the need for school leaders and their teams to raise the academic achievement of all students (Thorne, 2011:173).

- The final quality relates to cooperation and the ability to work with everyone. Effective leaders get others to work for them because they want to. In addition, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:4) are of the viewpoint that effective leaders influence the development and improvement of human resources in their schools by providing opportunities for collaboration and cooperation. Cooperation is a vital characteristic, for this study, given that a joint partnership model has been adopted where expatriate and indigenous leaders are equally accountable in ensuring that staff works together to successfully contribute to the change process.

In closing, Ricketts (2009:5) asserts:

... clearly understanding what traits and characteristics are exhibited by effective leaders, allows us not only to match the right leader with the right situation, but also to discover benchmarks for what we need to look for, if we want to be (or train) the best leaders we can be.

The above argument is particularly relevant to this study. To have an impact in the UAE education system, expatriate leaders need to determine the training needs of indigenous leaders, in order to effectively guide and support the reform expectations. In contrast, if expatriate school leaders are unable to influence indigenous leaders to apply some of the above mentioned leadership qualities in their daily practices, the question arises as to what impact they will actually have within the UAE context.

3.4 LEADERSHIP MODELS AND STYLES

Bush (2011:36) states that the literature pertaining to leadership, and models of leadership are vast. Similarly, Handford (2011:3-7) is of the view that “various leadership models have been developed, marketed, applied, and discarded over a period of time, only to be repackaged with small adjustments or perhaps a new name”. However, there is the belief that most leadership models have some valuable aspects.

Hallinger (2003:329) is of the view that although a variety of models related to educational leadership have been employed over the past 25 years, two major approaches have dominated namely, *instructional* and *transformational* leadership. According to Southworth (2002:73-76), both instructional and transformational leadership models focus specifically on the way in which school principals and teachers implement what they learn from educational outcomes.

According to Hallinger (2003:330), studies showed that in the early 1980's, literature pertaining to school effectiveness, focussed primarily on instructional leadership. Furthermore, the author highlights the fact that in the 90's, researchers began to shift their attention to more evolved models of leadership, and these models encouraged distributed leadership, empowerment and organisational learning. The most commonly used model as described by Silins and Mumford (in Hallinger, 2003:330) and Leithwood and Jantzi (in Hallinger 2003:330) is transformational leadership. According to the authors, transformational leadership focuses on innovation, where the leader seeks to support change, in order to develop teaching and learning practice. Transformational leadership is distributed, in that it centres round the development of a shared vision and a shared commitment to change with all role players in schools (Hallinger, 2003:330). Leithwood (1994:500-505) is of the view that this leadership role aims to change the nature of an organisation.

In the next section follows a review of the literature on leadership models, with particular reference to instructional and transformational leadership. Their significance for this study will be highlighted.

3.4.1 Instructional leadership

Lee, Hallinger and Walker (2012:3) assert that over the years a significant number of research projects have been done, in order to explain instructional leadership. Interest in the instructional leadership models emerged as a result of the interest in the role of principals, with regards to education reform, school effectiveness and school improvement (Hallinger, 2003:332). Scholars conducting research in the above mentioned domains found that the leadership skills of school principals was an important and contributing factor during a reform and change process.

According to Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004:4-10) and Hallinger (2011:294-296), reviews regarding instructional leadership emphasise the central role of the school leader. Accordingly, Bamburg and Andrews (1990:175-176) define instructional leadership as leadership where the school principals assume coordinating, controlling, supervising, and curriculum development roles within their respective schools. In this regard, Barth (1990:293-295) maintains that school principals become burdened when they perform beyond the basic demands of their job roles.

An additional viewpoint by Hallinger (2003:334) is that instructional leaders are both experts and charismatics in the field of education. These principals are hands-on and have a sound knowledge of the pedagogy surrounding curriculum and instruction. Moreover, instructional leaders are goal-driven culture builders, and they set high expectations for student attainment.

However, instructional leadership is not above criticism. Instructional leadership, particularly in secondary schools, can be complex owing to the fact that in many instances, school principals are less experienced than the teachers whom they oversee (Lambert, 1998:7). Dimmock (in Steward (2006:5-7) also asserts that instructional leadership is far too prescriptive and relies on a top-down management approach. The top-down approach suggests that when principals execute essential tasks, teaching and learning will automatically improve. The author suggests a bottom-up approach, which begins with student attainment, progressing to advanced teaching strategies, followed by the organisation of the school structure and finally, a sound leadership and management structure that supports the effective use of resources. Dimmock (1995:274-280) suggests that the above mentioned approach is useful to school leaders, attempting to raise the quality of teaching and learning in their respective school communities.

A widely utilized instructional leadership model, pertinent to this research, was developed in the early 1980's by Hallinger and Murphy (in Hallinger, 2003:331). This model consists of three dimensions that are further supported by 10 leadership functions for school principals. The first dimension highlights the principal's role in defining the school's mission. The second dimension focuses on the role of the principal to manage the curriculum and instructional programme within the school,

and the third dimension encourages a positive learning environment, with the emphasis on the academic achievement of students (Hallinger, 2011:296).

The instructional leadership model is relevant to this research, in that indigenous principals, with the support of expatriates, are responsible for driving educational change in their respective schools (a top-down approach). Expatriates are currently modelling best educational practice by coordinating and advising indigenous leaders on concepts related to curriculum implementation and teaching practice, in order to address whole school improvement targets.

Furthermore, expatriates are hired on the grounds that they have the experience and expertise to coach and mentor indigenous leaders. The objective is for expatriates to transfer these skills through modelling and continuous mentoring, in order to create a sustainable education system underpinned by sound leadership.

3.4.2 Transformational leadership

Hallinger (2003:339) point out that transformational leadership theory was first explained in the literature during the 1970s and 1980s. This theory was established in reaction to the top-down leadership policy that dominated educational change in the 80's. A considerable number of research projects related to transformational leadership within education was subsequently conducted (Hallinger and Heck in Hallinger, 2003:342).

Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999:456) describe transformational leadership as a means of directing the organisation through a shared vision, whereby all stakeholders are committed to the vision, by meeting high performance expectations. Gunter (2001:97) speaks of transformational leadership becoming more globalised as principals respond to reform demands, and turn their schools into learning communities. Here the leaders not only motivate their followers through charisma, but also focus on the needs of the followers, influence their thinking, and finally seek to persuade the followers to commit to the intended school vision (Gronn in Gunter, 2001:98).

Transformational leadership has positive consequences. The charismatic, transformational leaders exercise their authority in socially acceptable ways, and therefore their followers generally respect them and admire their accomplishments (Leithwood et al., 1999:57). In addition, since transformational leadership centres on high levels of personal commitment to organisational goals, the leadership style facilitates greater productivity and increased effort by members of the organisation.

The notion of 'trust' is linked with transformational leadership. Yukl (1999:285-305) speaks of transformational leadership "in terms of the leader's effect on followers: they feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do." Similarly, Dirks and Ferrin (2002:623) explain that trust in the leader is a significant component with reference to transformational leadership. Regarding the notion of trust, Dirks (2000:1009) conducted a study that found, that although trust amongst team members did not affect team performance, trust in *leadership* did have a positive effect on performance. Various other authors (e.g., Konovsky, Pugh, McAllister & Robinson in Handford 2011:1-226) have also established trust to be an essential component of transformational leadership, due to the fact that it enhances behavioural patterns within the organisation, and it strengthens relationships amongst members of staff.

In contrast to the above positive views of transformational leadership, Allix (2000:7-20) refers to the fact that transformational leadership is not really transformational by any means, instead it focuses on meeting the needs of those in a position of power. Gunter (2001:98) also expresses the view that transformational leadership is less about the education of leaders with regards to teaching and learning, and more about leadership within an educational setting.

The transformational leadership model is relevant to this study conducted in the UAE in various ways. For example, 'trust' as a key notion of the transformational leadership model is pertinent to this study. The rationale is that if indigenous leaders trust the expatriate, they are more likely to cooperate and the impact of expatriate leaders can be enhanced.

Moreover, the current educational reform in the UAE encourages a shared commitment from all stakeholders. The needs of school leaders, teachers, support

staff, parents and students, are placed at the centre of the reform agenda. Expectations have been placed on school leaders to ensure that all staff commit to the Emirate wide vision of transformation and improvement. This requires a change in the mind set of most Arabic teachers, who are currently being exposed to international education systems. The greatest challenge for indigenous principals stems from the expectations of policy makers for staff to undergo professional development. Principals who fail to obtain the cooperation and commitment of their staff, will find it very difficult to bring about the changes necessary for the successful implementation of reform demands. Thus, the impact of their efforts will be minimised.

The evolving leadership role as described by Leithwood (1994:498-518) is also evident within UAE schools as various members in the organisation assume leadership roles and use their expertise to coach and mentor peers (shared leadership as characteristic of the transformational leadership model). In the current UAE school system, various leadership positions have been created to drive change e.g. cluster managers are responsible to coach principals, education advisors coach and mentor teachers in subject specific disciplines and heads of departments or coordinators offer guidance related to curriculum targets and school improvement. Significantly, most of these leadership positions are filled by expatriates, who act in a mentoring capacity. (Some of these expatriates have been selected as participants to obtain their views on their impact within the UAE schooling system – see Chapter 4).

In the next section, the two leadership styles are compared.

3.4.3 Instructional vs Transformational leadership

Hallinger (2003:341-345) draws a distinction between instructional and transformational leadership with regard to several criteria. Table 3.1 has been adapted to highlight the characteristics portrayed by each model.

Table 3.1 A comparison of the characteristics of instructional and transformational leadership (adapted from Hallinger, 2003)

Instructional Leadership	Transformational leadership
Top-down approach to school improvement	Bottom-up approach to school improvement
First order target for change	Second order target for change
Managerial or transactional relationship with staff	Transformational relationship with staff

In Table 3.1 instructional leadership has been indicated as a top-down approach to school leadership, which suggests that school principals are fully in command and are responsible for directing the organisational goals (Barth, 1990:294-296). Furthermore, this top-down approach gives the impression that the school principal directs the school improvement plan.

In contrast, the bottom-up notion within the transformational leadership model focuses on a shared or collaborative approach to leadership (Jackson, 2000:62-74). This highlights the fact that the school principal encourages staff to partake in the decision making process, and their commitment to the shared goals could have a greater impact on the transformational vision than the instructional leadership approach.

The second distinction as illustrated in Table 3.1 addresses the means by which school leaders achieve their outcomes, through first-order versus second-order changes within the school.

- First order change refers to the leader influencing the conditions surrounding the delivery of quality curriculum and instruction. This will directly have an effect on student achievement (Cuban in Hallinger, 2003:343). Hallinger (2003:344) provides examples of leader behaviours that generate first order targets for change. These leader behaviours include their setting of the school

goals, their supervising teaching and learning, and their managing of the curriculum.

- The second order change of transformational leadership refers to a process whereby leaders build the capacity of their staff to bring about first order changes to the learning within schools (Leithwood & Louis, 1999:1-22). In this regard, the transformational leaders create an environment that allows teachers to collaborate in the form of peer coaching and mentoring, in order to share their learning experiences. Lambert (2002:37-40) also suggests that transformational leaders work with staff in their respective schools, and attempt to identify personal goals that are related to wider organisational goals. The author believes that the transformational leader approach will raise staff commitment when it becomes apparent that what these leaders are trying to accomplish, is directly linked to the broader school vision. The above implies that transformational leaders create a platform that allows staff to work independently towards school improvement.
- The third distinction draws on the comparison between managerial or transactional relationships vs. transformational relationships. Bycio and Allen (1995:468-478) assert that the establishment of transformational relationships refers to leadership that focuses on the “management of existing relationships and maintenance of the status quo with leadership that seeks to envision and create the future by synthesising and extending the aspirations of members of the organisational community”. In contrast, instructional leadership is considered to be managerial or transactional, in that it attempts to control and manage staff by urging them to move towards a predetermined set of goals.

Hallinger (2003:344-346) is of the view that research into leadership suggests that effective leaders require a combination of transactional and transformational skills, in order to promote change within the organisation. Therefore, to summarise, both the instructional and transformational leadership models are significant to this research and to overall school improvement. Both models have valuable components that the indigenous and expatriate leaders can benefit from, to enhance the impact of expatriate school leaders, as they endeavour to lead the reform initiative.

3.5 LEADERSHIP AND SUSTAINABILITY

Sustainable leadership is described as a long lasting shared responsibility among stakeholders, that does not exhaust human or financial resources and aims to preserve the surrounding community in the process (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:3). In section 1.5.2, it was also indicated that education for sustainable human development is "...educational practice that results in the enhancement of human well-being, conceived in terms of the expansion of individuals' agency, capabilities and participation in democratic dialogue, both now and for future generations (Landorf et al., 2008:221). Finally, Fullan (2002a:1-6) asserts that sustainability refers to a system that strives towards continuously improving amid various complexities. However, the system recognises the contributions individuals make with regards to the improvement process.

According to Hargreaves and Fink (2003:2), sustainability does not only suggest that a process will continue, but projects develop over time without affecting the development of other initiatives in the surroundings. In other words, more than one project may be administered at the same time, but that this should not affect the overall progress or intended goal of leadership development.

Following extensive research with regard to sustainability in educational change and leadership, Hargreaves and Fink (2003:3) developed seven principles of sustainable leadership and these principles bear relevance to the current study. Therefore, the seven principles of sustainable leadership will be briefly discussed, and their relevance for this research project in the UAE will be pointed out.

3.5.1 Seven principles of sustainable leadership

3.5.1.1 Sustainable leadership creates and preserves sustainable learning

With reference to education, the first principle of sustainability refers to a process whereby individuals develop something that has the potential to sustain itself (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:3). Furthermore, the authors stress that sustainable

learning does not necessarily refer to the achievement of results, rather, it hones in on the learning that transpires in the process. In this regard, Hargreaves and Fink (2003:3) emphasise the importance of lifelong learning rather than superficial learning, as the former guarantees a more lasting and sustainable outcome. Glickman, Fink and Earl (in Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:3) are of the opinion that the prime responsibility related to learning in a system, rests with educational leaders.

In relation to this study, the educational reform process in the UAE is currently underway and expatriate leaders are tasked with the responsibility to ensure that the strategic vision of the UAE education system is realised (see section 1.1). Furthermore, if expatriates are successful, it would imply that indigenous leaders can continue on their own. Lynne Pearson (in Thorne, 2011:173-175) has pointed out that expatriates will not be around forever (see section 1.1). It can be argued that if expatriate school leaders are successful in their mentoring role and the impact of their work is significant, the UAE education reform will be able to sustain itself.

3.5.1.2 Sustainable leadership secures success over time

Hargreaves and Fink (2003:4) maintain that sustainable leadership is not achieved when leaders haphazardly attempt to implement change. Instead, sustainable leadership takes time for leaders to influence change through their actions. Furthermore, leaders are challenged to plan, let go, and become obsolete figures, allowing their successors to continue the change process. Leadership succession will therefore be the final challenge for sustainable leadership. Similarly, Collins and Porras (1994:31) highlight the fact that leadership succession is at the heart of successful sustainable leadership and educational reform.

With reference to the above, the role of expatriate school leaders is to transfer knowledge and skills to indigenous school leaders. The expatriate is perceived to be the more knowledgeable other, that guides the indigenous leader through the ZPD (see section 1.3.3). Evidently, it is essential that expatriates take their time when working alongside indigenous leaders, and this in turn may guarantee a more sustainable outcome. The belief is that if this is a success, expatriate leaders will eventually become obsolete.

3.5.1.3 Sustainable leadership sustains the leadership of others

One way to ensure that leaders leave a lasting legacy is to make certain that this legacy is developed with staff and shared over time, as noted by Hargreaves and Fink (2003:6). The authors emphasise the method of distributional leadership, where leaders coach and guide staff through professional development to become leaders. According to Spillane, Halverson and Drummond (in Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:6), distributing the leadership aids in softening the blow when the leaders eventually leave.

Expatriate leaders are currently mentoring indigenous school leaders to adopt a shared and distributed leadership approach. With the guidance of the expatriates, the notion exists that if expatriates are able to institute and reinforce a distributed leadership model, they will lay the groundwork for the indigenous leaders to function well and efficiently in their leadership roles.

3.5.1.4 Sustainable leadership addresses issues of social justice

Creating an education system of social justice refers to a system that benefits all students in all schools, according to Hargreaves and Fink (2003:7). The authors highlight the impact that private schools may have on the rest of the school system, in that they ensure that they get the services of top performing teachers and this aids the achievements of their students. However, sustainable leadership acknowledges the pitfalls in the system and recognises the necessity for social justice.

In the UAE school system, notions of what constitutes social justice may be very different between expatriate and indigenous school leaders. Such differences may inhibit the impact that expatriate school leaders have on the education system.

3.5.1.5 *Sustainable leadership develops rather than depletes human and material resources*

Sustainable leadership provides intrinsic rewards and extrinsic incentives, in order to attract, develop, and retain the best leaders for the system. In addition, the system provides opportunities for networking, where leaders are afforded the time to learn from and support one another, according to Hargreaves and Fink (2003:8). Furthermore, this principle stresses the importance of developing the talents of individuals, where the leader values the contribution or progress that staff is making (intrinsic rewards).

The significance of the above mentioned thoughts bears relevance to the expatriates' perceptions of the reform process. It would be valuable to identify the motivations of expatriates assuming leadership positions within the UAE school system, and if they are there on the basis of intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. Ryan (2012:1-32) questions whether expatriates hold the same vision as the leaders of the UAE (see section 1.1), and it could be argued that sustainable leadership would not be successful if expatriate motives for being in the UAE, centre *solely* on extrinsic gratification, such as monetary rewards.

3.5.1.6 *Sustainable leadership develops environmental diversity and capacity*

Hargreaves and Fink (2003:9) explain that leaders enable their staff to adapt in challenging circumstances or complex environments, and these individuals continuously learn and adapt when exposed to a variety of practices (they learn from one another). The aim is to foster diverse practices by creating a cohesive system that is reinforced through networking.

During the mentoring relationship (mentioned in section 2.5), expatriates and indigenous leaders learn from one another and attempt to gain as much knowledge and experience from the working relationship. The responsibility lies with both of these kinds of leaders to foster and share what they have learned, and this may lead to a sustainable leadership process. However, the fact that expatriate leaders stem from a variety of backgrounds, as mentioned by Ryan (2012:1-54) (see section 1.1),

could pose a challenge to indigenous leaders, who are repeatedly exposed to varying ideologies pertaining to school improvement. There may be resistance among some indigenous leaders in the UAE, against some of the ideologies that are recommended to them.

3.1.5.7 Sustainable leadership undertakes activist engagement with the environment

Sustainable leadership, in the face of standardised reform, refers to a course of action where the leader ensures that the school engages in an assertive manner with the surrounding community (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:10). Furthermore, an unhelpful environment compels leaders to actively engage with the community in order to re-establish the school's standing. It can be argued, that the way in which schools engage with the community could either result in alliances being formed or complete alienation between the schools, the leaders, and the wider communities.

The current reform plan within UAE education advocates for community involvement. The overall responsibility for this association lies with both expatriate and indigenous leaders. They need to create a network within their respective school communities, to ensure the creation of strong links between the school and the wider community. In the current school environment, it would be advantageous for the expatriate school leaders to gain an understanding of the community, in order to inspire and mentor the indigenous leaders accordingly.

In closing, Hargreaves and Fink (2003:10) mention that leaders ensure sustainability by how they approach, commit and model deep learning. The argument exists that long lasting sustainability is directly determined by the impact of expatriate leaders within UAE education system.

3.6 LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

According to Bush and Glover (2004:19), "leadership development is concerned with the way in which attitudes are fostered, action empowered, and the learning organisation stimulated". Furthermore, Day (in Centre for Leadership Studies (CfLS),

2005:11) mentions that leadership development refers to the extent to which leaders prepare for their roles and responsibilities beyond their years of experience. In addition, leadership development is also defined as a capacity building process in the midst of unforeseen obstacles and challenging circumstances (Day, 2001:582).

Day (2001:582) draws a distinction between being a leader and how leaders develop. In the former, leaders develop as individuals in their respective roles. The latter hones in on a relationship building process, where the leader includes all members of the organisation, in order to develop the organisation and to build capacity. Secondly, the author describes being a leader as focussing on the intrapersonal skills that the leader projects to others within the organisation, whereas leadership development is more of a social investment, requiring the cooperation of others within the organisation. Although both approaches are equally important, the author mentions that traditional programmes centre round leader development (Day, 2001:582).

According to the CfLS (2005:3), there have been numerous reports that propose the enhancement of leadership competence and capability, in order to increase productivity, delivery and quality in both the private and public sectors. However, the value of leadership training is in question, and the extent to which leaders have developed as a result of the training they received, or whether or not leaders can be trained or developed, is debated. Early theories have suggested, that leaders are born with the innate ability to lead. In contrast, other theories have their reservations with regards to this notion, and argue that the leadership development of behaviours and capabilities are learnt as a result of training over a period of time (CfLS, 2005:3). Furthermore, the CfLS (2005:3) asserts that whilst leadership is definitely instrumental to the success of the organisation, the development of individuals in isolation is unlikely to produce noticeable improvements.

The purpose of leadership development is to ensure the development of a suitable leadership style, in order to ensure best practise. Leadership development should therefore focus on increasing the quality and precision, rather than the quantity, of development during the training process according to Burgoyne, Hirsh and Williams (in CfLS, 2005:49).

It should be kept in mind that the practice of leadership is more than the application of various principles. In reality, it requires an experiential component to support the leadership developmental process (CfLS, 2005:7). Likewise, the CfLS (2005:7) asserts that if leadership is deemed to be a collective process, then there is a need to challenge the traditional method of only sending senior managers on leadership development training courses. Raelin (2004:131) also argues that it is not advisable for leadership development training to be conducted in training venues instead of in the actual workplace. Training in venues poses various challenges for leaders intending to transfer the knowledge, when they eventually return to the organisation.

The CfLS (2005) draw attention to the leadership development framework that signifies the way in which leaders learn and develop. This framework will now be discussed in further detail (see Figure 3.2).

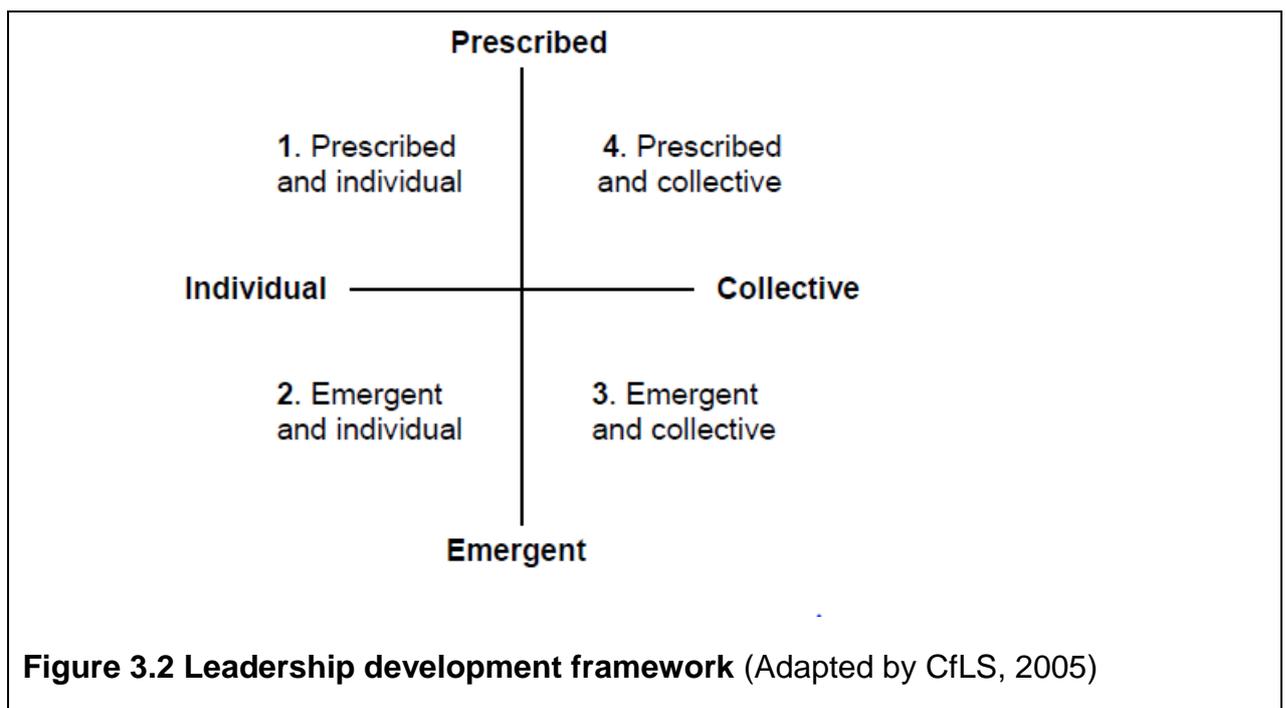


Figure 3.2 provides an outline of leadership development and draws attention to individual learning versus a collective learning approach. Furthermore, the figure also highlights prescribed and emerging learning processes.

In the light of the above figure, Rodgers, Frearson, Holden and Gold (in CfLS, 2005:49-52) assert that most of what leaders learn occurs in cell one (prescribed and individual) or in cell two (emergent and individual). The authors stress the fact that

very few training initiatives hone in on cells three and four (prescribed/emergent collective leadership development). In order to develop an inclusive approach where leaders collaborate, more attention should be assigned to the right hand side of the figure (Rodgers et al., in CfLS, 2005:49-54).

With reference to this study, the leadership development framework presented in Figure 3.2 is significant due to the fact that indigenous school leaders in the UAE are currently following a prescribed/emergent individualistic approach as it relates to their own learning. However, some expatriate school leaders may aspire to steer the development of indigenous leaders towards a more collective approach. This method centres round communities of practise, where school leaders co-share their learning and development (see section 2.6.3).

Storey (2004:26) maintains that most training and development initiatives that are offered internally or by external training providers are classified according to four types namely:

- Learning about leadership and organisations
- Self/team analysis and exploration of leadership styles
- Experiential learning and simulation
- Top level strategy courses

The above training and development initiatives relates to this research, in that external training providers are currently training both expatriate and indigenous school leaders, with the overall aim to develop their skills as a component of the reform agenda. Furthermore, these initiative as highlighted by Storey (2004:26), are explained as training sessions that predominantly focus on leadership theory and research; self-analysis strategies as it relates to leadership styles; learning through practice (modelling); and advanced development training courses that are pitched at executive levels.

In the UAE context, a huge emphasis is placed on training related to leadership theories and school leaders are continuously challenged to do a self-analysis of an appropriate leadership style that they wish to pursue. As a result of the training that leaders receive, there is an expectation that these leaders will model what they have

gained from the training experience, in order to enhance their leadership development portfolio.

3.7 LEADERSHIP AND EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Educational reform initiatives usually focus on a variety of targets that include school improvement, raising student achievement and enhancing the quality of teaching and learning (Reynolds & Teddlie in Monahan, 2012:1). To these ends, school leaders play an important role. Monahan (2001:2) maintains that school leaders play an essential role in the achievement of high quality education and these leaders are expected to provide direction and influence decision making, in order to achieve the intended reform goals. Hargreaves and Shirley (2011:1-6) also note that school leadership is one of the most important components when implementing a school reform programme. Furthermore, the authors mention the fact that leadership is at the centre of an effective reform, as leaders aim to engage with all stakeholders i.e. teachers, students and parents, in order to embrace change.

Some factors influence the impact of school leaders on reform. Cravens, Goldring and Peñaloza (2012:1-12), acknowledging that leaders are key players during education reform, argue, that in order for leaders to be more effective in their role, they need to have more autonomy over the environment in which they operate. In this regard, Bulkley and Fisler (2003:317-320) define autonomy as the ability to make decisions both internally and externally regarding critical issues such as budgets, recruitment and curricula.

Shared leadership is also seen as important. Accordingly, Hale and Moorman (2003:7) mention the fact that leaders play a pivotal role during education reform, and they emphasise the importance of shared leadership. During shared leadership, school principals include various stakeholders in the decision making process. Furthermore, the authors stress the fact that principals should lead instruction, shape the organisation, and make connections with the local community in order to drive the necessary changes.

Having a clear vision of reform is also a key factor. Fullan (2008b:1-4) suggests that school leaders are constantly exposed to various models of leadership, both old and

new, as it relates to the implementation of reform initiatives. The old (yet relevant) model focuses on the leader having a vision and winning the support of others, in an attempt to overcome all obstacles. Here the author draws attention to the fact that this method is not necessarily suitable for all leaders. The new paradigm involves the leader having a broad directional vision and collaborates with all staff by listening to them and respecting their input in an attempt to unify the organisation. Fullan (2008b:5-12) is of the view that this leadership model will foster deep organisational reform.

Another perspective, as introduced by Monahan (2012:79), holds that leadership support is important. Educational leaders are in constant need of support when they strive to implement reform targets. The support that leaders receive is usually in the form of coaching and mentoring, and how the leaders embrace this support and guidance, is likely to determine the way in which they implement the reform strategies. This again will determine the impact of the strategies.

Davis et al. (2005:12-13) emphasise the importance of professional development and training for school leaders involved in a reform programme. According to the authors, professional development should build on the leaders' prior learning experiences, and the combination of prior knowledge and the new knowledge gained, can support leaders when they make decisions pertaining to their respective schools.

A critical analysis of the above perspectives suggests that school leaders play a pivotal role during educational reform, and their core responsibility lies in overall school improvement, and the raising of student achievement. Leadership is at the centre of any reform and the leader relies on all stakeholders to support the change process. It is evident that a variety of leadership models and approaches are currently being utilised within different educational settings, however, the ultimate objective for any leader is to bring about change.

Significant for this study, is the issue of professional development of school leaders and how they lead change during the current reform. As shown above, leadership plays a critical role and lies at the forefront of any educational reform. In order for leadership to be sustainable with reference to educational reform, it requires a deep

rooted commitment from all school leaders (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003:10). This may enhance the impact of expatriate school leaders on the UAE education system.

3.8 SUMMARY

Chapter three presented a discussion of leadership and its relevance for educational reform. According to the literature, quality leadership facilitates educational reform. The main viewpoints offered in this regard suggest that effective leadership is essential for driving school improvement and leaders need committed followers in order to lead successfully.

The qualities and characteristics of leaders were explored, highlighting the importance of the leaders' ability to assume a leadership role. The literature referred to the fact that effective leaders constantly strive to enhance their skills and capabilities and in doing so, they become more experienced within the organisation. The literature also proposed that effective leaders possess specific traits, and it is essential that the leaders demonstrate traits that are relevant to their context. This viewpoint is noteworthy for this study, in that the display of appropriate traits could benefit expatriate school leaders attempting to assimilate into the UAE schooling system (also see section 2.3.1).

Heredity and environmental factors were perceived to be two determining factors that could have an impact on the character of the leader. A critical analysis of the seven qualities of leadership by Tracy (2012:5) was explored, drawing relevant links between these qualities and the context under study. Ricketts (2009:5) suggests the importance of understanding these leader qualities in order to determine the areas that leaders need to develop. It could be argued, that expatriate school leaders may possibly determine the training needs of indigenous leaders, by understanding and paying close attention to the traits or characteristics that are exhibited during their day to day interactions.

Different models of leadership were presented and it was established that instructional and transformational leadership models were suitable for educational reform and thus relevant for this study. Where instructional leadership models focus on the leader coordinating, controlling and supervising subordinates, trans-

formational leadership models try to establish a shared vision and a working environment built on trust.

Leadership sustainability has been critically examined and the seven principles of sustainable leadership by Hargreaves and Fink (2003:1-12) were discussed as they relate to the UAE education context. A prominent viewpoint with regard to sustainability explored how leader commitment could affect the sustainability of a reform programme.

Leadership development was also explored. The literature suggested that leaders either had an innate ability to lead or that leadership behaviours were learnt as a result of training. The leadership development framework (Figure 3.2) was examined and the model highlighted the need for leaders to foster a more collective approach, in order to develop their own leadership and that of others.

In conclusion, the literature recognised that leadership formed a vital component of successful educational reform. The section on leadership and educational reform highlighted the relevance of training to support leaders in their development. However, the way in which leaders implemented these skills would determine the impact thereof.

Chapter four will present the research design and methodology applicable to this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one provided an introduction, background to and justification of the study. In addition the research problem was explained, and the research questions were clarified. In chapter two, a literature review of research on mentoring as a tool for professional development, and its significance in educational reform was presented. In chapter three, a literature review of research on leadership and its relevance within educational reform was explored.

In this chapter, the research design and methods of data collection are discussed with particular reference to the ethical measures that were employed throughout the study. Furthermore, the research design, data collection methods, data analysis, and the measures to ensure trustworthiness are presented.

4.2 ETHICAL MEASURES

For this study, I was granted an ethical clearance certificate from the College of Education Research Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa (see Appendix B). This was granted because the research complied with various ethical principles which will be discussed in this section.

Wisker (2008:86-89) emphasises the need for a researcher to ensure that ethics are taken into account when conducting research. Furthermore, Wisker (2008:86) stresses the fact that "ethical guidelines insist that researchers should not do physical or psychological harm, and where human subjects are involved, the participants should give their fully informed consent before taking part". It is against this background, that I considered the following ethical principles throughout the empirical investigation.

4.2.1 Informed consent

During the research, informed consent was obtained by means of a dialogue between me as researcher, and the individual participants. At the start of the dialogue, the participants were reassured that all disclosed information would be treated confidentially and anonymously (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:334; Wisker, 2008:195).

I also explained the purpose of the research, and summarised the participants' role within the study. This included a discussion of the interview schedule that would be used, meeting times, the need for me to note all discussions and observations, and the fact that the participants were free to withdraw from the study at any stage.

In accordance with religious customs in the UAE, and the need for cultural sensitivity, I reassured the participants that an additional interviewer that is female would be employed to conduct interviews with the female participants. All of the above, aimed to support the notion highlighted by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:338-339) that a trusting and transparent relationship between me and the participants was vital.

Additionally, informed consent was obtained by asking participants to sign a form indicating that they understood the purpose of the research and that they gave their consent to participate (see Appendix C).

4.2.2 Voluntary participation

Voluntary participation refers to the fact that participants cannot be forced or actively persuaded to participate in a study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:118). This component within research ethics was fundamental in assuring that participants had sufficient information and time to make an informed decision regarding their participation in the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:118). I informed participants that their participation was voluntary, and that they could withdraw at any stage, should the need arise.

4.2.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

Dawson (2009:154) highlights an important task for researchers to ensure that what participants disclose during the research cannot be traced back to them, when the final report is generated (anonymity). I assured participants that their names and the identity of the schools where they taught would not be revealed, and therefore the study made use of pseudonyms to ensure that participants were not exposed in any way.

Information provided to the researcher in confidence, should not be disclosed to any third party (confidentiality) (Dawson, 2009:154). The participants were informed that the information gathered would only be viewed by me as the researcher. During the interviews with female participants, the external interviewer signed a confidentiality agreement maintaining that information gathered would not be disclosed (see Appendix D).

4.2.4 Deception and privacy

At the onset of the research all the participants were made aware of the rationale behind the research. In order to avoid deception, I scheduled informal briefings with the participants to obtain informed consent, and in so doing, made every effort to protect the privacy of the participants (Dawson, 2009:152-153; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:117).

4.2.5 Competence of the researcher

Strydom (2005:63-64) stresses the importance of ensuring that any research is conducted truthfully by a competent individual. In this regard it is important to note that I have been living and working in the UAE for eight years before embarking on this project. In addition, I displayed the following characteristics during the research gathering process as highlighted by Strydom (2005:63-64):

- sensitivity to the needs of the participants in this study, with particular reference to the cultural and religious context of the UAE;

- an endeavour to remain as objective as possible throughout the study and
- ensuring complete competence and skill when conducting the empirical investigation.

I also hold a Master's degree in Educational Leadership from the University of Gloucestershire, am a senior educational manager in the UAE education system and was supervised by an experienced and knowledgeable university professor.

4.2.6 Acknowledging financial support

I acknowledge that I was awarded a full scholarship that covered all of the expenses of this study. The funding was made available by the Directorate of Student Funding at the University of South Africa.

In the next section the research design is explained.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study followed a qualitative research approach. This refers to how the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data took place in order to gain insights into a phenomenon of interest namely the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993:373). Shank (in Ospina, 2004:5) defines qualitative research as a “form of systematic empirical inquiry into meaning”. Systematic refers to having a plan, followed by the members agreeing on the rules of the research community. Empirical highlights the fact, that the research is guided by experience, and inquiry refers to the manner in which researchers try to understand how others make sense of their own experiences.

In line with the above, McMillan and Schumacher (1993:375) state that qualitative research aims to investigate small and distinct groups in order to pinpoint relevant information pertinent to the context (Kelly, 2006:287). This approach proposes that the objective of sociological analysis is an attempt to understand how a society interprets and understand its own actions (Travers, 2001:6). With reference to this thesis, I aimed to gather information surrounding expatriate influence that could

inform future educational reform programmes in the UAE. I aimed to understand the experiences of expatriates and indigenous leaders working together in the UAE.

Denzin and Lincoln (in Ospina, 2004:5) state that qualitative research involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach. This emphasises the fact that qualitative researchers study phenomena in their own natural setting, in order to interpret them according to the meaning that people bring to them. This inquiry from the inside represents an approach known as interpretivism (Crotty in Ospina, 2004:8).

Accordingly, Krauss (2005:760) notes that for the duration of the qualitative research project, the best way to undertake this kind of study is to assimilate into the organisation or culture and understand the way in which it functions. Worthy of note, is the fact that I have been immersed in the UAE culture for eight years (as noted), and have a good understanding and background surrounding the current reform process in the UAE education system.

Furthermore, qualitative research has the following advantages (Ospina, 2004:5) significant to this study, namely:

- the flexibility to follow unexpected ideas and explore processes effectively;
- sensitivity to contextual factors;
- the ability to study symbolic dimensions and social meaning;
- increased opportunities due to its emergent design;
- the ability to develop new ideas and theories that are empirically supported;
- the opportunity to do an in depth study on phenomena and
- the opportunity to establish issues of interest to the practitioner.

As noted in 1.4.1, the research design was an ethnographic case study. This design was the most appropriate because I had been immersed in the cultural context of the UAE for a number of years. It was also a case study because it was an in-depth investigation of a bounded system – one government school in the city where I stayed and worked (Opie, 2007:85-191). I observed and noted the dynamics present in this single system (Eisenhardt, 1989:534). The study also adopted an emergent design since it did not follow a fixed, pre-planned format (Schurink, Schurink & Poggenpoel, 1998:243). The research design continuously evolved during the data

gathering process, and I made decisions and adjustments according to cultural and religious factors.

During the initial stages, the study began with a literature review on the significance of mentoring and leadership as tools for educational reform. A pilot study was conducted simultaneously, where one indigenous and one expatriate school leader were informally interviewed (see further details of the pilot study in section 4.5.1).

The pilot study was followed by individual interviews with five indigenous and five expatriate school leaders over a two week period. A female interviewer was introduced to interview female school leaders (see section 4.2.3). After having conducted the interviews, it was clear that focus group sessions would be worthwhile. These focus groups were gender specific and consisted of both expatriate and indigenous school leaders in each group (see section 4.5.3 for further details of the focus groups). I also documented all observations made throughout the study.

More detail about data collection now follows.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

4.4.1 The school context

The study was conducted in an Arabic medium government school that has 675 students. The school is situated in a modern and well-resourced building in an area of Al Ain. The school was initially established by the vice principal while the principal joined the school more recently. The building had very good facilities such as a large outdoor central area, and large display cupboards filled with a wide variety of resources that could be used for stimulating cross-curricular activities. It also encompassed various outdoor areas outside each classroom which could be put to good use to enhance student development.

The school employed 14 English proficient teachers, 34 Arabic medium teachers, an English and an Arabic head of Faculty, two vice principals (one expatriate and one indigenous) and a school principal (indigenous). The cluster managers (expatriate) were working with the school to further develop the school improvement plan as a

component of the current reform agenda. The school leadership team and subject coordinators had regular planning meetings and the school leaders clearly understood and supported the reform vision of the UAE.

The school had recently undergone a teacher evaluation process in order to inform future professional development initiatives within the school. Teachers also participated in a system of self-assessment. The school leadership team visited classes to observe the teaching and they used English proficient teachers as mentors for teachers who required further support. Additionally, teachers could visit their peers to observe peer teaching, or visit other schools in the local community in order to share best practice.

The school maintained good communication with parents, who came to school on a regular basis to support school initiatives. The majority of the student population consisted of Emirati students who came from wealthy backgrounds. The minority student population consisted of expatriate Arabs from various countries namely, Egypt, Jordan, Palestine, Syria and Turkey.

4.4.2 The sample

The study adopted both purposive and convenience sampling as outlined by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:138), and as mentioned in section 1.4.2. Purposive sampling in this instance refers to the fact that information rich participants were selected for the research project. In this study, I purposefully selected indigenous and expatriate school leaders to investigate their views of the impact of expatriates on the UAE education system.

Dawson (2009:48-55) suggests that convenience sampling refers to the accessibility of the participants, and their willingness to participate in the study. For the purposes of this study, the sampling was regarded as convenient as it involved a specific school, and school leaders who were accessible and willing to participate.

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:327-329) speak of maximum variation sampling and this was also used in this study. I thus selected school leaders of different

genders, nationality, age groups, years of experience and hierarchical level. The sample consisted of five expatriate and five indigenous school leaders. Table 4.1 illustrates the biographical data of the sample that participated in the study.

Table 4.1 Biographical data of the sample

Name of participant*	Gender	Nationality	Age (yrs)	Job title	Years of experience
Fatima	Female	Emirati	34	Principal	6
James	Male	New Zealand	54	Cluster Manager	24
Salma	Female	Emirati	46	Vice Principal	12
Brigitte	Female	South African	38	Vice Principal	14
Aiden	Male	USA	50	Cluster Manager	21
Sheikha	Female	Emirati	28	Head of faculty	7
Khaled	Male	Emirati	49	Cluster Manager	16
Bushra	Female	Emirati	32	Coordinator	8
Stuart	Male	UK	47	Head of faculty	17
Erin	Female	USA	51	Coordinator	24

*Pseudonyms were used

Table 4.1 illustrates that the school leaders participating in the study consisted of one school principal (Emirati), two vice principals (one expatriate and one indigenous), three cluster managers (two expatriate and one indigenous), two heads of the faculty (one expatriate and one indigenous) and two subject coordinators (one expatriate and one indigenous). The total sample thus consisted of ten school leaders from various countries namely the UAE, the USA, South Africa, New Zealand and the UK. Pseudonyms have been used to denote the names of those that participated in the study.

4.4.3 The researcher as instrument

During this study, I made many observations and interviewed participants. I gathered, analysed and interpreted all the information provided by the research participants, and therefore served as main data collection instrument during the data gathering process.

With regard to research bias, Sherrard (1998:253) speaks of two measures that researchers can employ to prevent research bias, and these include the awareness given to the participants' use of words, and how the researcher related to the context under investigation. For the purposes of this study, I perceived myself to be close to the participants, due to the fact that I was immersed within the culture. I had a sound understanding of norms and expectations and I could also relate to school leaders in the UAE education setting. I believe that this facilitated their trust in me.

Furthermore, during the planning phase of the empirical investigation, all the different data collection techniques were discussed with the promoter of the study i.e. the pilot study, the interviews, the focus groups, and the observations. The promoter and I were in regular contact via Skype to make certain that I was adhering to the correct research procedures and the appropriate data collection processes for this study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

4.5.1 The pilot study

Strydom (1998:179) stresses the importance of conducting a pilot study at the beginning of the research, in order to establish whether the design of the study is in need of improvement. It also allows the researcher to rectify any problems that may have occurred. A pilot study was therefore conducted before the individual semi-structured interviews, in order to establish whether the interview questions were appropriate to answer the research questions. It was established that no changes to the interview questions, schedule and venue were needed.

4.5.2 Interviews

I met with individual participants before the data gathering process and invited them to participate in the semi-structured interview process, and emphasised that this would be done on a voluntary basis. Participants were informed that during the interview process, I would take notes in order to record all observations and discussions.

I presented a detailed interview schedule to the school and to the participants. Male and female participants were informed that they would be interviewed in separate venues, and the females would be interviewed by a female research assistant. Before the interviews commenced, the research assistant and I agreed to use the same method of noting all feedback and viewpoints gathered from participants.

The ten interviews lasted approximately 40 minutes per participant. During this time six main questions were posed to the indigenous school leaders. The expatriate school leaders were asked the same questions plus one additional question related to their reasons for being in the UAE (see Appendix E & F). All the questions related in some way to the impact that expatriate school leaders could have on the UAE education system, as indicated by the literature review. Thus, the interviews allowed participants to express their viewpoints with regard to the working relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders; the role of mentoring during reform implementation and the contributions of both expatriate and indigenous school leaders to the education system. Answers were probed for rich detail.

The individual interviews were transcribed verbatim. They were thereafter analysed for themes or relevant patterns (see sections 4.6.1 to 4.6.4 for how the data analysis was executed).

4.5.3 Focus groups

I decided to conduct two focus groups, as an efficient way to gather information in a short time period, and based on the fact that focus groups capitalise on the way in which individuals act within a group setting (group dynamics) (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis 2005:6). I conducted a focus group with the male participants, and a female research assistant conducted a focus group with the female participants.

All participants were informed of the logistics i.e. date, time and venue, and all were in agreement. Refreshments were provided during the focus group sessions in order to promote a positive atmosphere and to express my appreciation to the individuals for participating in the study.

At the start of the focus group sessions, participants were once again reminded of the research aims, and I highlighted the fact that confidentiality and anonymity were

to be upheld throughout the study. The focus group sessions lasted for 120 minutes each and each of the sessions were led by five main questions, namely:

- What are your views on the role of local/ indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...
- What are your views on what works well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...
- What are your views on what does not work well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...
- What can you recommend to improve the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...
- Are there any additional thoughts or comments?
(See Appendix G)

During the sessions, each participant described their experiences within the UAE context and whilst participants were able to express their viewpoints freely, I ensured that participants stayed focussed on the topic being discussed (Stringer 2007:74). Worthy of note, was the fact that participants were very outspoken during these sessions and appeared to be comfortable to share their thoughts in an open forum.

Lastly, I used member checking to verify the information that participants had presented throughout the data collection process. This allowed me an opportunity to verify whether my field notes were an accurate representation of their viewpoints (Stringer, 2007:72-73).

4.5.4 Observations and field notes

According to Dawson (2009:33), participant observation is the primary approach to an ethnographic research study, as it provides a description of human beings in a given context. The observations can take place within various communities, cultures and contexts. In addition, field notes form an important component of the observation process.

Throughout the research, various observations were made by me, and field notes were consistently recorded. The purpose of using field notes for this study served to capture the behaviours of expatriate and indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system (Emerson, 1995:1-40). I gathered field notes during the following stages of the empirical investigation:

- Observations during the pilot study;
- Observations during the interviews, focus groups and informal discussions;
- The interpretations of my own observations and those of the research assistant during the data collection and analysis process.

4.5.5 Reflective journal

I kept a reflective journal throughout the study, in order to record and reflect on personal assumptions that may have come about during the study (Russell & Kelly, 2002:2). The fact that I had been immersed within the UAE context for numerous years, made it necessary for constant reflection after interacting with the sample group to strive for objectivity.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

4.6.1 Segmenting

The qualitative data was analysed according to small segments of information. These segments were units that had meaning for the purposes of the study. The categorisation process was time consuming due to the huge volume of information that was gathered for the duration of the study.

4.6.2 Coding

I made use of codes to give meaning to each of the segments. The codes referred to educational terms, ethnic groups, activities, relationships, viewpoints of participants, significant events, reform initiatives, cultural and religious elements, mentoring sessions, leadership workshops and other ideas. Significant to this study, was my first-hand observation of frequent instances where expatriate school leaders worked alongside indigenous leaders, who in turn shared the relevant information with their staff (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:371).

4.6.3 Forming categories or themes

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:376) define themes or categories as individual entities that are grouped together in a code. I combined some codes under a single category, and these categories represented the main themes that became apparent during the study. For example, codes such as 'mentoring' and 'professional development' made up the category of leadership development.

4.6.4 Discovering patterns

Discovering various patterns in the data, suggests that there is a relationship between the different categories, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:378). In discovering patterns, I tried to make sense of the complexities of the educational context of the UAE, individual beliefs systems and the diverse mindsets of both expatriate and indigenous school leaders (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:378-379).

4.7 MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS

Shenton (2004:63) mentions that the term 'trustworthiness' is often used in reference to a qualitative study. The researcher is usually the main agent during the data collection process and the focus is mainly on the *quality* of the data collection methods employed by the researcher (Conrad & Serlin, 2006:409).

In this study, I used the strategies proposed by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:330) in order to ensure trustworthiness, and to avoid biases during the study, namely:

- A prolonged data collection period – I actively collected data over a long period of time (of several months of observations and two weeks of individual interviews followed by several days of focus groups) and this allowed me ample opportunity to refine ideas;
- The participants' language – I used English throughout the study, due to the fact that one of the requirements of educational reform programme is that school leaders should learn to communicate in English. The native language (Arabic) of indigenous participants did not seem to hinder the data gathering process.
- Field research - The data gathering process took place at the school (the natural setting of the research context). This setting gave me more insight into the daily interactions between expatriates and indigenous leaders.
- Disciplined subjectivity – I was aware of the subjective nature that this study presented, and continuously monitored myself to avoid any biases.
- Triangulation of methods - I used interviews, observation, focus groups and a reflective journal to gather data.
- Member checking – I checked my interpretations with indigenous people to ensure that my interpretations were valid.

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research design that was applied during the empirical investigation. Furthermore, a detailed description of the ethical measures, data collection and data processing methods and measures to ensure trustworthiness was presented.

In chapter five the findings, as well as a discussion and an interpretation of the findings are reported.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main research question posed by this thesis was: according to the views of expatriate and indigenous school leaders, what is the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system? Accordingly, the aim of the study was to explore the role of mentoring and leadership in educational reform. In addition, the aim was to investigate empirically the views and beliefs of expatriate and indigenous school leaders, regarding the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system (see section 1.2). The methods by which this was done, were explained in Chapter four.

In this chapter, the results of the empirical investigation are presented and discussed. The data is presented in two categories and further compared with existing literature reviews presented in chapter two and three respectively. I chose to follow the widespread practice that exists in qualitative research, where examples of the data are presented in the own words of the participants, in order to support and substantiate the findings of the research (Merriam, 2002:21). This chapter ends with a brief summary.

5.2 REALISATION OF THE SAMPLE

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:327) explain that the purpose of maximum variation sampling is obtaining a wide variety of viewpoints surrounding the research problem. Against this background, I included participants from both genders, dissimilar nationalities, diverse age groups, and different years of experience in the UAE and their countries of origin. Thus, I purposefully selected a combination of both indigenous and expatriate school leaders, who voluntarily participated in the study. (See sections 1.4.2 and 4.4.2.)

A total of ten individual semi structured interviews were conducted during the first phase of the study, followed by focus group sessions during the second phase of the study. The focus groups involved nine participants as one participant was absent due to illness. All participants consented to having their words transcribed verbatim (as illustrated in the findings).

5.3 THE VIEWS OF INDIGENOUS SCHOOL LEADERS OF THE UAE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND THE ROLE OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS

Figure 5.1 illustrates the views of indigenous school leaders. The figure presents various sub-categories that were obtained from the interview questions (see Appendix F).

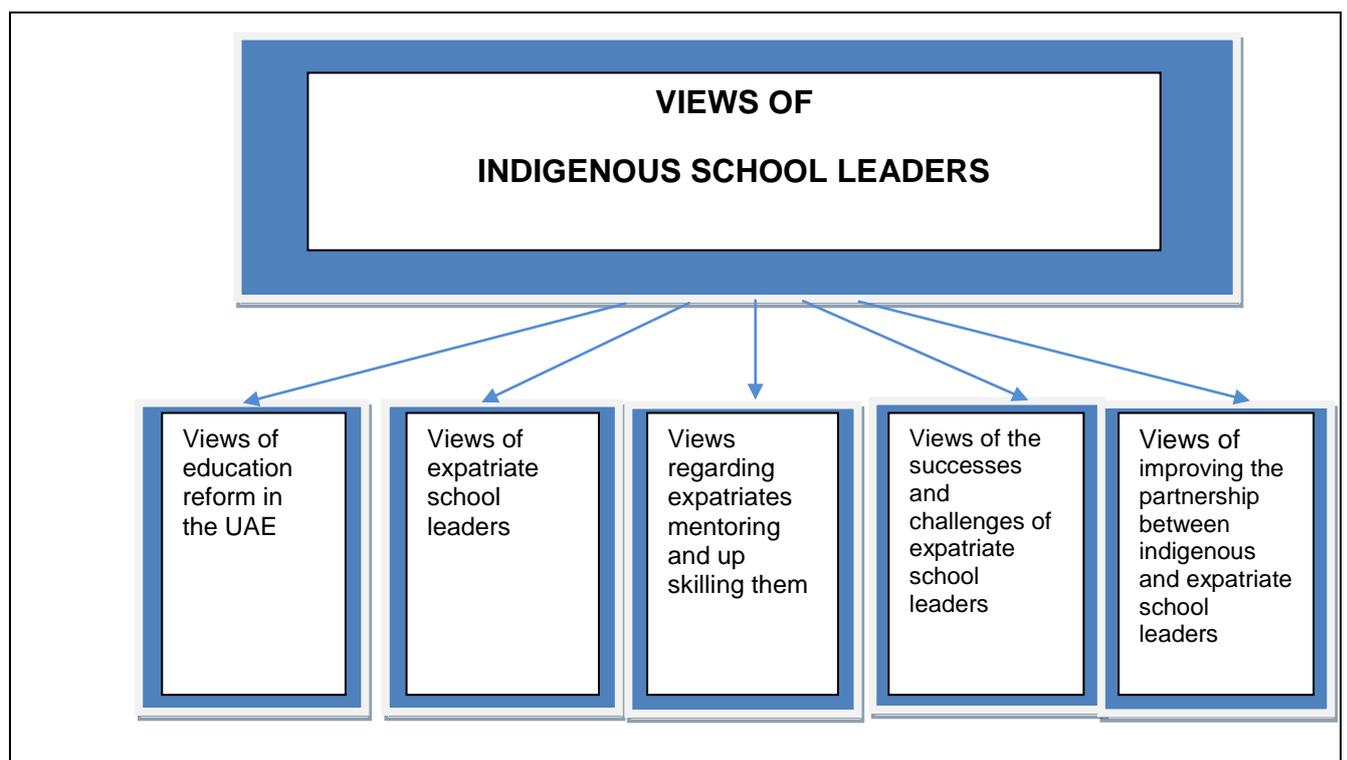


Figure 5.1: Views of indigenous school leaders

In the next sections, a detailed discussion of the sub-categories as they appear in Figure 5.1 is provided. I discuss each finding using quotations from the interview

discussions, in order to validate the findings and compare and contrast them with relevant literature.

5.3.1 Indigenous school leaders' views of education reform in the UAE

When I asked the indigenous school leaders about the UAE education reform, most of them were aware of the fact that a reform was underway in the UAE schooling system, and they were all in agreement that change was a necessary component to generate improvements within their respective schools. Most indigenous school leaders expressed their gratitude to the leaders of the country for making education a priority, and for giving them the opportunity to develop as professionals by means of mentoring by expatriate school leaders. One participant stated:

I think that the education reform here in the UAE is a great initiative. There is a huge need for developing staff and we all need to be developed towards becoming better school leaders. The reform here focuses predominately on the expatriates mentoring us Emiratis...and even though some might not agree with this process... I do believe that this process will eventually be beneficial for the future generations of the UAE...In my view, I think we as school leaders can make change happen...we are right at the top and we are overall responsible for failure or success of our schools...Inshallah (God willing), we will all become more effective... [Indigenous vice principal, individual interview, November 2013]

The above statement correlated with my declaration that there was a definite need for staff development and that a reform agenda could serve as a platform where school leaders developed professionally (Bock, 2011:31). Furthermore, in a previous study with school leaders from middle to senior management (Bock, 2011:30), I found that mentoring in particular was a significant tool for staff development and Emirati school leaders expressed the need for such professional mentoring.

In the light of the participants' views regarding change, Barber and Meyerson (2001:3) saw school principals as the key agents responsible for effective school improvement (see section 1.1). It was clear that school leaders recognised the

importance of the reform initiatives, the need for professional development and the fact that leaders were ultimately accountable for the way in which they influenced change.

However, the reform timeframe was heavily criticised by some of the indigenous school leaders. Most of the participants acknowledged the challenges that existed during a reform process and mentioned that the transition from one stage to another required time. For example:

With any reform project there are many changes and transitions taking place. These changes and transitions can sometimes be very challenging, so we need time to learn how to deal with the changes...then implement the changes in order to make our schools better...All of us support the reform initiatives but we need time...in order to ensure that it lasts for many years to come... [Indigenous school leaders' focus group, December 2013]

This confirmed the importance of developing a realistic timeframe in order to monitor whether the reform targets were indeed achievable. Worthy of note, was the fact that the reform in the UAE was initially launched over a five year period. However, this process was extended, indicating that policy makers realised the need for a longer timeframe (Thorne, 2011:172-183) (see section 1.1). One school principal mentioned the following:

The attempt to provide good structures for the education here in the Emirates is very welcoming....but I do think that the reform timeframe is way too short...We as school principals are trying to implement one change element and then within a space of a week a new change needs to be made...it is sometimes very confusing. It almost seems as if there is no good planning taking place. To improve any school takes a long time, and I believe there should be consistency across all schools in order to improve education across the Emirates. [Indigenous school principal, individual interview, November 2013]

Regarding the participant's reference to poor planning, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:3-7) emphasise the need for high quality strategic planning, as an essential element for education reform (see section 1.1). The above response supported my finding in an earlier study, that school leaders go through various transitions within their respective schools when undergoing a reform (Bock 2011:5). Regarding this issue, Watkins (2009:2) has identified the eight toughest transitions for school leaders, confirming that transformation remains a formidable challenge for them. This is increased by poor planning. Furthermore, Watkins stresses the importance of understanding the initial organisational goals, in order to effectively embrace transformation. In this regard, Reynolds (2006:1-12) indicates the need for a more consistent approach during any reform process; this was also highlighted by the participant quoted above. Accordingly, the participants involved in the focus group sessions recognised the importance of continuity in order to ensure a sustainable outcome. The idea correlated with the viewpoints surrounding sustainability, as discussed by Hargreaves and Fink (in Thorne, 2011:175-183) (see section 1.1).

During some of the interview sessions it also became evident that the indigenous school leaders were not well prepared for the reform. For example, the reform process was not explained to the school leaders from the onset. Participants highlighted the fact that they were not sure about the accurate definition of an education reform, nor were they clear on the expectations related to this reform. This confusion could impact negatively on the various inter-relationships (e.g. between expatriate and indigenous school leaders) and thus inhibit the impact of the expatriate school leaders. Fullan (2008b:1-17) also cautions that reform in education may jeopardise relationships. For effective reform, relationships of trust should be developed (see section 1.5.4). The following statement illustrated this point:

To be honest with you...I have no idea what the correct definition of education reform is. It would have benefited all of us in the education sector, if ADEC policy makers shared the definition right at the start of the reform process. This can cause confusion and mistrust...I do know that most of us figured... that it has to do with change in the current education system. I do think that it will take a long time though...it is maybe easier to make quick changes to a school, but it can take a life

time to change a culture...and I think that is what reform in the Arab world looks like...because you have expats coming from the Western world with ideas and the people of this country have to believe in these ideas...that can take years! [Indigenous Head of Faculty - individual interview, November 2013]

It was clear from the above discussion that the reform agenda and expectations were not explicitly shared with the indigenous school leaders. This gave rise to uncertainty, which could ultimately hinder the overall execution of the programme and the impact of expatriate school leaders. However, since indigenous school leaders revered the leaders of the country, they were willing to support the notion that reform was needed. This concurred with Thorne's (2011:173) view, that the UAE needed education reform as it was announced by Sheikh Al Nahayan in 2005 (see section 1.1).

5.3.2 Indigenous school leaders' views of expatriate school leaders

Expatriate school leaders were employed with the intention to train and mentor indigenous school leaders (Gardner, 1995:294) (see section 1.1). The indigenous participants were fully aware that the expatriates were recruited to support and develop them in their current leadership roles. The UAE leaders also realised their need for foreign expertise. However, indigenous participants held a variety of viewpoints regarding the role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE schooling system, that influenced the impact of expatriate school leaders. For example, one participant indicated that he sometimes found it difficult to learn from expatriates because they were not all effective. He stated:

Expatriates are hired to come and work with us ... share their knowledge and skills and ... Inshallah (God willing) we will learn something from each other ... In my view some of them, not all, are excellent ... and I am sure that they managed very successful schools in their home countries. We are here to learn some of these good practices, but sometimes I do not find it easy ... because their countries are very different from the UAE ... when it comes to the reform process and the vision of ADEC, I think expatriates have a very important but

very challenging role to support us in our professional development...if we fail...then they are not successful .. .in my view. [Indigenous cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

In stating: “*their countries are very different from the UAE*”, some indigenous leaders referred to cultural differences between expatriates and indigenous leaders. With reference to this, Hay (in Dixon and Bonfield, 2013:4-5) emphasises the need to understand and establish certain ground rules during the initiation phase of mentoring (see section 2.3.1).

The above quote also illustrates the indigenous leaders’ views that the responsibility for successful reform belonged to the expatriates. Regarding this view, Gardner (1995:291) stressed the fact that too much pressure was placed upon expatriates to successfully implement change (see section 1.1). Glickman (2002:17) also maintained, that the responsibility rested with educational leaders to sustain their own learning (see section 1.1). It could therefore be argued, that the responsibility should rather be based on a partnership model, where indigenous school leaders would need to maximise their own learning opportunities and where expatriate school leaders had a clear understanding of the mentees’ needs. This stance is in partial agreement with the views of Maynard and Furlong (2004:8-10) who stress the importance of the mentor (expatriate school leader) to understand the developmental needs of the mentee (indigenous school leader) (see section 2.2), to enhance the impact of mentoring.

One participant commented on the advantages of having expatriates in the UAE education system, but had reservations whether *all* the expatriate school leaders had the necessary experience and knowledge to provide training:

Expatriates are vital in guiding and supporting us in our current job role. We do have the ability to lead our schools but because we are competing with the rest of the world...we need all the skills and knowledge we can get...and our government pay for all of this ... to have the best! I am not always convinced that all expatriate school leaders are more experienced and knowledgeable than us... but, I do enjoy learning new things from time to time [Indigenous subject coordinator - individual interview, November 2013]

Ryan (2012:1-54) pointed out that expatriates were recruited from various countries, and all possessed a variety of skills and knowledge regarding school improvement (see section 1.1). However, the participant's comment, "I am not always convinced that all expatriate school leaders are more experienced and knowledgeable than us..." suggested that some mentees could have greater knowledge in certain fields and that the mentors needed to be aware of this (see Figure 2.1 and section 2.4.1.1).

However, the participants' realisation that expatriates were vital to the reform implementation process, concurred with Bradley (2010:33-34), who applies the theoretical notion of the ZPD to a partnership between the mentor (expatriate school leader) and the mentee (indigenous school leader); this serves as a key element for learning (see Figure 1.1 in section 1.3.3). In this regard, Dixon and Bonfield (2013:4) stress the importance, for both the mentor and the mentee, of having a clear understanding of what they hoped to gain from the mentoring and learning experience (see section 2.3.1).

The statement from the participant below reflected the perceptions of some indigenous school leaders regarding the level of support expected by them:

The expatriate school leaders have a very important role, because I am currently supervised by a western cluster manager. It is his job role to help and support me to successfully carry out my job. The cluster manager comes usually with a lot of information...and he is supposed to share the information with me, provide a clear plan of what we are going to do...and we need to set some goals... As far as his role in the school...he has got no relationship or rapport with the rest of the staff and students...he mainly works with me. [Indigenous school principal - individual interview, November 2013]

The mentoring models discussed in chapter two (see section 2.6), i.e. Egan's (2007) skilled helper model, the CUREE model of mentoring and the community of practice model, suggested the importance of the mentor formulating a plan of action, in order to guide and support the mentee. Egan (2007:68) emphasised the importance of developing the mentees' capabilities through an empowerment process (see section 2.6.1). It was evident that indigenous school leaders had an expectation that their mentors would provide them with a plan to support their development.

A pivotal point, mentioned by the above participant regarding expatriate rapport, highlighted the need for expatriate school leaders to interact with the wider school community, and in so doing, the indigenous school leaders could get the opportunity to see leadership in action. Leithwood et al. (2006:2-12) spoke of leaders being aware of all the stakeholders at their disposal (see section 3.2). This could enhance their impact.

Apart from the above, one of the participants indicated that expatriate school leaders should be more understanding and approachable during the mentoring process. It was clear from the discussion, that the participant felt anxious regarding the mentor's approach. The comment below illustrated this issue:

I am of the view that expatriate school leaders should be adaptable in their role as expert educational leaders and mentors. We all learn differently and a good relationship is very important in order to move forward and work together. I personally, cannot make decisions immediately... I need time think things through before I make a decision...but at times my mentor rushes me for answers and she gives me very tight deadlines. [Indigenous vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

The above response supported the stance taken by Kolb and Kolb (2009:4) who refer to a reflective observation stage, where individuals are given an opportunity to reflect and make sense of new information before decision making takes place (see section 2.4.1.2). Similarly, Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:5) mention that individuals learn differently and suggest that during reflective learning, participants should be given an opportunity to reflect (see Figure 2.2). This would enhance the impact of mentoring.

In the light of the participant's comment regarding the importance of a good relationship, Megginson et al. (2006:15) refer to a dynamic partnership that should exist during mentoring (see section 2.5). This idea was further emphasised by Ragins et al. (2000:1179-1184) who view the quality of the partnership as a crucial element in an influential mentoring relationship (see section 2.5).

5.3.3 Indigenous school leaders' views regarding expatriates' mentoring and up skilling them

When I asked the participants a question related to expatriate mentoring and how they were being up skilled, most of the comments appeared to be negative. The comments referred to a lack of support, a lack of proper modelling, cultural insensitivity and suspicion surrounding expatriates' motives for being in the UAE. All the afore-mentioned factors would inhibit the impact that expatriates could have in the UAE education system. The following responses serve as examples:

My expatriate mentor, which is my supervisor, does not assist me much. Most of the time we have meetings, and during these meetings he does not really mentor me. Instead he gives me a list of things to do, and he gives me the deadlines of when he wants the work to be completed. I have some knowledge on mentoring and coaching and I do not think he follows any mentoring process. A mentor should bring about change and help someone to achieve their own goals... I do not feel calm during his visits...I feel anxious and I feel very confused most of the time. Initially, I was very excited when I first heard that expatriate leaders will come to the UAE to mentor us Emiratis...but in all honesty, I do not see much benefit from this at all. [Indigenous vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

The above statement concurred with my own definition of mentoring, that an experienced individual should guide and support the inexperienced individual (see section 2.2). Furthermore, Connor and Pokora (2007:28) concur and stress the value of guiding and encouraging the mentee during the mentoring process (see section 2.2). The above mentioned participant made a significant point, and shared his initial excitement when working alongside an expatriate mentor. However, the novelty of working in partnership had worn off. In this regard, Connor and Pokora (2007:28) stress the importance of nurturing a mentee's enthusiasm during mentoring. In addition, Argyris (1998:98-105) maintains the likelihood that mentees will resist change if leaders force them to be compliant (see section 3.2).

Other participants complained about a lack of expatriate modelling necessary for personal professional development. For example:

Mmm ... sometimes they do support, and other times they don't! In my role as a vice principal, I do need some professional development and guidance to ensure that I become a better leader. The expatriate that is working with me hardly models any leadership skills. She keeps on referring to what a great principal she was in her home country...but she does not model or train me on the job. She [merely] sent me a lot of emails. [Focus group, December 2013]

Regarding the above mentioned lack of collaboration and modelling, Leithwood and Riehl (2003:4) maintain that effective leaders should have the ability to influence and develop their staff, by creating opportunities for cooperation and collaboration (see section 3.3). It seemed that this was not happening.

One participant alluded to an issue surrounding cultural insensitivity. It was evident that expatriate school leaders were expected to partake in cultural customs to enhance the mentoring relationship and improve its impact. For example:

Culture and religion is very important to us...and it is important for the expatriate leaders to learn or get training about our culture and religion before they start their jobs. I think this stands in the way of the mentoring process between expatriate and Emirati school leaders. I will give you an example. My (expatriate) principal refuses to partake when we as a department share some dates, coffee, food etc. She says that 'we are not being productive by drinking tea the entire day'. This is a huge insult for us in the Arab culture. We are fellow colleagues and it is our custom to invite everyone we respect to partake and share with us. In my view good leaders can implement many changes if they have good relationships and trust with the teachers. [Indigenous Head of Faculty - individual interview, November 2013]

Regarding cultural sensitivity, Daloz (1999:210) stresses the importance of embracing a culture and context, in order to lead successfully (see section 2.7). The statement above also suggested the need for trust. In this regard Ciullia (1998:61-

63) emphasises the importance of an ethical relationship between individuals (see section 3.2).

The interview responses also indicated that the indigenous mentees were suspicious of the expatriates' motives for being in their country. Most participants believed that expatriate school leaders were in the UAE only for financial gain. The following three examples illustrate this view:

The expatriates are here to make money and when they have made enough money they leave the UAE. Most of them are retired principals and vice principals in their home countries, so this is just a job that provide extra money in their pockets. [Indigenous subject coordinator - individual interview, November, 2013]

It is sad for us as Emiratis when the expatriate school leaders mention that they are here on a 'working holiday'. Most of them come for a short amount of time to work here in the UAE. I do not think the leaders of the country and ADEC thought of this problem. Some expatriate leaders are here for one year only to make some money, and then go back to their home countries. I think they have to make it mandatory for them to stay for at least five years. [Indigenous vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

The idea of making use of expatriates to up skill Emirati school leaders is a fantastic idea. However, do the expatriates value and consider this opportunity valuable? Maybe some of them do? They are on very good packages and maybe that is their motivation to come out here instead of making a positive contribution to the education reform. This is the most expensive reform in the world. I think they should feel very proud to get such an opportunity.[Focus group, December 2013]

It was evident from the responses that indigenous school leaders felt disillusioned with expatriates. The above statements highlighted the underlying question surrounding the motivation for accepting the position in the UAE. In some cases, the indigenous leaders questioned whether expatriates were genuinely interested in reforming the education system or if they were solely interested in the money. In this

regard, Ryan (2012:3) found that an investment in expatriates, who did not share the same reform goals as those that instigated the reform, could be a costly and disruptive venture in the long term (see section 1.1).

Furthermore, there was an expectation that expatriate school leaders should work for a longer period than a year, to embed the necessary knowledge and expertise pertaining to the job role. Accordingly, Hargreaves and Fink (2003:3) stress the value of sufficient time for sustainable learning (see section 3.5.1.1).

In contrast to the above negative views, one indigenous mentee provided a positive view of the mentoring relationship he was involved in. Whatever the mentor's reasons were for being in the country as mentor, he was dedicated to the job. This improved the impact he had. The mentee stated:

I am benefitting from this mentoring process. My expatriate mentor allows me to take risks and gives me full authority to lead and manage the school in the best way I see fit. When I require some assistance and guidance, he steps in and provides me with some solutions and ideas and allows me to make the final decision. This allows me to take my time deciding what is best for our students. I appreciate the fact that he is respectful and he is also very aware of our culture. [Indigenous school principal - individual interview, November 2013]

The above statement is in line with Kolb's (1994:2) view of learning as a central component for both the mentor and the mentee during the mentoring cycle. The author stressed the importance of mentors to allow mentees time to reflect during the learning phase, followed by an analysis phase, thereby enabling the mentee to make informed decisions (see section 2.4). The participant's statement indicated that the expatriate mentor had shared information and had provided time for the mentee to reflect. This empowered the mentee. Moreover, the expatriate's awareness of the cultural context was in accordance with Thorne's view (in Bradley, 2010:33) of the important role of social and cultural relationships in organisations (see section 2.4).

Bush and Glover (2004:19), Day (in CfLS, 2005:11) and Day (2001:582) identify leadership development as an essential element for capacity building (see section

3.6). The participants' views highlighted the importance of mentors and mentees working in *partnership* to improve education.

5.3.4 Indigenous school leaders' views of the successes and challenges of expatriate school leaders

5.3.4.1 The successes of working with expatriate school leaders

When participants were questioned about what *worked well* regarding the role of expatriates in the UAE education sector, some indigenous school leaders referred to the sharing of ideas within networks of professionals (communities of practice), and the fact that the final authority for implementation was with themselves and not the expatriates. The following examples serve as illustrations:

It is good to have a person here from another country to plan and share ideas with. Inshallah (God willing), this will have a long term benefit and we can continue some of the good practices when the reform process is finished. The other factor is, we are working together in networks. We meet together as school principals at least once a month. My expatriate supervisor encourages these opportunities for us to get together and share ideas and experiences. [Indigenous school principal - individual interview, November, 2013]

The above comment highlighted the significance of the participants' opportunity to work together in communities of practice. The benefits of working in communities of practice were explained by Eckert (2006:1-3). The author defined a community of practice as a group engaging in a common activity or job role. In this instance, the education reform served as the enterprise that allowed individuals to network on a continual basis.

Regarding having the final say with regard to implementation, an indigenous leader stated:

I think the idea of a shared partnership and authority between expatriate and Emirati school leaders are good. It is important for the

expatriate to share ideas and knowledge and then allow the Emirati to make decisions that is best and appropriate in this culture and context. Our culture is very different from the western world...so I think it is good that we have the authority to make the final decisions in our schools.

[Indigenous Head of Faculty - individual interview, November, 2013]

This statement indicated that the participant was pleased with the way the shared partnership approach functioned. Hallinger (2003:339), Gunter (2001:97) and Leithwood and Jantzi (1999:456) all supported the notion of a partnership between the mentor and mentee (transformational leadership), resulting in the achievement of the organisational goals (see section 3.4.3).

5.3.4.2 *The challenges of working with expatriate school leaders*

In answering the question regarding the challenges related to the expatriate role in the UAE education system, most indigenous school leaders shared similar views pertaining to cultural barriers, lack of active mentor involvement in his/her role, the barrier associated with different educational philosophies held by different expatriate mentors, and the short length of expatriate mentors' stay in the country. All of these factors inhibited the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system.

Regarding cultural issues, one participant remarked:

I think culture is a huge factor. The expatriates are not always familiar with the culture of the country and that can be a barrier between us. For example, I have a male supervisor/mentor. He comes into my office unannounced sometimes, without giving me an opportunity to put on my hijab [to cover]. It makes me very uncomfortable! So after such mishaps it takes about 20 to 30 minutes for me to focus on the meeting. The cluster manager should be sensitive to the culture here or receive some training. Yes, he is my supervisor, but he should respect me, especially since I am a woman. [Indigenous vice principal - individual interview, November, 2013]

The findings suggested that the issue surrounding culture was a sensitive one. Culture could prove a huge barrier if individuals were insensitive or lacked the necessary understanding of cultural protocols. Thus, familiarity with context (i.e. the customary practice of women covering their hair when a male entered the room) was important to avoid possible barriers that might occur (Bock 2011:30). Rosinski (in Bock, 2011:27) assert that minimising cultural barriers will most likely improve communication and working relationships.

Another participant mentioned the following with reference to lack of active mentor involvement:

What I find challenging is that the expatriates are not actively involved in my development as a head of faculty. Information filters down to me via the vice principal who receives instructions from the cluster manager. This creates a lot of confusion, miscommunication, and lack of understanding. I would like for the cluster manager to invite me to some of the meetings and communicate the tasks clearly. Some hands on modelling would also be good from time to time. [Indigenous Head of Faculty - individual interview, November, 2013]

Fox (in Schulze, 2009:4-5) identifies active participation as one of the six notions that defines the constructivist view of learning. It was evident from the above comment, that greater social interaction between the stakeholders was called for, in order to obtain clarity of role expectations. Vygotsky (1978) regards social interaction as a crucial component of lifelong learning (see section 2.4).

What follows is an example of comments related to different practices of different mentors, as revealed during the focus group sessions:

With so many expatriates in mentoring roles, there is some inconsistency with regards to the methods they follow. I think this is due to them coming from different countries. I am now working with the second mentor in a space three years. My first mentor was from the UK and my current mentor is from New Zealand. So, my first mentor shared a lot of practices from the UK and now I receive a lot of

knowledge and ideas based on education practices from New Zealand.

[Focus group - December 2013]

During the focus groups, it was apparent that the indigenous school leaders were insecure regarding the diverse educational methods, terminology and practices used by individual mentors. When I probed the participants regarding the origin of the expatriate mentors, participants mentioned that they hailed from at least five different countries. Ryan (2012:2) also found that expatriates came from various parts of the world and all entertained different perspectives regarding best educational practice (see section 2.4).

In recognising the need for consistency within schools in order to ensure a more sustainable improvement process, the following observations were noted regarding the short periods of time that expatriates tended to stay in the country:

I would be great if the expatriate leaders could stay for a longer time. Most of the expatriates leave after a short time. It is hard on us to constantly work with a new mentor. We, as leaders, do not recommend too many changes for our students in order to settle them down. So I do believe the same principles should apply to us as adults! As school leaders, valuable time is wasted because when we receive a new mentor, we start from the beginning. [Observation, informal interview 25 March 2012]

Evidently some indigenous school leaders were frustrated with the continuous replacement of mentors within their respective schools; consequently, they had to adapt their management styles to suit new mentors. Accordingly, Hargreaves and Fink (2003:3) spoke of the importance of a long-lasting partnership (see section 3.5).

5.3.5 Indigenous school leaders' views of how to improve the partnership between indigenous and expatriate school leaders

Indigenous school leaders made various recommendations regarding ways to improve the role and therefore the impact of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system. Most participants were eager to express their views on ways to improve the relationships between expatriate and indigenous school leaders. Most participants

recommended that indigenous school leaders should plan their mentoring better, methods and practices should be consistent and relevant and communication about the local culture should be improved. The following quotes are illustrative:

I support the vision that expatriate school leaders need to coach and mentor us, but it is important for the expatriate to have a clear plan from the beginning, when they start working with us. [Indigenous subject coordinator - individual interview, November 2013]

With regard to practices, the following comment serves as example:

I would recommend that expatriates follow one specific way or method when they work with us. They are all coming from different countries, so we receive ideas from different countries all the time. Which one is the best? Which one is suitable for the UAE and acceptable in our culture? [Indigenous school principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Although Fullan (2008a:4) mentions the need for cultural change instead of simply implementing new policies (see section 2.4), the indigenous school leaders felt that their cultural context and the needs of the students had to be respected to have an impact and to make a significant improvement to the UAE education.

Regarding improved communication about culture, the following comments were made, among others:

Expatriates are very serious when they work with us. They do not even engage in some cultural conversations. It's always just business! Most of the issues and areas we find most challenging in schools have to do with cultural issues ... the way parents think ... new systems that are unfamiliar to everyone. We need to have some discussions around these issues. This will allow us to share ideas with each other. I think they should be reminded that they work in another country with a different culture to their own. [Focus group - December 2013]

Expatriates should make more effort to understand the UAE culture. When we discuss ideas, expatriates make suggestions based on school improvement overseas. They do not think how the ideas would work here in the UAE ... they leave it up to us to figure out. [Focus group - December 2013]

In addition to the above recommendations, some participants voiced the opinion that they were partial to expatriates engaging more on a social level, and showing a greater interest in their cultural customs. The participants were of the viewpoint that more learning would occur during social interactions between them and their expatriate mentors. The notion that learning is underpinned by social interaction was pointed out by Lave and Wenger (1991:29) (see section 1.3.2). Moreover, Lave and Wenger (1991:26-27) emphasised the importance of interpersonal relationships during the learning process, thereby resulting in a shared identity (see section 1.3.2). Rovegno (in Patton et al., 2005:305) spoke of the situated perspective, where the environment, culture and the individuals were interlinked and could not be separated. This contrasted with expatriates' lack of engagement in cultural conversations and preference for a task orientation.

5.4 THE VIEWS OF EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS OF THE UAE EDUCATION SYSTEM AND OF THEIR ROLE

When the views of expatriate school leaders of the UAE education system and of their roles were analysed, different sub-categories were identified. Figure 5.2 illustrates the various sub-categories that were obtained from the interview questions (see Appendix E).

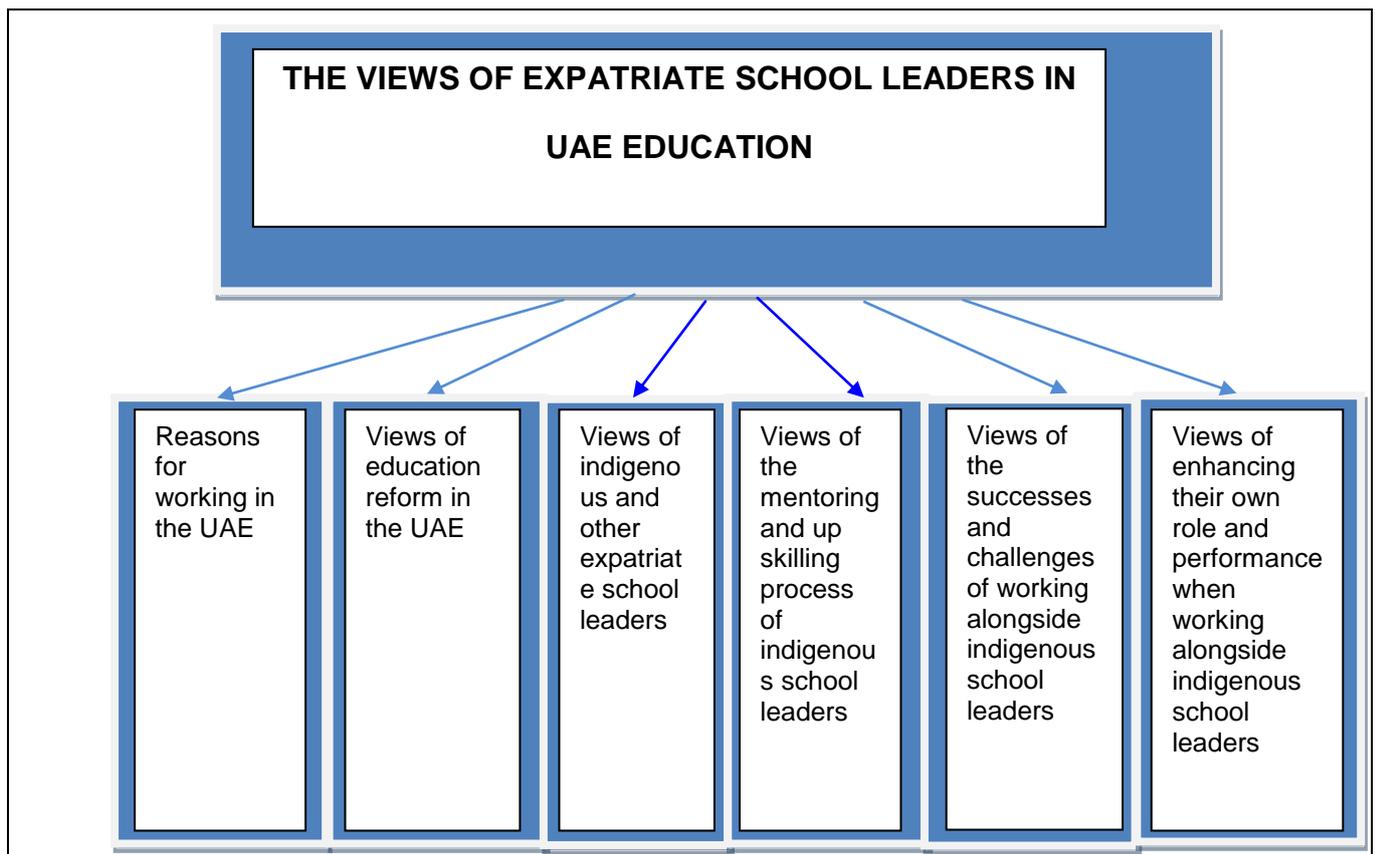


Figure 5.2: Views of expatriate school leaders

In the next sections, a detailed discussion of the sub-categories as they appear in Figure 5.2 is provided. I discuss each finding using quotations from the interview discussions, in order to validate the findings and compare and contrast them with relevant literature.

5.4.1 Expatriate school leaders' reasons for working in the UAE

When expatriate participants were asked to explain their reasons for working in the UAE education sector, they mainly referred to financial reasons (due to retirement or unemployment), the adventure of new experiences, and to a lesser extent, the desire to make a contribution to the UAE education system. For example:

I am purely here for financial reasons. I am retired back in my home country, so my wife and I decided to come out here for an adventure. I must say, we both love being in the UAE. It is truly a wonderful experience. My wife is a retired physiologist, but she was offered a part

time job as a teacher. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

The above comment confirmed that some expatriate school leaders had retired and had accepted the opportunity to work in the UAE in order to earn additional income. This viewpoint is in accordance with Carson (2013:48) who found that expatriate educators accepted job opportunities in the UAE, because they were motivated by tax free salaries and high standards of living. Furthermore, in certain cases spouses were able to enter the teaching profession without any formal qualification because they were native English speakers. In the case of the participant quoted above, his spouse was working as a part-time English second language teacher.

Other examples are:

I am here for the adventure! I have worked for over 20 years in education and it was my initial understanding that the UAE needs foreign educationalists to support their education reform. Many of our friends have come to the UAE and they are very happy here. I know that the UAE rely on foreigners to improve their education and I am happy to be here to make a contribution. [Expatriate subject coordinator - individual interview, November 2013]

I was interested to come out here and explore the Arab world. This has been a dream of mine for a long time. Most recruitment agents also encourage work in the UAE and one of the positives is the fact that they are offering very attractive salary packages. So, I am here for the experience and the money. [Expatriate vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Gardner (1995:290-299) states that expatriates are hired to raise the bar in education (see section 1.1). Ryan (2012:1-54) agrees that expatriates are hired from all over the world to make a contribution to the education practice in the UAE. According to Carson (2013:48), many expatriates mainly took up working contracts for the adventure and the challenge.

Another participant had been retrenched in his home country and this was the motivation behind accepting the position in the UAE:

Things in the USA have changed over the last couple of years and many teachers are being retrenched to cut costs. I lost my job four years ago. That is the reason I decided to come out here to the UAE. I was a school principal back home, and as harsh as it may sound...if my country does not value my expertise, I am sure that the UAE can benefit from my skills and experience. They are currently very focused on improving education and I am very happy to be here. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

The above statement is in accordance with Carson (2013:48) who found in a recent study that expatriates were using education as a 'fall back' career in the UAE, due to unemployment in their home countries. If this is the case, their overall effectiveness and impact in the UAE could be questioned.

5.4.2 Expatriate school leaders' views of education reform in the UAE

When participants were asked what their views were regarding the education reform in the UAE, a variety of viewpoints were disclosed. Although the participants were positive about the reform process *per se*, they identified difficulties related to language barriers, a system that was in continuous flux as well as a lack of collaboration between expatriates and local policy makers. The issue of whether the reform would be sustainable was also questioned. For example:

The reform is a great initiative but we believe that there are many loop holes for us as expatriates who are partly accountable for making the change happen. The most common problem is the language barrier. When we visit schools we try to ask another teacher with basic English to translate for the principal. Much of the communication is lost in translation and we are not always sure how much of the information was understood. This issue can hinder the reform process. [Focus group - December 2013]

According to Dixon and Bonfield (2013:5), the mentoring relationship should be completely comfortable to ensure the effective execution of tasks (see section 2.3.2). However, it was clear that language served as a barrier between the indigenous and

expatriate school leaders. This barrier was highlighted in section 2.3.2 and correlates with the view of Ibrahim, Al-Kaabi and El-Zaatari (2013:1), who maintained that communication in English, could present a challenge in the UAE reform and change process. This would inhibit the impact that expatriates made in the UAE.

Another comment highlighted the fluidity of the UAE education system:

I find the reform process here in the UAE very challenging due to the constant changes. It almost seems as if they do not have a fixed plan. Things change all the time and there is just no consistency. Decisions and changes are made haphazardly as we go along. The other factor is that the UAE wants to compete with the rest of the world therefore they try to adopt many successful models from other countries. It is frustrating, because one month we follow a specific approach and the next month it changes to something else. [Expatriate Head of faculty - individual interview, November 2013]

Inconsistency and continual changes in the education system were deemed to be problematic for expatriate school leaders. Ibrahim et al. (2013:9) conducted a study in which they found that educationalists working in UAE schools were frustrated with the number of changes pertaining to the implementation of the reform.

One participant expressed the following viewpoint regarding a lack of collaboration between expatriates and local policy makers:

There is a huge task on us as expatriate school leaders to mentor Emirati school leaders as part of the UAE education reform. It is interesting but it would be beneficial if policy makers were to ask us for some feedback from time to time. We are down in the field, trying to up skill school leaders, but we have no input in the way forward it should be a partnership if we are aiming for success! [Expatriate vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Expatriate school leaders were at the forefront of the reform, in that they had been tasked with the responsibility to influence change in the UAE schools (Carson, 2013:7). Significantly, although expatriate school leaders were trusted to lead change, there were very few opportunities to contribute towards major decision

making. This confirmed Ibrahim et al's. (2013:7) view that expatriate educationalists were excluded from decision making regarding the education reform. Moreover, Hargreaves and Shirley (2011:1-6) argue that leadership is at the centre of an effective reform and that engagement with all stakeholders is vital for change to occur (see section 3.7).

Another participant referred to the importance of sustainability during a reform. He stated:

The UAE education reform initiative is a brilliant venture. The empowerment of school leaders with the overall goal to lead and manage effective schools is good but the interesting part would be for the reform to sustain itself in the future...whether our efforts and contributions have made a difference? [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

The notion surrounding sustainability was significant because the participant recognised the value of empowering indigenous school leaders. The questions was, what would happen when the expatriates eventually exited the UAE education system, and if indigenous school leaders would be able to effectively manage their schools. In this regard, Hargreaves and Fink (in Thorne, 2011:173) emphasise leadership succession and that new leaders should strive towards complete independence (see section 1.1).

5.4.3 Expatriate school leaders' views of indigenous and other expatriate school leaders

5.4.3.1 Expatriate school leaders' views of indigenous school leaders

When expatriate school leaders were asked about their views of indigenous school leaders, their comments were mainly negative. The remarks focussed on local resistance to change, on how difficult it was for indigenous school leaders to balance the goals of expatriates with their own, to assume responsibility and to become independent. They also referred to poor attitudes of local leaders.

For example:

We as expatriates have a challenge ahead of us, especially working with some of the Emirati school leaders that are in denial about the change process. It is not always easy to work with someone that resists change. I am not always sure if some of my school principals resist the change or do they resist the working relationship between us? It is certainly very important for all of us to work in partnership...in order to achieve the goals of the UAE education reform. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

It was evident that expatriate school leaders were faced with challenges in establishing a partnership with indigenous school leaders, that would impact on the education system. Resistance to change on the part of indigenous school leaders was highlighted as a major challenge for expatriate school leaders. Watkins (2009:43) identified the realignment challenge stage as part of leadership transitions, where leaders are in denial about the need for change. This denial may lead to a crisis in any organisation. Moreover, Clutterbuck (2004:120) stresses the need for both the mentor and the mentee to agree on clear goals in order to effect change (see section 2.5).

With regard to balancing the goals of expatriate and indigenous leaders, the following comment serves as example:

Indigenous school leaders have a very challenging task because they have to go through a mentoring process that mandates them to work in partnership with expatriate school leaders as part of the reform programme. They then have to make use of the knowledge and guidance they received and use it to develop themselves as school leaders. Most of the indigenous school leaders have their own goals and plans, and that makes it even more difficult for them to consider all learning and support but not to lose sight of their own development. [Expatriate vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Regarding the above, Rolfe (2006:4) mentions that mentees need to follow their own developmental plans with the assistance of experienced mentors (see section 1.5.1). The notion is supported by Connor and Pokora (2007:40) who stress that mentees should discover their own potential during the mentoring process (see section 1.5.1).

Other comments referred to the need for mentees to assume responsibility for their roles and become independent. Two examples are:

I believe that indigenous school leaders are starting to understand the concept that they are accountable for their schools and that they have to make good decisions in order to move their schools forward. I think they still have a long way to go in their development as school leaders but I am confident that mentoring and professional development can be beneficial for their development. [Focus group, December 2013]

I find the Emirati principals' role very static at this moment, especially the ones I am working with currently. I work with six. All of them have been relying on me to for guidance and support for the past two years. There is just no initiative or risk taking! I do think that they have learned quite a bit over the two year period and I would like to see them become more independent and move forward without me holding their hands all the time. Do I think they have the potential and capabilities to step up to the occasion? Yes! [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

Expatriate school leaders were of the view, that a combination of mentoring and own professional development was imperative in the development of indigenous school leaders. Participants acknowledged that the mentoring process might take a long time. However, most participants were positive regarding the development of indigenous school leaders. The significance of mentoring for professional development is in accordance with CUREE (2004:2) that highlights how mentoring can enhance the capacity of leaders (see section 2.2).

Further, some indigenous school leaders were too reliant on expatriate expertise. The initial aim was for expatriate school leaders to guide and support overall leadership development, and in doing so, indigenous school leaders were expected

to take ownership of their learning. CUREE (1997:2) advocates for leaders to become independent, as a result of the mentoring process (see section 2.6.4). Additionally, Clutterbuck (2004:113-145) asserts that leaders should take more responsibility for their own professional development (see section 2.6.4).

In accordance with the above, a participant expressed the following view regarding the poor attitudes of local leaders with regard to reform:

Some indigenous school leaders have not fully developed true qualities of a leader. Most of them are lazy and they do not have a clear plan of how they will transform their schools as part of the ADEC vision. I find it very frustrating when I ask for the school improvement plan from the indigenous school leader. Then they always have to call another teacher to come and explain it to me. That is an indication that the plan has not been produced by them and that they have no idea of how they want to improve their schools. The school principal should explain the vision and plan to the staff and not the other way around. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

This comment makes it clear that some indigenous school leaders were not fully utilising the support at their disposal, thereby inhibiting the possible impact mentoring could have. Some school leaders did not have their own vision for school improvement, hence the reliance on other staff members. Bhugra et al., (2013:4) and Ricketts (2009:2) who researched qualities and traits of good leaders, assert that school leaders should be responsible for informing and leading change. Tracy (2012:5) also points out, that a clear vision is the most important quality for successful leadership (see section 3.3).

5.4.3.2 Expatriate school leaders' views of expatriate school leaders

When expatriate school leaders were asked about their views regarding expatriate school leaders in general, the viewpoints focussed on their roles and responsibilities, for example, with regard to goal setting, leadership style, and the modelling of best practices.

With reference to school leader targets and overall goal attainment, the following observation was noted:

Our role is to support the indigenous school leaders to become effective school leaders. This includes setting goals and targets for themselves. My job as a mentor is to guide them to achieve their goals with the overall objective to transform their schools. A big task, but I am very pleased to be part of this transformation process. [Observation, informal interview 19 January 2013]

The above comment reveals elements of evolutionary mentoring as discussed by Brockbank and McGill (2006:75-77), where the authors referred to the mentees generating their own goals with the support of the mentors. The eventual aim is for the learning outcomes to have transformational possibilities (see section 2.6.2).

One participant elaborated on the concept of innovation and the need to encourage indigenous school leaders to follow a distributed leadership approach. He stated:

My aim as an expatriate mentor is to support my school leaders to become innovative individuals that can transform their schools. Most indigenous school leaders that I work with currently need some assistance with distributed leadership approaches. They are conservative in their way of thinking. So part of my role is to support them in making the shift. [Expatriate vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

It was evident from the above comment that indigenous school leaders were in need of support regarding task delegation. The conservative management style of the indigenous school leaders, was indicative of the need for a more modern approach to leading. Leithwood and Jantzi (in Hallinger, 2003:330) emphasise that transformational leadership focuses on innovation, where the leader seeks to support change, in order to develop teaching and learning practice (see section 3.4.1). In addition, the authors assert that transformational leadership should be distributed and supported by all stakeholders committed to change.

All participants in the one focus group were in agreement regarding the important role that expatriate school leaders assumed. For example:

Our role is to model best practice. We have been hired to develop the indigenous school leaders. There is a huge element of accountability for us expatriates. [Focus group, December 2013]

With reference to the above, it was clear that expatriate school leaders were fully aware that they were partly accountable for the growth and development of indigenous school leaders. These leaders also recognised the significance of modelling best practice, with the hope that indigenous school leaders would gain sufficient knowledge and skills to continue with good practices. Raelin (2004:31) argues that leadership training should be done at the actual workplace according to a 'hands on' approach (see section 3.6), thus referring to opportunities whereby expatriates could model key strategies on the school premises.

5.4.4 Expatriate school leaders' views of the mentoring and up skilling process of indigenous school leaders

When the participants were asked about the effectiveness of mentoring, it was evident that most participants were in favour of the mentoring process. They highlighted its significance in supporting the growth and development of the indigenous school leaders. The following responses illustrated this point:

The UAE's idea of using a mentoring approach to work with the Emirati school leaders is very straightforward and feasible.

Most of the Emirati school leaders welcome this form of support.

The mentoring approach allows us to form a partnership with indigenous school leaders, and this supports us in our role to share and transfer some knowledge and skills. [Expatriate school leaders, individual interviews - November 2013]

The above comments signify that all expatriate school leaders had a high regard for mentoring as a tool for the development of indigenous school leaders. This approach was welcomed because it validated the partnership between the mentor (expatriate school leader) and mentee (indigenous school leader). Miller (2013:4) endorses the value of high quality mentoring, in order to improve the performance of individuals.

Furthermore, the author asserts that mentoring is an essential component for educational change (see section 2.7).

However, the following response emphasised the need for the mentoring to be suitable and in accordance with the needs of the mentee:

The challenge for us expatriate mentors is to tailor the guidance and support we offer to our school leaders based on their needs. It is pointless to spend hours working with them on something that is of no benefit. I do find that most of my principals are very visual. Therefore, many of my demonstrations are visually presented to them. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

In the above statement, the participant highlighted a fundamental thought regarding the tailoring of support offered to indigenous school leaders. It was obvious that individuals learned in different ways, presenting the opportunity for expatriate school leaders to support indigenous school leaders according to their preferred learning style. Honey and Mumford (in McKimm et al., 2007:5) confirm that it is the responsibility of the mentor to understand and support the preferred learning style of the mentee (see Figure 2.2). Similarly, Lewis (1996:107) asserts that the mentor should respect the mentee's preferred learning style, in order to strengthen the mentoring relationship (see section 2.4.1).

When participants were questioned about their views regarding expatriates upskilling indigenous school leaders, the following statement indicated that this was a challenging task:

I think the task for expatriates to up skill Emirati school leaders can be daunting, because we have to consider a range of elements to ensure that we are successful within our jobs. For example, we have to develop good relationships, we have to establish what their needs are, and then we have to work on some strategies to support them become better leaders. This process never ends because the reform agenda brings along continuous changes. [Expatriate Head of faculty - individual interview, November 2013]

In light of the above, it became apparent that expatriate school leaders played a significant role in the development of indigenous school leaders. The participant mentioned the complex nature of the role and highlighted various factors to be considered during the up skilling process. Kolb and Kolb (2009:4) also refer to the learning cycle, that includes various developmental stages where individuals are continuously challenged to enhance their learning (see section 2.4.1).

One of the challenges that expatriate leaders experienced in their mentoring, related to different expatriate ideologies surrounding best practice. For example:

The up skilling process can be challenging because there are thousands of expatriates working in schools across the Emirate. All of us come from different countries and education systems. I am from South Africa, for example, and my cluster manager is from the USA. This causes some differences of opinion when we have discussions regarding best practice and models to follow in our schools. All expatriate mentors believe that their country's education system is superior. The downfall is that the ADEC [Abu Dhabi Education Council] did not clearly specify that we follow a specific countries model. So, I find myself in a situation where I have to justify and explain myself for hours to validate my approach before I can continue the mentoring process with my Emirati principal and this wastes valuable time. [Focus group, December 2013]

Ryan (2012:2) and Carson (2013:7) mention that expatriates are hired to shape the future generations of the UAE, but there were significant differences among expatriates as to how this should be done. Similar views were expressed during the indigenous school leader focus group session (see section 5.3.4). Both indigenous and expatriate school leaders were challenged by the diverse educational ideologies that expatriates brought to the education sector.

In contrast, one participant presented a very positive view of how satisfactory mentoring could be. He stated:

It is very rewarding to up skill my Emirati school leaders, and to see them develop and grow. It is not always easy, but the reform process

allows us to mentor these leaders to become strong individuals first, and then we mentor them to make use of their staff members to take control of smaller tasks. For example, one of my principals is currently working on professional learning communities. He has seven committees running actively in the school and he is the overall chairperson. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

The above comment was in accordance with Day (2001:582) who distinguishes between 'being a leader' and 'how leaders develop' as a definition for leadership development. School leaders should develop first, in order to lead their schools effectively, and in so doing, they would be able to build the capacity of their staff (see section 3.6). Hale and Moorman (2003:7) also mention that effective leadership is vital during an education reform (see section 3.7).

5.4.5 Expatriate school leaders' views of some of the successes and challenges of working alongside indigenous school leaders

5.4.5.1 Expatriate school leaders' views of the successes of working with indigenous school leaders

Various views pertaining to the expatriate role and the successes during partnering were shared during the interview sessions. The comments of the expatriate school leaders illustrated that successes were attributed to their professional experience. The professional development of the local leaders and mentoring were regarded as factors that facilitated success and impact.

Regarding experience, one expatriate leader explained:

I have over 15 years' experience in education and I am a retired school principal back in my home country. I do rely on my past experiences to support me in my role when I mentor the indigenous school leaders here in the UAE. I can relate to some of their challenges and most of the time I can share advice from similar challenges I experienced. I do also encourage networks where indigenous leaders come together and

share some challenges and solutions. That is how we learn from one another. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

Clearly the expatriate school leader relied on their past experience to develop and support the indigenous school leaders. The CfLS (2005:7) also highlights the experiential component as key to leadership development. The leadership development framework in Figure 3.3 advocated for a collective approach, giving leaders an opportunity to share ideas and experiences. Similarly, Rogers et al. (in CfLS, 2005:49-54) advocate a community of practice, where individuals collaborate and, in so doing, enhance their own development (see section 3.6). Expatriate school leader solidly, supported the notion of a community of practice by encouraging indigenous school leaders to form empowering networks.

In reference to the emphasis on local professional development, the comment below was illustrative:

I am very impressed that professional development is a high priority for the educational leaders of the UAE. I think it is very beneficial for the indigenous school leaders to attend professional development workshops on a monthly basis. It supports me in my role because I use the training topic of the month as a mentoring focus. Thus, we can review the learning that took place, and establish how this can be beneficial to the school. [Expatriate Vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Storey (2004:26) asserts that training and development should be a high priority during school leader development. This notion is currently taken seriously in UAE schools, where professional development is a key strategy implemented during the current reform (see section 3.6). Similarly, Carson (2013:50) confirms that professional development is imperative for the continued growth of educationalists in the UAE. Importantly, expatriate school leaders recognised the value of professional development as a vehicle for continued growth and success within the school.

As noted, mentoring was also seen as an effective method of leadership development. For example:

The mentoring approach is fantastic! I would like to commend the leaders of the reform programme for choosing mentoring to bring about the changes. This allows us to collaborate and share ideas as professionals. Even though I am their superior, I do not have to stand over the Emiratis' shoulder all the time. I find that this subtle approach keep the school leaders interested and motivated to learn. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

Thus, mentoring presented an opportunity for expatriate and indigenous school leaders to collaborate and share ideas. CUREE (1997:2) and Clutterbuck (2004, 113-145) also point out the importance of collaboration during the mentoring relationship, where the mentors encourage the mentees to share new knowledge and skills with others (see section 2.6.2). The participant quoted above, further highlighted the role of mentoring in the sustained motivation of indigenous leaders to keep them on task.

Moreover, expatriates were deemed to be more knowledgeable than the indigenous school leaders. However, indigenous school leaders were open to learning and were willing to change. For example:

The gratitude that my school leader expresses is the most rewarding for me as an expatriate mentor. They do acknowledge my experience and expertise and that allows me to work with them at a very comfortable level. The mentoring process does make it very easy for us expatriates to work with other school leaders. Mentoring is also a global term and it can be adapted to any context. In the UAE it works a really well! [Expatriate subject coordinator - individual interview, November 2013]

The participant's experience concurs with CUREE's (1997:2) view that it is important for the mentee to acknowledge the benefits that the mentor offers during the learning experience. Furthermore, Brockbank and McGill (2006:25-30) mention the absence of a fixed mentoring model and suggest, that mentoring should be adapted to the context in which it occurs, to be effective.

5.4.5.2 *Expatriate school leaders' views of the challenges of working with indigenous school leaders*

With regard to the challenges that expatriates experienced working alongside indigenous school leaders, most expatriate school leaders shared similar views. These views pertained to cultural and religious barriers and the stereotypical view, that expatriates were merely in the UAE for financial gain. The following comments were noted:

The cultural and religious restrictions can be challenging. I am a male and most of the indigenous school leaders I supervise are females. All of them cover their faces during my visits, and this can be quite an adjustment because I cannot add their facial expressions to their conversations and I am also not allowed to look directly in their eyes. With regards to religion, all Muslims adhere to certain prayer times and even when urgent matters need to be resolved the prayer time or religious rituals take preference. This causes much frustration, especially when you cannot reach the school principal when a serious incident took place at the school, or when you have to share urgent information. [Focus group, December 2013]

The above viewpoint illustrates how culture and religion could possibly hinder the working relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders. Individuals should be sensitive to cultural and religious practices, in order to strengthen the mentoring relationship (Bock 2011:27). The indigenous school leaders held the same view with regard to culture and religion (see section 5.3.3). Sadafi (in Thorne, 2011:173) asserts that expatriates who were intolerant and unwilling to respect the culture and the religion of the UAE, should not be permitted to continue their respective working contracts.

The statement below contradicted the view that all expatriates were working in the UAE education sector purely for financial reasons:

I would like to be very honest. I am an expat, but I feel embarrassed when I hear that fellow expatriates are here just for the money. I am very passionate about education and make a remarkable difference

wherever I go. So, this stereotype can damage the reputation for all of us ... the perception might stand in the way of us being effective in our roles as expert educationalists. [Expatriate Vice principal - individual interview, November 2013]

Carson (2013:7) states that expatriates in UAE education are currently offered very attractive packages. Although most indigenous school leaders felt that expatriates were mainly motivated by the generous salaries offered in the UAE (see section 5.3.3), this participant disagreed. In contrast, he was motivated by a passion for education and aspired to make a difference during the reform process.

5.4.6 Expatriate school leaders' views of how to enhance their own role and performance when working alongside indigenous school leaders

Participants were asked to offer some recommendations to enhance their own role and impact. Suggestions referred to longer time frames of working together and their inclusion in decision making processes. For example:

It would be beneficial if we can work with our indigenous leaders for a longer period of time. This will ensure sustainability. Currently, we are being assigned to new indigenous school leaders on a yearly basis and it is a new beginning continuously. [Expatriate cluster manager - individual interview, November 2013]

Hargreaves and Fink (2003:3) also highlight the difference between lifelong learning versus superficial learning. The former leads to a sustainable outcome that is only achieved over a long period of time (see section 3.5.1).

The expatriate school leaders also recommended their participation in decision making processes. The following view was offered:

It would be useful if expatriate leaders are invited to share some of the challenges with policy makers. We currently have no input in any of the decision making. [Focus group, December 2013]

In the light of the above, most expatriate school leaders felt that a gap existed between them and policy makers. Without this consultation, expatriates implemented

systems and processes with little, to no input. Ibrahim et al. (2013:7-9) asserts that educationalists should be included in the planning of change. A lack of involvement in decision making could lead to feelings of alienation among expatriates during the change process.

5.5 COMPARATIVE RESPONSE TABLE

Triangulation as a research method was described by Denzin and Lincoln (in Bock, 2011:15) as a process of using more than one method to investigate one's research question. Focus groups were incorporated into the study to verify the responses elicited from participants during the individual semi-structured interviews. I used all the questions from the semi-structured interviews and focus group sessions to compare the responses between indigenous and expatriate school leaders.

Table 5.1 presents a comparison of the responses given by indigenous and expatriate school leaders during the sessions (see sections 5.3 and 5.4). The comparative Table (5.1) will now be discussed in more detail.

Table 5.1 Comparative table: Views during interviews and focus groups

Questions	Responses: Indigenous school leaders	Responses: Expatriate school leaders
1. What are your views on education reform in the UAE?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognised the need for further development • Some were confused and not prepared for the reform • More strategic planning was needed • The need for continuity was mentioned 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally positive about the reform • The reform process was continuously changing • Identified language as a barrier during implementation • Questioned the sustainability of the reform
2. Why did you choose to work in the UAE? (including views of indigenous school leaders)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial reasons • Retirement • Working holiday 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial gain/adventure • Making a contribution to education • Retired in home country • Retrenched in home country
3. What are your views on the role of indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognised the need for development • Eager for expatriates to guide and lead the way 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are eager to learn and develop as school leaders • Welcome support • Acknowledged the experience and expertise of the expatriate
4. What is your view of the reform process whereby expatriates up skill local/indigenous school leaders?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Huge advantage to learn from expatriates, but it was challenging to learn from them at times • Expatriates were held responsible for the success of the reform • Expatriates needed to be more understanding and approachable • Expatriates were deemed to be vital for the reform 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indigenous school leaders resisted change • indigenous leaders needed to assume more responsibility and independence • Poor attitudes towards expatriate school leaders • Up skilling process was challenging
5. To what extent has the mentoring process assisted you in your role as a school leader?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very useful • Supported the sharing process in communities of practice • More consistent and relevant methods needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring very useful to address mentee needs • Suitable for leadership development
6. What are your views on what works well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Variety of ideas from different backgrounds • Encouraged network groups • Shared partnership • Helped indigenous leaders during decisions making • Mentoring approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring approach • Reliance on expatriate expertise • Shared partnership approach
7. What are your views on what does not work well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expatriates needed to stay for longer contracts • Cultural insensitivity • The lack of modelling and active participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural barriers • Religious barriers • Constant changes
8. What can you recommend to improve the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better understanding of the UAE cultural and religious norms • A consistent approach that was applicable to the UAE context • More relationship building • Expatriates to stay for longer periods • On the job modelling was needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Staying for longer periods to ensure sustainability • Consistency • Being part of the decision making process

Table 5.1 illustrates the comparative views of indigenous and expatriate school leaders, regarding their respective roles within the UAE education sector. Furthermore, it illustrates successes, challenges and recommendations pertaining to the expatriate as mentor within the education reform. Table 5.1 highlights the similarities in responses between indigenous and expatriate school leaders, and these responses were marked in bold and italics. These similarities were as follows:

Question 1 - When school leaders were asked about their views of the education reform in the UAE, both indigenous and expatriate school leaders indicated that there was a need for continuity and more strategic planning. Both groups mentioned that the continuous changes during reform could have a negative impact on the overall sustainability of the reform.

Question 2 - When school leaders were asked about the reasons for expatriates choosing to work in the UAE, both groups were of the view that expatriates were mainly in the UAE for financial reasons, the adventure or due to retirement in their respective countries.

Question 3 - When school leaders were asked about their views pertaining to the role of indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system, both groups indicated that there was a need for support and guidance from expatriate school leaders. The overall view was that indigenous leaders were eager to learn, welcomed support and acknowledged the expatriate expertise.

Question 4 - When school leaders were asked about their views regarding the reform process, whereby expatriates up skilled indigenous school leaders, it was evident that both groups found the process somewhat rewarding but challenging at the same time.

Question 5 - When school leaders were asked about the extent to which the mentoring process assisted them in their role, both groups mentioned that mentoring was very useful and it addressed the needs of those in leadership.

Question 6 - When school leaders were asked about what worked well with regard to the expatriate role within the UAE education system, both groups indicated that

when there were successes, these could be attributed to shared partnerships and to the mentoring approach used.

Question 7 - When school leaders were asked about what did not work well regarding the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system, indigenous school leaders indicated that it was challenging when expatriates stayed for short term contracts. Similarly, expatriate school leaders highlighted the constant shifting from school to school, as a major challenge during the mentoring role. Both groups highlighted issues surrounding culture and religion as barriers during the change process that inhibited the impact of expatriate school leaders.

Question 8 - When school leaders were asked about their recommendations to improve the impact of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system, both indigenous and expatriate school leaders indicated that expatriates should stay for longer periods of time, in order to ensure sustainable learning. Furthermore, both groups indicated the need for consistency in the UAE education system during the reform process.

In summary, it was significant that both indigenous and expatriate school leaders shared many viewpoints surrounding the overall improvement of their respective roles within the UAE education reform.

5.6 SUMMARY

Chapter 5 presented the findings of the empirical investigation. It commenced with the realisation of the sample and then proceeded to present the results of the empirical investigation, including the findings from the individual semi-structured interviews, focus groups and field notes. The findings highlighted the successes, challenges and recommendations, regarding the impact of expatriate school leaders working alongside indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system.

The next chapter will present the conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the conclusions, recommendations and limitations of this research. The conclusions serve to answer the main research question, namely: *According to the views of indigenous and expatriate school leaders, what is the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system?*

Conclusions regarding the mentoring and leadership literature reviews are provided, as they relate to educational reform within the UAE setting. Conclusions regarding the impact of expatriate school leaders are related to the role of expatriate school leaders, as well as their views and beliefs regarding the UAE schooling system. These conclusions serve as basis for making recommendations to enhance the future impact of expatriate school leaders within the UAE education reform. Recommendations for further research are also suggested. This is followed by the limitations of the study and finally, a conclusion summarising the study were presented. The contribution of this study is also highlighted.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW

6.2.1 Mentoring in educational reform

The literature revealed that leaders developed in different ways and mentoring served as a mechanism for leadership development within an education system's reform. Its significance was highlighted in section 2.7, and further verified in sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.4. The mentoring process that was examined, confirmed that mentees progressed through various developmental stages (see section 2.3). It can be concluded that any disruption of the mentoring process could affect the general development of the mentee, thereby hindering the overall impact of expatriates.

After examining different theories of learning, it was evident that there was no fixed theory regarding the way in which individuals learned or made sense of their experiences (see section 2.4). The reflective learning theory, the situated learning theory, and the social constructivist theory all confirmed that learning was influenced by the individuals' context. A study of the cyclical learning theory showed that learning was cyclical in nature and never ending (see section 2.4.1). It was also established that the mentors' understanding and consideration of the mentees' learning styles were central to the overall developmental process of the mentees and therefore also of the impact of the mentors (see section 2.4.2).

The literature on mentoring relationships (see section 2.5) revealed that a partnership existed between the mentor and the mentee, and various factors played a role during the mentoring relationship, that influenced its success. Examples include motivation, rapport, the duration of the mentoring relationship, age, expertise, and context. It can also be concluded, that the overall success and impact of the mentor-mentee relationship depended on the contributions of both parties to the relationship.

Models of mentoring that were studied included the skilled helper model (see section 2.6.1), the CUREE model of mentoring (see section 2.6.2) and the community of practice model (see section 2.6.3). The skilled helper model demonstrated a subtle approach, where the mentor ensured the comfort of the mentee within the mentoring relationship. The CUREE model of mentoring endorsed professional development as an essential component of mentoring. The community of practice model drew attention to the significance of a shared learning community. Within this community the mentee was an 'apprentice' that participated on the periphery of the community, but moved to more central participation as his/her skills developed. A pivotal conclusion of this study, is that all three of the above mentioned models are relevant for the UAE mentoring context (see section 2.6.4).

An understanding of the views expressed in the literature on mentoring contributed significantly to the recommendations (in section 6.4), regarding ways to improve the existing mentoring relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders.

6.2.2 Leadership in educational reform

The literature review in chapter three revealed that effective leadership was essential for educational reform, and the leader's ability to influence change was central to the achievement of goals (see section 3.7). The qualities and characteristics of leaders that were explored, confirmed the need for leaders to assume control in their organisations (see section 3.3). Effective leaders should constantly strive to enhance their skills set, thereby gaining more valuable experience over time. The literature also proposed that when leaders demonstrated traits that were relevant to their respective contexts, their effectiveness in the position were enhanced.

When different models of leadership were examined, instructional (see section 3.4.1) and transformational (see section 3.4.2) leadership models were suitable for educational reform in the UAE. Instructional leadership models focussed on the leader coordinating, controlling and supervising subordinates; whereas transformational leadership models focussed on establishing a shared vision underpinned by trust. It can also be concluded, that a leader's commitment to change is an essential aspect of a sustainable education reform in a country (see section 3.5).

The literature on leadership development (see section 3.6), inferred that leaders either had an innate ability to lead, or that their leadership behaviours were learned as a result of professional development. The leadership development framework (see Figure 3.2), proposed that leaders should foster a collective approach, in order to develop and enhance their own leadership styles.

It can be concluded, that effective leadership was fundamental for successful educational reform. Therefore, the relevance of the training to support indigenous leaders and the way in which the leaders implemented their skills would determine the success in sustaining the reform agenda (see section 3.7).

6.3 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE FINDINGS

6.3.1 The role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system

6.3.1.1 Responsibility towards successful reform

The findings showed a huge expectation placed on expatriates to ensure the successful implementation of the education reform agenda in the UAE (see sections 1.1 and 5.3.2). It emerged that expatriate school leaders were fully aware of their responsibility towards the professional development of indigenous school leaders (see section 5.4.3.2). Despite the fact that expatriates were primarily held responsible to implement change, it can be concluded that the responsibility rested with both expatriate and indigenous school leaders to work in partnership, and to share equal accountability for a successful reform of the UAE education system (see section 5.3.4.1).

As was indicated in section 5.4.4, expatriate school leaders played a significant role in the education reform, by following a mentoring approach to facilitate the learning and development of indigenous school leaders (see section 1.3.3). It further emerged, that indigenous leaders were in need of support regarding goal setting and effective task delegation. A more modern approach to educational leadership was necessary, where indigenous leaders made use of the mentoring opportunities to transform their respective schools (see section 5.4.3.2).

6.3.1.2 Providing support

Expatriates were recruited from various countries and all possessed a variety of skills and knowledge regarding school improvement. It was acknowledged, that these skills could ultimately be beneficial for the implementation of the reform agenda (see section 1.1). The study concludes, that expatriates provided support in the form of mentoring to empower indigenous school leaders (see section 2.6.1). Indigenous school leaders had the expectation that expatriates would provide clear guidance and support, interact with the wider school community and be more

understanding and approachable during the mentoring relationship, than what they were (see sections 2.2 and 5.3.3). It could therefore be argued, that developing and nurturing the mentoring relationship was an essential aspect of mentoring. The literature review showed that the likelihood existed for mentees to resist change if mentors forced them to be compliant (see sections 3.2 and 5.4.2).

6.3.2 Views and beliefs of expatriate and indigenous school leaders in UAE education that enhanced the impact of expatriate school leaders

6.3.2.1 Mentoring as a tool for development

In consideration of the views of both expatriate and indigenous school leaders, there was a definite need for UAE staff development through coaching and mentoring (see section 5.3.1). The empirical investigation indicated, that indigenous school leaders recognised the importance of the reform agenda, the need for professional development, and their accountability for the way in which they influenced change (see sections 1.1 and 5.4.3.1).

It was also evident, that the mentoring approach was welcomed by the expatriate school leaders (see sections 5.3.1 and 5.4.4), and by the indigenous leaders. The study highlighted the significance of collaboration during mentoring, where the mentors encouraged the mentees to share their knowledge and skills with others (see section 2.6.2). The literature and the empirical investigation demonstrated, that expatriates were deemed to be more knowledgeable than the indigenous leaders (see sections 1.1.3 and 5.3.2). However, expatriates who were less effective in their mentoring roles, would have little impact on the education reform. It can therefore be concluded, that mentoring presented an opportunity for expatriates to collaborate and share ideas with indigenous school leaders, but the impact would be determined by the quality of the mentoring relationship (see sections 5.4.4 and 5.4.5). Thus, an important conclusion of the study, is that mentoring served as a developmental tool and an essential component of educational change in the UAE.

6.3.3 Factors that constrained the impact of expatriate school leaders in UAE education

6.3.3.1 Questionable motives of expatriate school leaders for working in the UAE

It was concluded from the literature review and the empirical investigation, that a large number of expatriates accepted working contracts in the UAE mainly for financial gain. In this study, most expatriates confirmed that they were working in the UAE for financial reasons and/or the adventure (see section 5.4.1). Moreover, based on the findings (see section 5.4.1), it was further concluded that some expatriate school leaders were retirees in their home countries, and had accepted the opportunity to work in the UAE to supplement their income. The evidence showed that although expatriates were hired to raise the bar in education (see section 1.1), many were using education as a 'fall back' career due to unemployment in their home countries. Thus, their motives for working in the UAE were questionable. If expatriates were in the UAE for financial reasons only, and therefore not dedicated to their work, the impact of these expatriates within the education sector was weak. Although many expatriates were dedicated to their responsibilities, most indigenous leaders expressed their disappointment with expatriates and distrusted their motives for working in UAE education system (see section 5.3.3).

6.3.3.2 Cultural and religious barriers

Cultural and religious sensitivities were important elements that should be embraced within the UAE (see sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.4.2). The reports of the indigenous and the expatriate school leaders indicated, that incidents of cultural insensitivity had occurred. Minimising these occurrences could improve the working relationships between expatriate and indigenous leaders, and hence also the impact of expatriate leaders in the UAE (see section 5.3.4.2). It was emphasised, that expatriates who failed to respect the cultural norms and the religious beliefs of the Emiratis, should not be offered the opportunity to work in the UAE (see section 5.4.5.2). Most indigenous school leaders also desired expatriates to engage more on a social level, thereby showing a greater interest in the cultural customs of the Emiratis. Improved

social interaction between expatriate and indigenous school leaders could enhance interpersonal relationships, significantly improve the learning process, and thus ensure a greater impact of expatriates in UAE schools (see section 1.3.2).

6.3.3.3 Language as a barrier

From the views of expatriate and indigenous school leaders, it emerged that the use of English as medium of communication often served as a barrier between indigenous and expatriate school leaders. Frequently, the messages that the expatriates were trying to communicate were lost in translation, causing them to doubt how much of the information was actually understood. It is therefore concluded, that communication in English presented a major challenge for the UAE reform implementation (see section 5.4.2). Additionally, these language barriers could inhibit the impact that expatriate school leaders could have in their respective schools.

6.3.3.4 Lack of modelling

Indigenous school leaders maintained that their inability to implement many reform strategies, was due to the lack of effective expatriate modelling (see section 5.3.3). The empirical investigation further revealed that expatriate school leaders provided very few opportunities to model best education practice. Therefore, there was a need for expatriates to participate more actively when developing indigenous school leaders to enrich the learning process and to have a greater impact during the mentoring process (see section 2.4).

6.3.3.5 Continuous changes in the UAE education system

The literature emphasised the need for high quality strategic planning as a key component for educational reform (see section 1.1). The study revealed, that all the school leaders were unclear about the reform expectations, as a result of poor planning. This resulted in inconsistent approaches and continual changes within the current education reform process, as suggested by policy makers. These continuous changes caused confusion amongst both groups of school leaders (see section

5.3.1). This impacted negatively on the implementation of the reform, thus inhibiting the impact that expatriates could have on the UAE education system.

Expatriate leaders disclosed that these inconsistencies posed various challenges in their implementation of reform initiatives (see section 5.4.2). The need for a more consistent approach during the reform process is evident if expatriates are to make a significant contribution to the UAE education system.

6.3.3.6 Poor attitudes of some indigenous school leaders

The literature emphasised the need for school leaders to be responsible for leading change, and to discover their own potential during mentoring (see sections 1.5.1 and 3.3). The findings revealed, that some indigenous school leaders were not fully utilising the support offered by expatriate school leaders and displayed negative attitudes during mentoring sessions, thus hindering the overall impact that expatriates could have on the reform process (see section 5.4.3.1). Indigenous school leaders showed little self-regulated learning. Often the indigenous school leaders were too reliant on expatriate school leaders and did not assume ownership of their own professional development (see sections 2.6.4 and 5.4.3).

6.3.3.7 Resistance to change

The literature highlighted the fact that educational leaders could be in a state of denial regarding the need for change during mandated transitions (see section 2.5). The research determined a need for the mentor and the mentee, as partners, to set clear goals in order to create change. However, the findings showed that expatriate school leaders were faced with challenges in attempting to establish such a partnership, as some indigenous school leaders were resistant to change (see section 5.4.3.1). The resistance demonstrated by some indigenous school leaders inhibited the possible impact of expatriates working across UAE schools.

6.3.3.8 Lack of sustainability

Since expatriates eventually exit the UAE education system, leadership succession is central to the achievement of complete independence by the indigenous school leaders (see section 1.1). The findings revealed, that the indigenous school leaders were frustrated with the continuous replacement of mentors across schools (see section 5.4.2) and recognised the importance of establishing long lasting partnerships with them (see section 3.5). Accordingly, the empirical investigation revealed a need for expatriates to work for longer contracts in order to have a long lasting impact (see sections 5.3.4.2 and 5.4.6). Thus, a lack of continuity and of long partnerships prevented sustainable learning and a significant impact of expatriates in the UAE education system (see section 3.5).

6.3.3.9 Poor communication with policy makers

Expatriate school leaders were at the forefront of the reform and were responsible to influence change in the UAE schools. However, the findings showed that the expatriate school leaders had very few opportunities to contribute towards major decision making regarding the school system (see sections 3.7 and 5.4.6). This confirmed previous findings, that expatriates were excluded from major decision making regarding the current education reform, because of huge communication gaps between expatriates and policy makers (see section 5.4.6). Poor communication among all stakeholders prevented expatriates from influencing change effectively, thereby lessening their impact on the education reform in the UAE.

In light of the above, the study concludes that, according to the views of expatriate and indigenous school leaders, the expatriate school leaders had very little impact on educational reform in the UAE.

Based on the above, the study makes the following recommendations for improving the impact of expatriate school leaders.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.4.1 Recommendations for improving the impact of expatriate school leaders

An internet search (with Pro-quest education, scholar.google.com, and google.ae) focussing on expatriate school leader induction programmes and partnership development frameworks within the UAE education system, indicated a total lack of literature on the topic. Against this background, I have made the following unique recommendations to the field of educational reform, aimed at enhancing the future impact of expatriate school leaders within the UAE education system. The recommendations focus on: (i) an induction programme for expatriates; (ii) a partnership development framework designed for both expatriate and indigenous school leaders and (iii) resolving language barriers between English and Arabic school leaders. These recommendations are now explained in detail.

6.4.1.1 An induction programme for new expatriate school leaders

According to Smith and Ingersoll (2004:1-5) induction programmes are beneficial, in that they orientate individuals and can ultimately result in a higher staff retention. Furthermore, induction for staff can reduce anxiety by providing opportunities to share job specific expectations and goals for the organisation (Raman, Woods & Lim, 2013:8).

Table 6.1 presents a two-week induction programme for expatriate school leaders, new to the UAE education system. This induction programme was designed to address some of the key factors that inhibited the impact of expatriates in the UAE education sector, as revealed by this empirical investigation. It was designed to orientate expatriate school leaders about the UAE context and the reform agenda in schools.

Table 6.1 Induction programme for new expatriate school leaders

FOCUS/ SESSION	SUGGESTED CONTENT OF SESSION
WEEK 1	
<p>Introduction to the UAE and the reform agenda</p> <p><i>Persons responsible – line managers and policy makers</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction of the reform agenda • Vision, mission and objectives of work • The work environment • All key operational sites to be visited (e.g. offices, schools etc.)
<p>Introduction to policy makers and other members of staff</p> <p><i>Person responsible – line managers</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentation of the organisational chart and introduction of the reform policy makers • Discussion of roles and responsibilities of staff • Outline of official communication channels within the organisation • Time allowed for expatriates to meet informally with policy makers, managers and other colleagues
<p>Job roles and performance standards</p> <p><i>Persons responsible – line managers</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outline specifics of job roles – job descriptions • Explanation and discussion of goals, objectives and expectations
<p>Culture and religion in the UAE</p> <p><i>Persons responsible – line managers and indigenous school leaders</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness of the UAE cultural and religious norms • Cultural and religious approaches when working in schools
WEEK 2	
<p>Job specific orientation and on the job training</p> <p><i>Persons responsible – line managers, policy makers and indigenous 'buddy' mentors</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training aligned to the expatriate role within schools (core duties are outlined/training is done on site) • Time allowed for expatriates to become familiar with the job alongside an indigenous 'buddy' mentor
<p>Reflection and evaluation of the induction programme</p> <p><i>Persons responsible – all stakeholders</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring and reviewing of the induction programme • Throughout the programme regular review meetings are held and adjustments made in order to improve the process

Table 6.1 illustrates a two-week intensive programme that serves to support expatriates when they initially arrived in the UAE. The recommendations regarding the two-week induction programme are as follows:

Week 1

- The first priority would be for stakeholders to introduce the UAE reform agenda, clarifying the expectations for expatriates working within the education reform. The overall vision and mission for the UAE education and the way in which expatriates are expected to support the vision should be clearly addressed. Additionally, expatriates should be given the opportunity to visit the UAE head office and school sites in order to familiarise themselves with their respective working environments. These steps should outline the UAE reform agenda for expatriates from the onset. The research has shown that hiring expatriates to implement an education reform, without providing relevant information and specifying the actual reform agenda, was ineffective for sustainable reform. The above correlates with the situated learning theory, in that legitimate peripheral participation occurs, when newcomers are given opportunities to share similar experiences, thus resulting in the development of new relationships (see section 1.3.2).
- Line managers should present the organisational chart (highlighting the positions of individuals within the organisational structure), introduce the reform policy makers, and specify the appropriate communication protocols within the organisation. The broader job role and key responsibilities should be explained, allowing expatriates to pose questions related to their responsibilities. There should be opportunities for expatriates to meet line managers, policy makers, indigenous leaders and other expatriate colleagues informally to establish networks and commence the relationship building process. The situated learning theory supports the notion that learning is social in nature, and that these social interactions create opportunities for learning (see section 1.3.2). The above recommendations serve to bridge the gap between expatriates and other stakeholders, in order to establish working partnerships.
- A detailed clarification of the expatriate job description should be given, outlining specific job related tasks i.e. mentoring indigenous school leaders. The expatriate school leaders should be given an opportunity to pose questions and solicit specific information regarding their job description. This

phase would clarify the role of mentors to prepare expatriates for the mentoring of indigenous school leaders.

- Stakeholders should communicate their expectations with regard to the cultural and religious norms of the UAE. These norms should further be addressed, as they relate to the working context in which expatriates would be immersed. The expatriate school leaders should be given an opportunity to speak and interact with indigenous school leaders, providing them with the opportunity to ask pertinent questions. In doing so, expatriates would gain a better understanding of cultural and religious expectations, in order to eliminate any misunderstandings or possible clashes. In the situated learning theory, Lave and Wenger (2003:2) highlight the fact that when individuals immerse themselves within a specific context, learning is likely to occur (see section 1.3.2). Furthermore, the above also correlates with the social constructivist theory that maintains that learning is influenced by culture and context (see section 1.3.3).

Week 2

- During the second week, an indigenous representative should be assigned to an expatriate leader in the form of a 'buddy mentor'. These representatives should accompany the expatriate to their assigned schools, to familiarise them with the daily routines, systems and customs. In the situated learning theory, Rovegno (in Patton et al., 2005:305) asserts that the individual, activity and the learning environment are inseparable components for learning (see section 1.3.2). In addition, the social constructivist theory further emphasises, that the development of individuals is influenced by social, cultural and historical elements (see section 1.3.3). Thus, an on the job training approach would be advantageous for expatriates, as they would gain a greater understanding of the job in a real sense, they would learn how to behave appropriately and would begin to establish relationships with various members of the school community. The above recommendation would significantly enhance the expatriate job role and could in turn ensure greater impact within the UAE reform.

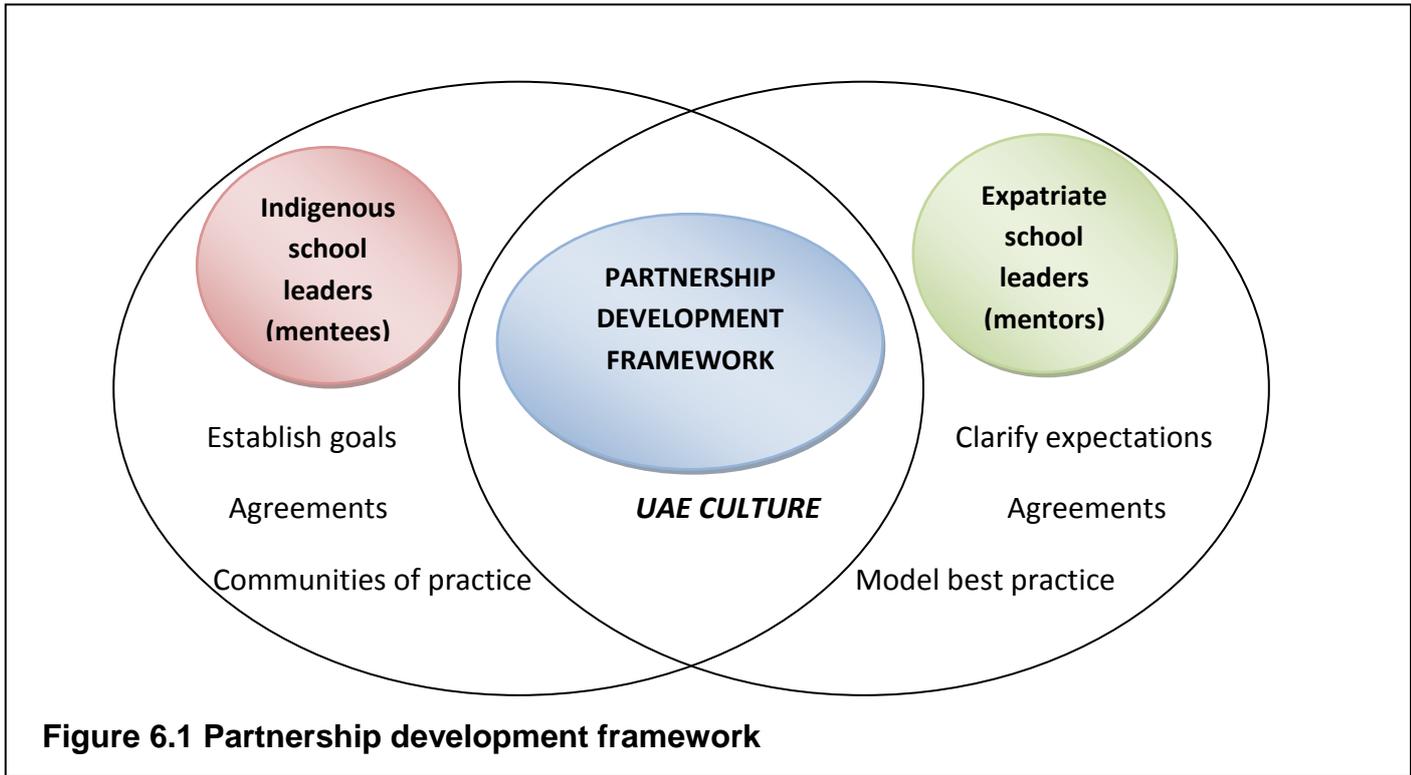
- The induction programme should conclude with an evaluation and reflection phase, in order to review the effectiveness of the programme. This would provide an opportunity to make relevant adjustments to the overall induction process, providing all stakeholders with an opportunity to share views and make a contribution towards strategic planning. The reflective learning theory, viewed learning as an intentional process, where individuals and organisations reflect on the current practice in an attempt to improve (see section 2.4). Furthermore, the cohesive partnership approach amongst expatriates and other stakeholders would set the tone for the academic year.

In closing, the proposed induction programme aims to support expatriate leaders in establishing themselves within a foreign context, in order to lead change in an effective manner. The clarity and professional development that this programme offered, would ensure a significant improvement with regards to expatriate role efficacy within the UAE education system.

The partnership development framework, as second recommendation, is explained in the next section.

6.4.1.2 The partnership development framework

The second unique contribution of the study, is the recommendation of a partnership development framework, for improving the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE system. This framework is illustrated in Figure 6.1. The framework aims at providing a set of strategies to enrich the partnership between expatriate and indigenous school leaders, within the UAE education reform.



The above model in Figure 6.1 illustrates the two distinct roles of the indigenous and expatriate school leaders within the education reform. In order to bridge the gap between these two roles, a set of strategies should be implemented by both leaders, resulting in an effective partnership. This model is influenced by the UAE cultural context, and by working in partnerships, the mentoring relationships would be strengthened, thereby ensuring that both leaders would become more effective in their respective roles. Kolb's learning theory viewed learning as an on-going process, that provided opportunities for continued learning. In this instance, both the mentee and the mentor would continually strive to work in partnership and learn from each other (see section 2.4). The framework proposes the following:

- **Establish goals and clarify expectations:** It is imperative for indigenous leaders to establish their own professional development targets. Expatriate school leaders on the other hand, should clarify their expectations and guide indigenous school leaders towards goal attainment.

- **Reach an agreement:** Both indigenous and expatriate leaders should reflect on the discussions during the first stage of the process. They should reach an agreement on how they would go about achieving the professional development targets. Leaders could develop their own monitoring system, in order to record that they have achieved their respective developmental targets.
- **Modelling best practice in communities of practice:** The sharing of good practice should be encouraged amongst indigenous school leaders. Expatriate school leaders should consistently model best educational practices and provide more 'hands on' examples for indigenous leaders. This would provide leaders with regular opportunities to share, model and give feedback in order to develop overall performance.

In closing, the above partnership development framework was designed as a result of the gaps that existed between expatriate and indigenous school leaders, within the current mentoring model in the UAE. I recommend that a joint commitment, strengthened by cultural tolerance, could forge a long lasting learning relationship. This is also in accordance with the situated learning theory, that suggests that members share learning and work together towards a common goal, giving members a sense of joint enterprise and identity (Lave & Wenger, 2003:2). Furthermore, the cyclical learning theory within mentoring (see section 2.4.1) also described how the mentor guides the mentee through distinct learning stages, and these stages correlated with the above recommendations for goal setting, reaching an agreement and modelling best practice.

Recommendations to overcome language barriers will be discussed in the next section.

6.4.1.3 Recommendations to resolve possible language barriers

In addressing the language barriers that existed between indigenous and expatriate school leaders (see section 6.3.3.3), I recommend the following:

- A translation system, where expatriate school leaders make use of a school based translator, employed solely to translate all correspondence between expatriate and indigenous school leaders.
- Regular meetings between expatriate and indigenous school leaders could enhance the communication and provide informal opportunities to exchange basic English and Arabic vocabulary. This notion correlates with the social constructivist theory, that maintains that learning cannot be separated from the cultural context in which it is used (see section 1.3.3). It would be beneficial for expatriates to immerse themselves within the context, by showing an interest in the local language, in order to build stronger relationships with indigenous school leaders.
- Leaders could also be given a pocket sized booklet, containing the most frequently used English and Arabic words. Some examples of vocabulary that are commonly used include:

Table 6.2 English and Arabic pocket size booklet

English	Arabic
Good morning/afternoon	Sabah Al Khair / Masaa' Al Khair صباح الخير مساء الخير
How are you?	Keifah Haluk? كيف حالك؟
Thank you	Shukran شكراً
Please	Min Fadlik من فضلك!
When is the next meeting?	Mutah al i'jtma'a Al Qadem? متى الاجتماع القادم؟
Very important	Muhim jidan مهم جداً
School	Madrassah مدرسة
Teachers	Muha'limoon معلمون
School management team	Fareq Al Idarah Al Madressi فريق الإدارة المدرسي
School improvement	Tahseen Al Madrassah تحسين المدرسة

- Basic English and Arabic courses should be offered and funded by reform stakeholders. These courses could form part of the school leaders' professional development.

In closing, the above recommendations could serve to improve the communication between school leaders, thereby eliminating the possibility that incorrect information was conveyed. This could significantly improve the impact that expatriate school leaders could have within their respective schools.

6.4.2 Recommendations for further study

The study investigated the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system, according to the views of indigenous and expatriate school leaders. To this end, the study focussed in particular on mentoring and leadership within an educational reform agenda in the UAE. The following recommendations can be made for further study:

- The study highlighted the fact that expatriates were recruited from various countries and all possessed different ideologies with regard to education. The opportunity exists for further investigation into (i) the selection process for expatriates and (ii) the impact that these varying ideologies may have on the UAE education system.
- With regard to the cultural and religious barriers that existed between expatriates and indigenous school leaders, it may be worth investigating the impact of various ways to overcome the cultural and religious divide between these leaders, working in UAE schools.
- The effectiveness of the individual mentoring processes between selected indigenous and expatriate school leaders presents an opportunity for further research. The sustainability of this process would ultimately determine the impact that expatriates would have on the UAE education system.
- There have been various negative responses regarding the performance of expatriate school leaders. Further insights into quality assurance measures,

tracking expatriate performance should be explored to arrive at a better understanding of the contributions that expatriates school leaders make.

- There was a need for a more consistent approach within the current UAE education reform. School leaders needed more opportunities to communicate with policy makers and to make contributions towards decisions. How this can be done effectively in the UAE reform requires further investigation.
- The English language as a notable barrier between expatriates and indigenous school leaders is a topic that requires further investigation. It has implications regarding the expatriate impact within the mentoring relationship.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research on the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system presented the following limitations:

- This impact study was based on the subjective views of indigenous school leaders, and expatriate school leaders at the time of study. Only long-term, longitudinal studies can more objectively reveal the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system.
- With reference to the data gathering process, it is worth mentioning that the Arabian Gulf followed a rather conservative stance pertaining to data collection. In the past, a researcher who conducted a study on white collar expatriate workers in the Gulf was arrested due to this research activity (Ali, 2007) and therefore, there was a need to be extremely sensitive and careful when collecting data in this region.
- Cultural barriers were possibly the major limitation of the study. Although the aim was to do a thorough investigation and gain as much knowledge as possible, the challenge was the fact that I was always conscious of the cultural context in which the study took place. Scheduling of appointments was challenging, in that certain participants had their own schedule to uphold. For example, set prayer times were non-negotiable. The most important observation was that although participants were reassured that confidentiality

would be upheld, they were still conscious of not overstepping certain cultural lines. Examples include, the sharing of negative viewpoints regarding the country and the Emirati stakeholders responsible for leading the reform.

- Only ten school leaders willingly participated in the study due to time, logistical and cultural constraints. It would have been interesting and enriching to see this research conducted on a much larger scale.
- The study included female participants and a female research assistant was employed to support with the data gathering process, due to the cultural customs surrounding segregated genders (see section 4.2.1 and Appendix D). This employment was a limitation, since I needed to rely on secondary information and feedback from the research assistant.

6.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study makes unique and ground-breaking contributions to the field of educational reform, with particular reference to the UAE education context. These contributions aim to enhance the future impact of expatriates within UAE education system. The contributions are as follows:

- A main contribution of the study is that it identified mentoring as a main method, by means of which leadership development in the UAE can take place. The study also identified the most important characteristics of the mentoring relationship to ensure success.
- Another important contribution of the study, is that it revealed nine factors that inhibited the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE system. These factors were: the questionable motives of some expatriate school leaders for working in the UAE; cultural and religious barriers; language as a barrier; lack of modelling; continuous changes in the UAE education system; poor attitudes of some indigenous school leaders; resistance to change; lack of sustainability; and poor communication with policy makers.
- The most important contribution of the study, however, are the recommendations that have been generated to enhance the impact that

expatriate school leaders have on the UAE education system. (i) An induction programme for expatriates was designed; (ii) a partnership development framework was proposed for both expatriate and indigenous school leaders and (iii) a project was drafted to resolve language barriers between English and Arabic school leaders. (These are explained in section 6.4.)

6.7 CONCLUSION

This research was undertaken out of a concern regarding expatriates entering the UAE education system for short periods of time, thereby questioning their impact within the educational reform. Thus, the main research question was: *According to the views of indigenous and expatriate school leaders, what is the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system?*

The literature review conducted as a first step to answer the above mentioned question, focused on mentoring and leadership within education, and how these related to the UAE educational reform in particular. This was followed by an empirical investigation, making use of a qualitative research approach and an ethnographic case study as research design.

Purposive and convenient sampling was adopted to select participants for this study. The sample consisted of five indigenous and five expatriate school leaders. During the qualitative data collection stage, a pilot study was initially conducted, where one indigenous and one expatriate school leader were informally interviewed. This was followed by individual interviews where I interviewed the participants over a two-week period. The interviews were followed by focus group sessions that were gender specific. Notes were kept, and I documented all observations that were made throughout the study.

The main conclusion was that expatriates made very little impact on the current UAE education reform. Their impact was inhibited by: the questionable motives of many of the expatriate school leaders for working in the UAE; cultural and religious barriers, language as a barrier, lack of modelling, continuous changes in the UAE education system, poor attitudes of some indigenous school leaders, resistance to change, lack of sustainability and poor communication between school leaders and policy makers.

The study made recommendations for enhancing the impact of expatriate school leaders in the UAE system. Expatriate impact could firstly be enhanced through an intensive two week induction programme and secondly, by means of a partnership development framework, to enhance the mentoring relationship between expatriate and indigenous school leaders. Language barriers could also be overcome in several ways which the study pinpointed. The study also included recommendations for further research. Finally, the limitations of the study were presented.

LIST OF REFERENCES

Ali, S. 2007. 'You must come with us'. Accessed on 2 February 2014 at: <http://www.theguardian.com>

Al Marzouqi, N. 2012. Emiratisation strategy at Jumeirah and its objectives. MSc dissertation, The British University, Dubai.

Allix, NM. 2000. Transformational leadership: Democratic or despotic. *Educational Management and Administration*, 28(1):7-20.

Argyris, C. 1998. Empowerment: the emperor's new clothes. *Harvard Business Review*, 3:98-105.

Avolio, BJ. & Bass, BM. 2002. Developing potential across a full range of leadership cases on transactional and transformational leadership. Accessed on 13 April 2012 at: <http://www.netLibrary.com>

Bamburg, J. & Andrews, R. 1990. School goals, principals and achievement. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 2(3):175–191.

Barber, M. & Meyerson, D. 2001. The gendering of school leadership: "Reconstructing the principalship". *School Leadership Study*, 1:1-21.

Barlett, A. 2012. The meaning of sustainability. *Sustainability Research*, 31:1-17.

Barth, R. 1990. *Improving Schools from Within*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

basketball. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(6):1004 -1012.

Beck, C. 2013. *Routledge international handbook of qualitative nursing research*. New York: Routledge.

Bhugra, D, Ruiz P. & Gupta S. 2013. *Leadership in Psychiatry*, 1st edition. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Limited.

- Bock, WC. 2011. Developing heads of department for promotional opportunities (from middle to senior management) within UAE secondary schools. MEd. dissertation, University of Gloucestershire, England.
- Bolman, L. & Deal, T. 2008. *Reframing Organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Boreham, N. 2000. Collective professional knowledge. *Medical Education*, 34:505–506.
- Bradley, G. 2010. The 'maid phenomenon': Home/school differences in pedagogy and their implications for children in two international schools in the Middle East. D. Ed. dissertation, University of Bath, England.
- Brockbank, A., McGill, I. & Beech, N. 2002. *Reflective Learning Practice*. Aldershot: Gower Publishing.
- Brockbank, A. & McGill, I. 2006. *Facilitating reflective learning through mentoring and coaching*. London: Kogan Page.
- Brooks, V. & Sikes, P. 1997. *The good mentor guide: initial teacher education in secondary schools*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Bulkley, K. & Fisler, J. 2003. A decade of charter schools: from theory to practice. *Educational Policy*, 17(3):317-342.
- Bush, T. & Glover, D. 2004. Leadership development: evidence and beliefs. National College for School Leadership. Accessed on 13 April 2012 at: www.ncsl.org.uk/bush-school-leadership.
- Bush, T. 2011. *Theories of educational leadership and management*, 4th edition. London: Sage Publications.
- Bycio, P. & Allen, J. 1995. Further assessment of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(4): 468-478.

Carson, LD. 2013. Teacher Motivation: A Case Study on What Motivates Expatriate Teachers at an English proficient Private School in Sharjah, United Arab Emirates. *Teacher Motivation*, 1:1-72.

Centre for Leadership Studies. [CfLS]. 2005. What is leadership development: purpose and practice. *Leadership Development*, 2:1-58.

Christians, CG. 2005. *Ethics and politics in qualitative research*, vol 1. 3rd edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Ciulla, JB. 1998. *Ethics: The heart of leadership*, 2nd edition. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Clutterbuck, D. 2004. *Everyone needs a mentor: Fostering talent in your organisations* 4th edition. London: CIPD.

Collins, J. & Porras, J. 1994. *Built to Last: Successful Habits of Visionary Companies*. New York: Harper Business.

Connor, M. & Pokora J. 2007. *Coaching and mentoring at work: Developing effective practice*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Conrad, CF. & Serlin, RC. 2006. *The SAGE handbook for research in education: Engaging ideas and enriching inquiry*. Thousand oaks: Sage publications.

Cordingley, P. & Bell, M. 2007. Transferring learning and taking innovation to scale. *Innovation*, 1:1-27.

Cousin, G. 2009. *Research learning in higher education: an introduction to contemporary methods and approaches*. New York: Routledge.

Cravens, X., Goldring, E. & Peñaloza R. 2012. Leadership practice in the context of school choice reform. *Educational Reform*, 1:1-38.

Cunningham, B. 2007. All the Right Features: towards an 'Architecture' of mentoring trainee teachers in UK further education colleges. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 33(1):83-97.

CUREE, 1997. *Mentoring and coaching: a central role in CPD*. London: Coventry Publishing.

CUREE, 2004. *Mentoring and coaching: consulting for capacity building*. London: Coventry Publishing.

Daloz, LA. 1999. *Mentor: guiding the journey of adult learners*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishing.

Daresh, J. & Male, T. 2000. Crossing the border into leadership: experiences of newly appointed British headteachers and American principals. *Education Management Administration & Leadership*, 28:89-101.

Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M. & Meyerson, D. 2005. Developing successful principals. *Educational Leadership*, 1:1-28.

Dawson, C. 2009. *Introduction to research methods: A practical guide for anyone undertaking a research project*. Oxford: How to Books Limited.

Day, D. 2001. Leadership development: a review in context. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4):581-613.

DePree, M. 1989. *“What Is Leadership?”* New York: Doubleday.

Dimmock, C. 1995. *School leadership: Securing quality teaching and learning*: in Evers, C. & Chapman, J. *Educational Administration: An Australian perspective*. St. Leonards: Allen & Unwin, 1:274-295.

Dirks, KT. & Ferrin, DL. 2002. Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4):611-628.

Dirks, KT. 2000. *Trust in leadership and team performance: How leadership influences student learning*. New York: Wallace Foundation.

Dixon, R. & Bonfield, D. 2013. Handbook for manufacturing mentors and PTE mentees. *Mentoring Education*, 1:1-12.

- Duignan, P. 2008. *Education Leadership: key challenges and ethical tensions*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Eckert, P. 2006. Communities of practice. *Encyclopaedia of language and linguistics*, 1:1-4.
- Egan, G. 2007. *The skilled helper*, 9th edition. California: Cengage Learning.
- Eisenhardt, KM. 1989. Building theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14:532-550.
- Emerson, R. 1995. *Writing ethnographic field notes*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Everard, KB., Morris, G. & Wilson, I. 2012. *Effective School management*. London: Sage Publications.
- Fullan, M. 2002. The Change. *Educational Leadership*, 1:1-6.
- Fullan, M. 2008a. *The New Meaning of Educational Change*, vol 2. 4th edition. New York: McGraw- Hill.
- Fullan, M. 2008b. *The six secrets of change*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Gardner, W. 1995. Developing a quality teaching force for the United Arab Emirates: mission improbable. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 21:287-301.
- Garg, S. & Eisenhardt KM. 2012. Building theory from multiple case studies. *Case Study Research*, 1:1-54.
- Geber, H. & Nyanjom, JA. 2009. Mentor development in higher education in Botswana: How important is reflective practice? *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 23(5):894-911.
- Glickman, C. 2002. *Leadership for learning: how to help teachers succeed*. Alexandria: Association for supervision and curriculum development.

- Gunter, H. 2001. Critical approaches to leadership in education. *Journal of Educational Enquiry*, 2:94-108.
- Hale, EL. & Moorman, HN. 2003. Preparing school principals: A national perspective on policy and program innovations. *Educational Leadership*, 1:1-20.
- Hallinger, P. & Kantamara P. 2000. Educational change in Thailand opening a window onto leadership as a cultural process. *School Leadership and Management*, 20:189-205.
- Hallinger, P. 2003. Leading educational change: reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3):329-351.
- Hallinger, P. 2011. A review of three decades of doctoral studies using the principal instructional management rating scale: A lens on methodological progress in educational leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 4:271-306.
- Handford, CV. 2011. Why teachers trust school leaders. DEd dissertation, University of Toronto, Toronto.
- Hargreaves, A. & Fink, D. 2003. The seven principles of sustainable leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 1:1-12.
- Hargreaves, A. & Shirley, D. 2011. The far side of educational reform. *Educational Reform*, 1:1-24.
- Hay, J. 1995. *Transformational Mentoring*. New York: McGrawHill.
- Heifetz, RA. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Cambridge: Belknap Press.
- Hokal, A. & Shaw, K. 1999. Managing progress monitoring in the United Arab Emirates schools. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 13:173-79.
- Hudson, PB., Hudson, SM., Gray, B. & Bloxham, R. 2012. Learning about effective mentor: professional learning communities and mentoring. *Teaching and Educational Leadership*, 1:1-10.

Ibrahim, A., Al-Kaabi, A. & El-Zaatari, W. 2013. Teacher resistance to educational change in the United Arab Emirates. *Research in Education*, 2:25-36.

Jackson, D. 2000. The school improvement journey: perspectives on leadership. *School Leadership and Management*, 20(1):61-78.

Jones, M. & Straker, K. 2006. What informs mentors' practice when working with trainees and newly qualified teachers? An investigation into mentors' professional knowledge base. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 32(2):165–184.

Kamberelis, G. & Dimitriadis, G. 2005. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Kelly, K. 2006. From Encounter to Text: Collecting Data in Qualitative Research. In Terre Blanche, M., Durrhaim, K. & Painter, D. *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Science*. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Kennedy, A. 2005. Models of continuing professional development: A framework for analysis. *Professional Development*, 1:1-21.

Knapp, MS., Copland, MA., Honig, MI., Plecki, ML. & Portin, BS. 2010. Learning-focused leadership and leadership support: meaning and practice in urban systems. *Teaching and Policy*, 1:1-48.

Kolb, A. & Kolb, D. 2009. The Learning Way: Meta-cognitive Aspects of Experiential Learning. *Simulation Gaming*, 40:297-327.

Kolb, D., Boyatzis, R. & Mainemelis C. 1999. Experiential learning theory: research and new directions. *Management Learning*, 33(1):5-33.

Kolb, DA. 1994. *Experiential learning: experience as a source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publishing.

Krauss, SE. 2005. Research paradigms and meaning making: a primer. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4):758-770.

Lambert, L. 1998. Building leadership capacity in schools. *Supervision and Curriculum Development*, 1:1-40.

- Lambert, L. 2002. A framework for shared leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8):37-40.
- Landorf, H., Doscher, S. & Rocco, T. 2008. Education for sustainable development: Towards a definition. *Theory and Research in Education*, 6:221-236.
- Lanre-Abass, B. 2012. Autonomy and interdependence: Quandaries in research ethics. *Research Ethics*, 4:173-184.
- Lave, J. & Wenger, E. 1991. *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lave, J & Wenger, E. 2003. Communities of practice. *Encyclopaedia of Informal Education*, 1:1-8.
- Lee, M., Hallinger, P. & Walker, L. 2012. A Distributed Perspective on Instructional Leadership in International Baccalaureate (IB) Schools. *Educational Administration*, 1:1-35.
- Leithwood, K. 1994. Leadership for school restructuring, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 30(4):498–518.
- Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D. 1999. Transformational leadership effects: a replication. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 4(10):451-479.
- Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., Coffin, G., & Wilson, P. 1996. Preparing school leaders: What works? *Journal of School Leadership*, 6(3):316-342.
- Leithwood, K, Jantzi, D & Steinbach R. 1999. *Changing leadership for changing times*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Leithwood, K. & Louis, KS. 1999. *Organizational learning in schools: an introduction* in: Leithwood, K. & Louis, KS. *Organizational Learning in Schools*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Press.
- Leithwood, K, Louis, KS, Anderson, S. & Wahlstrom, K. 2004. *Review of research: How leadership influences student learning*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota, Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement

Leithwood, KA & Riehl, C. 2003. What we know about successful school leadership. *Laboratory for Student Success*, 1:1-7.

Lewis, G. 1996. *The mentoring manager*. London: Pitman Publishing.

Mashood, N., Verhoeven, H. & Chansarkar, B. 2009. Emiratisation, Omanisation and Saudisation: Common causes and common solutions. *International Business Research*, 1:1-12.

Maynard, T. & Furlong, J. 2004. *Learning to teach and models of mentoring in: McIntyre, D., Hagger, H. & Wilkins, M. Mentoring: Perspectives on School-Based teacher Education*, 2nd edition. London: Routledge Falmer.

McKimm, J., Jollie, C. & Hatter, M. 2007. Mentoring: theory and practice: preparedness to Practice. *Mentoring Scheme*, 2:1-16.

McMillan, JH. & Schumacher, S. 1993. Research in education: A conceptual project. *Education for Information*, 22:63-75.

McMillan, JH. & Schumacher, S. 2006. *Research in education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*. 5th edition. New York: Pearson Education Incorporated.

McMillan, JH. & Schumacher, S. 2010. *Research in education. Evidence-based inquiry*, 7th edition. Boston: Pearson Publishing.

McPhee, D. & Bronstein, L. 2002. Constructing meaning: strengthening the policy-practice link. *Social Work Education*, 21:651-662.

Megginson, D., Clutterbuck, D., Garvey, B., Stokes, P. & Garrett-Harris, R. 2006. *Mentoring in action: A practical guide*, vol 1. 2nd edition. London: Kogan Page.

Merriam, S. 2002. *Introduction to qualitative research*. New York: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miller, W. 2013. Better training is key to school reform. *Teaching Education*, 94:1-7.

Monahan, BJ. 2012. School leadership mentoring characteristics in an era of significant educational reform. D. Ed. dissertation, Indiana State University, Indiana.

Nahavandi, A. 2006. *The art and science of leadership*. New Jersey: Pearson Education Incorporated.

Opie, C. 2007. *Doing educational research*. London: Sage Publications.

Ortlipp, M. 2008. Keeping and using reflective journals in the qualitative research process. *The Qualitative Research Report*, 13:695-705.

Ospina, S. 2004. Qualitative Research. In Goethals, G., Sorenson, G. & MacGregor, J. *Encyclopedia of Leadership*. London: Sage Publications.

Patton, MQ. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Patton, K., Griffin, LL., Sheehy, D., Arnold, R. & Gallo, AM. 2005. Navigating the mentoring process in a research-based teacher development project: A situated learning perspective. *Teaching in Physical Education*, 24:302-325.

Pollard, A. 2005. *Reflective teaching*, vol 1. 2nd edition. New York: Continuum Publishing.

Raelin, J. 2004. Don't bother putting leadership into people. *Academy of Management Executive*, 18:131-135.

Ragins, BR., Cotton, JL., & Miller, JS. 2000. Marginal mentoring: The effects of type of mentor, quality of relationship, and program design on work and career attitudes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43 (6):1177-1194.

Raman, M., Woods, P. & Lim, A. 2013. Knowledge management systems in support of an induction programme: An action research approach. *Knowledge Management & E-Learning*, 5(4):419-433.

Reynolds, D. & Teddlie, C. 2000. Linking school effectiveness and school improvement. In Teddlie, C. & Reynolds D. *The international handbook of school effectiveness research*. New York: Falmer Press.

Reynolds, MN. 2006. Introduction articulating voices of Emiratisation: A personal perspective. *Educational Research*, 1:1-12.

- Rhodes, C. & Beneicke, S. 2002. Coaching, mentoring and peer-networking: challenges for the management of teacher professional development in schools. *Journal of In-service Education*, 28(2):297-309.
- Richardson, J. & McKenna, S. 2003. International experience and academic careers: what do academics have to say? *Personnel Review*, 32:774-795.
- Ricketts, CG. 2009. Behaving intelligently: leadership traits and characteristics. *Leadership Behaviour*, 1:1-8.
- Robson, C. 2002. *Real world research*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Rolfe, A. 2006. Mentoring: a powerful tool for change. *Mentoring Review*, 9:1-4.
- Russell, GM. & Kelly, NH. 2002. Research as interacting dialogic processes: Implications for reflectivity. *Qualitative Research*, 3:3.
- Ryan, G. 2012. Persistence in expatriate academic assignments in the UAE: a case study. PhD dissertation, Northcentral University, Arizona.
- Schulze, S. 2009. Mentoring novice researchers in higher education: A “communities of practice” perspective. *Koers*, 74(1):117-137.
- Schurink, WJ., Schurink, EM. & Poggenpoel, M. 1998. Focus group, interviewing and audiovisual methodology in qualitative research. In De Vos, AS. *Research at grassroots, a primer in care professions*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Shenton, A. 2004. *Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research*. New York: Harper Collins.
- Sherrard, C. 1998. Qualitative research. *Psychological Education*, 10:211-268.
- Smith, T. & Ingersoll, R. 2004. What are the effects of induction and mentoring on beginning teacher turnover? *Leadership Policy*, 1:1-51.
- Smith, M. & Waite, E. 2012. The zone of proximal development: assessing and differentiating. *Psychology Research*, 1:1-18.

Southworth, G. 2002. Instructional leadership in schools: reflections and empirical evidence. *School Leadership and Management*, 22(1):73-91.

Sowa, P. & De La Vega, E. 2008. One corner at a time: collaborating for educational change in the UAE. *Educational Reform*, 2:1-4.

Steward, J. 2006. Transformational leadership: An evolving Concept examined through the works of Burns, Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*, 54:1-29.

Storey, J. 2004. *Changing theories of leadership and leadership development*: in J. Storey, J. *Leadership in Organizations: Current issues and key trends*. London: Routledge Publishers.

Stringer, ET. 2007. *Action Research*, 3rd edition. London: Sage Publications.

Strydom, H. 1998. *The pilot study*: in De Vos, AS. *Research at grass roots: A primer to the caring profession*. Pretoria :Van Schaik Publishers.

Strydom, H. 2005. Ethical aspects of research in social sciences and human services professions. In De Vos, AS., Strydom, H., Fouche',CB. & Delport, CS. *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human services professions*, 3rd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

The Wallace Foundation. 2007. A bridge to school reform. *Educational Leadership and Reform*, 1:1-36.

Thorne, C. 2011. The impact of educational reforms on the work of the school principal in the United Arab Emirates. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership*, 39:172-185.

Tracy, B. 2012. Best leaders lead: proven secrets to getting the most out of yourself and others. *American Management Association*, 1:1-21.

Travers, M. 2001. *Qualitative Research through Case Studies*. London: Sage Publications.

Vygotsky, L. 1978. *Interaction between learning and social development: Mind and society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Wai-Packard, B. 2009. Definition of mentoring. *Mentoring*, 1:1-3.

Watkins, M. 2009. The eight toughest transitions for leaders. *Training and Development*. 1:42-45.

Wenger, E. 2000. Communities of practice and social learning systems. *Organization*, 7(2):225-246.

Wenger, E. 1998. *Communities of Practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wisker, G. 2008. *The postgraduate research handbook*. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Young, J. & Levin, B. 1999. The origins of educational reform: a comparative perspective. *Educational Administration and Policy*, 12:1-6.

Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*, 5th edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Publications.

Yukl, G. 1999. An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2):285-305.

APPENDIX A

APPROVAL LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



GEMS EDUCATION - RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	22 September 2013
Validity of Research Approval:	22 September 2013 to 22 December 2013
Name of Researcher:	Wilfred Carlo Bock
Address of Researcher:	P.O. Box 14021 Al Ain UAE
Telephone Number:	03 7370557/0506306106
Email address:	willbock1@hotmail.com
Research Topic:	The Impact of expatriate school leaders in the United Arab Emirates education system.
Number and type of schools:	ONE - School that participates in the Tamkeen Project
District	Al Ain

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to the school confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

GEMS Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

Mr. Michael Gibbs

Director: Tamkeen Professional Development Project

DATE: 22 September 2013



APPENDIX B

RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

Bock WC [35699280]

for D Ed study entitled

**The Impact of Expatriate School Leaders in the United Arab
Emirates (UAE) Education System**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.



Prof CS le Roux
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
lrouxcs@unisa.ac.za

27 November 2013

Reference number: 2013 November/35699280/CSLR

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Dear participant

I am a doctoral student in Education at UNISA. GEMS Education has given permission for the research which involves expatriate and local school leaders . I would like to invite you to participate in the research. I am interested in the impact of expatriate school leaders in the United Arab Emirates education system.

All participants will take part in an interview, in addition to group discussions to record their experiences. Participants will also be expected to use 5-10 minutes of their free time on daily basis to complete a diary/journal to reflect and record their thoughts.

Participating in the research will also enable you to reflect and review on your leadership stance in education reform, and to develop a clear sense of identity and purpose for working with school leadership.

There are no known risks involved. Your name and the name of your school will be kept a secret. Participation is voluntary and unpaid. You can stop your participation at any point if you feel so. The findings of the research will be published in the thesis. In addition, the results of the study may be published in a scientific journal or presented at a conference.

This study is conducted under the supervision of Prof Salomé Schulze at UNISA (Department of Psychology of Education). Please feel free to contact me or Prof Schulze at Schuls@unisa.ac.za for any questions you may have.

Thank you.

Wilfred Bock Signature: _____ Date: _____

E-mail: willbock1@hotmail.com Tel: (03) 7370557(W) Cell: 0506306106

PARTICIPANT CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY

I, _____ herewith confirm that I understand the above conditions of the research which have been explained to me and that I agree to participate in the above mentioned study.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX D

RESEARCH ASSISTANT CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I, _____ herewith confirm that I understand the conditions of the research which have been explained to me and I agree to participate in the study in the sole capacity as an assistant. I hereby agree to treat all information shared by participants in a confidential manner and not disclose any information pertaining to this study.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EXPATRIATE SCHOOL LEADERS

1. Why did you choose to work in the UAE? Explain...

2. What are your views on education reform in the UAE? Probe...

3. What are your views on the role of local/ indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

4. What are your views regarding the role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

5. To what extent has the mentoring process assisted you in your role as a school leader? Can you give some examples?

6. What is your view of the reform process whereby expatriates up skill local school leaders? Probe...

7. What are your views on what works well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

8. What are your views on what does not work well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe

9. What can you recommend to improve the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR LOCAL / INDIGENOUS SCHOOL LEADERS

1. What are your views on education reform in the UAE? Probe...

2. What are your views on the role of expatriate school leaders in the UAE education system and in schools? Probe...

3. To what extent has the mentoring process by expatriate leaders assisted you or not, in your role as a school leader? Please provide examples.

4. What is your view of the reform process and the way in which expatriates up skill local school leaders? Probe...

5. What are your views on what works well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

6. What are your views on the challenges regarding the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

7. What can you recommend to improve the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

APPENDIX G

FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS FOR EXPATRIATE AND INDIGENOUS LEADERS

1. What are your views on the role of local/ indigenous school leaders in the UAE education system?
Probe...

2. What are your views on what works well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

3. What are your views on what does not work well with regard to the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system? Probe...

4. What can you recommend to improve the role of expatriate leaders in the UAE education system?
Probe...