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Gender Effects on Leadership Styles in Public Schools in Abu Dhabi, UAE

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Thesis Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree
of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

School of Education

College of Social Sciences

University of Glasgow

March 2019

Abstract

There is an apparent lack of women in ‘top’ educational leadership and management positions in the UAE, despite increasing number of women in higher education and the relatively high enrolment rates and academic performance of females at all levels of education. This study examines gender effects on leadership styles in public schools in Abu Dhabi, UAE. The study specifically examines the differences in leadership styles between male and female school leaders (principals) in the UAE, and the perceived challenges that women face in leadership positions, and when seeking higher leadership positions, contributing to knowledge on gender and educational leadership in three unique ways. First, it makes contribution to the literature on the under-representation of women in high leadership positions in educational institutions. Second, it contributes to the literature on the gender-based differences in leadership styles in public schools, using both the perceptions of teachers and principals. Third, it contributes specifically to literature on gender gaps, educational participation and leadership in the UAE at a time of transformation in the educational system.

The present study adopted a mixed methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative paradigms of data collection and analysis. The study made use of data collected from the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) responses of 300 school principals and 300 school teachers (male and female), as well as semi-structured interviews of 12 (6 male and 6 female) principals selected by purposeful sampling in the Abu Dhabi, Al Ain and Western regions of UAE. The study used descriptive statistics, t-tests and thematic analysis to evaluate, analyse and triangulate the responses from both data sources.

Findings from the MLQ survey conducted revealed that school leaders in Abu Dhabi use both transformational and transactional leadership styles and rarely use the laissez-faire approach. However, from the interview responses, school principals favoured what could be described as more of the use of transformational leadership styles than transactional leadership approaches. While women reported displaying more features of transactional leadership based on higher mean ranking of individual constructs, the t-test results showed that male leaders self-reported higher levels of transformational leadership, which was statistically significant (however, the teachers showed the opposite perception of their leaders, according to mean rankings). The study also shows that traditional and cultural barriers, such as family commitments and culturally learned gender discrimination affect leadership aspirations of women while training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement.

This thesis concludes with recommendations for practice, improving educational leadership in the UAE, and in reducing the real and perceived social barriers to women’s full participation in the UAE workforce and leadership. Some of the practical implications include providing preparatory training for school leadership and in-service professional development, reforming the recruitment process, promoting gender equality in leadership participation and empowering women in authority.

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Dedication

The following thesis is the fruit of his female empowerment vision, His Highness Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al-Nahyan, who wanted to make Emirati women stand strong headed in UAE's male-dominated society and to achieve excellence in their desired profession. The father of UAE nation believed that women make half of the society, and no country wanting to develop can undermine their participation. Thus, I dedicate my highest educational achievement to the great visionary in all Arab history, whose vision is being carried on by his noble sons. Being an Emirati woman, I feel blessed to be able to take his vision forward and to spread it across by getting enrolled into the highest academic degree programme with University of Glasgow.

Acknowledgement

On the completion of my thesis, I believe in my abilities and make a deep commitment to driving social and educational transformations in the UAE and globally, for which I have been equipped during this PhD programme. Obviously, things have been hard on me at times, but I have learnt a lot on every personal and professional strand that knowledge gained today shall be fruit for my nation tomorrow.

Without any mere doubt, my deepest appreciation goes to the all-powerful and the supreme creator, The Almighty God, who blessed me with the steadfastness and patience to complete the course of this enlightened path of knowledge.

With respect to human effort and guidance, at each step of the thesis, I would like to specially thank Dr. Mike Carroll and Dr. Catherine Lido from University of Glasgow, United Kingdom. They have been the guiding stars to shine my way of excellence, with their valuable recommendations at all stages.

I would also like to say some words of gratitude to my supportive family members. First of all, my father and my mother deserve to be thanked for helping me taking care of my kids, during my absence in UAE. A special vote of thanks goes to my dear spouse, Salman, who supported me being a male member of the conservative society, which hardly accepts women taking the lead. Most importantly, a heartfelt thanks to all kids of my soul and body, Mahra, Abdulla, Naama, Haya and Ousha, who patiently waited for me to finish my studies in the UK and missed me on every important step of their life.

I take pride in showing my deep gratitude to my funders, The Abu Dhabi Department of Education and Knowledge (ADEK), which provided me with this life-changing opportunity and for letting me to be a change agent for the society in the future. I happened to find each person quite motivating and encouraging, whenever I was in need to be lifted-up. I would also like to say thanks to every single individual working in the United Arab Emirates Embassy in the United Kingdom and to be precise, Dr. Mohammed Fineer and Mr. Yasser Salim from the Education Department for their support. Hence, I look forward to contributing my productive and concise efforts for the development of my society and nation at every possible level.

In the way of imparting encouragement, my university fellows have been of immense help. Their forefront companionship and words of positive input have made me able to meet all challenges throughout the course.

Above all, every human effort, imparted directly or indirectly for letting me believe in my abilities in all capacities, must be thanked, wholeheartedly.

Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature _____

Mariam Ahmed Alhammadi

Key Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Definitions
ADEC	Abu Dhabi Education Council
ADEK	Abu Dhabi Department for Education and Knowledge
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
CEPA	Common Educational Proficiency Assessment
ETF	Education and Training Foundation (England)
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTC	General Teaching Council for Scotland
IELTS	International English Language Test System
MLQ	Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire
MOE	Ministry of Education (UAE)
NAPO	National Admissions and Placements Office (UAE)
NPBEA	National Policy Board for Educational Administrators (USA)
NSM	New School Model
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
SDR	Socially Desirable Responding
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0. Background

Societies can benefit when female and male abilities are equally given opportunity to develop any society. The last two decades have seen a transformation since The United Nations (UN) has started to work to improve gender equality and foster women empowerment across member nations. In 2015, leaders from 193 countries of the world came together to adopt the sustainable development goals (SDS), of which goal 5 is to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls by the year 2030 (United Nations, 2015). As an important member of the UN, The United Arab Emirates (UAE) has recognised that women's increasing participation in society will advance the socio-economic growth and development of the nation. The UAE is now ranked as a leading country in gender equality in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) region, according to the World Economic Forum's 2017 Global Gender Gap report (World Economic Forum, 2017). This achievement comes from the fundamental belief that women and men are equal partners in society. Through a series of public and private sector initiatives, women are playing an increasingly stronger role in education, business, military and government.

As reviewed by Zuhur (2003) and Moghadam (2004), the founder of the UAE, Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahayan created a movement in the 1970's to encourage Emirati women in both education and the workforce. Strong steps have been taken by The Women's Union in Abu Dhabi over the years to explore the problems faced by women who want to work for the development of the society. It tried to help women to understand their hopes and ambitions, to work side-by-side with men in the UAE, so that they can also contribute to national progress. This political development provided the women of the UAE with a culture of support where they can work freely and get all possible opportunities on equal basis. His Highness, Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice President of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai has given support in this area since coming to power in 2006. He made important appointments of women in government and appointed the first woman CEO of Dubai's official English-speaking channel. Another step was to motivate women in political positions. Two women were appointed in UAE's official parliament, the Federal National Council. Though no woman won by direct election, the aim was to stimulate women's participation in politics. (UAE Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs, 2009). Today, nine women hold seats within the Federal National Council (FNC), a consultative parliamentary body,

accounting for nearly one-quarter of the FNC's membership. In addition, women make up 20 percent of the diplomatic corps (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC).

No doubt, over the past forty years, the definition of the female roles and responsibilities has changed. The traditional role of a female was to take care of the family and to stay at home for fulfilling her household duties; this has now changed as women now work outside and support the family by earning money (The UAE Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs, 2009). Present years have seen an increase of women taking part in higher education at university. "The National Admissions and Placements Office (NAPO) of the Ministry of Higher Education says that only 27 percent of Emirati males are getting higher education, compared with over 70 percent of Emirati females" (Ridge, 2009:1). Women's employment has been more widely accepted through desires for self-sustainability, and new economic landscapes have led to less reliance on foreign labour, providing greater opportunities to UAE nationals through the Emiratisation program of the government. These changing landscapes combined with political and societal efforts have created space for women leaders in the workplace (Neal, Finlay and Tansey, 2005).

In UAE today, women make up 46% of the national labour force market, up from an only 2% in 1975 (Halder, 2016; Khamis, 2017). This increase was the result of more participation of women in education and developing ambitions towards women in employment (Al Shaer, 2010). However, there is still a need of more women in some specific job sectors. Adams (2003) found that women are motivated to work in areas such as administrative, school teaching, public and health sectors. Al Marzouqi and Forster (2011) also found that more women are needed in technical fields such as UAE's IT sector, by explained by women's own choice of profession and the less supportive culture for her to choose an IT career. There are also strong indications that women are more likely to choose to work in organisations that promote their cultural and religious values. There is a good overall growth in all sectors of the labour force, yet less Emirati women are working for the business sector and in senior leadership positions. (Al Shaer, 2010; Kemp, 2013). Women today comprise a big part of the work force, but very few are leaders at the top political or organisational positions (Chaluvadi, 2015).

This study is concerned with examining gender effects in educational leadership in Abu Dhabi public schools, UAE. Section 1.1 of this chapter lays out the research context, providing a brief overview on the present developments in the education system in UAE, and the state of gender participation in UAE's education system (chapter 2 will give a full account of the history and development of UAE's educational system). Section 1.2.

discusses the motivation for the study, while section 1.3 examines the problem statement. The purpose of the study along with the specific objectives of the study is highlighted in section 1.4 and a list of the research questions that this study investigates are presented in section 1.5. The significance of the study is discussed in section 1.6, while section 1.7 briefly outlines the methodology for the study. In section 1.8, the specific contributions of the study to the literature are demonstrated. The limitations of the study are revealed in section 1.9, while section 1.10 provides a table with the definition of key terms used in this thesis. The final section of this chapter, 1.11 provides a brief overview of the structure of the thesis. The positionality of the researcher in relation to the study can be found in chapter 6, while the researcher's position after the study can be found at the very end of the thesis in chapter 11.

1.1. Research Context

UAE leaders have acknowledged the need to use education to advance its development and have also recognised that the development of its educational system necessitates a determination to provide its youth with more access to education, particularly its young women (Abdulla, 2015). In its four decades of existence, the UAE has invested hugely in educational infrastructure which has led to an improvement in the population's literacy rate from 60% in 1970 to more than 97% in 2006 (UNESCO, 2008). This investment has, however, been more evident in females. Abdulla and Ridge (2011) note that although women were exposed to education nearly twenty years after their male counterparts, today, women are performing better than men in both enrolment and academic outcomes in secondary and tertiary schools. According to Halder (2016), enrolment of female Emirati citizens in higher education rose from 16,619 students in 2008 to 22,819 students in 2014, representing a yearly increase of 5.5 per cent over this period. In fact, women currently account for over 70% of students in higher education in the UAE (Al-Suwaidi, 2017). In general education, females have regularly been larger in number than male students since 2008, with the female to male average of reaching 157:100 by 2014 (Halder, 2016).

In terms of academic performance, Emirati males are also doing less well in school and university compared with females. The Ministry of Education (2007) had an opinion that at the secondary level, girls are performing better than boys across many subjects. Due to the UAE Government's regular efforts towards educating its citizens, the literacy rate among Emirati females (aged 10 years and above) rose slowly, reaching 92.7 per cent by 2015. On the other hand, illiteracy among Emirati females fell from 89.8 per cent in 1970

to only 7.3 per cent in 2015 (Halder, 2016). All these show that the UAE government's investment in women's education over the past years has been beneficial, and women are now doing better than men in many areas of education.

From the beginning of the educational developments, the UAE has seen great improvements in the education system (Dudley, 2007). The most important issues in the agenda of education developments in the country have been to build educational space, encourage technical knowledge and creativity in the curriculum, starting international quality assurance frameworks to raise standards, and measure performance (Dudley, 2007). However, in this regular improvement, one thing that was not improved, is the quality of education, specifically at the public-school level, resulting in lower learning experience at foundation years (*ibid*). The gender-segregated education system has also resulted in boys, receiving education learning only from male teachers and male leaders, while girls are given education and learning only by female teachers. On one hand, this situation is helping the country to keep its Arab culture as it is, but on the other hand this has limited the learning abilities and experiences of students in the public schools. Gender-segregated education has its own understanding in terms of the limits and there is a need to remove the impact of cultural barriers of education for which the UAE government has started a New School Model. In new-model schools, classes are mixed until grade five, where children are between eight and nine years old. The boys and girls are given education at the same time so to support and develop their abilities and learning, which helps the research on educational policy development (Chisamy, DeJaeghere, Kendall and Khan, 2012).

1.2. Motivation for the Study

This research was carried out in a number of public schools in Abu Dhabi. The researcher has over 16 years' experience as a teacher in four schools. This topic of study was chosen because of several reasons. First, as a teacher, the researcher has a lot of interest in gender studies as applied to the field of educational leadership. Second, leadership and schooling systems in Abu Dhabi are going through major transformations. Third, there are existing challenges for women in leadership positions. The researcher wished to investigate which leadership styles men and women use in Abu Dhabi public school and how teachers perceive the leadership styles of their school principals. The researcher also wanted to identify what style of leadership should be taken into consideration by leaders to help the Abu Dhabi Education Council [now known as the Abu Dhabi Department for Education and Knowledge (ADEK)] develop leaders that are effective. The researcher

has experience working in both teaching and leadership and has a large network of individuals working within teaching, as principals and in other leadership roles positions in education. Whilst the researcher's past experience and knowledge was useful, it was also essential not to make assumptions but rather to use thorough approaches to research this topic. In this regard, the researcher considered that to minimise the incidence of subjectivity in research associated with human experience, it was necessary to use mixed methods approaches, which combine qualitative and quantitative methods to enhance the validity of data and reduce researcher bias (More on the researcher's positionality and the mixed methods approach is discussed in detail in chapter 6).

1.3. Statement of the Problem

Given the background information presented earlier, one major problem that received the attention of the researcher is the underrepresentation of women in educational leadership/management in the UAE, alongside increasing number of women in higher education and the relatively high enrolment and academic performance of females at all levels of education. In fact, during the academic year (2014/15), females accounted for 89.5 per cent of 4,283 UAE citizen teachers (Halder, 2016). Yet, only a smaller proportion of female teachers are in administrative and educational leadership positions. Though the proportion of female principals in Abu Dhabi, UAE is 61% (OECD, 2014), the vast majority of UAE teachers – 89.5% - are female, implying that there is a much lower progression rate for women than for men. In addition, while there are more women in school headship positions like Principal and Vice Principal, they are not represented in top administrative leadership positions such as Director General in ADEK, Executive Directors, Heads of Department in Education Ministry, Cluster Managers, etc. These positions are currently held by men. But statistics shows that there are more educated women who are equally qualified to handle these top administrative positions. For example, there are far more UAE citizen teachers, and over 70% of the current higher education enrolment are females, meaning that there are more female degree holders than men. There are also concerns over the effectiveness of ADEK's educational policies with respect to the recruitment of male expatriate teachers (Ridge, 2010).

Several socio-cultural and attitudinal barriers can account for the gender discrimination against women in power and in educational leadership in the UAE. First is UAE society's patriarchal attitude which expects women to stay at home performing child care duties and domestic chores, while men who are the breadwinners pursue full time employment. This has been a major hindrance for women's enhanced roles at managerial and

leadership positions, even in academic institutions where women employees are the majority (Baud, and Mahgoub, 2001). Second, women face gender role discrimination. At work, men and women are often assigned different roles based on their sex. For example, women are often expected to assume secretarial work, while men are often projected to be suitable for managerial and executive roles (Blackstone, 2003). This kind of gender stereotypes against women tend to pose barriers to female teachers/staff aspiring to senior school leadership and management positions. In fact, in a survey of head teachers in England and Wales, Coleman (2001) found that most women head teachers felt that they had to justify their position as managers and leaders both at the time of application for headship and while serving as heads. Third, most women face dual responsibility in society – working full time or part time and also handling child care and other household responsibilities. This put enormous pressure on them and negatively impacts on their job and leadership effectiveness. In addition, men use this as an excuse for the unsuitability of women in handling sensitive leadership positions which require commitment and sometimes longer hours of work. Fourth is the impact of culture and religion in the Arab world which tends to promote sex segregation in most public places. This tends to have negative implications for women’s socialization and leadership aspirations in the workplace.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

A major aim of this study is to explore and identify why women are concentrated in certain employment areas and are not occupying high leadership roles in the education sector in Abu Dhabi. What are the perceived challenges that women face in leadership positions and when seeking higher leadership positions? Is there truly a difference in the leadership styles employed by the male and female genders? If yes, are they interrelated? This research will explore a range of different factors including culture, tradition, gender issues, and stereotypes. This study aims at examining the perceptions of some principals and teachers regarding leadership style used by school principals, focusing on a number of Abu Dhabi public schools. Exploring the perceptions of school leaders about effective leadership will shape our collective understanding and interpretations of what followers expect from their leaders.

This research attempts to fill a gap in the extant literature on perceptions of leadership effectiveness by both principals and teachers in Abu Dhabi public schools and explore why women aren’t represented in the highest levels of school leadership.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To understand the leadership styles and personality traits of school leaders and how they are developed;
2. To examine the leadership style differences between male and female leaders;
3. To know whether leadership styles change according to the given roles or positions for both genders;
4. To evaluate the effectiveness of ADEK's recruitment policies;
5. To determine the influence of gender considerations in ADEK's set standards of recruitment, appointment and promotion of the leaders to various educational roles;
6. To explore the influence of culture and tradition on gender discrimination, job performance and leadership aspiration; and
7. To examine the influence of other factors such as training and monetary rewards on educational and learning outcomes and leadership effectiveness in schools;
8. To make recommendations to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies) in Abu Dhabi public schools.

1.5. Research Questions

This study has attempted to provide some answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools?
2. Do these styles vary according to gender of the leader?
3. Do these styles vary according to the position held by the rater (Leader or Teacher)?
4. Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?
5. Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?
6. What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?
7. Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?
8. What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?

1.6. Significance of this Study

There is a dearth of research on the association between gender and leadership opportunities in education in Abu Dhabi, UAE. Moreover, there are only few studies focused on the link between gender and leadership styles used by public school principals. However, some studies have looked at these issues in other countries. For

example, Brinia (2012) looked at the under-representation of female teachers in leadership posts in primary schools in Greece and the factors that produce inequalities in teachers' professional advancement. Her study shows that women face lower chances of promotion and advancement due to breaks in service and family commitments. They also face stereotypes regarding their management capabilities. Coleman (2007) compared male and female secondary school head teachers' views on whether gender is a barrier to accessing educational leadership in England and found that women have a higher chance of becoming head teachers and are now less likely to be categorised into pastoral roles, but in some cases, women still face discrimination from members of the governing board and wider community. Two recent studies in England, (Guihen, 2017, Shepherd, 2017) also examined the views of female deputy head teachers aspiring to secondary head teacher role and why women are under-represented at executive management level within higher education in England, respectively. Guihen (2017) found that women are now encouraged to aspire towards headship because of the desire to transform lives and communities regardless of the performance expectations, risk and stress associated with secondary head teacher roles. However, within the context of higher education, Shepherd's (2017) findings challenge the notion that women lack confidence or ambition for top jobs.

In terms of gender-based differences in leadership styles, Eagly et al (1992) reviewed over 50 studies that compared the leadership styles of principals of USA public schools and found some differences between the sexes, with women adopting a more democratic and participative leadership style, while men have greater tendency to act in more autocratic or directive ways. Fridell et al (2009) also examined principal's leadership style differences between genders in USA Midwest public schools. The findings from their research show that there are no differences between genders in the use of traditional leadership styles, but that there were significant differences between men's and women's use of the servant-leadership style. Taleb (2010) investigated the relationship between gender and female leadership styles in a single sex academic institution in Saudi Arabia and also found evidence to support the mainstream view that women prefer a democratic, interpersonally-oriented and transformational style rather than autocratic, task oriented or transactional style. (Chapter three provides more discussion on leadership styles). In other international studies, Aziz et al (2017) looked at gender-based differences in educational leadership in Pakistan, while Eboka (2016) investigated the perception of teachers on the influence of principal' leadership styles and gender on teacher morale in Nigeria.

Within the UAE specifically, there is a growing body of knowledge on gender gaps in education and employment. For example, Ridge (2010) looked at teacher quality within UAE, concluding that deficiencies in recruitment, training and ongoing management of male, expatriate teachers may partially explain the poor performance and retention of boys. Abdulla and Ridge (2011) examined the key social and economic factors explaining the low participation of Emirati males in higher education, attributing it to the socioeconomic influences on student achievement, namely the disconnect between educational effort and probable rewards, social and educational stratification and poor prior academic attainment of Emirati males. Kemp (2013) also investigated the progress in the UAE towards achievement of Millennium Development Goal (3) – “gender equality” by the target date of 2015, which revealed the education of women have been at a consistently high level for some years because of the government’s strategy to increase women’s access to education and the societal acceptance of educated women. However, according to the study, gender equality in employment is slow because student’s choice of study usually dictates employment potential and recruitment only takes place within a narrow range of occupations. Moreover, women employment is more likely within the public sector. A recent study by Samier (2015) examined Emirati women’s higher educational leadership formation under globalisation, with the central argument being that the social and political transformation taking place in the UAE (including the country's Emiratisation policy) have led to more women increasingly assuming senior roles in higher education organisations in the UAE, and by extension, influencing women's professional status in the UAE.

A number of related studies on school leadership in the UAE were found by the researcher. For example, Mohammed (2011) examined the factors associated with leadership of female principals and vice principals in female public schools in Dubai. The findings of the study showed that age and personality were related to educational leadership and that personality was correlated with factors like experience, leadership style and position. In addition, this research also focused on leadership styles and concluded that transformational leadership style was dominant among the participants. Al Ahbabi (2016) identified key factors that contribute to effective schools in UAE secondary education and found that effective school leadership was largely associated with three common prerequisites - experience, ethics and management competence, while the preservation of national identity, Islamic values and an Arabic cultural context were pivotal to the process. In another related study, Litz (2014) examined the degree to which school principals in the UAE practice transformational leadership to instil change and innovation within the Middle Eastern educational context, as well as investigated

teachers' and principals' overall acceptance of this type of leadership. His research shows that principals believe they were practicing high levels of transformational leadership, but majority of the teachers disagreed with that assessment. When the results were analysed within the context of Hofstede's cultural models, it appeared that the differences in opinions between principals and teachers was a reflection of cultural differences between the largely Islamic population and a more Western orientation of the transformational leadership paradigm adopted by the Emirati (Arab) principals.

However, no study, to the knowledge of the researcher, has looked at the impact of gender on leadership styles in Abu Dhabi public schools. The significance and originality of this study is that it explores the perceptions of leadership of both teachers and their principals in a similar set of public schools in Abu Dhabi, UAE. This study is unique in several ways:

1. It demonstrates teachers' and principals' perceptions of the differences in leadership styles used by male and female educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools
2. It notes whether the teachers' perception of leadership styles used by educational leaders differ from those of the principals.
3. It suggests the most effective leadership style in educational leaders towards achieving organisational goals.
4. It highlights challenges faced by men and women in leadership roles, and how these challenges affect leadership.
5. It examines how gender affects women in high educational leadership positions.
6. It determines how principals perceive the effectiveness of ADEK's recruitment process, training and professional development in producing effective leaders
7. It also highlights how ADEK could strengthen its women empowerment initiatives and how it could improve educational leadership by through effective recruitment, training and professional development of both teachers and principals.

1.7. Methodological Framework

There is an entire chapter on the methodological procedure used in this study (chapter 6), but this section is simply a quick overview of the key methods used in data collection and analysis. As a result of the researcher's position as a teacher, it became important to use data collection methods devoid of any bias or tendency to one viewpoint. Consequently, this study followed a mixed methods approach, which combines quantitative and qualitative techniques to provide answers to the research questions. Mixed methods offer some practical advantages when investigating complex research

questions (Driscoll et al, 2007). The researcher undertook two phases of data collection. Phase one included two sets of the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), one for teachers and one for principals. MLQ is an instrument used to measure the extent to which leaders use transformational vs transactional leadership styles (Bass and Avolio, 1995; Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999). The MLQ instrument was used in this study to identify the extent to which educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools exhibit characteristics of a transformational leader and to discover how they measure up in their own eyes (the leaders) and in the eyes of those with whom they work (the teachers). The survey sample consists of responses from 600 personnel from various public schools in Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain and western regions of UAE, including 300 educational leaders namely principals, vice principals, curriculum managers and admin managers (151 males and 149 females) and 300 school teachers (152 males and 148 females).

Phase two of the data collection included semi-structured interviews of 12 principals - 6 male and 6 female principals. Quantitative and qualitative data was obtained in order to cross-validate the data from both phases. Both questionnaires and face-to-face interviews were used to gain a better understanding of the research problem as stated earlier, which is to understand the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in public schools (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire leadership style) and whether these styles vary according to gender and the role of the rater. Questions were also asked on the role gender plays in the recruitment, selection and promotion of leaders and the role of social factors such as culture and tradition in job performance, leadership aspiration and leadership effectiveness.

To overcome disadvantages of being an inside researcher, effort was made to emphasize the researcher's role as a researcher rather than a teacher when inviting individuals to participate in both phases of data collection. Participants were voluntary and were advised that they could withdraw at any time (during both phases). In addition, participants were informed about how data from the study would be used and assured that responses would remain anonymous and confidential. The researcher also advised participants that the information they provided would not affect their current employment in any way. The researcher also conducted pilot testing Data collected was then analysed using a combination of quantitative and quantitative techniques. The questionnaire responses were analysed using descriptive statistics including percentages and frequencies as well as Cronbach's alpha for reliability and finally inferential tests using the student t-test procedure. The student t-test is a statistical technique used in social

research to determine the differences between two groups (Mowery, 2011). In this study, the t-test was applied to determine the gender differences in the approach to leadership styles and differences based on the position of the respondents i.e. whether teacher or leader. The interview responses were analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic data analysis is a qualitative approach to analysing data by describing and developing themes from data and helps to "...map the shared patterns of behaviour, thinking or talking" (Creswell, 2012: 473). For this study, research themes were developed from the actual responses to questions asked during the interviews. Discussions were then built around these themes and the questionnaire results in order to answer the research questions.

1.8. Contribution of this Research

This study contributes to the growing body of knowledge on gender and educational leadership in three unique ways. First, it makes contribution to the literature on the under-representation of women in high leadership positions in educational institutions. Second, it contributes to the literature on the gender-based differences in leadership styles in public schools, using both the perceptions of teachers and principals and not just a one-sided view. Third, it contributes specifically to the growing body of knowledge on gender gaps and educational participation and leadership in the UAE at a time of transformation in the educational system. In addition, this thesis takes a complete perspective of gender gaps in job performance, leadership aspiration and leadership effectiveness, as well as the role of social factors such as the Arab culture, family commitments, religion, attitudinal factors, educational policy and politics in shaping these differences

1.9. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are thoroughly considered in the methodology and analysis chapters of the thesis. However, some of the main ones are presented here. Although, this study examines globally known gender stereotypes and educational leadership styles, the results are restricted to local public schools in the UAE, and in Abu Dhabi in particular. The findings of this research are limited to this context and may not be generalisable to other contexts, except those with similar variables and conditions. Due to the fact that the number of public schools and principals in the UAE is small in comparison with their counterparts in many other countries around the world, the results are restricted to secondary schools and their principals in the UAE. In addition, collecting highly robust data on the qualities of principals and the outcomes of schooling would require the application of large scale qualitative and longitudinal research methods.

Further, the researcher has conducted this research as an individual at a time when research dealing with education policy and reform can be better conducted by coordinated large-scale national efforts. However, the researcher believes this study to be robust given the time and resource constraints of the research and within the context in which the research is presented, as it is rooted in a specific regional and local context and is informed by the researcher’s prior knowledge and experience in the educational system under consideration.

1.10. Definition of Key Terms

Table 1.1. shows a definition of key terms. This is to ensure that the reader understands the meaning of key terminologies used in the research and their applications in various contexts.

Table 1.1.: Definition of Key Terms

Gender*	Social, cultural and psychological characteristics associated with being male or female.
Sex	The biological designation of being male and female (whether present at birth or assigned later in life)
Leader	A person holding the role of principal or vice-principal in a public school monitored by ADEK. ‘Leader’ also refers to one holding a leadership role higher than principal and vice-principal, for example, a cluster manager.
Cluster manager	Manager of principals of ADEK supervised public schools
Followers	Individuals under a leader’s influence. In this research, followers refer to the teachers.
Higher education	Post-college education where students are 18 years old or over.
Transformational leadership	A leadership style that focuses on the leader’s ability and skill in leading his team to achieve objectives through acting as a role model for commitment, confidence, knowledge, and continuous development and support.
Transactional leadership	A leadership style that operates through a two-way exchange (action-reward) relationship.
Laissez-faire leadership	A leadership style (passive) that often does not make a significant input to the overall management. This style can be linked with both low output and low staff satisfaction
Managerial leadership	A practice of leadership where an individual influences the staff and facilitates individual and efforts made together to achieve objectives.
Multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)	A measurement tool used to research leadership traits and leadership styles used by leaders.
* A more thorough exploration of the concept of gender is given in chapter 5.	

1.11. Structure of the Thesis

Chapter one provides an overview of the current study as already reviewed.

Chapter two gives a brief history of the traditional and modern eras of UAE's education system. It also provides detailed insight into the structure of the education system, the role of education management bodies and recent developments in the sector.

Chapter three explores the commonly known and practiced theories of leadership. It reviews developments and progression in the classification of leadership theories – including trait-based theories, behavioural theories, contingency models, contemporary approaches (namely transformational and transactional theories which are at the core of this thesis) as well as alternative models such as distributed and collaborative leadership approaches. This chapter identifies and examines the strengths and limitations of these theories and also examines conceptual issues such as managerial leadership and leadership effectiveness. The latter part of the chapter examines the principles of Islamic leadership given that this form of leadership has its root in the origin of the country of study and then leadership in the UAE and GCC.

Chapter four examines leadership models and styles across educational cultures and contexts including those of 'western' or the so-called 'developed' countries, in comparison with the educational leadership and management approaches used in the UAE. In addition, it covers specific issues regarding the influence of principal's leadership styles on school effectiveness.

Chapter five uses various social, cultural and psychological theories on gender to explain gender inequalities in education, at work and in leadership positions from a global and UAE perspective. It also examines the link between gender and leadership more generally and specifically the link between gender and educational leadership, highlighting the influence of gender on perceptions of leadership effectiveness by school principals.

Chapter six discusses the methodological framework of the study, including the researcher's position in relation to the study, the philosophical approaches used and research design as well as the approaches and procedures followed in the data collection process (phase one and two). The techniques and protocol used in the recruitment of participants as well as ethical considerations are discussed fully in this chapter. This chapter also examines the methods used in evaluating and analysing the data.

Chapter seven presents the evaluation of data collected from phase one of the research

(the MLQ survey). It presents the results of ranked means and t-tests for the leaders' self-rating and teachers' perception of the leadership styles and the gender differences observed.

Chapter eight analyses the data collected from phase two of the research (the semi-structured interviews). The chapter thematically analyses detailed insights and explores participants' opinions and perceptions into several issues in the UAE education sector.

Chapter nine discusses in detail the qualitative themes that emerged from phase two of the study to describe what we have learnt and to describe the shared patterns of thoughts or beliefs held by the respondents regarding each theme of discussion.

Chapter ten adopts a triangulated approach to the discussion of the key findings of both phases of the study related to gender and leadership styles and draws some insights, for the purpose of answering the key research questions on the effects of gender on leadership styles.

Chapter eleven, the final chapter, provides some concluding remarks and summarises the findings of the study by research questions. It also proffers policy recommendations for improving educational leadership in the UAE, in general, and driving women empowerment, in particular. There is a final section on the researcher's position after the study, which sets out my closing thoughts on the whole discussion on gender and educational leadership in the UAE drawing from my experiences in relation to the study and my stay in the UK.

Chapter Two

Brief History and Recent Developments in UAE's Education System

2.0. Introduction

This chapter discusses a brief history of the education system in United Arab Emirates (UAE), and educational development after its independence in 1971. This chapter shows how Islamic education has helped to shape educational leadership in the UAE and Islamic leadership in general over the years through the teaching of Islamic norms and traditions as well as how these have been inculcated into the curriculum to help give a different perspective of formal education and leadership founded on Islamic principles. It also highlights the recent developments in the UAE educational sector to provide some insight into current happenings and set the tone for the discussion of problems encountered in the sector in later chapters, including quality of education provided by expatriate teachers, gender gaps in educational outcomes, Emiratisation of the Education workforce, gender representation in educational leadership and the role of the UAE culture and traditions in influencing leadership styles.

The chapter begins by exploring UAE's country profile in terms of its geographical location, political and economic contexts, which gives the background for understanding UAE's educational system. Next, the chapter provides a brief history of the traditional and modern eras of UAE's educational system development and then gives a detailed insight of the structure of UAE's educational system. The rest of the chapter explains the role of educational management bodies in promoting educational development, along with recent developments in the educational sector, which now aims to promote Abu Dhabi as a global economic hub. Finally, this chapter examines the role of educational leaders in public schools in Abu Dhabi, including a concise description of the standards for leadership recruitment, responsibilities, training and the criteria for performance evaluation of school teachers and principals by ADEK.

2.1. Country Profile of the UAE

2.1.1. Geographical Location of UAE

UAE is strategically located in the Arabian Gulf region and borders with other Islamic

states/countries (see the map location of the country in figure 2.1). On its North, the country shares borders with the Arabian Gulf, while on the East, it shares borders with Sultanate of Oman and Gulf of Oman. Moving on to the South, links with Sultanate of Oman, followed by Saudi Arabia. In the west UAE has boundaries with Qatar and Saudi Arabia. The country consists of a land area of 83,600 km², with some islands, numbering 200 in total. In 1971, the country became a federation of seven independent states (Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Umm al Quwayan, Ajman, Ras al Khaimah and Al Fujayrah), which were earlier administered by the United Kingdom (Alnuami, 2013).

Figure 2.1: Map Location of UAE



Source: airport.au

Though small in size, the UAE has become an important player in regional and international affairs, and its two largest cities, Abu Dhabi and Dubai have also emerged as regional centres for business, education, culture and tourism (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC). The UAE's estimated population as at 2018 stood at 9.54 million people (World Population Review, 2018). Islam is the most practiced religion of the country. However, there are many churches and cathedrals where people freely practice religion.

2.1.2. Political Context of UAE

The political rule of the country is federal presidential elected monarchy, as the president is elected from among the absolute monarchs who rule each of the seven emirates. Under the UAE system of government, the President of the Federation is elected by a body known as the Federal Supreme Council of Rulers. The Supreme Council is the top policy-making body in the UAE, and the President and Vice President are both elected from its

membership for renewable five-year terms (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC). This system of government uses a type of constitutional federation for policy formulation, and legislation for laws and regulations, at all levels. Every general and corporate policy is formulated by the Federal Supreme Council. The Federal Supreme Council is comprised of the three main branches: civil, criminal and Sharia or Islamic law (Alnuami, 2013). The role of the Council is to set laws for internal and external affairs of the country. These rules, laws and all kinds of legislations are implemented in all seven states, with Abu Dhabi marking the capital state and principal part of any law-making. According to UNESCO (2011), all parts make one united federation, with each of the states having different and significant contributions towards the growth of economic and social ends. Abu Dhabi has its own central governing system; Abu Dhabi Executive Council. Abu Dhabi also has a National Consultative Council that takes an active part in a variety of legislations. This council addresses questions to the Executive Council and specialises in discussing by-laws and public policy subjects (Abu Dhabi Government Website). In 2003, Dubai (being second biggest state after Abu Dhabi), formed its own separate Executive Council, followed by others (Sharjah and Ajman with their independent Executive Councils).

2.1.3. Economic Prospective of UAE

Before its dependence on money from oil, the country had a simple economy based on farming, date palm cultivation, fishing, pearling and seafaring (Shihab, 2001). Then came a highly transformational phase in the economical aura of the country, when the immense resources of oil were discovered in 1958. Within a short period, the UAE's gross domestic product (GDP) increased more than 200-fold since 1971 and was recorded to be AED 1.58 trillion (about USD 430 billion) in 2015 (Ministry of Economy, 2016). The UAE has about 10 percent of the world's total supply of oil reserves and the world's fifth largest natural gas reserves, estimated at 97.8 million barrels and 215 trillion cubic feet (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC). The infrastructure and development programme of UAE rose dramatically when the government-initiated policies aimed at driving industrial growth using oil exports. Currently, the UAE is the second largest economy in the GCC after Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Economy, 2016, 2017).

Since the beginning, the vision of His Highness Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al-Nahyan (1918-2004) was to develop the country and to raise up the living standard of his nation, by taking advantage of potential oil reserves. With the money from oil exports, he utilised resources to invest for UAE citizens' welfare, education, health and the country's overall infrastructure. GDP per capita (which is a measure of economic development) in the

UAE averaged 67,117.94 USD from 1975 until 2015, reaching an all-time high of 115,003.43 USD in 1980 and a record low of 34,341.91 USD in 2010 (UAE Year Book, 2013). Figure 2.2. shows the recent trends in UAE’s GDP per capita. The current GDP per capita in the UAE is equivalent to 311 percent of the world's average (Trading Economics).

Figure 2.2: Graphical Presentation of UAE’s GDP Per Capita (2006-2016)

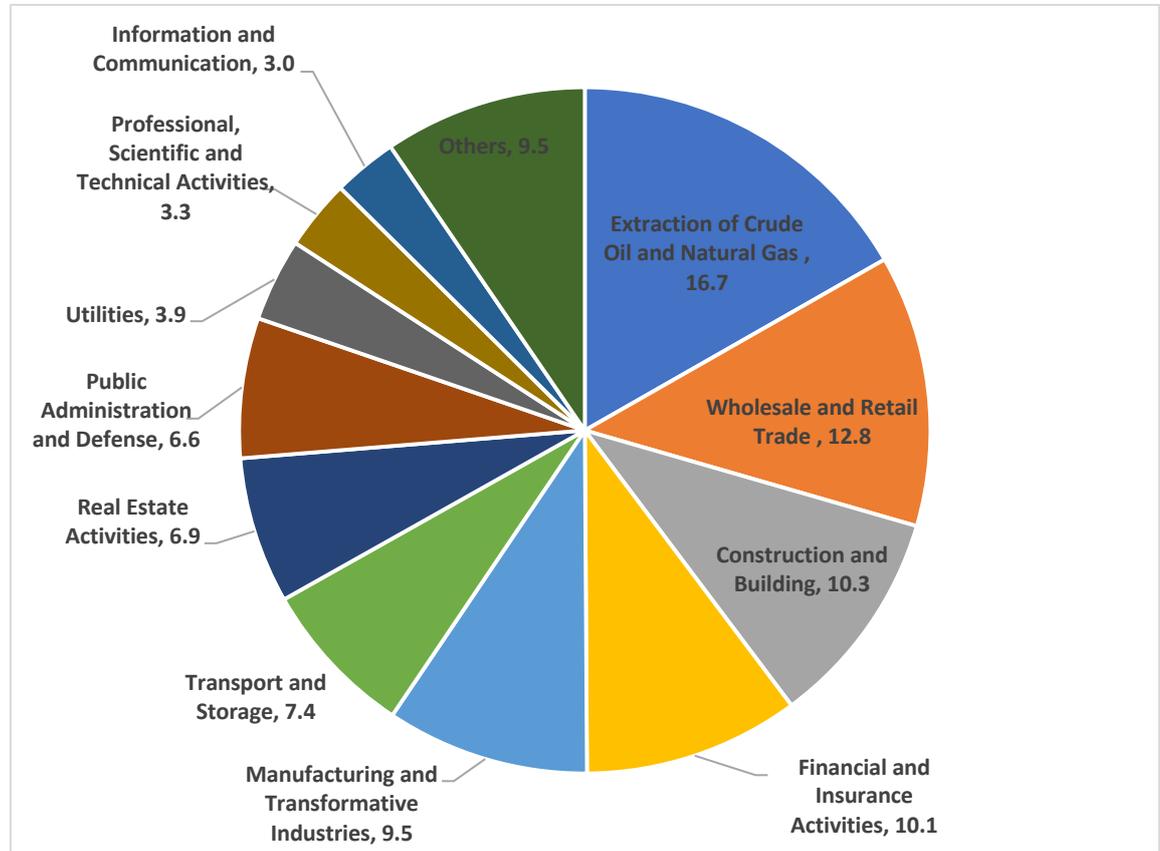


Source: Trading Economics/World bank

Latest figures from the Ministry of Economy (2017) as illustrated in Figure 2.3. show that the activities related to the extraction of crude oil and natural gas contributed to GDP by about 16.7 percent, while wholesale and retail trade activities accounted for 12.8 percent. Construction and building activities accounted for 10.3 percent of the GDP, while the manufacturing and transformative industries account for 9.5 percent, approximately. With the increasing presence of both domestic and foreign banks offering retail and corporate services to members of the private and public sectors, the financial and insurance services sector accounts for over 10.1 percent of GDP. Moreover, the UAE is home to three stock exchanges – Nasdaq Dubai, Abu Dhabi Securities Market and Dubai Financial Market. The UAE is also a financial centre with the establishment of the Dubai International Financial Centre in 2004. Transport and storage accounts for 7.4 percent while, real estate activities contribute another 6.9 percent to the UAE’s GDP. These figures actually demonstrate the outcome of the country’s heavy investment in physical infrastructure over the years. Government services (including public administration and defence) is also a major contributor to growth, accounting for 6.6 percent of the GDP, while utilities and information & communication accounts for about

3.9 percent and 3.0 percent respectively. Other sectors such as accommodation & food services, education, agriculture, forestry & fishing, human health and social services account for the remaining 9.5 percent of the UAE GDP.

Figure 2.3: Contribution of Economic Sectors to GDP



Source: Ministry of Economy (2017)

However, the UAE has since launched a diversification and liberalisation program to reduce the dependence on oil and transform its economy from a conventional, labour-intensive economy to one based on knowledge, technology and skilled labour (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC). The driving forces towards diversification are Abu Dhabi’s Economic Vision 2030 and Dubai’s Strategic Plan. The strategy is to increase investment in industrial and other export-oriented sectors, including heavy industry, petrochemicals, aluminium production, transport, aviation, tourism, IT, telecoms, renewable energy and oil and gas services (Government of Abu Dhabi, 2008). In fact, between 2014 and 2016 alone, the contribution of crude oil to the UAE GDP has reduced from 34% to 16.7% (Ministry of Economy, 2015, 2017), which can be attributed to the economic diversification policy of the UAE government.

In terms of labour force, foreign nationals (expatriates) have contributed immensely to the UAE economy, accounting for 88.5 percent of the entire population as at 2010 (De Bel-Air, 2018). The ratio has been varying over the years but there is an increase altogether (*ibid*). A significant number of external workforce has been employed since the first phase of the country's development. Great infrastructural projects initiated from 1970s to 1980s brought in enormous labour force. However, several sectors are served by some mainstream nationalities. UAE is following a national policy of tolerance, which makes space for various nationalities to come and work on their own, yet the national agenda of the country's own traditions and culture remains the same. However, the government's Emiratisation programme seeks to increase the participation of Emirati nationals in the workforce by giving quotas and incentives to encourage public and private companies to employ Emiratis, both men and women (Raven, 2011).

2.1. History of UAE's Traditional and Modern Education System Development

Although the UAE was established as a nation in 1971, the history of schooling dates back to the 1820s, with religious education (Islamic education) being the main form of education (Baghat, 1999; Davidson, 2008 and Alhebsi, 2015). Islamic education is further extended as the baseline of formal education. School education in the UAE predominantly follows Islamic norms and traditions as well as focusing on national educational goals. However, the country is not ignoring modern trends and fields of study. It aims to achieve a balance between the traditional Islamic education system and modern educational developments. This section presents a brief account of the history and development of traditional and modern education system over the past two centuries. The UAE Ministry of Education has indicated four stages of its educational transformation: (1) the Mutawa and the Katateeb (2) Educational Circles (3) Semi-Organised Education, as well as (4) the Modern Education System (Alnabah, 1996). For the purpose of clarity, the first two phases will be classified as traditional education, while the last two will be taken to mean modern education system.

2.1.1. History of Traditional Education (1820s – early 1900s)

The earliest form of schooling in the six Gulf monarchies (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the UAE) is religious education, known as *kuttab*, "where a group of boys and girls were taught to recite the Qur'an and sometimes learned basic writing and arithmetic skills" (Baghat 1999:129). This kind of education mostly took

place in the mosques (or houses) and was led by the local imam, the speaker of the mosque. There were no organised classrooms. This traditional education “often placed strong emphasis on religious instruction and the acquisition of knowledge through interaction with others” (Alhebsi et al., 2015:2). Apprenticeships used to be one of the most popular types of education, where skill-based knowledge was delivered by Islamic teaching. This way of teaching was handed down from generation to generation, through either written or verbal contexts. The traditional student-teacher relationship was also dominant. In the past, Mutawa (another name for Imam of the mosque) used to be a religiously well-versed man who was responsible for teaching boys and girls about the sayings (Hadith) of Prophet Mohammad, though many of his job roles involved teaching social and moral values. Later, this style of teaching was modified into formal pedagogical lessons. Mutawa used to be highly likeable in his community when it comes to giving out advice or judging conflicts. He used to officiate weddings and social gatherings of his community. He used to be highly respected for his moral values and fear of Allah (the Mighty Creator) (Alnabah, 1996). His education was with a lot of Qur’anic references, which helped people learn about writing, reading and following religious norms. All in all, he was cared for and supported by the people thus enjoying a high level of social dignity. While the Mutawa often taught in his home, wealthier merchant families (i.e. the ruling elites) would organise a Katateeb. The Katateeb is a physical location or school, where children and youths were taught the Holy Quran, Islamic teachings, writing, reading and basic mathematics (Alhebsi et al., 2015). The Katateeb closely resembled the modern primary school with teachers and extra resources. Prior to the formation of the UAE, the Katateeb was usually found in coastal towns with well-established commercial activities (Alnabah, 1996).

The second stage of traditional education, known as *Educational circles*, more closely looked like the traditional teacher/student model in which a teacher transfers knowledge to a group of students by in a lecture style (Alhebsi, et al., 2015). Educational circles are conducted by respected religious scholars with broad knowledge of Islam, languages and other subjects. These scholars often came from Saudi Arabia in response to direct invitation from the Sheikh of the area or other wealthy patrons. Oftentimes, the scholars would volunteer to teach people in the different communities. These educational circles often took place in the local mosques, the Sheikh’s palace, the patron’s home or in the scholar’s home (*ibid*). The scholar usually taught similar subjects to the Mutawa such as the Holy Quran, *Sunnah* (the way of life prescribed by Islam), writing, reading, and mathematics. As a result of the exceptional knowledge of the scholar, instruction was often more intense than instruction delivered by the local Mutawa.

2.1.2. The Development of Modern Education (early 1900s – 1960s)

The traditional style of education started to change at the end of the 19th century (Baghat, 1999), giving way for a new era of *semi-organised education*, which spanned the time frame from 1907 to 1953 (Alhebsi, et al., 2015). As merchant families in the Gulf region became wealthier, especially from the 19th century's booming pearling industry, the idea of developing better schools evolved. Consequently, the first set of formal schools in the Sheikdoms were established in Dubai, Abu Dhabi and Sharjah in the early twentieth century. These schools were run by both Emirati nationals that studied abroad and by Arab expatriates, who were predominantly from Egypt and Palestine (Sheik Saud Bin Saqh Al-Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research, 2013). However, due to the collapse of the pearling industry in the 1930s, which was due to restrictive maritime agreements with the United Kingdom, maintaining these schools and paying teachers became increasingly difficult, and this led to the closure of the schools and the decline of formal education (Davidson, 2008). A few schools, however, reopened after the economic recession.

Formal western-style education (i.e. *modern education*) was not introduced in the Emirates until 1953 when the Kuwaiti educational mission opened a school in the emirate of Sharjah (Sheik Saud Bin Saqh Al-Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research, 2013). Subsequently, more schools were established across the Emirates with funding mainly from Kuwait (Davidson, 2008). However, Bahrain, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and Egypt also sponsored and trained teachers to work in the Emirates. Most of these teachers used the texts and curriculum of their home countries. Although many curricula were used in the Emirates, the Egyptian model played a dominant role in shaping the UAE's early educational system (Sheik Saud Bin Saqh Al-Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research, 2013). This is because a large number of the teachers employed at the time were Egyptians. There were also many educational advisors from Egypt working with the rulers of each emirate. Thus, the teaching styles in the UAE started to reflect those in Egypt and the wider Middle East. After Abu Dhabi Emirate began earning abundant oil revenues in the early 1960s, it developed and funded its own educational system, while the other emirates that were to become part of the UAE continued to rely on outside assistance.

2.1.3. Formal Education After Independence (1970s onwards)

Following Britain's departure from the lower Gulf and the formation of the UAE in 1971, there were new priorities for the local educational system (Davidson, 2008). Given the country's dependence on foreign aid and the associated problems, it became necessary

to begin to develop home-grown cadre of trained school teachers. In addition, on a general level, the UAE citizens needed to be quickly trained up and prepared to take over public and private sector positions being taken by the influx of skilled expatriates that were attracted by the oil boom. Thus, it was hoped that a better educated and trained workforce would help the government achieve its twin goals of nationalising or Emiratising the workforce and reducing its dependence on oil by opening up new and more diversified sectors (Davidson, 2008). By 1972, the newly established Ministry of Education (MOE) started to take efforts towards standardising the curriculum. From 1971 to 1977, the MOE used the Kuwaiti educational curricula (UNESCO, 2011). In 1977, the MOE launched its first curriculum reform project to create a national syllabus for the elementary and intermediate school levels. The main purpose was to produce curricula that reflected UAE's identity and culture as a society (UNESCO, 2011). In 1983, the education ministers in the GCC region decided to adopt unified curricula for mathematics and general science for the elementary and intermediate school stages (grades 1-9). By 1985, a single Emirati curriculum was designed and launched (Sheik Saud Bin Saqh Al-Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research, 2013). Since then, education has become mandatory for all Emirati boys and girls through to grade 12 age; the end of the secondary school (*ibid*).

Today, the educational system has continued to be a key focus of the government's transformation agenda towards a more knowledge-driven economy. With money from oil exports, the UAE has supported its education sector by investing in modern Information Communication Technology (ICT) systems. The technical side of education has benefitted strongly from it. Article 17 of the UAE's constitution states that education's main role is to eradicate illiteracy, and the nation has begun many improvement initiatives across all levels of education towards achieving this objective. More of these initiatives are discussed in section 2.5.

2.2. Structure of the UAE Education System

Ministry of Education (MoE) handles all stages of education in the UAE including schools, colleges, universities and post-graduation programmes. Higher education is also under the umbrella of MoE, though it was handled by its own ministry before the government restructuring in 2016 (UAE Government, 2018a). The Department for Education and Knowledge (ADEK) which was established in 2005 is responsible for supervising, regulating and spearheading the development initiatives within the

education sector in the Abu Dhabi emirate, including public and private schools (UAE Government, 2018a). Dubai has two key bodies which regulate the education process in the emirate; Dubai Education Council (DEC) and Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA). DEC seeks to meet global standards, focusing on international accreditation and comprehensive quality assurance programmes, while KHDA has the authority to inspect schools in the emirate and is responsible for the growth and quality of private education in Dubai (UAE Government, 2018a). Schools in other Emirates, such as Umm Al Quwain, Sharjah, Ras Al Khaimah, Ajman and Fujairah operate under MoE through local branches or educational zones. (see section 2.4 for more details about the education management bodies in the UAE).

The Ministry of Education supervises all educational institutions in the country, as well as formulation an education policy and programme. The Ministry gives information and policies to the nine educational zones which distribute them accordingly to the schools within the region they are responsible for. This includes determination of academic years, examination schedules, standards to be met at educational institutions, curriculums of study, and the qualification criteria for teachers and professionals related with the administration of educational institutions. There are two primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools each in almost all local towns - one for boys and one for girls. Public education is free at all levels for UAE nationals, which include pre-primary (KG1-2), primary (grades 1-5), preparatory (grade 6-9), secondary (grades 10-12) and higher education institutions (Al Qasimi Foundation for Policy Research, 2013). Table 2.1 outlines the various types of educational institutions in the UAE, while figure 2.4 shows the new structure of education as it is today in the UAE.

Table 2.1: Various Types of Educational Institutions in UAE

School/ Stage	Age of Pupils/ Purpose
Pre-School	4-6 Years of age
Primary School (Cycle 1)	6 - 12 years of age
Lower Secondary School (formerly preparatory/intermediate school) (Cycle 2)	13 - 15 years of age
Upper Secondary/Vocational Technical Secondary School (Cycle 3)	16- 18 years of age
Trade Schools and Agricultural Institutes	Technical education for 16+ year olds - teach trade and commercial skills
Agricultural Institutes	16 + year olds - provide a diploma in agriculture and practical education on running and administration of farms
Theological Education	Some primary, intermediate and secondary schools specialize in theological studies and this is stressed in their curriculum throughout the school years
Teacher Training Institutes	To train teachers for all school levels
Adult education schools	Provide education for adults who may have missed schooling as children
University	Undergraduate and postgraduate education in various disciplines

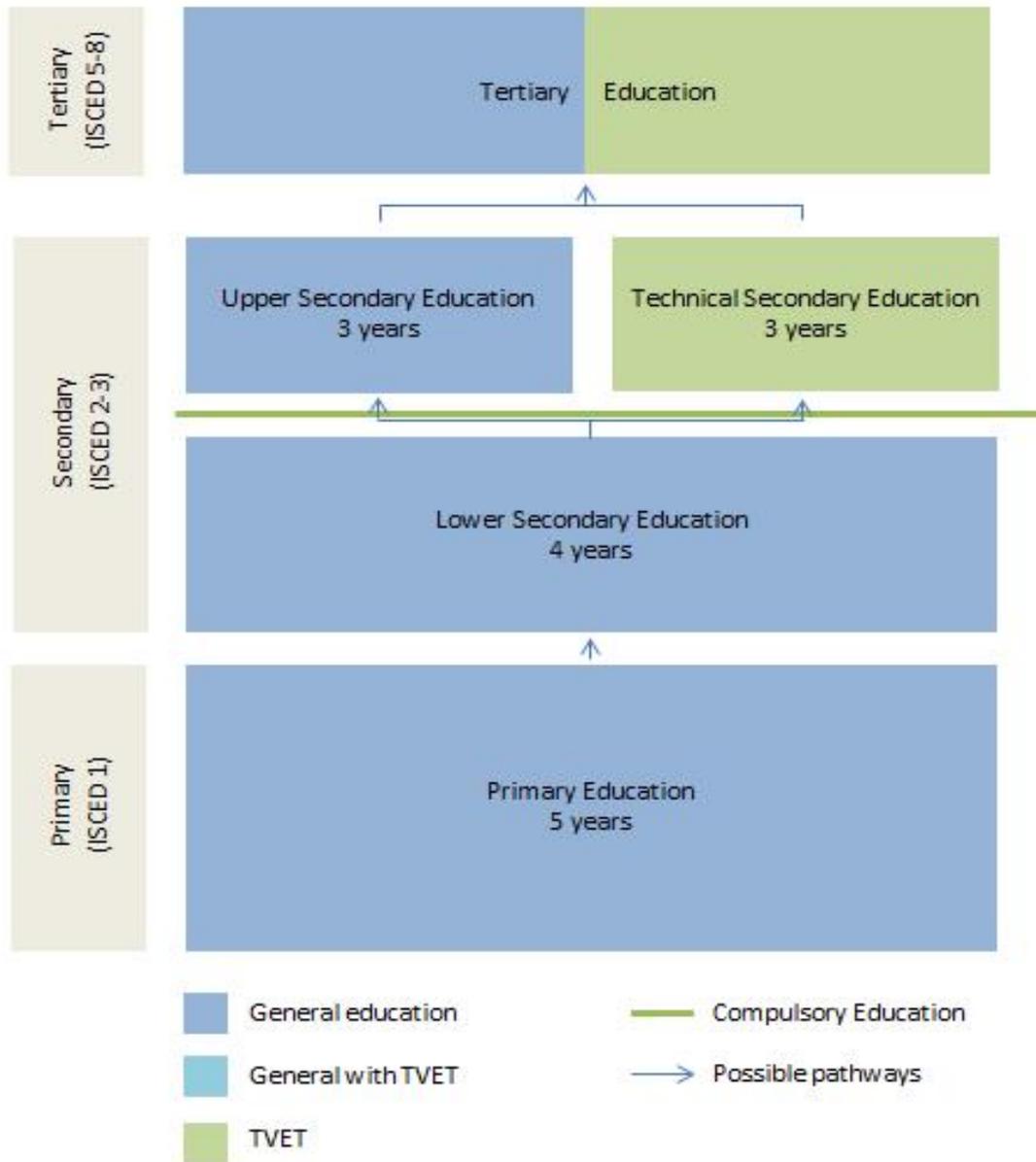
Source: Researchers' notes - adapted from the Ministry of Education website, UNESCO (2011) and National Qualifications Authority (2012)

2.2.1. Pre-School Education

Pre-school education in the UAE, sometimes called Nursery or Kindergarten (KG), accommodates children who are below the age of admission to the first grade. Kindergarten consists of two levels, where children attend two years of mixed-gender classes: Kindergarten 1 (KG1) and Kindergarten 2 (KG2) (UAE Government, 2017). As pre-school education is not compulsory, it is run by private organisations in the UAE and the government does not fund them directly. The Ministry of education sets the curriculum for the pre-schools. Pre-school staffing is organised in a structure containing a number of teachers, two vice-principals, and two principals. Taught subjects include Arabic, English, mathematics, science, art, physical education, music. KG students spend their time developing social, language, physical and academic skills (UAE Government, 2017). According to UNESCO (2011), pre-primary education seeks to help children acquire the proper behavioural moral rules that match their age by providing them with good examples, in accordance with the principles of the Islamic religion. Pre-school

education aims to develop the children’s intuition and intellect by encouraging them to search, discover and invent, while also monitoring their physical growth (UNESCO, 2011). It helps children to familiarise with school life and develop reading and writing skills appropriate with their age and needs. The pre-school level prepares the children to be successful in primary level or (Cycle 1) and beyond (UAE Government, 2017).

Fig 2.4: Structure of the Education System in UAE



Source: UNESCO UNEVOC: World TVET Database - Country Profiles (UAE)

2.2.2. Primary and Lower Secondary Education

Basic Education: Primary or Elementary Level (Cycle 1) (6-11 years)

At the elementary level, children complete Grades 1 to 5, and this level provides a rich learning environment to inspire this age group as they begin their educational journey (UAE Government, 2017). The general aims of basic education in the UAE are to build the pupils' total behaviour, skills and performance, strengthening the Muslim faith, and teaching children a number of religious duties according to their age (UNESCO, 2011). At this stage, one of the main objectives of education is to strengthen the pupils' cultural identity with the Islamic Arab culture. Another goal is to cultivate the pupils' enthusiasm for education and knowledge, with better quality and precision about facts of social life, while helping to build their creativity, imagination and innovation skills according to their capabilities and competencies (UNESCO, 2011).

Intermediate Education: Lower Secondary (Cycle 2) (12-14 years)

At the intermediate level, children complete Grades 6 to 9. This level aims to nurture young students for the future and help them become fully-developed members of society. Students who are interested in vocational education can switch to a technical secondary school at this stage of education (UAE Government, 2017).

Subjects taken at the basic and intermediate education level include: Islamic education, Arabic language, English language, Science, Mathematics, Social studies, History, Geography, Civics, Physical education, Fine arts, Music, Home economics, Life skills, and Computer studies (UNESCO, 2011).

2.2.3. Upper Secondary and Technical Education

Upper Secondary and Technical Secondary Education Level (Cycle 3) (15-17 years)

At this level, students complete Grades 10 to 12. Here, students are prepared for the starting point in their career and place in the society (UAE Government, 2017). In the first grade of upper secondary education, (grade 10), students are expected to study the following subjects, Arabic, Islamic studies, geography, social studies, mathematics, physics, biology, chemistry, and geology. In later grades, students can choose subjects that they want to study according to their preference for higher education (called the technical secondary school stage). Main subjects are still compulsory and are taught alongside the student's chosen subjects. The main subjects include: Arabic, Islamic studies, social studies, mathematics, and physics (UNESCO, 2011).

This level of education is aimed at equipping the students with skills needed to succeed in higher education and meet the needs of the job market. It also facilitates high school graduates to enrol directly in universities without having to go through a foundation year, which will be eliminated by 2018 (UAE Government, 2017). The new structure will prepare the students to gain direct enrolment in engineering, medical and natural sciences programmes in the UAE's universities and overseas. After completing this level, the student will be granted a high school certificate, which indicates passing 12 years of compulsory education. Students who attended the technical secondary school will be awarded the technical secondary diploma upon completing this level (UAE Government, 2017).

2.2.4. Higher Education

Higher education in the UAE is undertaken at universities, colleges and special institutes. These institutions essentially offer degrees, diplomas and certificates. However, colleges tend to be smaller, with smaller class sizes, and students receive more personal attention from faculty (Commission for Academic Accreditation, 2011). Universities offer master's and doctoral degrees which require completion of the bachelor's degree first. Universities tend to be larger, with faculty time and attention divided between research and teaching (Commission for Academic Accreditation, 2011). A number of different programmes are available at this stage ranging from one-year technical diplomas to a four-year, bachelor's degree. Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery programs require six years to complete (UNESCO, 2011). The Masters programmes are usually for two years and doctoral degrees usually take anywhere from three to five years to complete. In general, about 140,000 students are enrolled in higher education institutions in UAE and Dubai accounts for approximately 40% of the overall enrolments (Ernst & Young, 2015).

The UAE is home to a wide range of public and private universities:

Public Institutions of Higher Education: There are several public institutes for higher education in the UAE. Examples are UAE University, Zayed University, Khalifa University, Rabdan Academy and Higher Colleges of Technology. They are restricted to UAE nationals and children of women who are UAE nationals (UAE Government, 2018b). Students are admitted into higher education after a Common Educational Proficiency Assessment (CEPA) which tests students' skills in mathematics and English.

The UAE has one of the highest university enrolment rates in the world, with 95 percent of all girls and 80 percent of boys enrolled in the final year of secondary school applying for admission to a higher education institution (Embassy of the UAE Washington DC, 2010; InterNations, 2016). Education up to the university level is free for all UAE citizens, and on top of this, the UAE government also provides all school textbooks and workbooks, transportation to and from schools, school uniforms and related equipment for extracurricular activities and a monthly stipend for all students. In addition, for university students, free accommodation at the University premises (student dormitories) as well as access to free medical facilities at the campus are covered.

Private Institutions of Higher Education: UAE citizens can attend a wide range of private institutions, many with international accreditation, to complement the public institutions. The Ministry of Education through its Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) is responsible for the accreditation of private institutions (see section 2.4.2). Most expatriate students enrol in private universities where the language of instruction is English (InterNations, 2016). Some notable examples of private universities include University of Sharjah, American Universities of Sharjah, Dubai and Ras-Al Khaimah, Ajman University of Science and Technology, Abu Dhabi University and Al Hosn University, amongst others. Over 80% of enrolments in Dubai higher education institutions are in private institutions (Ernst & Young, 2015). In private universities in Dubai, 60.3% higher education enrolment in 2016/17 session are for bachelor's program, 30.7% for masters, while the rest are for foundation, higher diplomas and other programs (KHDA, 2017). In addition, 52.7% of enrolment are for business courses, 15.7% for engineering, 7.6% for information technology, 7.3% for media and design and 5.1% for architecture and construction (KHDA, 2017).

Global Partnerships: In addition to public and private schools, the UAE government and the individual Emirates have forged numerous partnerships with US institutions aimed at improving education in the UAE and promoting exchanges between Western and Arab cultures. Thus, a number of international universities have campuses or programs in the UAE (Embassy of the UAE Washington DC, 2010).

2.3. Educational Management Bodies in UAE

There are a number of bodies that are responsible for law-making and applying the educational policies in UAE, the main being the Ministry of Education. There are a few

other educational institutions also involved in educational development. All are outlined below:

2.3.1. The Ministry of Education

1972 was the year when a formal institution (the Ministry of Education) was made for monitoring schools in the UAE. The Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for general education, literacy and adult education programs (UNESCO, 2011). The MoE also has to report to governmental offices and agencies, who have ultimate responsibilities for education in the country.

The role and objective of the MoE is to provide suitable opportunities for any learner to develop their individual spiritual, mental, social, psychological and philosophical potentials of learning, in such a way that they can balance their social needs to make them stand firm in the modern age of social and economic development (MOE, 2007). Education is compulsory for all children in the UAE from age 6 to 18 (UNESCO, 2011). Islamic essentials are all implemented for any level of education in UAE by the Ministry of Education, including male and female students, who are expected to receive education separately (Gaad 2010). In government schools, there are pupils from a variety of backgrounds, practicing different religions. Students of all faith are free to take part in education and are given the freedom to practice their faith. During Islamic teaching periods, students of different faiths have free time.

The Ministry of Education's strategic objectives as outlined on its website include:

1. "Ensure inclusive quality education including pre-school education"
2. "Achieve excellent leadership and educational efficiency".
3. "Ensure quality, efficiency and good governance of educational and institutional performance, including the delivery of teaching".
4. "Ensure safe, conducive and challenging learning environments"
5. "Attract and prepare students to enroll in higher education internally and externally, in light of labour market needs"
6. "Strengthen the capacity for scientific research and innovation in accordance with the quality, efficiency and transparency standards".
7. "Provision of quality, efficient and transparent administrative services, in accordance with the quality, efficiency and transparency standards".
8. "Establish a culture of innovation in an institutional working environment".

2.3.2. The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

The oversight of universities and other institutions of higher learning is carried out by the Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research (MoHESR), which was established by Federal Law No. 4 of 1992 (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC). The MOHESR was established as part of strategic plans that were implemented towards developing UAE's higher education sectors and its human capital as the engine of growth.

The MoHESR is responsible for the general planning of higher education and scientific research in the UAE, licensing private institutions of higher education, accrediting their programs and overseeing them to ensure their quality standards within the context of the master plan of higher education; preparing draft laws for the establishment of federal governmental institutions of higher education and scientific research, and achieving coordination and integration between federal institutions of higher education and scientific research in terms of budgets, fields of specialization and academic degrees awarded by each of them. The MoHESR is also responsible for coordinating admission policies and the criteria for student placement in the various fields of specialization in the UAE higher education institutions in response to the needs of the community. They also accredit foreign bodies and institutions of higher education and equalize their certificates, amongst other responsibilities (Embassy of the UAE in Washington DC).

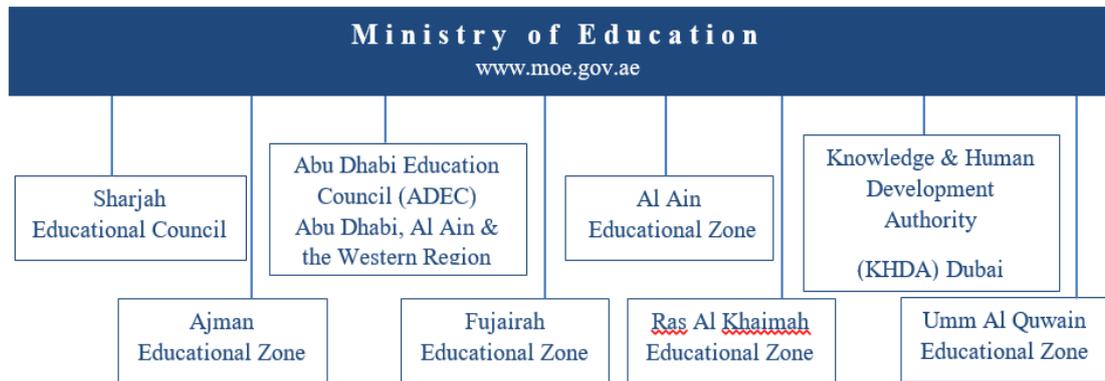
The MOHESR coordinates with other ministries and with both government and private bodies in order to achieve the goals of the overall development and participates with the ministries and stakeholders in laying down a licensing system for the practice of professions that require high qualifications. In 2000 the UAE government established, within the MoHESR, the Commission for Academic Accreditation (CAA) as the federal agency charged with licensing non-federal institutions and accrediting their programmes. All non-federal institutions providing a higher education programme of one academic year or longer leading to an academic degree, certificate or diploma must be licensed and have its programmes accredited by the CAA in order to be officially recognised by the MoHESR (The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education 2017). The Ministry also performs any other responsibilities entrusted to it pursuant to any laws and regulations.

2.3.3. Educational Zones

A common objective for the Ministry of Education has been to be the central deciding-point for educational policy in UAE. The Educational system is divided into nine zones

by the Ministry of Education. There are three zones in the capital state: Abu Dhabi Zone, Al Ain Zone, Eastern Zone, followed by each educational zone for the rest of the states: Dubai, Ajman, Sharjah, Ras Al Khaimah, Umm Al Quwain, and Fujairah Zones. (See Fig 2.5)

Figure 2.5: Educational Zones in UAE



Source: Ministry of Education website

Educational zones and councils receive information, guidance, and support from the Ministry of Education. Every school is run by an educational authority in their relevant zone. For example, Abu Dhabi Education Council covers three regions (mentioned above), the Dubai Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) for the emirate of Dubai and the Northern Emirates, followed by remaining four councils. These councils have full authority to legislate on educational matters at all levels (UNESCO, 2011).

2.3.4. Other Educational Institutions

In conjunction with bodies listed above, there are a number of institutions that are also involved in moving the process of educational development further. These institutions listed below influence education in different ways.

The Role of the Women’s Associations: The Women’s Association play a positive role in the educational process through its social and development centres, which help in advancing women’s affairs, training and development. The General Women Union (GWU) was established in 2008, and includes several women’s associations in UAE (Abu Dhabi Women Association, Dubai Women Association, Sharjah Women Union Association, Ajman Um Al Mo‘mineen Women Association, Umm Al Quwain Women Association and Ras Al Khaimah Women Association). The Union contributes to applying policy to advance women’s affairs in all fields, as well as programmes that

promote the integration of women in education, and development plans and help them to perform their roles in life, without any discrimination (UNESCO, 2011). In cooperation with Ministry of Education of UAE, the role of the Women's Association is to play a vital and positive role for developing all sectors of education and the cultural revival centres and classes of development programmes are guided properly. This council is divided into many other divisions in each state of the country and may have sub-divisions of its regional offices.

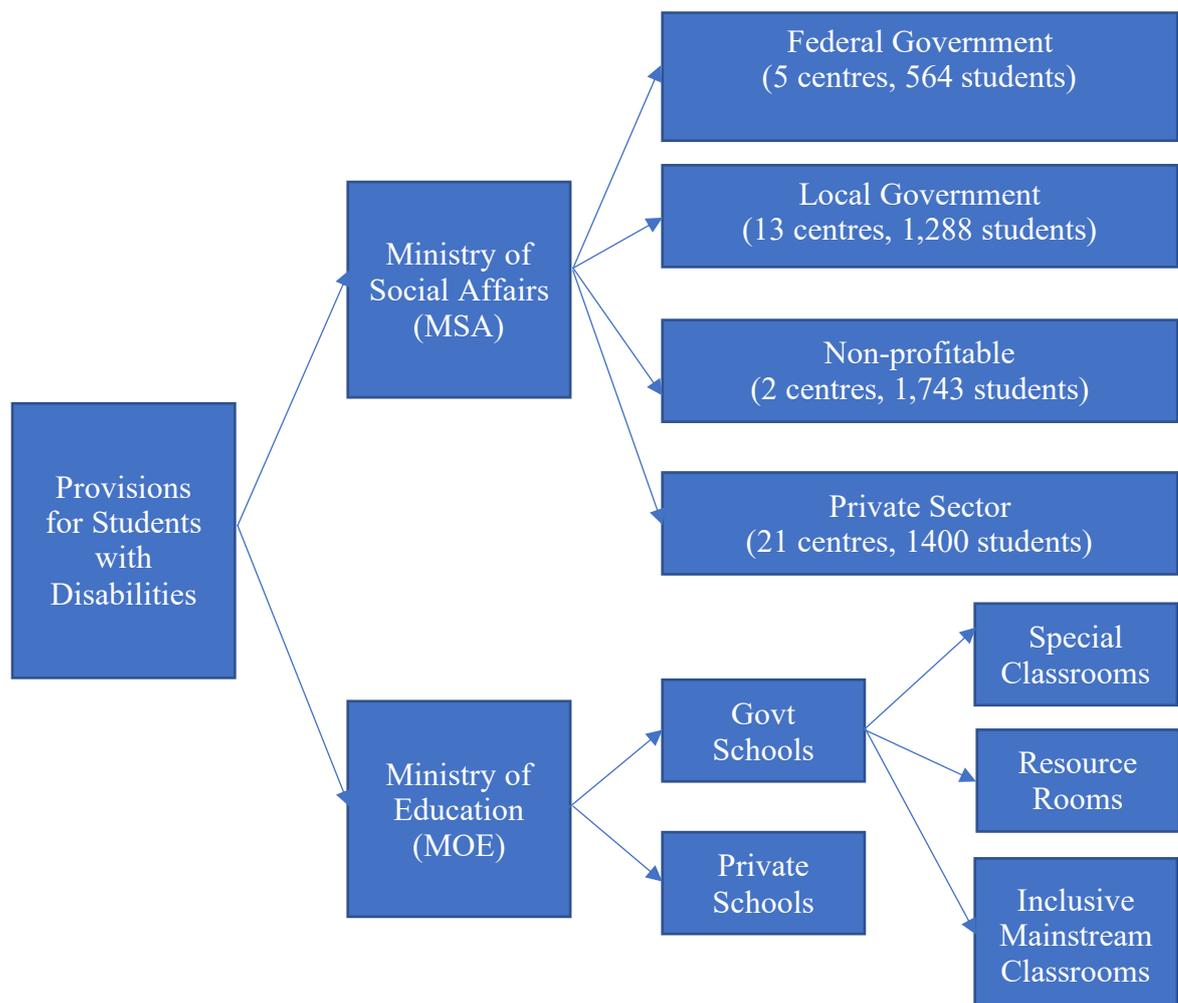
Ministry of Defense's Role: For armed forces educational development, the Ministry of Defense is working to set up its own schools across UAE; however, these schools still follow aspects of the curriculum proposed by the Ministry of Education. Both bodies coordinate areas of the schools such as: curriculum, examinations, supervision, and evaluation. These schools are only for males aged 16 and upwards, and they prepare individuals to work in the UAE's armed forces. The National Defense College in Abu Dhabi, for example, offers higher education courses, including Certificate in Strategic and Security Studies; Master of Strategic and Security Studies and Doctor of Philosophy in Strategic Studies (Commission for Academic Accreditation website).

The Police College, Abu Dhabi: The Police college was established by the late HH Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan. Federal Law No (1) was issued in 1985 and stipulated the foundation of the College. The aim was stated as to create an effective police force, enhance the security of the country, safeguard its achievements and gain the confidence of society. The law initially stipulated that the duration of study and training in the College would be two years, after which the student would receive a Diploma in Policing Sciences. The duration of study was changed to four years in 1992 following the issue of Federal Law No. (5). The study programme includes practical and field training. After successful completion of the programme the student shall be awarded a bachelor's degree in law and policing sciences. In 2002 the system of study in the College was changed to incorporate training theory programmes and field work. After successful completion of the study and training programmes, the student will be awarded a Bachelor's degree in Police Sciences and Criminal Justice. Other courses on offer include: diploma in criminal justice; diploma in police administration; Master's in criminal justice; and Master's in police administration (Commission for Academic Accreditation website)

Special Education Development in UAE: The UAE government acknowledges the need to support students with special needs, such as students with disabilities and students

with learning difficulties. In special education schools, special needs education is given to students. The Ministry of Social Affairs is responsible for licensing and monitoring these schools (UNESCO, 2011). Special education schools are licensed in each of the states across UAE to facilitate learners. Vocational and rehabilitation centres have been developed throughout the country including both government and private schools (See figure 2.6). Furthermore, efforts are now being made to include special needs education in mainstream educational settings (Embassy of the UAE Washington DC, 2010).

Figure 2.6: Illustrative Diagram of Special Education Provisions in UAE



Source: Adapted from Alborno (2013)

2.4. Recent Developments in the UAE Education System

2.4.1. Abu Dhabi Policy Agenda and Educational Transformation

The current UAE government has outlined a national vision for quality education which includes aspects of knowledge and discovery, which must be strongly connected to

global society and economy, and yet deeply rooted in the culture and heritage of the Emirate (ADEK website). His Highness Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, current President of the UAE and Ruler of Abu Dhabi, followed his father's vision of emphasising the importance of education in building a knowledge-driven economy (ADEK website). In recognition of this, after taking over power in 2004, he formed a national agenda for transforming the Emirate of Abu Dhabi into an innovation-based, knowledge-producing society. The Abu Dhabi Policy Agenda 2007-2008 defines government priorities in creating a safe and secure society and a dynamic, open economy. This policy agenda had other individual policies, including the Abu Dhabi's 2030 Economic vision, which aims to set long term targets for Abu Dhabi's economic development. The government identified nine areas of focus. One of these pillars outlined focus on creating and developing premium education. The 2030 vision encompasses desires to nurture UAE as a regional centre of learning and culture with high-quality institutions of higher education and schools. An objective is to attract highly competent and world-class teachers and students. (Government of Abu Dhabi, 2008). The government has also recognised that the quality of the Emirate's education system is central to, and will play a significant role in, the successful implementation of Abu Dhabi's policy agendas and frameworks.

2.4.2. Establishment of Abu Dhabi Education Council

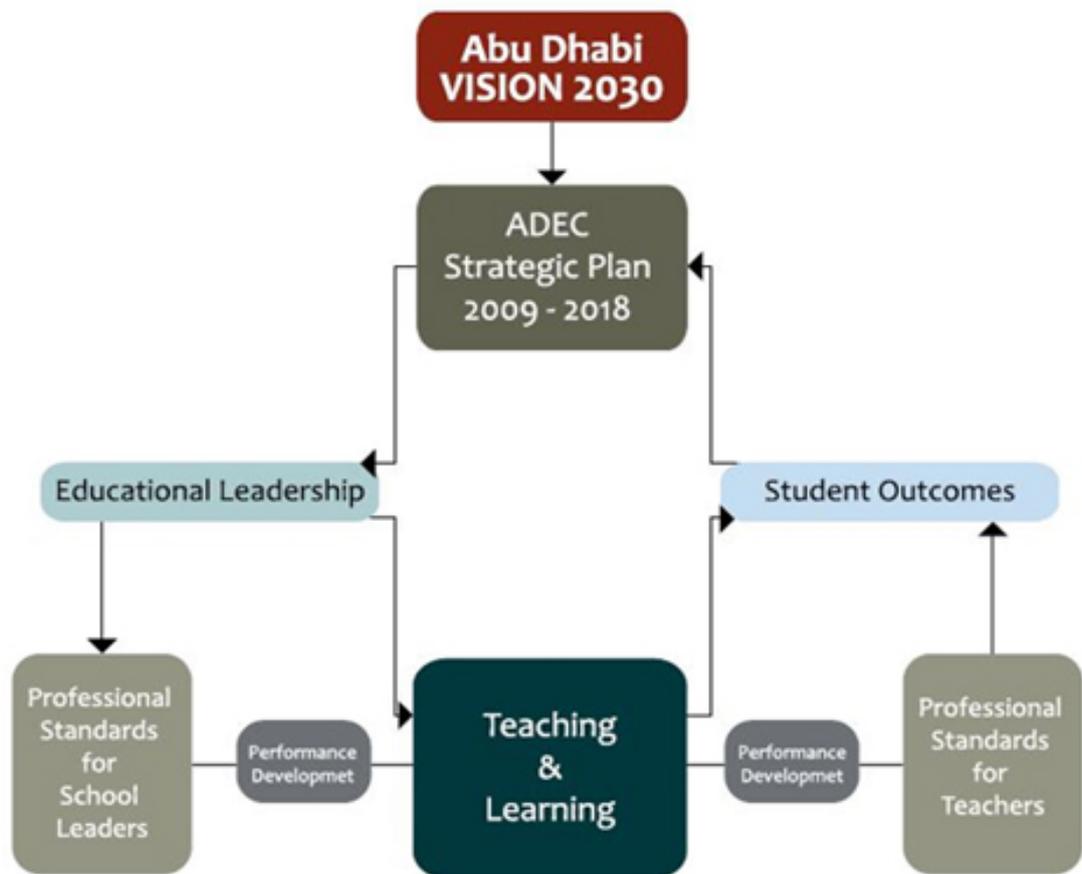
The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) was a new educational body established in 2005 in Abu Dhabi to help to accomplish the new administration's socio-economic objectives. It was established with the responsibility to improve educational quality in the Abu Dhabi Emirate. In September 2017, The Abu Dhabi Education Council was made a government department under a new name - Department of Education and Knowledge (ADEK) according to a decree issued by His Highness Sheikh Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan, President of the UAE (Education Journal, 2017). As it is the subject of this study, it is necessary to shed some light upon its functions in relation to the UAE.

"ADEC [*sic*] is an independent corporate body that seeks to develop and implement innovative educational policies, plans and programmes that aim to improve education in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi and to support educational institutions and staff in a manner that helps to achieve the objectives of national development" (UNESCO, 2011:6).

In recognition of this mandate, ADEK in 2008 embarked on the development of an educational policy agenda that defined the guiding principles, vision and objectives for the Emirate's education system. ADEK has taken significant steps in the context of the

development and improvement of the outputs of education. ADEK released a strategic plan in 2009 to make progress to reform education in UAE through to 2018. Figure 2.7. shows the role that ADEK's strategic plan (2009-2018) is expected to play in the achievement of the Abu Dhabi Vision 2030. ADEK is responsible for setting professional standards for teachers and educational leaders, as well as standards for teaching and learning to ensure excellent student performance outcomes.

Figure 2.7: The Role of Education in Abu Dhabi Vision 2030

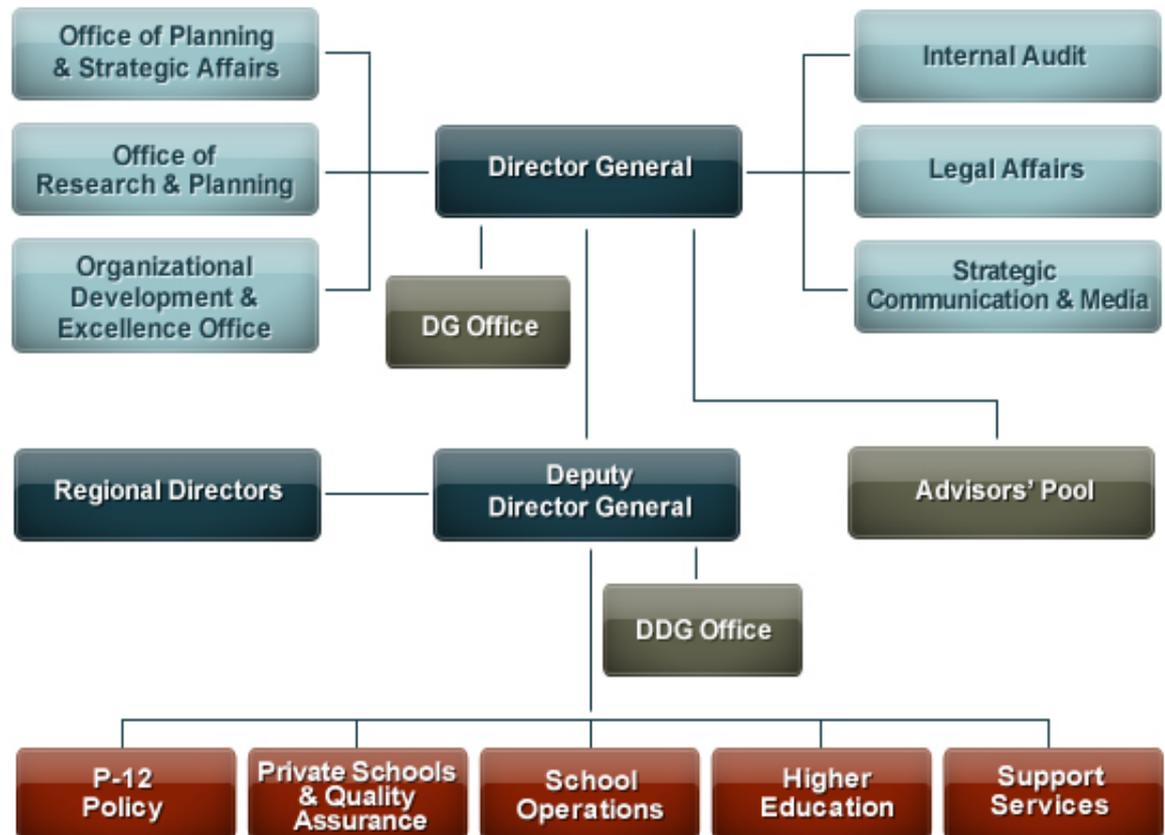


Source: ADEK website

ADEK has been given the authority by the Ministerial Council of services to synthesise and deliver education in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi, and therefore conduct all the administrative and financial affairs of all working staff within the three educational zones in Abu Dhabi (UNESCO, 2011). The Chairman of ADEK is His Highness Sheikh Mohamed bin Zayed Al Nahyan, Crown Prince of Abu Dhabi, Deputy Supreme Commander of the UAE Armed Forces and the Vice-Chairman is His Highness Sheikh Mansour Bin Zayed Al-Nahyan, Minister of Presidential Affairs. The current Director-General is Amal Al Qubaisi. Figure 2.8. shows the current organisational structure of

ADEK. The Director-General is supported by a Deputy Director General who also oversees five Executive Directors in charge of different departments and two Regional Directors for the Western and Al-Ain regional offices.

Figure 2.8 ADEK’s Organisational Structure



Source: ADEK website

According to Embassy of the UAE Washington DC (2010:1), “ADEK takes an entrepreneurial approach to involve the private sector, improve and modernise facilities, reduce bureaucracy, update curricula and take advantage of information technology”. Following Abu Dhabi’s Economic vision 2030, ADEK’s curriculum proposal included the teaching of Mathematics, Biology, Physics, and Chemistry, where classes are split into three ability levels from grade 11 and 12, but not in grade 10. To align to international standards, ADEK lengthened the school day by five days from 175 to 180 school days from 2017/18 academic session (Pennington, 2017), and has also increased the amount of instruction in English in all public schools, having hired close to 500 native English speakers to teach in its public schools. The purpose of this was to assist students entering into university where ability in English was a barrier. ADEK has also invested heavily in professional development for principals and teachers in the form of training (Al Ahbabi, 2016).

2.4.3. New School Model

In 2008, ADEK announced plans that it would replace old school buildings and build 100 new schools with more modern, environmentally sound, and economical structures throughout Abu Dhabi by 2020. The construction project is part of an integral plan to transform education in the Emirate. Its goal is to create an educationally effective, stimulating and vibrant, cost-effective, sustainable, community-centred and culturally appropriate learning environment where students and teachers can achieve their maximum potential (ADEK website). This has been re-branded as the New School Model (NSM). NSM is the foundation for a better educational system and student outcomes in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi (UNESCO, 2011). This model is based on a student-centred learning approach, where students learn in a technology-rich environment, with modern teaching facilities.

Figure 2.9: Prototype of the New School Model (NSM)



Source: ADEK website

The new schools being constructed are heavily invested in and are equipped with modern and sophisticated infrastructure such as eLearning suites with modern computing facilities, technology workshops, intelligent whiteboards, library facilities, auditorium, breakout spaces, teachers' work stations, science and art rooms, cafeteria, and recreational facilities such as gymnasium and swimming pool. Figure 2.9. shows an outside view (prototype) of the New School Model. This model focuses on the student, the teacher and the learning environment and aims to introduce a new curriculum with new teaching methods to enhance student learning by developing the student as a communicator, a thinker and problem solver (UNESCO, 2011). In 2010, the NSM was introduced in all KG and Grade 1-3 classes in public schools in Abu Dhabi. The NSM

was expanded to include Grade 4 in 2011 and Grade 5 in 2012. The NSM will be rolled out to additional grades in future years (ADEK website).

Outcomes-Based Curriculum: The NSM curriculum is organised around a set of learning standards and student learning outcomes for subjects that are defined by ADEK and has a dual focus on the Arabic and English languages. To support the implementation of the NSM, ADEC provides a set of detailed learning standards for all subjects. Students are expected to demonstrate a specific set of skills, knowledge or levels of understanding in each subject and in each grade. These learning standards are consistent across all Abu Dhabi schools and are the centre of the curriculum for the NSM. Teachers are responsible for delivering instruction through methods that enable all students to achieve the learning expectations. This requires teachers to have a clear and precise understanding of the learning standards in the grades and subjects that they teach along with an understanding of the development of each student for whom they are (ADEK website).

Use of Resources: Teachers use a variety of instructional materials and methods to teach the curriculum. To support implementation of the NSM, ADEC provides all schools with instructional materials for every classroom in order to ensure that all teachers have sufficient tools and resources to use in helping students achieve the learning expectations. Instructional materials are used in a way that creates an active learning environment for students. Students are expected to learn by doing, not by just listening and watching. While textbooks are part of the learning resources, additional resources are used to supplement and enrich each subject's content (ADEK website).

eLearning, ICT and Education: eLearning plays a critical role in the NSM. eLearning is learning enhanced by digital technology. It supports and enables student-centred learning experiences that are flexible, collaborative, interactive, engaging and authentic. So, it is using technology, and especially information and communication technology (ICT), to support teaching and learning. As Abu Dhabi moves towards a knowledge-based economy consistent with the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030, it is essential that students develop ICT skills in early grades to build a foundation for more advanced learning. Teaching and learning using “eLearning” ensures that developmentally-appropriate technology is used as a tool to enhance the other resources that the teacher is using. The NSM (grades KG -5 in 2012-13), requires that all teachers use appropriate eLearning to support teaching and learning activities across all subject areas. Since the number and availability of technologies and tools are continuously increasing, teachers will always need to find new ways of using eLearning in their classrooms. Ongoing

professional development will continue to be offered to support this approach (ADEK website).

Assessment: The NSM, recognises that on-going assessment is central to effective teaching and learning. Successful implementation of the NSM requires an understanding of the purpose of student assessment and a specific approach to how assessment is conducted and utilised in the classroom. Continuous assessment of students by teachers is useful to help teachers understand what students have learned and what teaching methods and resources can be used to enable students to meet the learning outcomes. In addition to the use of continuous assessment of students, an annual assessment of student progress also occurs (ADEK website).

Since the introduction of the New School Model, a number of changes have been made. For example, in September 2017, ADEK announced that public schools operated by ADEK and those that follow the Ministry of Education curriculum across the country would begin to adopt a new curriculum in which more focus will be given to science subjects and more time devoted to the study of English for pupils in grades 10, 11 and 12 (Al Nowais, 2017). The new curriculum incorporated aspects of the New School Model. The decision came as the government sought to encourage more young people to study science and improve their English. At the time, many public school pupils failed the high school exit test that measures their level of English readiness in grade 12. This meant that they had to take a ‘foundation year’ to improve before attending university. Under the previous ADEK curriculum, children spent half the day learning in Arabic and half in English – being taught maths, science and English language by mostly Western educated, native English speakers. The two-stream curriculum, which allowed pupils to elect to follow a science or humanities course of study, was eliminated. In its place was a singular curriculum in which STEM - science, technology, engineering and maths - accounted for at least 50 per cent of all subjects. Education experts described the new system as a hybrid that takes the best aspects of both curricular and will better prepare pupils for further education and the workplace (Al Nowais, 2017).

2.5. The Role of Educational Leaders in Abu Dhabi

2.5.1. Educational Leadership in the UAE: An Islamic Perspective

The growing multicultural nature of educational institutions underpins the need to acknowledge the different perspectives of educational leadership in order to reflect

diversity in different cultural values and styles of leadership (Shah, 2006, 2010). For example, from an Islamic perspective, the role of education in Islam is to provide holistic development to human beings, encompassing and integrating the moral and spiritual principles of Islam, as well as the political, social, economic and personal well-being of individuals (Nasr, 1985; Ashraf, 1995; Shah, 2006, 2010). Thus, educational leadership in the Arab world involves building and sharing knowledge with others, whilst maintaining great sense of religious identity, which attaches importance to moral values, piety and faith as fundamental aims of education (Jacobson, 1998). Thus, educational leaders are supposed to be seen as spiritual, moral and academic mentors (Shah, 2006). This is one of the underlying reasons the UAE Ministry of Education has advocated the teaching of Islamic and Arabic Studies to preserve the cultural and religious heritage of the UAE, while renewing the curriculum to support the needs of a modern and dynamic economy (Godwin, 2006). Recently, a new school curriculum including a new subject of moral education to promote ethics, tolerance, respect, and national loyalty was introduced in 2017/2018 academic year (International Trade Administration, 2018). The objective of the new initiative is to promote ethics, community growth, culture, heritage, sustainability, rights and responsibilities among students (*ibid*). A total of 19 private and public schools in the U.A.E. were selected for the experimental phase launched in January 2017.

In addition, the UAE government has been pursuing the agenda of Emiratisation to gradually replace expatriate employees with UAE nationals in all sectors, including the education sector. Currently, expatriates currently account for about 60% of the total staff strength (teachers, vice principals and principals) in public schools in Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain and Western Regions (see Table 2.2). One of the main factors alleged as accounting for the recent poor pupil performance in UAE state public education is the unsuitability of expatriate teachers in providing "holistic" education - that is, instilling the UAE's values and morals as well as teaching conventional subjects. But the Ministry of Education has acknowledged that there are challenges in recruiting more Emirati teachers as many of them are unable to teach the English language to the required standard as well as additional subjects (such as creative design and innovation, business programming, etc) being introduced into the curriculum as part of the UAE government's strategy to maintain certain international and diversity standards (Clarke, 2018). One expatriate teacher responded to the allegation that Western teachers are to blame for poor academic performance, arguing that the problems are mainly non-attendance of many students to lessons and that the ambition from the Ministry of Education was set far above student abilities. He added that most of his grade 10 students could not read above a second or

third grade reading level, yet the books they used are far above that level (Clarke, 2018).

Table 2.2: Number of Staff in Public Schools in Abu Dhabi (2017/2018)

		Expat	National	Grand Total
Abu Dhabi	Principal	10	104	114
	Teacher	3,169	2,096	5,265
	Vice Principal	69	152	221
Abu Dhabi Total		3,248	2,352	5,600
Al Ain	Principal	13	91	104
	Teacher	2,846	2,149	4,995
	Vice Principal	52	146	198
Al Ain Total		2,911	2,386	5,297
Al Dhafra	Principal	11	14	25
	Teacher	953	116	1,069
	Vice Principal	22	14	36
Al Dhafra Total		986	144	1,130
Grand Total		7,145	4,882	12,027

Source: ADEK Research Department

More of this discussion on educational leadership and the role of cultural values as well as educational outcomes in the UAE can be found in chapters 4 and 5 as well as in the discussion chapters.

2.5.2. Current Role of Educational Leaders in the UAE

The current role of educational leaders in the UAE can be derived from the UAE's Ministry of Education's transformation and modernization agenda which was set over 10 years ago after the establishment of ADEK and gives priority to four meta values: (1) a strong and diversified economy, (2) a full and successful involvement in the ICT revolution, (3) an open Arabic and Islamic knowledge society, and (4) the need for an educational system of international character and quality (Macpherson et al., 2007). Thus, within this reform agenda was the need to improve professionalism and accountability in schools, integrate ICT with learning, improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes of educational leaders and managers, among other things, to achieve internationally comparable educational aims, goals, objectives, measures and targets (Macpherson et al., 2007). This reform process is evident in the new school model (NSM) described above in section 2.5.3. Every school in Abu Dhabi supervised by ADEK has

the following roles to serve the school: The Principal who is the academic director cum management figure at the top; the Vice-Principals, who are normally two to observe and lead at their own disposal the following categories of staff: academic or teaching staff and administrative staff (non-teaching staff that provide administrative support to the school community and teaching staff). According to laid down rules by the Ministry of Education, a principal in the Abu Dhabi Educational Council works under a district supervisor (now called cluster manager), who is a professional leader whose job is to deliver professionally designed tasks for administrative functions in public schools. By following regulations and instructions in an organised way, the educational leader (principal) should fulfil his or her administrative and management responsibilities. As principal is the top authority in the school, he/she can develop an action plan to improve the efficiency of their school in terms of academic outcomes and administration. The academic Vice-Principal forms a team with mainly teaching staff, including the curriculum manager, heads of faculty (HODs for various subjects like English, Arabic, Mathematics, Science and so on, as well as the HOD for special needs), the subject teachers and assistant teachers. The Vice-Principal responsible for administration also works with other staff such as: administrative manager, the registration department, laboratory technician, IT unit, building coordinator, school nurse, student counselling (psychologist), and social workers, among other support workers.

2.5.3. Recruitment of Educational Leaders

Given the role of educational leadership in providing quality education, there is need for the careful selection of the educational leader for productive outcomes and effective education for the students in the school. According to ADEK's *professional standards for principals* (ADEK, 2015a), principals recruited to manage and lead schools in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi must meet or exceed the following qualifications:

- a. Master's degree from a recognised University;
- b. Recognised Teaching Qualification;
- c. Minimum of 5 years continual teaching experience, preferred 7 years plus, including teaching management experience;
- d. Recognised qualification in Educational Leadership
- e. 3 years' work as Vice-principal, preferably more experience;
- f. Minimum IELTS (Academic) 6.5.
- g. Bilingual Arabic/English preferred

The present research examines whether ADEK is missing out something very important

when it comes to the first part of recruitment which is qualification criteria. The academic qualification can be a minimum Masters' degree in any discipline, but this may not be fair enough depending on the role they will be performing. It should be that experience requirement is there in Educational Management, but there is no form of an appropriate experience criteria in UAE schools. any previous position is promoted to the next, for instance, teacher to vice-principal and later principal. Since Arabic is the official language of the UAE, why are IELTS academic with 6.5 bands required? In a study aimed at investigating the perception of principals, vice principals and teachers on the selection criteria and recruitment procedures for Al-Ain public school, Alhelali (2014) found that while participants agreed on the need for applicants to hold a good degree and professional teaching qualification, they do not think English language requirement is really needed. Though school leadership is likely to be more effective if the Principal is a bilingual speaker, the preparation time consumed in training a principal for IELTS with minimum 6.5 bands, may better be utilised if ADEK demands a specific training course/diploma which can assist the educational leader in their job role. In the study by Alhelali (2014), a high number of respondents also felt that the personal characteristics of a school principal's candidate should be evaluated as part of the selection methods. This means that the applicant should be tested based on his/her sociological and psychological traits as a leader. In this regard, one of the key objectives of this study is to investigate whether gender plays a role in the recruitment, appointment and promotion of educational leaders in Abu Dhabi.

2.5.4. Responsibilities of Educational Leaders

The school principal provides leadership and direction towards the accomplishment of school goals (Bush, 2007). The core aim of the principal's responsibilities is to provide professional educational leadership and management for a school community, and to promote a commitment to all staff achieving high standards in all areas of the school's work (Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood et al, 1999; Bush, 2007; ADEK, 2015a). In other words, the principal maintains a core role of developing the whole school. One of his/her many jobs is to promote a secure position for the school by maintaining a high standard of education. The principal is the leading professional in the school hierarchy and thus, is expected to promote the school's vision and objectives to very high standards.

According to ADEK (2015a), the principal is accountable on the following points:

- a. Consistent evaluation of the school's performance and continuous improvement and raising of teaching standards;

- b. Ensuring equality of opportunity for all;
- c. Developing policies and practices;
- d. Ensuring the effective and efficient utilisation of resources to achieve the school's aims and objectives and for the day-to-day management, organisation and administration of the school;
- e. Building the leadership capacity within the school;
- f. Engaging all parents and community stakeholders in the education of students.

The most important yardstick for measuring a principal's leadership effectiveness is the extent to which the Principal leads the improvement of teaching and learning so that the students continue to improve their learning outcomes. The principal is expected to provide leadership and direction, within the framework of the ADEK Strategic Plan, enabling a shared vision for the school, and ensures that it is managed and organised to meet its aims and targets (ADEK, 2015a). Thus, the leadership style of the principal is crucial in helping him/her fulfil their responsibilities. To fulfill whatever is required for the job, the principal must have effective management skills to drive the standards high. There must be a culture of promoting excellence, equalising expectations and understanding staff needs. Another aim of this study in this regard is to examine the impact of a principal's leadership style on their performance, and whether a principal's gender affect their leadership style, in the pursuit of better educational outcomes. Moreover, this study also investigates how well school principals in Abu Dhabi are living up to expectations with regard to ensuring equality of opportunity for all (without any form of discrimination). This study is particularly interested in whether educational leaders practice gender discrimination particularly against female staff (openly or secretly) while carrying out their duties.

2.5.5. Training of Educational Leaders

For effective school results and development, the role of effective leadership is vital to proceed with quality education. If school leadership is sound, then it is likely to facilitate successful processes, but failure can often be directly linked with inadequate school leadership (Huber (2004). As argued by Leithwood et al. (2008:29) "there is not a single documented case of a school successfully turning around its pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership". The development of a leader's talent begins with training and professional development. If there is no proper or appropriate training for the leader, then this will filter down the process of enlightenment and the whole inspiration of knowledge acquisition is destroyed.

ADEK organises a training week before the start of each semester for public sector teachers to provide new strategies, tools, collaborative learning from colleagues and hands-on-experiences. Under the title of “Tanmia” professional development week, this programme provides an opportunity to learn about a specific topic of interest. Teachers can choose from a wide range of topics such as: differentiated learning, assessment making tools, supporting high achievement for all students, planning for high quality instruction, school evaluation process, school development plan review, child protection policy, strategies for English language learners, 21st century learning skills, second trimester planning and specialised curriculum courses for each subject (ADEK, 2015b; 2016). Tanmia is formed by ADEK along with its collaborative partners: Centre for British Teachers, Cognition Education, GEMS Education, Nord Anglia Education, SSAT and the University of Florida. (ADEK, 2015b).

"Tanmia aims to develop teachers' comprehensive and sustainable educational approach, which contributes to enhancing their skills and raise students' academic performance to achieve success through developing training plans to reach their career goals" (ADEK, 2016:1).

ADEK sends out the invitation to all public-sector teachers across Abu Dhabi to participate and benefit from professional development training. The 2015 edition of the training took place across 48 different training centres and attracted 11,000 teachers from 256 public schools, who each had the choice to select a course (ADEK, 2015b). The outcome of this training workshop is to foster efficient and effective learning application.

Tanmia is important to the growth of teaching and learning in the public sector for UAE education, but ADEK may also need to have a standardised or accredited training workshop or programme for educational leadership. Training and development for productive skills and attributes of leadership in Abu Dhabi public schools seems to be missing or at best inadequate. Professional training of principals could help them to perform their duties effectively and bring about educational excellence in all areas. Study on the effectiveness of ADEK's professional development for Principals in Al Ain Government schools, found that professional development programs were effective in the five areas researched Al-Ghafri (2014). However, the study showed that perceptions of the effectiveness of ADEK's PD programs differed according to the respondent's position, gender and experience. Thus, the present research seeks to evaluate the impact of ADEK's current training program on principals' leadership effectiveness in Abu

Dhabi public schools and provides policy suggestions for the professional development and training of educational leaders.

2.5.6. Performance Evaluation of Educational Leaders

The Performance Evaluation process offers a good understanding of the quality of performance for school staff particularly teachers and school leaders. At different school levels, it gives some indication of the level of development required to improve student attainment and to advance planned goals. However, this evaluation helps a lot in terms of setting strategies for the future. This process involves the principal, vice-principals and teachers as they are being evaluated on the specific areas they need improvement. ADEK has established Professional Standards for Principals and Teachers. These Professional Standards are “statements of the professional attributes, professional knowledge and understanding, and professional skills required of teachers and principals” (ADEK website). The standards provide transparency about the level of performance based on global best practice.

The purpose of the principal’s evaluation is to get a good understanding of the quality of performance of the principal and educational outcomes for the school as a whole. There are some key questions, which can be answered adequately once the process of evaluating the principal is completed:

1. To what degree does the Principal as the academic director display educational leadership capabilities within the entire school community?
2. What kind of teaching and learning is being given to students and how can these be improved?

Answers to these questions can help the cluster manager to identify areas of weak performance so that the principal and staff could be updated about how they can better lead the process of ADEK’s reform agenda.

For the principal’s quality assurance in Abu Dhabi public schools, the job of a cluster manager is really important. According to ADEK (2015b), there are five areas of competencies for which a principal is evaluated:

1. Leading Strategically
2. Leading Teaching and Learning
3. Leading the Organisation
4. Leading People

5. Leading the Community

Cluster Managers evaluate school principals and vice principals on those different standards. The current research focuses on number 2 to 4, with the aim of examining which leadership styles principals use in leading teaching and learning, the organisation and people, though some aspects of leading strategically (number 1) and leading the community (number 5) are also discussed. However, the main concern of the current research is to examine the gender differences in the leadership styles adopted by educational leaders such as principals, vice principals, curriculum managers and admin managers. The latter part of chapter 5 examines the literature on gender and leadership styles in education.

Principals are responsible for the performance evaluation process of teachers and faculty heads in Abu Dhabi schools. The ADEK online performance evaluation system is used so that school teachers can understand their professional development needs for immediate future planning and actions. The outcome of the evaluation provides the basis of each teacher's professional development plan. Teachers are typically assessed on the evidence of their classroom performance. Some of the measures used to assess a teacher's classroom performance include: engaging students effectively in the learning process; treating students with respect, creating a conducive environment for all students to learn, providing constructive feedback to students/parents, and making prudent use of resources (ADEK website). Based on the performance level, the Principal provides formative feedback to the teacher. The school principal in collaboration with the Head of Faculty, works with each teacher to set goals for the year and produce an individual performance development plan. Individual Performance Development Plans specify how teachers can improve their academic delivery in accordance with the Professional Standards for Teachers. For example, in Kindergarten and Cycle 1 schools, the performance development plan will address the pedagogical concepts of the New School Model. Teachers in Cycle 2 and Cycle 3 schools will develop Individual Performance Development Plans that are based both on regular self-assessment by the teacher and classroom observations of the teacher, which will be conducted by Principals and Vice-Principals.

2.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the historical development of UAE's educational system, beginning with an overview of the country's political and economic profile and providing

a historical background of the development of the educational system of UAE before and after its independence from the UK. In 1971, the late President His Highness Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan Al Nahyan unified the small, underdeveloped Arabian gulf states into a federation – the only one in the Arab world. With his visionary leadership, oil wealth was used to develop the UAE into one of the world’s most open and successful economies. Although the UAE was established as a nation in 1971, the history of education dates back to the 1820s. Since the 1820s, the UAE has gone through several stages of educational transformation, beginning with traditional education in the form of religious education (Mutawa and Katateeb and educational circles) to more organised forms of formal school establishment (semi-organised school and modern education). The current structure of UAE’s educational system shows that there are four main stages of education – pre-school stage; basic education stage (comprising primary school or cycle 1 and lower secondary or cycle 2); upper secondary or vocational technical education (cycle 3) and higher education. Cycles 1-3 are compulsory for all UAE nationals.

In 2004, His Highness Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan became president of the UAE and has since continued to strive towards an ambitious vision for the UAE. One of the main aims of the current administration is to use education as the main driving force towards achieving the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 which aims to position UAE as a knowledge-based and productive economy of global standing. As a result, the Abu Dhabi Education Council was established to develop and implement innovative educational policies, plans and programmes that aim to improve education in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi and to support educational institutions and staff in a manner that helps to achieve the objectives of national development. There have been significant improvements when it comes to the educational transformation in the UAE with the development of a new structure of education across all levels, improvement of educational management and governance as well as the establishment a New School Model which sets the foundation for an improved educational system in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. The latter part of the chapter has specifically examined the role of the Abu Dhabi Education council in the recruitment, training and evaluation of educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools towards achieving its mandate of educational transformation.

This chapter serves as an important reference point to the core arguments developed in the later chapters on the foundations of education in the UAE with respect to Islamic principles, the role of educational leadership as set by ADEK and the current problems

encountered in the educational landscape of the country. For example, despite the ambitious reform plan of the UAE government and the Ministry of Education, there are several areas identified that need improvement, particularly the quality of education in the UAE and the role of expatriate teachers, gender gaps in educational outcomes, Emiratisation of the Education workforce, the role of gender considerations in leadership appointments and leadership styles and the role of the UAE culture and traditions in influencing educational leadership styles. These issues are looked at in more detail in later chapters.

Chapter Three

Leadership Theory

3.0. Introduction

Following from the latter part of chapter 2, leadership plays a crucial role in influencing educational outcomes and in motivating school staff in the attainment of the objectives of educational transformation as seen in the role of educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools. Abu Dhabi School Principals are held accountable for leading strategically, leading teaching and learning, leading the organisation, leading people and leading the community (ADEK, 2015b). Thus, it is important to review the concepts and theories of leadership and the leadership styles that are generally used by leaders to influence organisational commitment and performance. This chapter is concerned with the different leadership styles associated with leading the organisation and leading people. Chapter 4 takes a specific look at leading teaching and learning (educational leadership). This chapter presents an overview of commonly known and practiced theories of leadership. It briefly reviews developments and progression in the classification of some of the main leadership theories and identifies their strengths and limitations. Due to limitations of scope, only a small selection of leadership theories has been included for analysis. The latter part of this chapter examines the concept of Islamic leadership in detail as this form of leadership has its roots in the history of the country and is prevalent in the country of study and GCC region as a whole. In addition, leadership practices in the UAE and GCC is also examined.

3.1. Defining Leadership

Leadership is a heavily discussed, complex and multi-dimensional topic that has been critically researched and studied worldwide. It has been classified as one of the most observed and analysed phenomena on earth, but at the same time, the least understood (Burns, 1978:2). It could be said that there are as many different definitions of leadership as there are individuals who have attempted to define the concept (Bass, 1981:11). According to Bolden (2004:4), the topic of leadership has been of interest for many hundreds of years, from the early Greek philosophers, such as Plato and Socrates, to the vast number of management and leadership experts. However, in recent times, the need for effective leadership has been emphasised. This is due to the increasing demand for more effective and purposeful leadership. With the plethora of contrasting theoretical

studies, the answer to the question, ‘What is Leadership?’ has become extremely clouded. Peter Drucker, the famous management expert, states that a leader is someone who has followers (Drucker, 1999). Yukl (1989) goes a step further and purports that a leader is someone who gains followers through influence and adds that this process of gaining followers doesn’t exclude the lack of integrity often demonstrated by leaders in achieving this. Over the years, many different leadership theories have emerged, with some gaining a much wider acceptance than others. This chapter discusses a number of theories and how best they describe the concept of leadership.

The overriding problem of defining leadership is that it is highly subjective. Bolden (2004:5) highlights how “...everyone has their own intuitive understanding of what leadership is, based on a mixture of experience and learning, which is difficult to capture in a succinct definition”. People will naturally form their own ideas on what leadership is based on individual experiences, which arguably suggests that leadership is instantly personalised rather than being viewed as an information exchange. In order to attempt to define leadership, Bass and Avolio (1994) proposed a classification system which suggested that “some definitions view leadership as the focus of group processes”. An example of this type of definition is from Northouse (2015:5) who describes leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”. Northouse (2015) builds upon this definition further by explaining that when leadership is viewed as a process, it is void of any personality traits, but instead that it is a transactional event where the “leader affects and is affected by followers”, and something which “becomes available to everyone” (*ibid*). Yukl (1989) asserts that effective leadership behaviours are attainable as they can be taught. Two important behavioural traits of leadership were proposed to be initiating structure and consideration. This approach leans on the idea that leadership can be learnt, and therefore adapted and improved. Thus, there can be a skimmed view of leadership, which is to be with the characteristics of processes, attributes, behaviours and identified goals or missions, under the banner of any of the organisations. Some common factors, however, can be the same, such as employees’ satisfaction, teamwork, collaboration and commitment.

Some theorists believe that leadership is just a process of social influence while others purport that leadership encompasses all traits which a person requires to gather followers including influence and power (Clegg et al., 2011). Northouse (2015:1) identifies how “some researchers conceptualise leadership as a trait or as a behaviour, whereas others view leadership from an information – processing perspective or relational standpoint”.

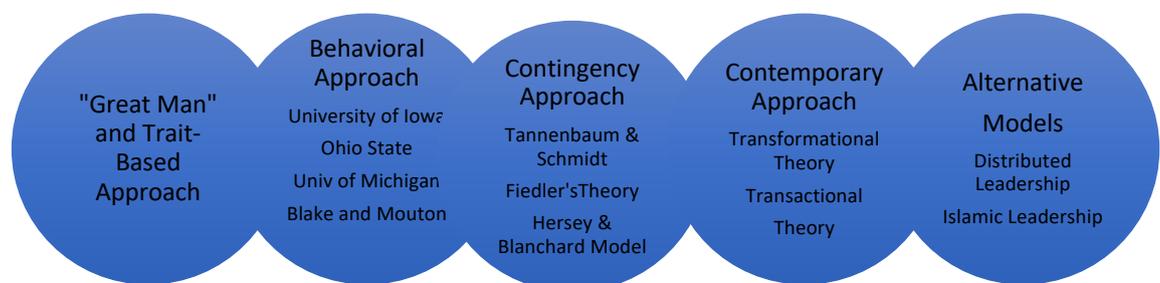
The first point being a conceptualisation of leadership from a *personality perspective*, and the second being from a perspective that leadership is more of a *transactional event* that occurs between leaders and followers. According to the latter perspective, leadership is a process rather than a trait or characteristic that resides in the leader. This implies that leadership is not linear, and can be affected, changed and developed by experiences and interactions between followers. Both leaders and followers are involved together in the leadership process, therefore, leaders need followers and followers need leaders (Burns, 1978; Jago, 1982; Heller and Van till, 1983; Hollander, 1992).

A review of the leadership literature reveals an evolving series of 'schools of thought' from "Great Man" and "Trait" theories to contemporary forms of leadership such as "Transformational" leadership (Bolden et al., 2003). Whilst early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership. Many researchers have used *trait theory* (which will be defined in section 3.2.1) to study leadership. It is believed that leadership is built within the individual, and that personal qualities are the fuel for a successful leader. Maltby et al. (2013) argues that individuals are born with innate leadership qualities, and that one's personality and character is shaped from early life experiences. From a young age, these life experiences, and especially family dynamics, contribute to intellectual development and the creation and use of interpersonal skills. Genes are argued to play their role as individuals can be 'born leaders', expressing many qualities of leadership from a young age. Alnuaimi (2013) argued that empirical studies have not really supported 'Trait Theory', as lists of defined leadership traits combine very different qualities, which are only applicable in different situations. This inconsistency led to research and development into *behavioural leadership theory*. Another development in the evolution of leadership theory emerged, *Contingency theory*, which stressed that effective leadership cannot be dependent on any single one-dimensional factor. Traits, behaviour, personality, influence and circumstances are all of relevant importance. In models of situational leadership, a leader's behaviour is seen to be adapted to meet the demands of their unique situation (e.g. Fiedler, 1967; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

A *contemporary approach* to leadership, consisting of theories of transformational and transactional leadership, has surfaced to meet the evolving demands of the 21st century. Transactional leaders conform to existing norms and rules within organisational structures and cultures, whereas transformational leaders seek to understand the culture first before changing it. Based on the latter approach, existing values and norms are used

to cultivate and adapt a new vision to realign the organisation's culture for the better. However, in recognition of the fact that leadership does not need to be top-down, alternative models of leadership are now making waves, most notably *distributed* or *dispersed* leadership, where leadership responsibilities are shared amongst members of the team. There are also other models of leadership based on cultural and religious orientation, such as Islamic leadership and paternalistic leadership, where there is a personalised relationship between leaders and followers along cultural and religious lines. Figure 3.1 summarises these various approaches to leadership. However, it should be stressed that the theories and models covered in this thesis are only a small selection of theories that exist in leadership studies.

Figure 3.1. Approaches to Leadership Theory



Source: Researcher's own representation based on a survey of the leadership theory literature

The above key leadership theories are discussed and critiqued below.

3.2. Leadership Theories

3.2.1. "Great Man" and Trait Based Theories

The Trait Approach arose from the "Great Man" theory as a way of identifying the key characteristics of successful leaders. Great Man theory emerged based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities and destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western (Bolden et al., 2003). This led to the next school of Trait Theories. Some researchers studied different famous leaders and observed that these leaders have certain traits in them that make them successful (e.g. Stogdill, 1974; Smith and Peterson, 1989). Bolden et al. (2003) show that those who possessed certain leadership traits were often selected for appointment to leadership positions. This approach was commonly used (and is still

being used) in the military worldwide to recruit candidates to selective leadership positions. Leadership traits have been found to vary hugely, ranging from physiological characteristics (such as height and looks) to psychological traits (such as self-confidence, being 'social' or 'anti-social') and skills (such as communication skills, creativity, and knowledge of group activity). Khan, Nawaz and Khan (2016) classified the components of trait theory into two categories: *emergent traits* (those that are biologically inherited) and *effectiveness traits* (based upon experience and learning). Emergent traits can include, height, intelligence, physical appearance and attractiveness, whereas effectiveness traits can include charisma, integrity and honesty. Re et. al. (2013) argued that an observer's perception of facial maturity affects the perceived competency of a leader. It was found that those with younger-looking faces were judged as less effective leaders. They also found a strong relationship between perceived height and leadership. Taller individuals, both men and women were seen to be more dominant, capable and suitable for leadership (Re et al, 2013). However, there is little evidence to support how these externally determined leadership perceptions actually influence and affect the quality of leadership displayed by an individual. This demonstrates a potential limitation in this research, suggesting that biological traits do not actually affect leadership, just an observer's perception of leadership.

In discussions of leadership effectiveness, psychological traits, effectiveness traits and skills are often cited. Ahmed and Bach (2014) provided a description of several leadership traits, including honesty and integrity; drive (a broad term, which includes motivation, ambition, achievement orientation, energy, tenacity and initiative); self-confidence (emotional stability); leadership motivation (desire to lead but not to acquire power as an end in itself); cognitive ability (reasoning/judgment skills); and knowledge of the business or task. Ahmed and Bach (2014) argue that these leadership 'traits' can assist a leader acquire the necessary skills, formulate an organisational vision, develop an effective plan for pursuing it and take steps to execute the vision in reality. They, however, warned that possession of these traits alone does not guarantee leadership success as effective leaders differ from others in certain respects. For example, it is very difficult to find a leader that will consistently display certain traits in different situations. Moreover, the fact that a leader does not exhibit some traits doesn't mean he is not a successful leader. Table 3.1 show, despite this critique, a list of possible personality traits compiled by the researcher after considering several studies (Stogdill, 1974; Smith and Peterson, 1989; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bolden, et al, 2003; Re et al, 2013; Ahmed and Bach, 2014; Northouse, 2015; and Alkatani, 2016)

Bass and Avolio (1994) emphasised the importance of ‘effectiveness traits’ such as charisma on leadership. Charisma’s role is essential in enabling the leader to influence followers by arousing strong emotions and identification with the leader. Identifying with the leader reduces follower resistance to change, while emotional arousal creates a sense of ‘excitement about the mission’ (Bryman, et al., 2011:89). This creates a sense of trust between leader and follower. Loyalty towards each other assists focus on goal achievement as followers are captivated and inspired by a shared vision. Leaders with high emotional intelligence are said to be able to correctly assess and regulate the emotions of their followers to achieve the desired emotional state so that they are able to attain their expected performance (Alkahtani, 2016). Northouse (2015) adds that leaders with integrity inspire confidence in others. Integrity combines the quality of trustworthiness and honesty and makes a leader believable. In California, USA, key stage 12 curricula have been developed to teach character, values, and ethical leadership. This shows the perception of the importance of integrity in effective leadership, and society’s demand for it in the 21st century.

Table 3.1. List of Key Personality Traits and Skills of Leaders

Personality Traits	Skills
<p><i>Physiological Traits:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Height - Physical appearance/attractiveness - Facial maturity <p><i>Psychological Traits:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Self-confidence (emotional stability) - Assertiveness - Empathy (emotional quotient) - Spiritual quotient - Alertness to social environment - Leadership motivation (inspiration) <p><i>Effectiveness Traits:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Charisma (force of personality, charm) - Honesty and integrity - Tenacity (determination) - Conscientiousness (diligence) - Ambitious (achievement-orientated) - Adaptability to situations (flexibility) - Decisiveness - Initiative - Energy (activity level) - Willingness to assume responsibility - Dominance (desire to influence others) - Dependability - Cooperativeness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intelligence (intellectual quotient) - Cognitive ability (reasoning/analytical skills) - Creativity - Diplomacy and tactfulness - Communication skills (fluency of speech) - Knowledge of the business/group task - Organisation skills (administrative ability) - Social skills or competence

Source: Researcher's own compilation based on Stogdill, 1974; Smith and Peterson, 1989; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bolden, et al, 2003; Re et al, 2013; Ahmed and Bach, 2014; Northouse, 2015; and Alkatani, 2016

Northouse (2015) comments on the longevity of trait theory. A strength of this approach is that it boasts centuries of research and analysis, and a large number of studies have been conducted around the topic. Out of this abundance of research has emerged arguments that various personality traits are important in the leadership process. It has a degree of credibility as it is the oldest theory around leadership that is still used in the modern day to identify and nurture potential leaders. In contrast, Stogdill (1974) suggested that trait theory is not a reliable approach of measuring leadership. Leadership is more of a process of social interaction that cannot be restricted by or labelled as definitive traits. With regard to this, trait theory has limitations as in theory it restricts leadership to those with special, inborn talents (Northouse, 2015). It is not a useful approach for training and development of leadership as it suggests that leaders either possess necessary traits or do not. It limits the value of teaching and leadership training as tool for improvement. However, although not fully dependable, trait theory can be used to highlight strengths of leaders and areas of potential development. These limitations led to the emergence of leadership theories based on behaviour which are discussed below.

3.2.2. Behavioural Leadership Theories

Behaviour is generally seen as the way in which one acts or conducts oneself, especially towards others (Simpson and Weiner, 1989). Unlike traits, which are usually fixed (such as physical appearance and psychological profiles), behaviours can be changed over time. Hence these theories changed the perspective on leadership, and it became possible to train leaders, as behaviour is seen as a learned response. One of the most well-known behavioural leadership theories is Blake and Mouton's (1978) managerial grid approach. Their approach is popular because they combine important contributions from three studies at the University of Iowa (Lewin et al, 1939), Ohio State University (Fleishman, 1953; Stogdill and Coons, 1957; and Stogdill et al., 1962) and University of Michigan (Likert, 1961). These studies were an attempt to determine what leadership behaviour was meaningfully associated with organisation productivity. The studies at Ohio and Michigan revealed two principal dimensions of leadership behaviour:

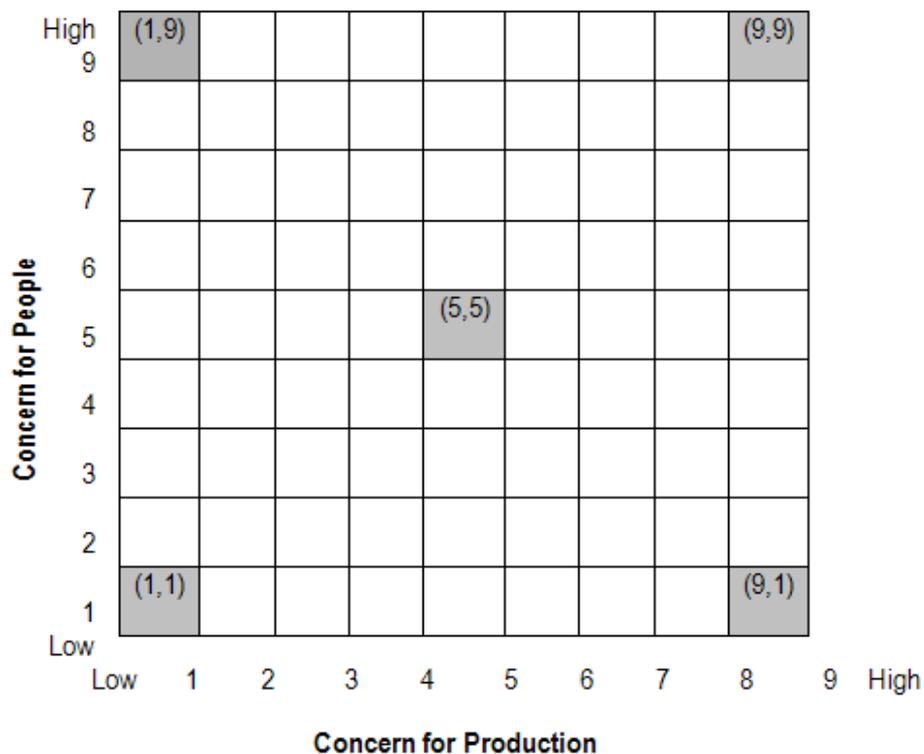
a. *Concern for people:* This dimension is mostly 'people or employee oriented'. It involves a manager's concern for developing mutual trust with subordinates and followers, promoting two-way communication, being sensitive to their feelings and

ideas. Managers with this concern are often characterised by their concern for welfare, commitment, friendliness, approaches and attitudes towards solidarity.

b. Concern for production: This dimension is mostly ‘production or task oriented’. It involves a manager’s concern for actively directing subordinates in order to get the task done effectively and efficiently. The managers under this category are characterised by concern for completing the task as per plan, implementing rules, regulations, policies and procedures.

Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid: Based on the research conducted by the scholars at Ohio and Michigan universities, Blake and Mouton (1964) came up with a two-dimensional model called *the managerial grid* which divided the leadership styles into four distinct categories (see figure 3.2). The two dimensions they used were ‘concern for employees’ and ‘concern for production’. ‘Concern for production’ reflects a leader’s underlying attitude toward achieving results, while ‘concern for people’ refers to the thoughtfulness for others applied when leadership is exercised (Molloy, 1998).

Fig 3.2. Representative Diagram of Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid



Source: Adapted from Blake and Mouton (1978)

As illustrated in figure 3.2 above, based on the relative behaviour of a leader on these two dimensions, leaders can be divided into five categories:

1-1: Impoverished management (*low production, low people*) – This is where the leader shows little concern for both people and production and the result is usually disastrous. Zeidan (2009) calls this a “delegate-and-disappear” management style. It is essentially a lazy approach to leadership where the leader does not take responsibility for any mistakes and avoids getting into trouble. Bass (1990) attributes this style to a Laissez-faire approach, describing this type of leader as an abdicator of responsibility. This approach to leadership is likely to create a high level of dissatisfaction, disunity and lack of commitment towards group goals.

1-9: Country Club management (*low production, high people*) – This is where the leader shows high concern, thoughtfulness and empathy for the employees, while having little concern for output or production. In describing the attitudes and behaviour associated with this approach, Blake and Mouton (1978) opine that this type of leaders supports decisions which promote good relations and tend to embrace opinions and ideas of others rather than push their own. They generally try to soothe the feelings of others and avoid tensions to keep people together. This is more like a relationship-oriented manager who takes a one-sided approach, showing consideration for the needs of others at the expense of employee productivity

9-1: Authority compliance or task management (*high production, low people*) – This is where the leader is more concerned about production and putting controls together and less concerned about the welfare of employees. This approach is also known as “produce-or-perish” style of leadership (Zeidan, 2009), where the leader creates a tightly controlled ship with little room for disobedience. Leaders who use this approach do not value employee needs and they see employees as a means to an end. They put undue pressure on employees to follow strict rules and threaten them with punishment for non-compliance.

5-5: Middle-of-the-road management (*medium production, medium people*) – This is a balanced approach where the concern for production is balanced with the well-being of the employees, thus creating an organisation where people are cared for but work towards achieving intermediate levels of performance. According to Blake and Mouton (1978), this kind of leaders search for workable, however, imperfect decisions. When others hold views or opinions contrary to theirs, they try to meet them halfway. In the face of conflict, they try to work out reasonable solutions to accommodate others. Bass (1990) calls them ‘compromisers’ because they tend to reach satisficing rather than

perfect decisions. In other words, there is some level of success, but there is potential for greater accomplishment.

9-9: Team Management (*high production, high people*) – Here, the leader achieves high work performance through ‘leading’ teams towards goal achievement. This approach is built around team-involvement, satisfying members’ needs for team work and participation. The leader is often characterised as flexible and open-minded. Bass (1990) describes this type of leaders as integrators of task accomplishment and trust and commitment from followers. In other words, this kind of leaders value the creative and constructive contributions of their team members and takes them onboard to make sounder decisions, which imparts positively on the attainment of group goals.

In summary, the Blake and Mouton model demonstrates that, on the one hand, an exclusive concern for production at the detriment of the needs of the people who make production possible, often leads to dissatisfaction and conflict, thus negatively affecting performance; but that, on the other hand, an excessive concern to avoid conflict and maintain satisfying relationships is also damaging to the attainment of group goals. Thus, according to the grid, models that seek to promote both high performance and high people concern will increase both employee engagement and productivity.

Over the years, the Blake and Mouton Model has become popular and has been used extensively in many management and leadership training programs to help people measure their leadership styles by putting the grid in context and identify areas of improvement to develop their leadership skills further. However, the model has also been criticised on the grounds that there are more dimensions of leadership that can be relevant and that it neglects the importance of internal and external constraints, context and circumstances (Zeidan, 2009). This is what has given rise to notions of situated leadership or contingency theory as discussed below in section 3.2.3.

3.2.3 Contingency Theory (Situational School)

Contingency theories on leadership have purported that leadership is all about being able to adapt and show flexibility to ever changing situations and circumstances. This school of thought believes that effective leadership does not stem from some behavioural traits only, but to a large extent depends on the situation in which leader might find himself or herself. This situation or context as it is called may come from the nature of work that the leader has to carry out, the internal culture and environment of an organisation and the external socio-economic environment that the organisation finds itself in (Fiedler,

1967). Thus, contingency theories place emphasis on the context or situation in which a leader finds himself rather than traits or behaviours of a leader in isolation. This is not to say that personality and behaviour of a leader are not important. What it means rather is that leaders adapt their style of leadership and behaviour according to the situation in which they find themselves.

Fiedler's (1967) research identified three situational factors on which the style of a leader should depend upon. These situational factors are known as leader-member (follower) relations, task structure and position power. The leader member relationship can be poor or good, the task structure can be of high complexity or low complexity and position power can be weak or strong. The research hence incorporates the situation in the leader's success and shows that depending on the situation, a particular type of leader might be more successful than the other. For instance, if a leader finds themselves directing a group of scientists working on a complex research, a laissez faire style of leadership, where goals are clearly communicated, but then the followers are left to work on their own would be the best approach. Interestingly, Fiedler's model has been used by Hoy and Miskel (1996) in the context of a school where the leader is the principal and the followers are the teachers and staff members. Fiedler's research led to further groundbreaking research on leadership and led to the emergence of many situational theories of leadership.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) building on earlier works, proposed the idea that leadership behaviour changes along a continuum and that as one moves away from the autocratic (boss-centred) extreme, the extent of subordinate participation and involvement in decision making rises. They also insinuated that the kind of leadership signified by the democratic extreme of the continuum will be hardly encountered in formal organisations (Bolden et al, 2003). Later on, Hersey and Blanchard (1988) postulated a model of leadership in which the level of development of a leader's subordinates play a chief role in determining which leadership styles (leader behaviours) are most appropriate. Their theory is founded on the extent of direction (task behaviour) and socio-emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the readiness level of the followers (Bolden et al, 2003). This model purports that there are four basic styles of leadership - telling, selling, participating and delegating - and no one style is more effective than the other. The effectiveness is seen to come from the situation in which a leader finds themselves and the level of readiness and maturity of the followers.

3.2.4. Contemporary Leadership Theories

The need to respond to 21st century leadership challenges has led to the emergence of contemporary approaches to leadership. The breadth of existing research on various aspects of leadership (e.g. the leader's personality traits, behaviour and situational factors) has given rise to a number of modern leadership theories. Hence, building on previous research over the years, Burns (1978) made reference to the difficulty in distinguishing between management and leadership and asserted that the distinctions are in personalities and behaviours. He then suggested that leadership behaviour can either be *transforming* or *transactional*. Burns first introduced the concept of transforming leadership in his research on kinds of political leaders. According to Burns (1978), the transforming approach generates considerable change in the life of people and organisations. It redefines perceptions and values and modifies expectations and ambitions of employees. Unlike in the transactional approach, it is not based on a "quid pro quo" relationship, but on the leader's personality, traits and capacity to make a difference the articulation of a inspiring vision and stimulating objectives. Transforming leaders serve as an ideal model of behaviour for working for the good of the team or organisation. Burns (1978) hypothesised that transforming and transactional leadership were mutually exclusive styles. Transactional leaders typically do not attempt to change an organisation's culture but rather they work within the prevailing organisational culture while transformational leaders can attempt to alter organisational culture.

Extending the work of Burns (1978), Bass (1985) attempted to explain the psychological factors that inspire transforming and transactional leadership; Bass also used the term "transformational" in place of "transforming." Following Burn's (1978) laid down concepts, Bass (1985) attempted to expound on how transformational leadership could be measured, and how it affects the motivation and performance of followers. The degree to which a leader is transformational, is measured first, in terms of his influence on the followers. The leader inspires the followers' trust, regard, devotion and respect for the leader and as a result of the transformational leader's sterling qualities, the followers will be willing to go the extra mile to achieve group goals. These results happen because the transformational leader offers followers something more than just working for personal gratification; they provide followers with a motivating mission and vision and give them an identity. The leader transforms followers through his or her idealised influence (also referred to as charisma), intellectual stimulation and personalised touch. Furthermore, this leader encourages followers to create new and unique ways to challenge the status quo and to alter the environment to support being successful. Finally, in contrast to Burns

(1978), Bass (1985) advocated that leaders can concurrently exhibit both transformational and transactional leadership qualities.

The viewpoints developed by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) were also later developed by Bass and Avolio (1994), who jointly developed the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ) in an attempt to improve the measurement of these leadership styles and how they impact on organisational effectiveness. The MLQ is a questionnaire that measures each of the components of the full range of leadership, building on the factors and analysis developed initially by Bass (1985) (more on the MLQ and the constructs are discussed in chapter 6). Since the past thirty years, these two main leadership theories, *transformational* and *transactional* leadership theories, have gained ascendancy over the other theories as they encompass both the personality traits and context of leadership and therefore provide a comprehensive view of leadership. The next few sub-sections will explore them in depth.

3.2.4.1. Transformational Leadership Theory

As the name suggests, transformational leadership is all about change (transformation) and leaders practicing this approach are most suited to lead major change initiatives in an organisation. Such leaders not only have the vision that a value-based leadership approach emphasises but also have the energy and stamina to take the teams and organisations through the transformational process. A transformational leader inspires change and innovation (Clegg et al., 2011). The leaders using transformational leadership style attract their followers trust as well as admiration. Transformational leadership occurs when leaders widen and advance the interests of their subordinates by generating awareness and acceptance of the group vision and inspiring them to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group (Bass, 1985; 1990). Transformational leaders usually articulate a vision and influence their followers to buy into the vision by providing an appropriate role model (Podsakoff et al, 1990). They also set high performance standards, provide individual support and provide intellectual stimulation toward the accomplishment of group goals (*ibid*). Thus, according to Bass (1985), there are four essential elements of transformational leadership: *inspirational motivation*; *idealised influence*; *intellectual stimulation* and *individualised consideration*. These are examined briefly below:

a. Inspirational Motivation

Transformational leaders deal with the intangible, such as vision and change. They offer a clear vision and a sense of mission to their followers. Vision and leadership are synonymous.

“Leadership in the workplace is about having vision and being able to transform it into action by influencing others to perform at higher levels and promoting the importance of organisational and interpersonal citizenship behaviours” (Khan and Varshney, 2013:202).

According to Bass (1990), transformational leaders communicate high expectations to their followers, and provide direction for group efforts, expressing the importance of vision and purpose in simple ways. Transformational leaders instill confidence and passion in their followers, helping them to experience the same inspiration, passion and motivation that they themselves feel.

b. Idealised Influence

Transformational leaders are charismatic leaders, possessing great power and influence (Bass, 1990). They attract the confidence, trust and admiration of their followers. They seek to influence their followers to achieve more by inspiring them and acting as a role model. Thus, transformational leaders lead by example making it easier for their followers to follow in their footsteps. Lee Iacocca, the charismatic Chief Executive of Chrysler is an ideal example of a transformational leader. He is credited with saving the Chrysler Corporation when it was on the brink of bankruptcy. He achieved this transformation by influencing the ideals of his closest subordinates. This led to a huge shift in the corporate culture at Chrysler. As a transformational leader encourages others to become one, when he left Chrysler, the entire corporation was filled with effective leaders (Kelly, 2003).

c. Intellectual Stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is a third element of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is all about challenging the way things are and encouraging innovation and creativity. Intellectually stimulating leaders are ready and capable of showing their employees new ways of examining old problems, teaching them to see challenges as problems awaiting solutions, and stressing the need for being rational in solving such problems (Bass, 1990). In other words, transformational leaders promote

intellectual thinking and teach followers to question established ways of solving problems.

d. Individualised Consideration

According to this theory, a leader should be concerned about the people being led. It is a relations-oriented leadership theory (Clegg et al., 2011). Transformational leaders offer support and guidance to their followers. They like openness in communication so that ideas can be shared. Such leaders recognise their followers' contributions towards formation and development of ideas and respond to the specific and individual needs of followers to make sure that they are included in the transformation process. Also, transformational leaders treat their team members individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge. They act as mentors to those who need assistance to grow and develop (Bass, 1990). This allows the team members to reach higher levels of achievement than they might otherwise achieve without the leader's guidance.

The transformational leadership approach can be better understood by looking at another leadership approach – transactional leadership – which lies at the other end of the spectrum.

3.2.4.2 Transactional Leadership Theory

According to Burn's (1978:4) analysis, transactional leadership occurs when a leader contacts a follower for the purpose of exchanging something of value; that is, "leaders approach followers with an eye toward exchanging".

Bass (1985:27) applied Burn's (1978) ideas to organisational management and argued that:

"Transactional leaders mostly consider how to marginally improve and maintain the quantity and quality of performance, how to substitute one goal for another, how to reduce resistance to particular actions, and how to implement decisions".

In other words, transactional leaders are more concerned with routine and existing organisational functions. Such leaders organise individuals, clarify goals and objectives and prioritise resources available to them. In doing so, transactional leaders are vested with powers to reward or punish employees' performance (Burns, 1978).

“Power is given to the leaders to evaluate, train, and correct and handle the employees when productivity is below the expectation level and reward appropriately when the expected outcome is reached” (Alkahtani, 2016:26).

In other words, leaders try to encourage followers to accomplish goals and they also empowered to reward behaviours that enhance productivity and correct behaviours that deviate from achieving the desired outcome.

There are three factors in transactional leadership style, which are:

a. Contingent Reward:

Avolio, et al. (1999) defined contingent reward as assigned reward or punishment for performance-related outcomes. Thus, contingent reward outlines the exchanges between the expected performance from the follower and the reward or punishment the follower will receive in return. As subordinates are aware of this, it acts as an incentive for hard-work, minimal error, high-performance and high productivity.

b. Management by Exception (Active)

Management by exception is centred on identifying and correcting mistakes to sustain current performance levels (Rohmann and Rowold, 2009). Leaders closely monitor followers and take corrective action in any form if there are any deviations from the task. Leaders ‘actively’ enforce rules to prevent further error (Alkahtani, 2016).

c. Management by Exception (Passive)

Northouse (2015) noted that the ‘passive’ leader would only intervene when really necessary. If goals have not been met consistently, and more serious problems arise, only then will the leader enforce appropriate action to rectify matters. In other words, passive leaders do not take corrective actions until matters are brought to their attention. It is similar to the laissez-faire approach, which takes a hands-off approach to leadership (Northouse, 2015). Here, decisions are usually delayed, and responsibilities are abdicated (Alkahtani, 2016).

Table 3.2 below compares and contrasts transformational and transactional leadership to gain an understanding of the crucial differences between them.

Table 3.2. Main Characteristics of Transactional and Transformational Leaders

Transactional Leaders	Transformational Leaders
Leaders rely on reward, punishment and sanctions to elicit followers' cooperation	Leaders motivate and inspire their followers to exceed expectations, making them go beyond self-interest.
Leaders often emphasize the relationship between effort and reward	Leaders are distinguished by their capacity to inspire and provide idealised influence on their followers, which motivates them to go beyond standard contractual exchange relationship.
Leadership is responsive and its main focus is dealing with problems as they arise.	Leadership is proactive and forms new expectations in the followers.
Leaders motivate followers by setting goals and promising rewards for desired performance	Leadership is based on intellectual stimulation, i.e. leaders create learning opportunities for their followers and stimulate them to find innovative ways of solving problems
Leadership is based on the leader's power to reinforce followers' successful completion of the bargain	Leaders provide vision and inspire the respect and cooperation of followers toward accomplishing group goals.
Leadership relies on human relations to facilitate human interactions.	Leadership is based on individualised consideration and respect for differences in people and talent.

Source: Adapted and modified from Thomas (2015)

3.2.4.3. Critique of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

Bass (1985) described transformational leaders to be more pro-active than reactive in their thinking and behaviour. They are innovative and creative in their ideas and instil vision to facilitate organisational progress. Transactional leaders may be equally intelligent, but their focus is to maintain what already exists, and what they are responsible for running. They react to observed problems, and such problems give birth to the need for organisational change. Bass (1998) believed that every leader displays practices of both styles to some extent, and actually that is it necessary to do so. Yukl (1999) argued that transformational leadership is limited as it does not explicitly identify circumstances where transformational leadership is detrimental. Leaders can unintentionally exploit followers by evoking a strong, emotional involvement where it is not wholly necessary. If they are influenced by different leaders with different visions, their roles can conflict and become ambiguous, they can become stressed, and confused as to where work-related boundaries and expectations begin or end.

Another critique of transformational leadership is that it is all about leading through change, which makes this approach questionable in circumstances where there is no change initiative. It can thus be argued that a transformational leadership approach may

not be suitable at all times and hence the need for alternative approaches to leadership. This has led to the emergence of new leadership theories. Bernard M. Bass, the researcher behind the transformational theory and Bruce J. Avolio have developed a full range leadership theory (Antonakis and House, 2002). This theory includes not only transformational and transactional leadership approaches but also includes traits that a leader should not have. These are generally termed as “passive-avoidant characteristics” (Avolio and Bass, 2002) and include traits such as avoiding a problem until it gets absolutely necessary to tackle it or outright abdication where a leader lets things sort out themselves by not taking any action. So, a leader with good transactional and transformational leadership traits and low passive avoidant traits is the ideal or full leader to have.

In addition, there is an underlying assumption in the transformational theory about the context of leadership. Unlike contingency theory which matches leadership styles to various situation and contexts, transformational theory assumes that the context is always transition from one state to another. So, in contexts where maintaining stability and order might be more important than change, transformational theory’s usefulness is limited. With regard to transactional leadership, Burns (1978) argued that transactional leadership creates short-term relationships of exchange between leader and follower. These relationships tend toward superficial, temporary trades of gratification and often create resentments between the participants. Additionally, a number of scholars criticise transactional leadership theory because it employs a one-size-fits-all general approach to leadership theory construction that disregards situational and contextual factors related to organisational challenges (Yukl and Mahsud, 2010). It suggests that performance motivation can be predicted, and that all members of a team are motivated in the same way.

Although both styles are presented as opposite ends of the leadership continuum, there is evidence that the two can be complimentary. The ideal leader however, should adopt elements of transformational leadership more frequently, and those of transactional leadership less frequently. Transactional leadership involves caring for the basic needs of an organisation, whereas transformational leadership can transform the organisation’s direction.

3.2.5. Distributed Leadership

Additional research has also shown that, in contrast to approaches that concern themselves mainly with the attributes and behaviours of individual ‘leaders’, there are

alternative conceptions of leadership as a shared process, i.e. the notion of *distributed leadership* (e.g. Bennette et al., 2003; Bolden, 2007, 2011). Distributed leadership is based on the idea that leadership is not the monopoly or responsibility of just one person, but rather leadership is recognised as a collective and collaborative process, involving shared responsibilities and delegated decision making among all followers. This approach advocates for more systemic view of leadership, wherein leadership responsibility is detached from formal organisational roles, and the efforts, contributions and influence of employees at all levels is acknowledged as essential to the overall direction and functioning of the organisation (Bolden, 2007).

The call for more collective or collaborative approach to leadership has arisen from research, theory and practice that shows the weaknesses of the traditional ‘leader-follower’ duality that vests leadership responsibility solely in the hands of the ‘leader’, while the ‘follower’ is assumed to play a somewhat passive and submissive role (Bolden, 2007). Rather, the new paradigm is to perceive leadership as a set of functions that must be performed by the group rather than an individual. This approach calls for a reconsideration of the distribution of power and influence within organisations. However, distributed leadership does not downplay the value of people in formal leadership positions, but advocates that when leadership functions are shared, the achievement of group goals become the collective responsibility of everyone, thus contributing effectively to organisational performance. In fact, distributed leadership approach seems to have been widely embraced in the educational sector. Though this style of leadership is not of direct interest in this thesis, a contextual discussion of its use in schools is provided in chapter 4.

3.3. Islamic Leadership

An understanding of leadership is rather incomplete without embracing a diverse cross-cultural worldview of leadership and its influence on organisational behaviour (Egel and Fry, 2017). In particular, many leaders must deal with cross-cultural challenges along religious lines (Yom, 2002; Scherer and Palazzo, 2011). Religion is a pervasive force in many societies and tends to influence a wide range of values, attitudes and behaviours (Weaver and Agle, 2002; Tracey, 2012). A leader's religiosity could influence his/her ethical behaviours given the decision-making environment (Weaver and Agle, 2002). Thus, given that the geographical scope or environment of this study is the UAE, it is consequential to review some Islamic leadership principles and models as these are likely to shape the leadership styles used in the various schools examined in this study.

3.3.1. Foundational Bases of Islamic Leadership

From an Islamic perspective, the Islamic roots of leadership generally exist in the primary and secondary resources of the *Shari'ah*, in addition to the practices of the early Muslims (Aabed, 2006). The Islamic criteria of leadership provide Muslim leaders worldwide with a code of leadership extracted primarily from the *Qur'an* and the *Sunnah* (biography of the Prophet Mohammad and his companions). The Islamic *Shari'ah* lays down fundamental principles for how public affairs and business activities should be conducted and how good and ethical leadership should be formed. The *Qur'an*, *Sunnah*, and the jurisprudence give a comprehensive code of laws (social, moral, political, administrative, economic, civil, religious, and ethical) intended to guide the Islamic leaders to run Islamic organisations appropriately and effectively. According to these sources, leadership is an ethical or moral responsibility based on spiritual values such as humility, trust, patience, compassion and forgiveness (Egel and Fry, 2017).

The Islamic leader is bound in allegiance to Allah (Ather and Sobhani, 2007).

"Leadership in Islam is rooted in belief and willing submission to the Creator, Allah. It centres on serving Him" (Beekun and Badawi, 1999:17).

The creed of Islam is based on the metaphysical concept of divine unity, or *Tawhid*. The concept of *Tawhid* means that there is only one God, that Allah is the only Lord of Creation, and that Allah is morally perfect. *Iman* (faith in God), *Islam* (peace and submission), *Taqwa* (inner consciousness of a person toward Allah), and *Ihsan* (love of Allah) are the four moral bases of Islamic leadership (Beekun and Badawi, 1999). Islamic leadership explicitly incorporates a conscious reflection and contemplation of God and acknowledges faith as the basis for the motivation to perform righteous deeds (Egel and Fry, 2017). Islam encourages leaders to express their faith through active participation in all aspects of life, including work (Ali, 1998).

Stewardship, servanthood and mutual consultation are the main governance mechanisms of Islamic leadership (Egel and Fry, 2017). In Islam, leadership is synonymous with servanthood and guardianship, and it is believed that every Muslim leader will be asked to give account of their guardianship. Islamic leadership is often seen as a triangular relationship among God, the leaders and the followers (Egel, 2014). God provides the vision of the leaders and limits their exercise of power. The followers, like the leaders, are answerable to God for their deed and share in the responsibility of the leader. Leadership in Islam is based on divine trust. A leader must enjoy this trust with the

highest degree of responsibility. A leader is entrusted with leading a group of people or managing an organisation. The leader is held accountable. Trust and accountability go hand in hand. There are two levels of trust and accountability. In this leadership approach, a leader is entrusted by God, and is accountable to God for his/ her trust. The leader is also entrusted by the people and is accountable to them.

3.3.2. Leadership and Management from an Islamic Perspective

Although Islam does not provide a comprehensive theory of management or leadership, management from an Islamic perspective (MIP) draws its principles from a set of generalised, robust guidelines that are compatible with Islamic beliefs and practices (Abuznaid, 2006; Toor, 2008).

MIP is defined as:

"The discipline that deals with the management of organisations, from the perspective of the knowledge acquired from the revealed and other Islamic sources of wisdom, and results in applications compatible with Islamic beliefs and practices" (Kazmi, 2005:264).

Islamic leadership or Leadership from an Islamic Perspective (LIP) is an integral part of MIP. It is conceived as a process of inspiring and coaching voluntary followers in an effort to fulfil a clear as well as shared vision (Altalib, 1991).

Toor (2008:26) describes LIP as:

"A social process in which the leader seeks to achieve certain organisational goals by garnering the support from relevant stakeholders – primarily followers – while fully complying to Islamic teachings and principles".

The latter definition recognises the importance of working with followers as key stakeholders toward achieving pre-determined objectives, thus implying that LIP agrees with the stakeholder theory. LIP is not about exercising power and authority. It rather emphasises the service of mankind and encourages the leader to look after his followers with utmost sincerity and humility (Toor, 2007; 2008).

From an Islamic perspective, the primary duties of a leader are to lead people in offering prayers, to look after their interest with justice, and run their activities in a disciplined and systematic way (Ahmad, 2006). However, for an Islamic managerial leader to be able to serve the interests of his or her followers or subordinates, he or she must adhere

to the Islamic principles of practice. Six of such principles stand out in Islamic leadership:

First, ***reliance on Allah (Tawakkul)***. Managerial leaders in Islam must depend on Almighty Allah (SwT) for the outcome of any action. However, dependence on Him without any endeavours is not supported by Islam. The managers must prepare managerial plans and policies in order to achieve the rational (*Halal*) objectives. But s/he must depend on Allah (SwT) for the success of his plan.

Second, ***mutual consultation (Shura)***. Managerial leaders in Islam must consult with their followers before making any decision. It is also the fundamental principle of any democratic system. Managers in an organisation must consult with their subordinates in formulating any strategy or policy. Allah (SwT) directed his Prophet (Sm) to consult with his companions (Ather and Sobhani, 2007).

A third principle is ***justice***. Leaders in management capacity must act justly and fairly toward team members without any discrimination regardless of their race, colour or religion. Islam always urges for doing justice to all. The Qur'an commands Muslims to be fair and just in any circumstances even if the verdict goes against their parents or themselves (Ather and Sobhani, 2007).

Fourth is ***accountability***. Islam teaches accountability as vital component of management. The managers must be accountable for their duties and responsibilities to the Board of Directors. The Board must be accountable to the beneficiaries or stakeholders. According to Islam, each and every human being will be made responsible for his good or bad deeds and accordingly he will be rewarded or punished (Ather and Sobhani, 2007).

A fifth and important principle in Islamic leadership is ***ethics***. Ethics in Islam is defined as the set of moral principles that distinguish what is right from what is wrong (Beekun, 1997). The degree of commitment of the organisation's leader to ethical conduct is very important to influence the followers and the organisation in a positive way. For example, honesty and truthfulness are qualities, which a Muslim leader should develop and practice. In this regard, having a good intention is a requirement for implementation of Islamic leadership (Marbun, 2013). This is because, according to the Prophet Muhammed, "actions are recorded according to intention and a person will be rewarded or punished accordingly" (Qur'an, Chapter 13, verse 11). The Islamic leader perceives

the goals of an organisation, not only in terms of the interests of the group, but also in terms of wider Islamic objectives. As long as he or she is in office, the leader must adhere to Islamic injunctions and observe the principles of *Shari'ah*, and their behaviour must conform to Islamic manners.

Lastly, Islamic approaches should encourage *teamwork*. Islamic leaders must try to achieve organisational goals and objectives with the team, rather than individual endeavours. The highest level of unity should be maintained among the executives, staff and workers for motivating and energising teamwork. Working together with team spirit is an Islamic directive (Ather and Sobhani, 2007). A team from Islamic point of view may be defined as: "a group of people under a team leader who work together on a continuing mission with common (*Halal*) goals and objectives" (Ather and Sobhani, 2007:16). Team spirit is meant to be nourished by a much higher level of understanding, cooperation, appreciation and tactics, and it functions among individuals who are willing to sacrifice their own personal differences and learn how to work with others reasonably.

In summary, the qualities of Islamic leadership are listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Qualities/Traits of an Islamic Leader

Allegiance/obedience to Allah	Social justice and consideration
Faith/Iman	Service of Mankind
Trusteeship	Conscientiousness
Stewardship	Wisdom
Accountability to God and the people	Knowledge
Adherence to the principles of Sha'riah	Righteousness
Piety	Egalitarianism
Kindness	Intrinsic and long-term reward
Humility	Patience
Forgiveness	Honesty
Compassion	Truthfulness
Mercy	Integrity
Love	Hope and optimism
Equity	Confidence
Generosity	Inner struggle against self
Consultative	Good intention/motivation
Responsiveness	Positive firmness
Ethical conduct/Moral soundness	Team building

Source: Author's compilation based on Toor (2007), Egel (2014) and Egel and Fry (2017).

These qualities seem to combine both the ethical and spiritual dimensions of leadership as core elements of Islamic leadership. The possession or observance of these attributes encourage a positive self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-development of a leader (Toor, 2007). It also instils transparency in the leadership process and a high level of moral and ethical responsibility on the Muslim leader.

3.4. Leadership in the UAE and GCC

So far, both Western and Islamic leadership approaches have been reviewed. But too often many studies examining leadership styles in the UAE and GCC region generally adopt Western approaches without recourse to the differences in the Arabic culture. The GLOBE study on culture, leadership and organisations in 62 societies initiated by House et al. (2004) demonstrates that leadership attributes and behaviour are perceived differently across cultures. To begin with, the GLOBE study classified hundreds of attributes of leaders in three categories: Universal positives, universal negatives and culturally contingent. Some of the universally positive attributes include 'trustworthy, informed, dependable, intelligent, dynamic, honest, and a team builder'. On the other hand, 'loner, irritable, egocentric and ruthless' were considered by all 61 cultures to be negative while 'ambitious, cautious, logical, sensitive, and compassionate' were culturally contingent. In other words, the last set of attributes were viewed as positive in some cultures and negative in others. In the GCC region, the attributes that were perceived as positive leadership traits included 'integrity, vision, diplomacy, collaboration, inspirational ability, performance orientation and administrative competence'. In addition, the GLOBE study revealed that team orientation, humane, autonomous and self or group-protective leadership styles are higher in the Middle Eastern countries studied (Turkey, Kuwait, Morocco, Egypt and Qatar).

Though the UAE was not part of the countries studied, these positive and culturally contingent GCC leadership attributes seem to tie in well with those of transformational leadership style as well as Islamic leadership tenets which are prevalent in the UAE cultural setting. One thing is clear though; transformational leadership appears to be universal and employees and followers seem to prefer a transformational leadership style over other leadership styles (Halabi, 2010). This is perhaps the case as most studies in the GCC show a positive association between transformational leadership behaviours and productivity, motivation, organisational performance and job satisfaction (Halabi, 2010). For example, Alharthi, et al. (2014) investigated the leadership behaviours in the Ministry of Health in Saudi Arabia and its correlation with satisfaction, effectiveness and

extra effort, and found a positive correlation between leadership behaviours and satisfaction, effectiveness and extra effort among the participants. In another study on transformational leadership practices in Saudi Arabia cultural setting, Khan and Varshney (2013) stressed that transformational leaders in Saudi Arabia have a strong commitment to work and value their followers' contributions towards the achievement of group goals. They also found elements of individualism as Saudi managers give priority to friendships and personal considerations over organisational goals and performance (which is consistent with the principles of transformational leadership and Islamic leadership).

However, as would be discussed in chapter 4 and subsequent chapters, Litz and Scott (2017) in a study on the transformational leadership practices in the UAE educational sector argued that leaders who wish to practice transformational leadership should accommodate their cultural and religious beliefs. The results of their analyses show that transformational leadership behaviour can be different when cultural and religious environments are taken into consideration. For example, equality and fundamental human values are central to Islamic teachings, and Islam discourages discrimination based on class or socio-economic status (Syed and Ali, 2010). Thus, a good leader in the Islamic context must be seen to demonstrate characteristics that promote equality and equity in all decisions. Within the context of UAE public leadership, Rugh (1999) explains that some of the founding leaders of the UAE exhibited qualities such as creativity, patience, flexibility, shared vision, generosity, tolerance and public interest (which could be described as consistent with both transformational and Islamic leadership practices). In their study, Khan and Varshney (2013) also opined that strong ethical leadership is the norm in Saudi business environment, as Islam advocates human values, equality and the practice of value-based leadership to maximise benefits for society (Khan and Varshney, 2013). Highlighting the factors that played a key role in the early development of Emirati women leaders in the UAE, Madsen (2010b) noted that women leaders show that they held strong beliefs with regards to their Islamic faith, the importance of family, modesty and cultural tradition.

Beyond culture and religion, there are also other factors that tend to shape the leadership styles adopted by organisational leaders in the UAE and GCC. For example, within the context of the UAE construction sector, Yousif et al. (2015) examined the correlation between certain personal attributes and the leadership style adopted by leaders (whether transformational or transactional), and found that age, nationality, education, work experience and organisational position of the leader plays a significant role in

determining the leadership style he/she applies. However, the gender of a leader has no correlation with the style of leadership. Halabi (2010) discuss findings of a similar study she conducted aimed at evaluating the desirability and prevalence of transformational leadership behaviours in the GCC region, where she found that as the managers' age increased, the less inclined they were to involve themselves in leadership (implying age is positive correlated towards a laissez faire style). In contrast to the study by Yousif et al. (2015), gender was a significant factor as female managers were slightly more transformational than their male counterparts (and this is also consistent with some Western literature, such as Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990). In addition, Halabi (2010) showed that the larger the organisation, the less likely the managers were to be transformational. In the context of the current study, gender and position of respondents (i.e. whether teacher or leader) are two main attributes that are used to evaluate the leadership styles adopted in the UAE educational setting. More details on gender and leadership styles both from a Western and UAE perspective can be found in Chapter 5, while the results of the analysis are discussed in chapters 7-10.

3.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has focused on various perspectives on leadership, showing the evolution of leadership theories over the years from trait theories, through to behavioural theories, contingency and situational leadership models and on to more contemporary approaches to leadership such as transformational and transactional leadership styles. It also considered leadership from an Islamic perspective as well as leadership in the UAE and GCC more generally.

Trait based theories identify characteristics of successful leaders based on their physiological, psychological and effectiveness traits and the skills they possess which distinguish them from other people. Behavioural theories focus on the actual actions leaders take rather than their personal qualities or traits. Different behavioural patterns are observed and classified as styles of leadership. In contingency and situational leadership models, leadership behaviour is exercised based on the specific situation in which the leader finds himself or herself. For example, while some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also suggests that there may be variations in the leadership styles used at different levels within the organisation and depending on the task at hand and the knowledge, capability, and readiness levels of staff within the organisation. In transformational leadership theory, the central concepts are vision and change and the role of the leader is in envisioning and

executing organisational transformation through inspirational and charismatic leadership. By contrast, transactional theory emphasises the importance of the contractual relationship between the leader and the followers and the rewards (or penalties) that leaders give in return for the commitment and performance of the followers. This chapter also presents an alternative model to leadership, namely distributed leadership, which completely alters the traditional leader-follower duality, and advocates the sharing of leadership responsibilities across various levels of staff within the organisation.

Islamic leadership is based on several ethical and spiritual values consistent with the Islamic faith, including allegiance/obedience to God, trust, humility, honesty, integrity, compassion, accountability and justice. The main governing mechanisms of Islamic leadership are stewardship, servanthood and mutual consultation. In the fulfilment of his managerial duties, the Islamic leader should depend on Allah for guidance, whilst adequately planning and executing actions to accomplish organisational and Islamic objectives. He should also consult with his followers before taking any decision, treat everyone fairly and without discrimination and build team spirit within the group. Leadership in the UAE and GCC tend to differ in some respects from the Western styles examined. However, transformational leadership appears to be universal and employees and followers seem to prefer a transformational leadership style. Most studies in the GCC show a positive association between transformational leadership behaviours and productivity, motivation, organisational performance and job satisfaction.

All the leadership models discussed in this chapter are partial, because they only discuss one particular dimension of the leadership that is actually required to be practiced in real-life settings. No leadership theory completely serves the purpose. A leader must use a combination of these models in approaching real-life leadership challenges. Leadership theory and practice provides a restricted view, dwelling unnecessarily on certain aspects of leadership but excluding others. It is hoped that this chapter has provided a theoretical base with which to confidently begin to address the specific issues of educational leadership in Abu Dhabi public schools, where school improvement and educational transformation is taking centre stage in the achievement of the economic vision of the UAE. The researcher believes that the leadership theories discussed in this chapter will play a major role in goal orientation and strategy to achieve improved school leadership and educational outcomes in the UAE's education sector.

Chapter Four

Leadership Models and Styles Across Educational Cultures and Contexts

4.0. Introduction

Having examined various leadership theories in chapter three, it is important to apply the knowledge gained in discussing leadership and management within the educational context. Educational leadership is defined and conceived in numerous ways to capture the concepts, practices, and perceptions in varied contexts (Shah, 2010; Shah and Shah, 2012). Most educational leadership theories presented in the literature reflect predominantly Western perspectives, whereas, "...people from diverse ideological and ethnic backgrounds, conceive, perceive and practice educational leadership differently, drawing upon their beliefs, values and knowledge sources" (Shah, 2010:27). This chapter reviews the literature on leadership models and styles across educational cultures and contexts. The theoretical overview of globally-acknowledged leadership styles represents a major part of this chapter, along with those significant contributions for the education system and policies of the UAE (which contribute to government sector schools in particular). The chapter also examines the specific issues around the influence of principal's leadership styles on school effectiveness and the importance of self-reflection, motives and moral consciousness in the leadership behaviour of Principals in particular, and teachers more generally. The latter part of the chapter examines cross-cultural practices of educational leadership from 'Western' or so-called 'developed' countries, in comparison with the educational leadership and management approaches used in the UAE.

4.1. The Concepts of Educational Leadership and Management

Educational management is an important concept, and an innovation to the field of education in the post-modern era (Marzano, 2012). Previously, when schools used to have a single classroom system, there was not much need for coordination. From a single classroom school, evolved a system where one teacher taught most subjects including mathematics, science, and social studies (Wilhelm, 2013). For such a teacher, making a coordinated teaching plan was not very difficult as he/she knew the level of difficulty the students could reach, in each subject. However, in the 20th Century, with the evolution of multiple classrooms and multiple teachers for each subject, teaching their respective specialty areas, coordination among teachers has become an important task in itself

(Marzano, 2012). Thus, the need could be felt for a specialist with working full time as a manager, “responsible for financial, educational, human and physical school potential” (Staničić, 2006:20). Demand for school leadership also evolved as there was greater expectation from students to perform, not just in their studies, but also in practical fields and extra-curricular activities (Bush, 2007). In fact, since the beginning of the 21st century, there has been increasing interest in educational leadership globally. This is because of the widespread belief that the quality of school leadership significantly influences educational outcomes (Bush, 2007).

4.1.1. Defining Educational Leadership in Context

Educational leadership has been defined in various educational and cultural contexts. Some scholars see leadership in education as a power structure. Gunter (2001:8) argues that leadership in educational settings can be conceived as “the process and product by which powerful groups are able to control and sustain their interests”. In other words, leadership provides the structure through which dominant elite groups within education community are able to establish their political positions. Educational leadership is also seen as a structure for knowledge production and for generating insights into the development of theory and practice (Gunter, 2001:9-10). It is the platform through which ‘knowledge workers’ (such as head teachers and principals) advance intellectual work (Gunter, 2001:11-12). This latter definition is in agreement with the fourth evaluation standard for school principals given by ADEK (2015b), which highlights the role of school principals in ‘leading teaching and learning’. The concept of educational leadership also varies across societies and cultures. This is because the way in which a particular society views educational leadership is influenced by the prevailing cultural and belief system in that society or community (Shah, 2010). Within this context, educational leadership will be perceived to mean fundamental ways of advancing theory and practice that are shaped by the values, beliefs, ideologies, behaviour and conventions in that social system (Walker and Dimmock, 2002; Pugh and Hickson, 2003). More of this is explored in section 4.6 under cross-cultural comparison of practices.

4.1.2. Difference between Educational Leadership and Management

When discussing leadership and management in education, it must be kept in mind that these two words are not interchangeable. Rather they are two different concepts, each with its own importance (Marzano, 2012). Cuban (1988) explains the distinction between leadership and management. He associates leadership with change, while management is perceived as a maintenance activity. According to him, a leader influences the actions

of others to achieve desirable goals. He envisions the change and inspires the actions of others towards accomplishing it. A manager, on the other hand, ideally efficiently and effectively maintains the organisational structures to achieve the change. Another crucial point of difference between leaders and managers is in the exercise of power and influence (Hogg, 2010). Leaders and managers are similar in that they both exercise legitimate power (power that comes from a formal position in the hierarchy or chain of command), as well as reward and coercive power in the sense that they both offer material benefits (or threat of punishment) in the context of work performance. However, what distinguishes a leader from a manager is the exercise of referent power (power that comes from loyalty and the influence of the leader in a leader-follower relationship). Managers that are not leaders per se cannot exercise referent power, because this kind of power is said to come from the charismatic nature of a leader.

In the context of educational leadership and management, there is a difference between leaders and managers, but sometimes they are not clearly distinct, as arguably, leaders can also be managers; however, it is also the case that not all managers are leaders. While leaders provide the vision and strategic direction for the school, outlining clear aims and policies, managers put systems and structures in place to secure their successful implementation (Bush, 2007). For example, managers would ensure timely attendance of students and teachers, maintaining order and discipline in the classroom, and providing adequate resources to aid effective learning (*ibid*). Thus, leadership and management need to be equally recognised if schools are to operate effectively and achieve their goals (Bush, 2007). This explains why many schools actually have two vice principals, one focusing on academics and the other on administration. The challenges faced by modern schools require both the objective perspective of a manager and the excellent vision and commitment that wise leadership should provide (Bolman and Deal, 1997). However, in most schools, particularly small schools with a limited leadership team, leadership and management are roles that can be performed by the same person (although it can also be true of larger schools). Leithwood et al. (1999) points out that school principals, in reality, are doing both the job of a leader and a manager in the sense that they carry out their daily tasks on behalf of the school and its learners. However, the nature of that work should reflect the school's needs and circumstances. For example, an underperforming school requires basic management rather than a visionary approach to leadership (Bush, 2007).

4.2. Educational Leadership and Management Models

Bush (2007) categorised educational management theories into six models: formal, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity and cultural. He also gave a matching categorization of the models with nine leadership models. These are presented in the Table 4.1 below. However, it can be seen that the various types of management and leadership may complement each other.

Table 4.1. Typology of Management and Leadership Models

Management Model	Leadership Model	Section Discussed in Current Chapter
Formal	Managerial	4.2.1
Collegial	Participative	4.2.6 as distributed/collaborative leadership
	Interpersonal	Not discussed
	Transformational	4.2.2
Political	Transactional	4.2.3
Subjective	Post-modern	Not discussed
Ambiguity	Contingency	Not discussed
Cultural	Moral	4.2.4
	Instructional	4.2.5

Source: Bush (2007)

This table is presented by Bush (2007) to depict the distinction between managerial and leadership models, and the present project will consider these models in turn, to highlight relevant theories and models applicable to the environment of educational leadership in the modern UAE context. The reason for excluding some of the leadership models from this thesis is because not all of them are particularly relevant in the UAE which is the country of study and have not been directly investigated in this thesis. However, elements of some models such as distributed and collaborative leadership are contrasted with existing practices in the UAE and provide some context for cross-cultural comparison.

4.2.1 Managerial Leadership in Education

Another term for managerial leadership could be “Bureaucracy”, because it assumes that if the educational leaders focus on functions, tasks and behaviours (and see that these are done competently), then schools can perform in the best way possible. This type of management, according to Bush (2007), is the best applicable model for the education sector. It takes its principles from Taylor’s theory of Scientific Management (Taylor, 1911). In many educational institutions, particularly at school levels, the principal’s authority is ultimate, or considered “God-given” and not be challenged by any teacher.

Thus, principals may adopt an authoritarian management style, where consultation with teachers or inclusion of teachers in school improvement methods is not considered necessary (Marzano, 2012). This has historically been dominant in UAE managerial styles, anecdotally. However, in a 'democratic' leadership style, where consensus and conflict resolution are key aspects of leadership, principals are more participative and contribute to school improvement alongside teaching staff. They work together to frame policies and procedures which cater to the requirements of the school environment. This style will be revisited in the discussion chapters.

4.2.2. Transformational Leadership in Education

Transformational Leadership is a Leadership Style in which the leader determines the change needed in the organisation, and through his/her personal inspiration creates a vision to guide and execute the change with the assistance of his/her team. Under this approach, the leader creates a positive and valuable change in the organisation. Transformational leaders are largely enthusiastic, energetic, focused and passionate, and through their passion, guide and assist their team towards positive change (Lin, 2010). Leithwood (1994), applies the concepts of transformational leadership to the school environment, stating eight key factors that are needed for the process of transformational leadership: initiating overall school vision and mission; determining goals and objectives; offering intellectual orientation, providing personalised support, adopting best practices and values; requiring high performance expectations, establishing a productive school culture and developing an organic structure to promote participation in school decisions. Transformational leaders in schools do not focus on the processes but are more results-oriented. They do not direct teachers as to what study patterns and plans they must follow. Rather, they allow teachers to adopt creative methods to achieve their results. The focus here is on the student results, (behaviour, development as well as achievements) rather than just running the school with an aim to complete school year (Menon, 2011). However, in the UAE context, studies have shown that the use of transformational leadership by school principals may be influenced by cultural and religious beliefs, for example, Islamic orientation (Al-Taneiji, 2006; Litz and Scott, 2017). Further discussion on this is found in Section 4.6.

4.2.3. Political and Transactional Leadership in Education

In his models for educational leadership, Bush (2007) links political management to transactional leadership. This is because transactional leadership is a highly politicised leadership model which is linked to school development and reform in a contrasting

relationship to transformational leadership (Miller and Miller, 2001). Transactional leadership is a style in which the leader sets clear objectives and goals for their teams, and in order for effective and efficient compliance with tasks, the leader uses either punishments or rewards for his/her team. Transactional Leaders set a clear direction for team members, and reward if the task is achieved, but punish if the task is not achieved (Taylor, 2004). In transactional leadership, the relationships between educational leaders (e.g. head teachers) and followers (e.g. teachers) are based upon an exchange of some valued resource. In such a setting, the interaction between teacher and school administrators is very short and limited to the exchange process, rather than a discussion about student performance or needs (Miller and Miller, 2001). As per Bush (2007), scientific management is the core of school management, where time becomes a core element (as in managerial leadership). The element of time management expected from school teachers becomes key in this discussion. The teachers are asked to contribute their knowledge, skills and attitudes, framed by the time element. Bush analogises that catering to the needs of schools is like working in a factory. The students are constrained by time and so are the teachers.

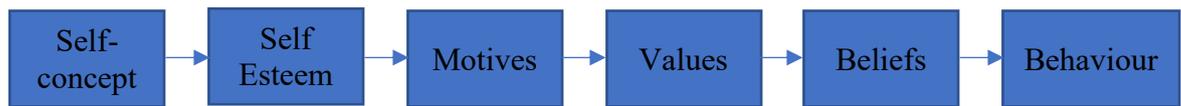
4.2.4. Moral Leadership in Education

This school of thought believes that administrators (school managers) have a moral and ethical responsibility to manage schools. They must decide what is ethically correct and then enforce it autocratically (Bush, 2007). This school of thought bears resemblance to the transactional leadership in some ways; however, it places a large responsibility on the shoulders of administrators to weigh their options and select the one that is morally and ethically correct. However, their decision may not always be the populist opinion. As mentioned by Fullan (2001), it is observed that the moral leadership of schools should consider the values of academic freedom, creativity, and innovation in the school environment. In the UAE educational context, a major goal of the basic education levels (primary and junior secondary) is to cultivate the pupils' enthusiasm for education and knowledge, and help to build their creativity, imagination and innovation skills, according to their capabilities and competencies (UNESCO, 2011). The major function of moral leadership lies in their secured moral values to be executed for the 'betterment' of both students and teachers. In the UAE educational context, this can be seen as ensuring that students are taught the fundamental ideals of Islam in addition to learning from diverse cultures, an awareness of social rights and the role of Arabic culture in matters of educational leadership and administration. As noted in chapter 2 and 3, school education and leadership in the UAE in general mostly follow Islamic norms and traditions as well as the pursuit of the well-being of civilization.

In order to determine what is ethically and morally 'correct', it has been emphasised that both teachers and educational leaders need to reflect on themselves, particularly their motives and purposes for taking any actions or decisions. In contemporary leadership, moral consciousness is an essential element in moral and ethical decision-making of any leader (Harung Heato, and Alexander, 1995). This moral consciousness may be derived when a leader is allowed to look within them self and find out why they act in a certain way to similar situations. The concept is that in certain situations in life, leaders take a pre-selected course of action, rather than self-reflecting on their reactions, and understanding their patterns of behaviour (*ibid*). This self-reflection generates moral consciousness, which should result in leaders making morally correct and ethical decisions as expected of them by society, in general, and their followers, in particular (*ibid*). According to Taylor (2003), moral judgement does not come naturally to the leaders. They have to make a special effort to bring moral consciousness into their decision making. The concept of self-reflecting is derived from the belief that moral consciousness requires knowledge of one's inner world. It requires the person to understand past experiences and realise that his/her behaviour may be a result of the past experiences that have shaped current reaction to events.

Branson (2007) developed a model of self-reflection using a case study of six Catholic school principals. The purpose of using this model is to let the principals reflect on their inner selves and develop moral leadership through structured self-reflection which will lead to moral consciousness (Branson, 2007). In other words, self-reflection can help educational leaders to think about why they do what they do and the underlying purpose for their actions in order to gain insight into the real motivations for their decisions and ultimately their leadership behaviour. The participating Principals were asked to examine their reactions to various situations, and they discovered that their actions were oftentimes influenced by their past experiences, or their beliefs about certain groups of people, which led them to act in a certain way without even understanding the other party. Branson's (2007) research suggests that one's self is at the heart of the self-reflection framework. However, there is a sequence in which a person is directed from his self-concept to their final behaviour. Leaders need to explore their 'inner self' and bring out the 'self-concept, beliefs, motives, and reasons' from their unconscious to the conscious. Branson's model is based on the fact that leaders in today's modern world are not only affected by outside circumstances, but are also influenced by the factors within themselves, such as self-esteem and self-belief. Various components that make up the framework are presented below in figure 4.1, starting from self-concept and resulting in the final behaviour.

Figure 4.1. Structured Self–reflection framework



Source: Adapted from Branson (2007)

As a result of the deeply structured self-reflection, the principals were able to look into the components of their inner world and find out how these factors actually influenced their leadership behaviour. A reflective approach can reveal inner worlds of the principals and teachers which will provide the beliefs, customs, tradition and above all cultural influence on leadership decisions.

4.2.5. Instructional Leadership

This theory is different from all the previously discussed theories as it does not focus on the process of transferring instructions to the students, rather it focuses on the teachers themselves. It seeks to target the students' learning from their teachers. Thus, teachers' influence on learning and development of students is the focus of instructional leaders (Scherer, 2013). Instructional leadership sees the principal as the expert instructor with excellent curricular and pedagogical knowledge, in that for example, he has knowledge of methods and techniques relating to teaching (Bush, 2008). Such a leader keeps his/her focus on the two primary activities in any school, which are teaching and learning. Instructional leaders focus attention on teaching and learning to achieve excellent student outcomes (Hallinger, 2003; Bush, 2008). In the UAE, the Abu Dhabi Education Council emphasises the need for educational leaders to lead teaching and learning, among the five key areas of evaluation (see Chapter Two). To gain success as a principal, he/she must establish high quality education by effectively managing teaching and learning to realise the potential of all staff and students (ADEK, 2015b). The instructional leadership approach is likely to be supported by many people, because it focuses on the performance of teachers. However, what is lacking in this school of thought is that it underestimates the role of extracurricular activities such as sports, arts, and social work, not giving them their due importance in the process of learning.

4.2.6. Distributed and Collaborative Leadership in Schools

As noted in chapter three, alternative forms of leadership such as distributed and collaborative leadership approaches seem to have been widely embraced in the educational sector recently. These two models of leadership, though not expressly stated

in Bush's (2007) original classification of educational leadership models, are closely linked with the participative styles of leadership. Distributed leadership in the educational context is borne out of the need for teachers to assume administrative roles, freeing up the principal to take school governance to the next level (Natsiopoulou and Giouroukakis, 2010). This is because it has become almost impossible for a single individual to effectively administer and lead a school. As noted by Wilhelm (2013), it is difficult for principals to lead instructional reform on their own. The opinion and expertise of teachers are crucial to improve teaching and learning. In distributed leadership model, the principal delegates power and authority to teachers who take leading roles and assume responsibility for administering teaching and learning, acting freely as individuals or groups. For example, teachers can contribute in the area of designing and developing school curriculum, instruction and assessment, thereby contributing directly to improving student learning. One advantage of this leadership approach is that teachers feel a sense of ownership for improving student learning outcomes on a wider school level and not just in their classrooms (Wilhelm, 2013). On the other hand, collaborative leadership involves dividing tasks and sharing decision making among members of a group, in a 'time constrained' environment (Leithwood et al, 1999). A collaborative leader strives for shared understanding and seeks beneficial solutions to problems by eliciting opinions and engaging team members in a participative management style. Collaborative leadership is assumed to increase school effectiveness by easing the work of the principal (Leithwood et al, 1999; Bush, 2007)

Although concepts such as collaborative leadership and distributed leadership have been introduced in school settings as well, we see that most schools in the UAE, are still led autocratically by the principal, whose leadership role is considered to be "Godly", something which only the principal can and should do. Teachers are still kept away from any such leadership roles as it is feared that they will be too involved in this new role, and it can overshadow their responsibility of imparting education to the students. Furthermore, teachers' performances are not judged by their ability to resolve issues outside their class. They are mostly judged by the students' results and parents' satisfaction about the quality of education and learning of their children (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000). There have been efforts by governments and school administrations in the UAE to minimise the top-down approach to school management, conducted in the past. The principals are now realising that positive self-image and professional growth opportunities make teachers more effective and motivated to perform in school settings. Thus, as Bogler and Somech (2004:286) put it "principals need to recognise that the feelings and perceptions of teachers about their schools, and their desire to attain

opportunities for professional growth, are beneficial to the organisation itself'. The involvement of the teachers in the school environment will build loyalty towards the organisation and generate satisfaction in the teachers. Their commitment and trust are needed for the school for its performance and profit. This will bring in performance among teachers to educate the students and enhance their co-curricular activities.

4.3. Leadership Styles and School Effectiveness

The style or model of leadership that principals adopt also affect school effectiveness. School effectiveness is usually measured in several ways, including contribution of the school to research and knowledge production; effectiveness of teaching and learning in the classroom; securing improved learning outcomes for students (pupil progress); collegiality and collaboration (shared leadership); improvement in instructional leadership (teaching styles, methods and curriculum development); professional leadership; improvements in the learning environment; and developing change processes of school improvement, among other factors (Gunter, 2001:32-36).

4.3.1. Teacher – Principal Relationship and School Effectiveness

Research findings suggest that the relationship between the principal and teachers creates an environment in the school which is also referred to as “school atmosphere” and is a key in learning effectiveness of the students (Edgerson, Kritsonis and Herrington, 2006). The relationship between teachers and principal should be that of trust, where the principal delegates the authority of teaching styles and methods to the teachers, who then impart education in the way they deem best and most suitable to the students. The interpersonal relationship between teachers and the principal has a deep impact on the school climate, the teachers’ behaviour toward students, and their motivation to help the students understand and learn successfully (Sharp, 2009). Thus, research suggests that teachers’ satisfaction and commitment levels can be directly influenced by attitude of principal and his/her leadership style (Rowland, 2008). Most research conducted on this relationship suggests that principals are seen as the leaders of their schools, mostly adopting instructional (managerial) leadership styles, providing a structured guidance to the teachers, who then follow the directions of their leader, the principal (Edgerson, Kritsonis and Herrington, 2006).

With teachers being the core factors in the school ‘imparting knowledge’ (which is presumably the main function in schools), there is a need to analyse the relationship

between teachers and the principal (who is the authority of the school regarding policies and procedures). Therefore, the relation between teachers and principal is of prime importance in analysing leadership styles in schools. However, principals' leadership style should be much more than autonomous, as they should inculcate a feeling of inclusion and importance amongst the teachers, in order to keep them motivated and committed to their jobs (Heller, 1993). They should be able to delegate problem-solving to the teachers, showing trust in their abilities, valuing their suggestions, and allowing limited risk-taking. Those principals who involve teachers in decision-making, allow them to develop their own lesson plans, and value their opinions, particularly in student-related affairs, are more effective as leaders (Heller, 1993).

4.3.2. Teacher Empowerment and School Effectiveness

Empowerment of teachers and delegation of authority are major themes of school 'reforms' in developed countries, which are taking steps to improve school effectiveness (Moye, Henkin, and Eagly, 2005). According to Marzano et al (2005), who reviewed several theories on the effects of school leadership on student achievement, leadership is connected to several effective educational practices that take into consideration student learning opportunities, teacher effectiveness, development of curriculum and instruction, a school climate, and the establishment of the school's mission and vision. Within the context of teacher effectiveness, several factors linked to the quality of teachers, also influence educational outcomes. For example, teachers' background characteristics such as their principles, knowledge, and beliefs can influence their judgment and classroom teaching. In the UAE context, factors such as culture and family background of the teachers can influence their performance (Hills and Atkins, 2013).

School management and leadership also has a considerable impact on teachers' quality. Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) investigated the links between a principal's leadership style, his/her performance level and the principal's effectiveness in schools in 34 Dubai schools using the MLQ tool and found a positive correlation between the principal's leadership style and his/her effectiveness but found no correlation with school performance.

Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013:45) noted that:

“When transformational leadership and instructional leadership coexist in an integrated form of leadership, the influence on school performance, measured by the quality of its pedagogy and the achievement of its students, is substantial”.

It is expected that when the school leadership is encouraging and motivating, teachers try to give their best to facilitate excellent student outcomes. Furthermore, the types of educational instruments and resources that are provided by the school management also have a great effect on teaching quality (Harris, 2004). Reviewing school leadership and school improvement policies in the UK and western education contexts, Harris (2004) argued that in order to improve teacher quality and student learning outcomes, attention should be given to adequate leadership experience, training and professional development of principals. School effectiveness is also a function of broad institutional factors such as the role of government and its ministries in setting salaries of teachers, their pensions and other benefits, as well as employment strategies for the teachers (Kruger, 1996).

4.4. Educational Leadership in Practice across Cultural Contexts

As noted earlier, the concept of educational leadership also varies across societies and cultures. For example, educational leadership orientation in western countries (particularly Anglo-American countries) has been said to be based on several values such as demand for staff efficiency, promotion of competition among teachers, democratic leadership and management, rationalistic approaches to problem solving, among others (Law, 2012). Using data drawn from questionnaires completed by school leaders and from semi-structured interviews with individual school leaders from different parts of China, Law (2012) explored the dichotomies between Chinese and Anglo-American leadership traditions. The study found that in Chinese society, school leaders may be expected to exhibit high moral conduct (fairness, probity, putting collective interests before personal interests), promote staff cooperation, resolve problems using intuitive methods, maintain harmony and consensus, establish order and obedience among teachers, and give priority to the teaching of moral education of students and staff (Law, 2012).

Within the context of Islamic societies such as the UAE, the philosophy of education and educational leadership are influenced by the religious teachings derived from the religious texts (the Quran), as is the case in many other belief systems (Shah, 2010; Shah, 2016). So, for example, the emphasis in Islam is on freedom of learning for all regardless of gender, race, ethnicity, language, social class and other forms of discrimination. In addition, work has yet to show how cross-cultural differences affect educational leadership in the UAE, hence the reason why the current research is looking into this aspect. First, practices in western/developed countries will be reviewed before discussing

the UAE context. Due to limitations of scope, the focus of this section is on only three Anglo-American countries (UK, USA and Australia) where the educational leadership style is mostly managerial to help to provide context for comparing UAE and the Western educational leadership culture.

4.4.1. Cross-Cultural Practices from Developed Countries

Research suggests that in most schools in western and developed contexts (where most published literature emerges) such as the USA, UK, and Australia, the leadership style remain mostly 'managerial' where the principal is the source of all guidance as to how to run the school and manage imparting of education (Sahlberg, 2013). The principal has strict control over most activities in the school and is responsible for discipline. The principal has the responsibility to create and maintain a school atmosphere which should be calm, composed, and conducive to learning. In such a setting, students' results are a direct reflection of teachers' performance (Bush, 2007).

Practices in the UK: In the context of the United Kingdom, educational leadership is much more complex, involving a variety of leadership styles. For example, in Scotland there is a policy push for greater 'distributive leadership' and collegiality in leadership (General Teaching Council for Scotland, 2012). Although present in some schools' contexts, it often coexists with managerial/authoritative leadership. There are also some forms of instructional leadership where principals are more focused on developing a structure which outlines the roles and limits of teachers in classrooms. However, it also allows teachers to develop their own teaching techniques in order to suit demands of their subject and the students' abilities to understand what is being taught. Southworth's (2002) semi-structured interviews with ten heads of small primary schools in England and Wales shows that three strategies were particularly effective in improving teaching and learning: (1) Modelling; (2) Monitoring; and (3) Professional dialogue and discussion. When teachers adopted these strategies, student learning experiences were enhanced, they were better able to understand, and were also more interested in the overall learning activity. Teachers can be very effective when they allow students to model, or practically apply what they are being taught. Particularly young children understand better when they are allowed to actually perform the task, rather than just by rote learning (Southworth, 2002). The principal's role in these cases is only of monitoring the staff and seeing that no teacher goes off track in their effort to teach. Furthermore, teachers are the best representatives of student needs, and requirements, abilities, and learning capabilities. Thus, principals are encouraged to involve teachers in professional

dialogue regarding teaching effectiveness. Teacher opinions are being valued more and more in such schools, with the effect that students' learning and teachers' motivation levels, both have gone up over the years (Lumby, 2010). While Southworth's study is informative, care should be taken not to generalise the findings across board as the study did not include Scotland and Northern Ireland and the schools examined are small primary schools, largely ignoring the large ones and secondary schools.

In terms of professional practices for educational leadership, the Education and Training Foundation in England has set out clear expectations for teachers and trainers in its 2014 professional standards (ETF, 2014). These standards are based on three key areas, which include: (1) Professional skills, (2) Professional values and attributes, and (3) Professional knowledge and understanding. The overall purpose of these standards is to support teachers and trainers to maintain and improve standards of teaching and learning, and outcomes for learners. However, the General Teaching Council for Scotland has laid out standards for leadership and management to support the leadership and management development of teachers, including standards for middle leadership and headship (GTC Scotland, 2012). The standards have been developed to support the self-evaluation and professional learning of those in, or aspiring to, formal leadership roles in schools. These standards are underpinned by three themes: (1) Professional values, (2) Learning for sustainability and (3) Leadership for learning. Professional values are crucial aspects of the standards for leadership and management. They are vital to the development of all teachers' professional relationships and practices. Learning for sustainability is a whole-school commitment that seeks to actively embrace and promote principles and practices of equity, fairness and sustainability in all aspects of their work and engagement with the wider community. GTC Scotland also recognises that effective leadership depends on the principles of collegiality in the sense that all teachers should have opportunities to be leaders. They lead learning for, and with, all learners with whom they engage. They also work with, and support the development of, colleagues and other partners. The Standards for Leadership and Management include a focus on leadership for learning, teacher leadership, and working collegiately to build leadership capacity in others (GTC Scotland, 2012).

Practices in the United States: In the United States education system, teachers are separated from administrators - principals, assistant principals, and other professionals who help operate elementary, middle or high schools - (Natsiopoulou and Giouroukakis, 2010). School principals, in most cases acting alone in the front office, have the responsibility to oversee a homogenous group of teachers with few differentiated

leadership roles (Toner, 2015). Principals typically focus on the work of administration, while teachers do not have to take part in school administration so that they can concentrate on teaching. This model has placed enormous administrative workload on school administrators. For example, principals in the primary schools have to provide teachers with teaching plans, books and instructional materials, achievement measures, and all other aspects of teaching. Thus, principals have reduced time to carry out other non-instructional responsibilities such as strategic development, building the school culture and cultivating meaningful relationships with the external community (Natsiopoulou and Giouroukakis, 2010). This model is in contrast with the England model of more distributed leadership, where there are middle leaders (departmental heads), who are subject experts providing instructional leadership support to ease the workload of head teachers and deputy heads (Toner, 2015). Though US schools have started to stress the importance of teacher leadership, "...the overall lack of responsibility and accountability for such roles limits the potential of distributed leadership to bring closer to teachers and reduce the administrative workload" (Toner, 2015:8). With current reforms taking place in American schools, primary teaching staff should be given adequate support as it can now be seen clearly, that if child attainment is not at or above benchmarks at lower levels, they will not reach optimum levels in later, higher levels of education.

The National Policy Board for Educational Administrators (NPBEA) is responsible for developing professional standards for educational leaders in the USA. The 2015 edition of the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (NPBEA, 2015) outline 10 foundational principles of leadership provide guidance to educational leaders in terms of how they can improve student learning and achieve more equitable outcomes. They are designed to ensure that educational leaders are ready to meet effectively the challenges and opportunities of the job today and in the future as education, schools and society continue to transform. Table 4.2. provide a summary of the standards:

Table 4.2: Professional Standards for Educational Leaders in the USA

Standard	Description
Standard 1: Mission, Vision and Core Values	Effective educational leaders develop, advocate, and enact a shared mission, vision, and core values of high-quality education and academic success and well-being of each student.
Standard 2: Ethics and Professional Norms	Effective educational leaders act ethically and according to professional norms to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 3: Equity and Cultural Responsiveness	Effective educational leaders strive for equity of educational opportunity and culturally responsive practices to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 4: Curriculum, instruction and assessment	Effective educational leaders develop and support intellectually rigorous and coherent systems of curriculum, instruction, and assessment to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 5: Community of Care and Support for Students	Effective educational leaders cultivate an inclusive, caring, and supportive school community that promotes the academic success and well-being of each student.
Standard 6: Professional Capacity of School Personnel	Effective educational leaders develop the professional capacity and practice of school personnel to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 7: Professional Community for Teachers and Staff	Effective educational leaders foster a professional community of teachers and other professional staff to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 8: Meaningful engagement of Families and Community	Effective educational leaders engage families and the community in meaningful, reciprocal, and mutually beneficial ways to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 9: Operations and Management	Effective educational leaders manage school operations and resources to promote each student's academic success and well-being.
Standard 10: School Improvement	Effective educational leaders act as agents of continuous improvement to promote each student's academic success and well-being.

Source: Adapted from NPBEA (2015)

Practices in Australia: In recent times, educational leadership and teacher performance across government and independent schools have come under serious scrutiny and national and state government reforms have been implemented to improve educational outcomes, teacher performance and overall leadership effectiveness (Waters, 2013). These reforms have given principals in Australia (particularly in independent schools) greater leadership autonomy in running school affairs. Principals also have greater accountability and responsibility for planning and executing school goals, school improvement, professional development of teachers, and resourcing. Within the context of autonomous leadership approach, Waters (2013) examined the leadership styles of principals in NSW independent schools in relation to several measures of teacher job satisfaction such as quality of supervision, relationship with colleagues, working conditions, workload, responsibility, career advancement and recognition. The results

showed that primary school teachers perceived their leaders as exhibiting more features of transformational leadership rather than the transactional leadership style. This transformational leadership style was found to have a strong positive association with greater job satisfaction of the teachers. As noted earlier, when teachers are satisfied and empowered at work, they are more likely to give their best to teaching and learning, which results in improved student outcomes and school effectiveness.

The education department in Australia is keen to develop and inculcate certain qualities in principals across the country so that every school can have similar leadership, similar work environment, and certain rules and principles necessary for healthy development of children. The government understands that in the 21st Century, principals hold a key role in the education sector of the country. Principals are termed as being “responsible and accountable for the development of children and young people so that they can become successful learners, confident creative individuals and active informed citizens” (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2014:6). The principals work in a complex global environment and face the challenges of incorporating changing world education in the local Australian education system.

The professional standard for principals in Australia, according to the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL, 2014), is based on three leadership requirements: (1) vision and values, (2) knowledge and understanding, (3) personal qualities and social and interpersonal skills. These requirements are put into practice using five exercises: leading teaching and learning; developing self and others; leading improvement, innovation and change; leading the management of the school; and, engaging and working with the community. The principals alone cannot work to implement and promote these standards and thus are expected to work in collaboration with the school’s administrative and teaching staff. Thus, the government is trying its best to inculcate a distributed leadership style in the principals of Australian schools where they do not take up all roles for themselves. Rather they are expected to assign managerial and leadership roles to all stakeholders who then work in their capacity to resolve all issues and come up with ideas of making the learning experience even better for students (Bottery, 2001). All the five-above-mentioned key professional practices are not just for the school principals, but also for the teachers and administrative staff, all of whom work in cohesion planning and acting, reviewing and responding to the challenges.

4.4.2. Educational Leadership Practice in the UAE

In the UAE context, educational leadership style is still largely managerial as compared to any other style of leadership. According to Shaw, Badri and Hukul (1995:11), “for reasons of culture and tradition, the atmosphere of schools is nearer to a command system than a collegiate one”. The principals are given a clear goal of maintaining a school environment of strict discipline, where children are ‘managed’ by the teachers. The focus is on school atmosphere as a foundation for quality learning (Macpherson, et al, 2007). Although the public schools follow a UAE curriculum, the private schools mostly follow British National Curriculum or the American curriculum. There is not just the difference in the language of instruction in schools, there is also a difference in the styles of teaching, due to the difference in cultures of Arab states and the Western countries. As it is believed that peaceful and compliant environment is a necessity for student learning and development in the Arab culture, orderly rooms and classrooms, disciplined children, is the focus of schools, especially the public schools in UAE. This forces principals and head teachers in UAE public schools to be more autocratic in their styles, taking decisions for the teachers, forcing them to be more focused on teaching and disciplining the children, rather than involving them in other decision-making activities. This claim is made based on the observations made by Ministry of Education (MOE) in the UAE in a report published by the government in 2013.

Managerial Leadership and Educational Improvement in the UAE

The *Ittihad*, a widely read newspaper, published a startling news report on November 19, 2005, which argued that the education system in the UAE was ‘obsolete’ and lagging behind in terms of curricula, school buildings, teaching facilities, and teacher salaries (Al Ittihad, 2005). It was shocking for the government, as well as citizens of the country, to hear one of the most important services in the country were so behind the ‘developed’ world. This served as a turning point for the education system of the country. The government became more focused and committed to introducing and developing ‘world class’ education system in the country. Huge funds were committed for the job and the rulers started taking personal attention to improve the education system in the country. The government made a point to involve major stakeholders in consultations including principals, teachers, Ministry personnel, and representatives from communities to come up with five-points agenda to improve education system in the country. These points, as given by Macpherson et al. (2007) are listed below:

1. Clarify an educational policy - to stress the development of understanding, character formation and community values to prepare students for an active role in a modern

- knowledge society, and to mobilise social and political support for investment in education in order to achieve national prosperity and development
2. Set internationally benchmarked performance expectations in all aspects and levels of education – to reflect the nature and needs of the UAE community in a global context
 3. Launch a national 10-year reconstruction plan - to bring all school facilities, curriculum, pedagogy and outcomes up to international standards
 4. Restructure educational management – to have the Ministry focus on improving performance levels, replace Education Departments with regional support centres, merge small schools to raise their viability and quality, and boost leadership capacities in school communities
 5. Mobilise appropriate resources and support – to achieve all of the above

The education system has come a long way after the implementation of education reforms and due to the continuous focus and support of the government since 2005 when the Abu Dhabi Education Council (now Abu Dhabi Department of Education and Knowledge) was established. The UAE rulers have, time and again, pressed upon the importance of education in the country. Education and Emiratisation (an initiative by the government of the UAE to employ its citizens in a systematic manner in the public and private sectors) have been placed as the top priorities of the government (Ahmed, 2013). In order to modernise the education system, particularly at school levels, the government is trying to provide free internet services and related education facilities in public schools in the country. And pupils will each be given a tablet computer as part of a five-year AED10.5 billion project for educational improvements in the public sector (Ahmed, 2013). Furthermore, the government is showing keen interest in educational development, not just verbally, but also financially. In the latest of the country, 22% or AED 9.9bn, were allocated to education, showing the government's commitment to the cause.

The actions of the UAE government demonstrate the use of elements of managerial leadership which focus on functions, tasks, planning, budgeting and implementing decisions in bringing about change in the UAE's educational sector. However, the UAE government knows that more traditional transactional and managerial styles of leadership may actually be hindrances to educational development of schools in the long run (Murphy, 2005). They may stifle creativity and also may not improve teachers' motivation levels, or commitment to their jobs. Thus, the government is shifting its focus to developing transformational leaders, rather than a transactional, stratified school

structure. The government has started Education leadership programmes in its universities, offering degrees as well as diplomas to students. However, the biggest issue faced currently is that the enrolment in these programmes is mostly by women, inspiring to lead in this field. However, these enrolments are not converting into leadership positions by women in the education sector. This does not only mean a loss of resources, but a loss in chance of placing women in leadership roles in the education sector of the country (Madsen, 2010a). The Abu Dhabi University, keeping in view the demand for teachers with project management, team leadership, teaching planning, and pedagogic development, started two programmes offering Master of Education in Leadership, and Master of Education in Teaching in Learning.

Prospective for Transformational Leadership in the UAE

Within the context of the UAE, some studies have examined the potential for transformational leadership in UAE schools. For example, Al-Taneiji (2006) investigated the existence of transformational leadership qualities in principals of UAE model schools as perceived by the teachers as well as the relationship between teacher learning opportunities and transformational leadership styles. The study surveyed over 200 teachers in model schools in the city of Al-Ain and found that principals who possess transformational leadership qualities tend to provide their teachers with more learning opportunities. They also found a significant relationship between transformational leadership features and collegial enquiry and mentoring. They noted, however, that female principals clearly exhibited transformational leadership styles much more than their male counterparts. The current study actually examines gender effects on leadership styles in Abu Dhabi public schools and compares findings with similar studies. Chapters 7, 8 and 9 provide some results and discussion on this. In a more recent study, Litz and Scott (2017) investigated whether school principals in the UAE practice transformational leadership, and whether they and their teachers perceived principals' leadership styles differently to their western counterparts. They found that variations in the responses given by participants were related to cultural differences between the western orientation of the leadership model adapted by Emirati principals and the Islamic orientation of the population. Given the results of their findings, Litz and Scott (2017) proposed a modified model of transformational leadership, which may be useful to leaders who wish to practice transformational leadership whilst accommodating their cultural beliefs. The results of these analyses show that transformational leadership behaviour can be different when cultural and religious environments are taken into consideration. For example, equality and fundamental human values are central to Islamic teachings, and Islam

discourages discrimination based on class or socio-economic status (Syed and Ali, 2010). Thus, a good leader in the Islamic context must be seen to demonstrate characteristics that promote equality and equity in all decisions. Transformational leaders value their followers' contributions towards the achievement of group goals. Incidentally, Islam also advocates practicing value-based leadership to maximise benefits for society (Khan and Varshney, 2013).

4.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature on school leadership styles and models used across various educational cultures and contexts, citing relevant examples in both developed countries and the UAE. We have seen that school leadership is an intriguing yet complex domain of organisation theory and there are many perspectives that should be considered when discussing educational leadership, including ideological beliefs, educational contexts, cultural values, knowledge sources and religious orientation, among other factors. While Bush's (2007) classification of educational leadership styles and models offer valid explanations of leadership approaches in education, no theory alone is sufficient to gain an understanding of the complex nature of leadership. A critical evaluation of these theories has highlighted their advantages as well as shortcomings. However, contemporary educational leadership theories do suggest that school leaders can create and articulate a vision for their school and should be able to inspire the motivation and participation of not just teachers, but all stakeholders in making that vision a reality. The major aim of educational leaders in this regard is to develop for their educational institution, a better future for the benefit of students, teachers, the school itself and the external community, thus taking a post-modern and distributed approach to leadership. In order to drive school effectiveness and school improvement, principals must pay close attention to their interpersonal relationship with teachers and seek to promote the interest, professional development and empowerment of teachers. They must also reflect on their motivation, moral values, beliefs and professional practice at all times as these largely shape their leadership behaviour.

Though the majority of available studies on educational leadership and management are predominantly based on western and 'developed' country contexts, this chapter has highlighted the need to consider cross-cultural differences when theorising about educational leadership practice. This chapter has helped in getting a closer insight into the role of religion, cultural beliefs and tradition in shaping educational leadership in the UAE. Popular educational leadership styles in the developed countries were also

compared to those of the UAE, illustrating that UAE is on the path of global development for educational transformation. UAE government has realised the need to utilise more transformational leadership approaches in schools, rather than just relying on elements of managerial leadership with its bureaucratic limitations. However, concerns for gender equality and female empowerment in educational leadership are still being debated, which is a core aspect of this study. The next chapter will review the concept of gender equality and how it is applied in education, work and leadership contexts.

Chapter Five

Gender Equality in Education, Workplace and Leadership

5.0. Introduction

One of the main research questions of this study is to examine the effect of gender on leadership styles of school principals in Abu Dhabi public schools. The aim is to find evidence of gender-based differences in the use of various leadership styles and any evidence of gender discrimination against women in educational leadership in the UAE. It is thus important to review the literature on gender equality beginning with education, and then the workplace and leadership roles. Today's world is talking more about gender and education with Education for All and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a sign of global movement. Girl's education has become a basic need, and few argue about not having female education (Ridge, 2014). There is seemingly greater equality when it comes to gender workforce and employment differences. According to Ridge (2014: 40), recent developments in the educational system of the UAE has given more opportunities to female education, and they now happen to be more educated than males. Yet, they face barriers in getting jobs, as the market is more male-friendly. There is now a 'reverse gender divide' for education to males and females, while on the other hand, males are given good employment opportunities, with lower standards of education (especially in the public schools).

This chapter uses various sociological, cultural and psychological theories on gender to explain gender inequalities in education, at work and in leadership positions, mentioning examples from around the world (including Canada, USA, England, Scotland, Middle East & Asia, Africa and other regions); however, the main focus will be UAE. This chapter argues that female workers must take on more leadership roles and should be more empowered in the workplace. Globally, societies and governments are acknowledging the importance of women's positive contributions in the working world. Education needs to be the starting point towards equality in society. This is because learning is the key to human capital development and is the foundation for a progressive society and the sustenance of all livelihoods (UNESCO, 2000). This chapter provides facts and figures, which mark the UAE as a country at the start of its journey toward female leadership acknowledgment, which is taking steps positively for endorsing women, side by side with the male members of Islamic society. This thesis will address policy suggestions for the way forward regarding gender equality in leadership in the UAE. Although, this thesis talks about female empowerment in the UAE educational

leadership, it is not taking a critical feminist approach. The focus will be on the cultural and psychological aspects of being gendered as it relates to educational attainment and the workplace. For the purpose of this study, the term “gender equality” refers to equal rights to resources and opportunities regardless of gender, while “gender inequality” will be taken to mean differences in access to resources and opportunities based on gender.

The first section in this chapter discusses the definitions and socio-cultural and psychological theories around sex and gender and elaborates on gender roles. It also examines the concepts of gender discrimination and patriarchy, citing examples from Arabic culture, and then examines the concept of social stratification as the basis for inequality in many aspects of society. The next section reviews the literature on gender equality in education, with specific focus on the educational attainment of boys and girls and the factors that explain gender gaps in educational outcomes. It also examines gender equality and education in the UAE. The third section looks at gender workforce equality, gender wage gaps and employment discrimination and provides an account of female employment in the UAE. In the fourth section, the link between gender and leadership is examined, highlighting the role of women as leaders and providing an explanation of the development of women leaders in the UAE. The fifth section examines gender in educational leadership, highlighting the influence of gender on perceptions of leadership effectiveness by school principals. It also provides some account of educational leadership by gender in the UAE.

5.1. Social, Cultural and Psychological Theories on Gender

Since the 20th century, society has started accepting women as an important part of its development. This acceptance helps us to understand the deeper significance of gender in society for better human relations. According to Lindsey (2011), feminists use many ways to increase women’s empowerment and call for women to take control over their own destinies. This section explains how sociologists and psychologists help to make our understanding of gender clearer as it affects our lives, attitudes and behaviour.

5.1.1. Defining Gender, Sex and Gender Roles

According to sociologists and psychologists, sex and gender are different concepts. Sex refers to biological and physiological features that differentiate males from females, including differences in chromosomes, anatomy, hormones, and reproductive systems (Lindsey, 2011). On the other hand, gender refers to the social, cultural or psychological qualities associated with being male or female (Lindsey, 2011; Little, 2014). Explaining

this difference further, Lindsey (2011:4) states that “sex makes us male or female; gender makes us masculine or feminine”. Sex is the status someone gets after birth, but gender is the status people achieve when they start learning about social values. From this perspective, individuals are seen as ‘born sexed’ but not ‘gendered’, and they have to be taught to be, or ‘do’, masculine or feminine (Lorber, 1994). Gender identity may be defined as the extent to which one identifies as a man or woman (Diamond, 2002). One’s identification with their own gender identity is seen to be largely psychological. The terms ‘sex’ and ‘gender’ differ as sex is generally assigned at birth, whereas the gender roles are different across cultures and society teach us what it means to be ‘masculine’ or ‘feminine’. Little (2014) provides some important examples, arguing that most persons of the female sex, in general, regardless of culture, will eventually menstruate and develop breasts that can lactate. On the other hand, gendered qualities may be different across societies and cultures. For example, in American culture, it is women who wear a dress or skirt. However, in many Middle Eastern, Asian and African cultures, dresses or skirts (in the form of robes or gowns) are worn by men, but that does not connote femininity. In the same way, the kilt worn by Scottish men does not make them appear feminine in their culture.

The concept of gender role theory shows gender as more of a social view, in which each society and culture assigns norms for ‘males’ and ‘females’ to follow (Wood and Eagly, 2015). When people communicate or interact in their social roles in the home, at the community or at their workplace, they do gender-learn gender and become gendered. From this perspective, gender roles, therefore, are “the expected attitudes and behaviours a society associates with each sex” (Lindsey, 2011:4). These roles are based on the norms, traditions and cultures established by society. In many cultures, masculine roles are usually associated with strength, aggression and control, while the traditional view of feminine gender roles are usually associated with obedience, nurturing and subordination (Little, 2014). These imply that, traditionally, a woman’s role is to nurture and care for her family and might be better doing so working at home instead of taking full time employment outside the home. On the other hand, a man’s role is usually perceived as the head of the household, and one who provides financially for the family and takes critical family decisions.

According to Blackstone (2003), different disciplines provide various views on gender roles and their development. From a sociological and ecological perspective, gender roles are the result of the interactions between individuals and their physical and social environments, and they give individuals hints about what types of behaviour is

appropriate for a particular sex. For instance, girls might model their mothers and play with baby dolls. A biological or evolutionary perspective, however, does not suggest that any gender is superior to the other. It says that sex is an in-built pre-destiny and hormones produce gender differences, not learning. A feminist perspective on gender roles points out that gender roles are linked to different levels of power, that men and women hold in society. For example, men tend to experience greater economic power than women in their marriages because they are expected to be the primary workers for their families, and it is this structure which produces gender differences (e.g. men working and earning more). Thus, feminists tend to argue for women's empowerment both in their individual lives (micro-level) and in all social and political spheres (macro-level).

Little (2014) explains that gender roles are learned through socialisation – a process in which people learn to behave in a particular way as dictated by societal values, beliefs and attitudes. Children are taught by their parents from their childhood that there are different behavioural expectations for boys and girls. For example, sons are allowed more independence at an earlier age than daughters. Sons are often prevented from performing domestic tasks such as cleaning, cooking and other household duties which are considered feminine. They may however, be told to perform household chores that require strength and toughness such as taking out the garbage. On the other hand, daughters are expected to be soft, caring and generally humble, and trained to take on many of the domestic responsibilities. Thus, as they grow up, these cultural norms about masculine and feminine roles become a part of their personality and character through to school age and even until they become adults. Little (2014) also explains that gender socialisation occurs through four main agents of socialization: family, education, friends or colleagues, and mass media. Each agent highlights gender roles by establishing and maintaining standard expectations for gender-specific behaviour.

Gender stereotypes are not limited to the home. They can also be seen outside the family such as in workplaces. In the workplace, men and women are often expected to perform different tasks and occupy different roles based on their sex. For example, women are more likely to be expected to work as secretaries, and men are more likely to be expected to work as managers and executives (Blackstone, 2003). In addition, men are believed to be more ambitious and task-oriented at work, while women are presumed to be more interested in and concerned about their relationships with others at work.

There is no single way of describing gender. However, it can be agreed that gender is a social construction (Lorber, 1994) which usually starts with assignment to a sex category

on the basis of a person's biological and physiological characteristics at birth. But gender cannot be equated with biological and physiological differences between human females and males. The building blocks of gender are socially constructed statuses (Lorber, 1994). In the construction of ascribed social statuses, biological and physiological differences between male and female (such as sex, stage of development, colour of skin, size, genes, hormones, etc) can be qualitatively transformed by social practices through prescribed processes of teaching, learning, emulation and enforcement (Lorber, 1994).

This thesis supports the view that egalitarian beliefs towards gender roles can be re-learned, especially in this era of rapid education, greater modernisation and urbanisation. For example, in an exploratory study on family life in the UAE, Schvaneveldt et al. (2005) found that though historically, gender roles and family relationships in the Middle Eastern culture which have been deeply rooted in the traditional beliefs and customs stemming from Islam, rapid economic development and modernisation are beginning to change the strongly held perceptions on gender and family role attitudes, childcare practices, cultural values, and beliefs toward fertility practices. More details on gender roles in the Arab context is discussed in the next section and linked with the concepts of gender discrimination and patriarchy which are prevalent in many traditional societies.

5.1.2. Gender Discrimination and Patriarchy in Traditional Societies

People can face discrimination if they do not follow established gender norms. Gender discrimination refers to a situation in which someone is treated less well because of their sex, usually when a woman is treated less well than a man. According to Lindsey (2011), strict definitions of gender roles are associated with the development of stereotypes, that is, general thoughts that people who belong to the same status group in society behave the same way. Although stereotypes can include positive attributes, they most often entail negative ones that are then used to justify discrimination against those that belong to that group. Males and females are often labelled according to the attributes that they are assumed to possess based on their biological features. Women are often stereotyped as being unreasonable, unpredictable and too emotional. Assigning negative stereotypes can result in sexism – the discriminatory belief that one's sex is superior to another. Lindsey (2011) explains that both men and women bear the negative effects of sexism, but that women are more likely to be hurt by it because they occupy status sets that are more traditionally lower than those occupied by men. Sexism is practiced by systems of patriarchy – male-controlled social structures – leading to the oppression of women.

Patriarchy is a feature in many traditional societies today such as in the UAE and the Gulf region as well as in many African societies. It is a structure of a set of social relations with material base, which enables men to dominate women (Lerner 1986; Stacey 1993). It is a system of social stratification and differentiation on the basis of sex, which provides material advantages to males while simultaneously placing severe constraints on the roles and activities of females. Women play important roles as mothers, producers, managers, and community developers and their contribution to the social and economic development of societies is more than half when compared to that of men because of their dual roles in the productive and reproductive spheres (Makama, 2013). Yet their participation in formal and informal structures and processes, where decisions regarding the use of societal resources generated by both men and women are made, remains insignificant.

“The patriarchal society sets the parameters for women’s structurally unequal position in families and markets by condoning gender-differential terms in inheritance rights and legal adulthood, by tacitly condoning domestic and sexual violence and sanctioning differential wages for equal or comparable work” (Makama, 2013:116).

Cultural tradition and religion in many societies such as in the Middle East and Africa, have dictated the relationship between men and women for centuries and entrenched male domination into the structure of social organisation and institution at all levels of leadership. Patriarchy justifies the marginalisation of women in education, economy, labour market, politics, business, family, domestic matters and inheritance (Salaam, 2003).

Islamic societies, for example, have traditionally been very patriarchal in nature. In most cases, the birth of a girl causes less joy than that of a boy (Schvaneveldt et al., 2005). When a midwife or relative assisted with the birth, the mother knew immediately if the baby was a boy or girl. If it was a girl, the midwife said nothing. If it was a boy, the midwife would say "praise Allah" (Schvaneveldt et al., 2005). The preference of boys is justified by the thinking that a boy would contribute to the family maintenance and protection, whereas a girl would eventually get married and leave her family of origin to live with her husband's family and add to the strength of that family as she bears children. It should be noted that Schvaneveldt et al. (2005), as with many other writers, are mistaken in attributing differences in gender roles to the Islamic religion when, in fact, much of the difference comes from cultural traditions, many of which are at odds with

core Islamic teachings. Though Islamic theology stresses that gender roles should be fair and egalitarian, the practice in most of the Muslim nations today is a far cry from earlier Islamic practices. In the early days of Islam, gender roles were more egalitarian (Jawad, 1998). In the days of *Jahiliyyah* (known as the age of ignorance), there are indications that women held high positions in the society and exerted great influence. They freely choose their husbands, had the right to divorce, and could return to their own people if they were not happy or well-treated. In some cases, they even proposed marriage. They were regarded as equals, not as slaves and were the inspiration of many poets and warriors (Muslim Women's League, 1995). Women were encouraged to attain an education in both religious and social domains. There was no preferential treatment of men over women in educational pursuits and both were equally encouraged to acquire education (Jawad, 1998). Similarly, Islam does not forbid women from working outside of the home provided the external work does not interfere with her obligations at home or lower her dignity as a mother.

But the status of Muslim women declined as pre-Islamic traditions reappeared, such as the treatment of women as property (Schvaneveldt et al., 2005). In addition, traditions and values from conquering people, such as the Mongols and Turks, were assimilated into Islamic traditions over time. Consequently, women were forced to stay at home, wear the veil, and prevented from participating in public life. In fact, the oppression of women became the norm as the strong dominated the weak (Muslim Women's League, 1995). Female infanticide, for instance, was practiced by fathers who did not value their daughters as much as they valued their sons (Nicholson, 1907). In areas, such as marriage, divorce and inheritance, women were often deprived of their basic rights to choose their husbands freely, to divorce if ill-treated or to inherit from their families (Muslim Women's League, 1995). The role of women thus evolved into that of submissive and obedient wives and mothers, while the men are seen as rulers, superiors, controllers, oppressors and masters (Schvaneveldt et al., 2005). Women were denied access to schools and female education was viewed as a threat to the traditional customs and way of life. The Qur'an teaches that husbands should be the providers and wives should be obedient to the husband. If the wife is disobedient, then the husband is no longer required to provide for her (Jawad, 1998). Unfortunately, many of these traditions and customs have persisted through the years and account for the lower status of women in Islam societies (Jawad, 1998).

However, as stated earlier, as access to education and modernisation has increased over the years, these patriarchal ideologies are fast becoming outmoded. Greater modernity

may be occurring among those from upper socioeconomic status backgrounds because of greater access to education, media, occupational opportunities; and greater mobility (Schvaneveldt et al., 2005). In this regard, Mostafa (2005) investigated the UAE society's attitudes towards women managers using a sample of 186 student participants and found that UAE students held significantly different views and attitudes towards women managers from those of older generations. In particular, the study predicted that modernity may be diminishing patriarchal attitudes towards women managers in the Arab world.

5.1.3. Social Stratification and Gender Equality/Inequality

Societies vary in the extent of inequality in social status of their male and female members, but where there is inequality, the status of 'woman' is usually held in lesser esteem than that of 'man' (Lorber, 1994). Gender inequality in society can be explained through the concept of social stratification – the system in which groups of people in society face unequal access to basic but highly valued social resources (Little, 2014). In many societies, there is some form of order or classification of people based on their gender, race, income, occupation, and so on. This classification tends to highlight inequality in society. Since gender is also intertwined with these other forms of social classification, men and women members of the favoured groups command more power, prestige and property than the members of the disfavoured groups. Within many social groups, however, men are more advantaged over women. The more economic resources, such as education and job opportunities, are available to a group, the more they tend to be monopolised by men (Lorber, 1994). For example, in traditional patriarchal societies such as in Arabic culture, the male governs a clan or family; he controls all aspects of family from overseeing the women and children in his care to dividing inheritance along male lines within his family (Donahue, 2007). Thus, in gender-stratified societies, gender ranks men above women of the same race and class. Gender stratification or inequality thus implies the unequal distribution of resources, wealth and power between two sexes, whereas, gender equality rests on the idea that both females and males have equal access to resources, wealth, power and opportunities and are equally represented in all walks of life (Little, 2014).

In practice, there seems to be gender-based differential access to resources and opportunities in many places around the world and across various sections of society such as education, work and politics. For example, gender stratification in education show that middle school girls in Canada and USA are more likely than their male classmates to fall behind grade expectations in Math and Science (Dee, 2006; Little,

2014). In politics, women are often not equally represented in government, parliament, or political meetings (Little, 2014). In corporate leadership, for example in the UAE, women are still underrepresented in senior company and top department leadership positions (Kemp et al., 2013). Many sociologists have attempted to study how and why gender stratification takes place and some suggest how to overcome this issue. The rest of this chapter attempts to provide some evidence on these studies.

5.2. Gender Equality and Education

Education is usually the starting point of measuring gender equality. Gender equality in education means that access, participation and achievement are equal between the sexes (Razavi, 2012). Such data may be presented as a ratio of females to males, with an average value of one representing complete equality between genders. However, there are limitations for using indicators, such as access and participation, as measures of progress of equality in education. For example, it may be argued that access and participation measures are not necessarily products of the educational processes. This means that such measures are not dynamic and do not extend beyond the educational timeline, such as skilled employment after graduation. They also do not capture the interplay between the sexes which may identify subtle inequalities. This means that access and participation in education alone is not enough to measure gender equality. It is also important to consider interactions between the sexes, differences in performance outcomes, and differences in gender roles and interactions in the respective society (Kumar and Quisumbing, 2015). A comprehensive method of measuring gender equality by combining these factors offers a way of seeing whether efforts to ensure gender equality exists along the educational path and are found to be successful.

5.2.1. Gender Gaps and Educational Attainment of Boys and Girls

Many studies on gender inequalities in education show the differences in educational performance of boys and girls. The growth of the gender gaps in educational attainment as children grow from childhood to young adults suggests that what occurs in schools and classrooms may play an important role. As noted earlier, early childhood studies by the US Department of Education show that when children enter Kindergarten, the two sexes perform similarly on tests of both Reading and Mathematics. However, after a few years, specifically by the 3rd grade, boys, on the average, outperform girls in Math and Science, while girls do better in Reading (Dee, 2006). Furthermore, the results show that for children between ages of 9 and 13, the gender gaps in Science and Reading almost

double and the Math gap rises by two-thirds. For the children between the ages of 13 and 17, there is small increase in the Math and Reading gender gap but a significant increase in the gap in Science (*ibid*).

The trend in educational attainment of pupils in England, however, shows a rather different result. The Department for Education and Skills [in England] (2007) provides some evidence on gender differences among school-aged students in terms of participation and attainment of boys and girls. Using historical exam performance data, the study shows that gender gap is wide in English and narrower in Maths, with, on average, girls performing better than boys. The gender gap in Sciences has been traditionally very small. In particular, the study shows that there has been long standing gender inequality in GCSE attainment, with the gender gap estimated at 9.6 percentage points, that is, 63.4 percent of girls and 53.8 percent of boys achieved 5+ A*-C GCSEs or equivalent in 2006. There are important gender stereotypical differences in subject choices, with girls likely to choose arts, languages and humanities and boys more likely to take geography, physical education and IT. For A-level entries, post-16 participation rates vary by gender, with girls are more likely to be enrolled for A-Levels than boys. Girls participation in science subjects such as Physics is particularly low, accounting for only 1.3 percent of female A-Level entries, while for boys, Physics remains the most popular science subject. In terms of attainment, gender differences in pass rate are much narrower at A-Level than at GCSE but gender differences still exist. Across all subjects, the range of differences is 4 percentage points. This is in the context of a very high pass rate. Girls perform better than boys in terms of those attaining an A grade for the majority of subjects, which is has been a significant trend over the past twenty years (Department for Education and Skills [in England], 2007).

Further international evidence for the PISA study (Programme for International Student Assessment from OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development) cited in Department for Education and Skills [in England] (2007) shows that girls have significantly better Reading scores than boys in all participating countries. For Maths, boys significantly outperformed girls in half of the participating countries (though the difference was smaller for Reading). Further citing OECD data, Ridge (2014) also suggested that girls are starting to perform better than boys on many national examinations across the world, in countries such as Australia, United Kingdom and the United States, as well as in the Middle East, Caribbean and South-East Asia. In fact, a recent study by UNICEF (2012) shows that in East Asia and the Pacific, enrolment, attendance and achievement are decreasing for boys. Boys' enrolment rates have

declined, with many boys leaving school early and fewer boys continuing to higher education. This implies that the educational system does not appear to be meeting the basic requirements of both boys and girls. Thus, in many countries, the teaching curricula must incorporate the students' individual backgrounds, cultures and tackle gendered approaches to allow meaningful participation and development of students early on, to prevent gender stratification in employment 'down the line'.

5.2.2. Explaining the Causes of Gender Inequality in Education

Despite the typical differences in the educational performance and participation of school-aged children as shown above, evidence from the Department for Education and Skills [in England] (2007) and other studies show that gender taken on its own matters but is not the strongest determinant of educational attainment. There are several other factors that need to be controlled for to get a balanced view of the causes of educational outcomes among young children and youths. These are briefly discussed below.

5.2.2.1. *Cognitive Differences and Trends in Learning Style*

Gender inequality among school-aged pupils may be explained by the literature on early childhood, partly by biological and reasoning differences. Some biological theorists argue that there are some sex differences in cognitive style or ability, while others are quick to expose the idea and label it 'sexist' (Buchmann et al, 2008). The Department of Education and Skills [in England] (2007) found large pre-school gender differences in social, intellectual and communication measures, as well as sex differences in the activities that parents carry out with their children. For example, parents are more likely to read and teach songs and nursery rhymes with their daughters than their sons. Also, some scientific studies have shown that girls' brain tend to develop faster than boys (Knapton, 2013). These might explain why girls tend to do better in articulating speech and in tests of verbal reasoning than boys. In terms of reasoning differences, Spelke (2005:953) reveals some sensitive shades of difference between males and females, arguing that females tend to perform better on "tests of verbal fluency, arithmetic calculation and memory for spatial locations of objects", while males excel on "tests of verbal analogies, mathematical word problems, and memory for geometric configuration of an environment". There appears to be large sex differences in performance on complex quantitative problems in mathematics and science during or after elementary school, which becomes more pronounced as males and females grow with age, making it difficult to separate the biological and social factors that produce them (Spelke, 2005). In other

words, it is incredibly hard to separate biological (genetical and hormonal) difference from socially learned differences.

Apart from cognitive differences, there appears to be differences in learning styles, between boys and girls, according to the OECD's PISA study in majority of the participating countries (Department of Education and Skills [in England], 2007). The study shows that girls are more likely than boys to control their learning (that is, review what they have learnt and take note of what they still need to learn). There also contrasting gender differences in learning motivation. Girls express significantly greater interest in Reading than boys, while boys show significantly more interest in Maths in most of the countries – to a lesser extent in some and to a greater extent in others (*ibid*). Another explanation for boys' underperformance in school is boys' overconfidence. Dahlbom et al. (2011) showed that boys may overrate their ability in mathematics performance, while girls underrate theirs. As regards expectations, some boys think that it would be easy to perform well in exams and tend to put in less effort towards preparation and study. Finally, there are attributions when they eventually fail, boys may tend to blame externally the teacher for their own lack of effort, not internal ability, and feel less important.

5.2.2.2 Teacher Characteristics and Gender Differences in Educational Performance

Teacher characteristics such as teacher labelling, teacher gender, and teacher quality tend to influence educational performance of boys and girls differently. For example, Swann and Graddol (1995) found that teachers may think of boys as disorderly and problematic and may be more likely to spend time telling them off than helping them with school work. Teachers may have lower expectations of boys, and thus less motivated to drive them towards reaching high standards. Because of unmanageable or disturbing behaviour, boys are more likely to be excluded. In England, boys account for eighty percent of permanent exclusions and three-quarters of fixed period exclusions (Department of Education and Skills [in England], 2007). In studies on gender differences in English schools, Abraham (1995) asked teachers to describe a 'typical' boy and a 'typical' girl in the classroom. The teachers described the typical boy as 'not particularly intelligent', 'likes a laugh' and 'always seeks attention', especially by 'messing around'. The typical girl was described as 'intelligent', 'well-behaved', and 'focused', though 'quiet and shy'. As a result, he found that boys were told off more easily than girls. In another study involving teacher responses to boy and girl students in

the classroom, data showed that teachers 'praised' male students far more than their female classmates. In addition, teachers interrupted girls more and gave boys more opportunities to expand on their thoughts (Sadker and Sadker, 1994). Boys are also allowed more freedom regarding rule-breaking or minor acts of disobedience, whereas girls were expected to follow rules carefully and behave obediently (Ready, 2001). These studies show that schools may be unconsciously promoting inequality in gender roles between boys and girls.

Another influence on the achievement of boys may be the lack of male teachers, especially in primary schools. For example, the Department of Education and Skills [in England] (2007) show that most of the teachers in nursery and primary schools in England are female (84 percent) and this trend has become more evident over the years. The gender split at secondary is more even, with 56 percent of teachers being female, but, men are still more likely to get promoted to school headship. While only 16 percent of nursery/primary school teachers are male, 34 percent of head teachers are male. While 44 percent of secondary school teachers are male, 65 percent of head teachers are male. However, the proportion of female head teachers has increased in recent years. It has been argued that the gender balance of teachers accounts significantly for the observed gender gaps in educational attainment of boys and girls. Some sociologists have suggested that one possible explanation for these gender differences in attainment as the 'feminisation of education' (e.g. Browne and France, 1986; Aspinwall and Drummond, 1989; Skelton, 2002).

This is the idea that there are not enough male teachers in primary schools, and as a result the educational curriculum, assessment and teaching styles favour the learning styles of girls (Delamont, 1999; Skelton, 2002). Dee (2006) conducted a study on the influence of teacher gender on student's performance and academic participation using a sample of 25,000 8th grade students in the United States from 1988 and found that teacher's gender does have significant effects on student test performance, teacher perceptions of students, and students' engagement with academic material. In particular, it was found that girls have better educational outcomes when taught by women and boys are better off when taught by men. However, Francis and Skelton (2005) found that the feminisation of teaching does not have a negative effect on the academic performance of boys. They found that teacher and pupil gender matching does not significantly affect students' educational outcomes as grades do not show any major difference between boys and girls. Most students reported that the behaviour of male and female teachers in the classroom was 'very similar' in terms of equality, educational support and discipline.

Within the context of UAE schools, Ridge (2010) show that teacher quality was a function of teacher background (nationality, gender, years of experience, teacher education, family demands), school characteristics (leadership quality, access to resources), and institutional factors (salary scales and terms of employment, professional development opportunities and promotional opportunities), which could also significantly explain gender inequality and the poor performance and retention of boys. Department of Education and Skills [in England] (2007) also noted that there is some evidence that girls' and boys' attitudes to subjects are influenced by whether a student attends a single sex school or a co-educational school. Boys and girls attending single sex schools are less likely to hold gender-stereotypical views about science subjects compared to students attending co-educational schools.

5.2.2.3. Other Social Factors

Other social factors such as family background, family resources, social class, ethnicity, cultural background and religion of students all play a significant role in the educational achievement of boys and girls (Department of Education and Skills [in England] (2007). The financial and social capital available to a family can be an influential factor at each level of educational attainment, partly through academic performance and partly through educational transitions, given performance (Buchmann, et al, 2008). Even when boys and girls share the same household, family resources may not be evenly distributed across boys and girls. For example, socialisation theory highlights the relevance of parental role modelling in the formation of children's educational and career ambitions. Some sociologists argue that role modelling is sex-specific, with girls looking more to their mothers and boys more to their fathers for their educational and occupational aspiration (Rosen and Aneshensel, 1978). Following this perspective, daughters should perform relatively better in households with a better educated mother than in households with a better educated father, while sons should do better in opposite situations. The presence or absence of both parents can also affect their children's school participation and performance (Fatherhood Institute, 2010). Sometimes, labour migration cause parents to relocate temporarily overseas and this tends to affect children in school (Battistella and Conaco, 1998). Battistella and Conaco (1998) found that school performance suffers from parental absence. Children with one or both parents absent had lower school grades and ranking than children with both of their parents available.

The social class and cultural background of students also affect educational outcomes. For example, some minority ethnic groups attain significantly below the national average

in most exams and their under-achievement is much greater than the gap between boys and girls (Department of Education and Skills [in England], 2007). Culture and religion also influence the provision of educational opportunities (Cooray and Potrafke, 2011). A study on the underlying causes of gender inequality in education in about 157 countries by Cooray and Potrafke (2011) show that the primary influences on gender inequality are culture and religion. They also find that discrimination against girls is more pronounced in Muslim dominated countries.

5.2.3 Gender Disparity and Education in the UAE

Having presented global evidence of inequalities in education, it is appropriate to address the current trends in gender and education in the UAE, as well as provide likely explanations of the gender gap in UAE schools. Gross enrolment statistics for the UAE show that while there has been a significant rise in overall school admission for both boys and girls in the last three decades, there are increasing levels of inequalities (Ridge, 2009). Table 5.1 shows the latest gross enrolment figures in the UAE for 2016. At the primary and secondary education levels, admission rates are higher for boys than girls. However, at the tertiary level, just under 27 percent of males have attended school compared with over 53 percent of females, implying a gender parity index of 2. The gender gap between boys and girls is seen more in the data that includes only Emirati boys and girls. Statistics from the National Admissions and Placements Office (NAPO) of the Ministry of Higher Education states that only 27 percent of Emirati males are attending higher education, compared with over 70 percent of Emirati females (Ridge, 2009).

Table 5.1: UAE Gross Enrolment Figures (2016)

School Type	% of Males	% of Females	Gender Parity Index	Total
Pre-primary	78.86	84.96	1.08	81.85
Primary	112.78	108.88	0.97	110.87
Secondary	98.63	92.98	0.94	95.81
Tertiary	26.68	53.18	1.99	36.85

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics Website

While girls in the UAE not only surpass boys in terms of school enrollment, they also outperform them in terms of achievement (Ridge, 2014). On national assessments, girls consistently outperform boys across the country. For example, on the 2014 Common

Educational Proficiency Assessment (CEPA) girls scored an average of 168 points while boys scored an average of 163 points (Ministry of Higher Education & Scientific Research [MOHESR], 2015). However, the differences in favor of girls were more pronounced in certain geographical areas, such as in the Western Region, where girls scored an average of 160 points, while boys only scored an average of 135 points (MOHESR, 2015). This pattern of gender disparity in favor of girls also shows up in international assessments. Table 5.2 shows that girls in the UAE performed better than boys in all three PISA 2015 subjects, with a seven-point difference in mathematics, 25-point difference in science, and 50-point difference in reading (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and [OECD], 2015). This gender gap is even more pronounced for the UAE nationals, as Emirati girls outperform Emirati boys by much wider margins compared to the aggregated national data, with a 70-point gap on reading scores. Within the larger context of PISA 2015, the UAE’s performance gender gaps are some of the most significant gender differences observed in any PISA-participating country (OECD, 2016).

Table 5.2: PISA 2015 Gender Comparison of Average Performance Between OECD and the UAE

Subject	OECD Average		All UAE		UAE National	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mathematics	494	486	424	431	374	397
Science	495	491	424	449	371	412
Reading	479	506	408	458	354	424

Source: OECD (2015)

Apart from the factors reviewed in section 5.2.2, there are other reasons that might explain some of the gender inequalities experienced in UAE schools. One such reason is the single sex educational system, which may be partly blamed for the poor performance of boys. In this regard, the Department of Education and Skills [in England] (2007) noted that there is some evidence that girls’ and boys’ attitudes to subjects are influenced by whether a student attends a single sex school or a co-educational school. Boys and girls attending single sex schools are less likely to hold gender-stereotypical views about science subjects compared to pupils attending co-educational schools. Another reason for the gender inequality in UAE schools is the differences in the teaching and learning environment given to boys and girls. Ridge (2009) showed that boys’ schools lacked the right learning environment in terms of friendliness, creativity and engagement with the local students by the expatriate teachers. Teachers do not expect much from male

students and also tend to hold back when it comes to teaching them. On the other hand, female students make higher grades in girls' schools and they also have a lower dropout rate. This might be because their teachers expect them to perform well and give them all they need in terms of motivation, quality teaching and learning engagement. Ridge (2008) found that girls were more likely to rate their school as "excellent" than boys, who were more likely to rate their schools as "good" or "average". Ridge (2010) also found that there are flaws in the recruitment, training and management of male, expatriate teachers which may partially explain the poor performance of boys. Other factors explaining the low male participation rates include boys' lack of recognition of the potential reward for educational efforts, social and educational stratification and poor previous academic performance of Emirati males (Abdulla and Ridge, 2011). If a student takes the decision of continuing with education, it can be due to strong family influences (Ridge, Farah and Shami, 2013). Similar to what occurs in other parts of the world, the high school dropout rate in the UAE can be associated with low socio-economic background, poorly educated or less concerned parents, discouraging school experiences, lack of support from teachers and bad influence from classmates.

5.2.3.1. Promoting Gender Equality in UAE Schools

As discussed in chapter two, the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEK) in 2010 launched a New School Model (NSM) to improve the educational system in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. The model is aimed at promoting student-centred learning, outcome-based curriculum, use of resources, eLearning, and ICT education, which are all aimed at enhancing student learning experience (ADEK website). As part of efforts to promote gender equality and integration, many of the new schools being built are now co-educational, that is, boys and girls are mixed in the classroom until grade five, where the children are between eight and nine years old. Introducing mixed classes from a young age may help young people unite and work together in school and also at work. New model schools aim to put an end to the idea that male and females should be separate in education, and also in society. They aim to promote equality from a young age, and for both sexes to identify equal capabilities and possibilities in each other. This can help both males and females establish themselves in society and lessen the social conflicts preventing open female-to-male engagement and co-operation in education, and later in the workplace.

The New School Model should offer Emiratis equal educational outcomes and social rights and support their preparation to deal with global development and advancements. Hamdan, (2013) argues that these efforts can support student achievement, improve

attention, and help build confidence. In addition, such attention equips young male and female students with an understanding of how to effectively work cooperatively and offers benefits for improving and achieving organisational objectives (Potrafke and Ursprung, 2012). Progress in the development of educational policies centred on gender to help ensure equity among students has become a key element in education policy development (Razavi, 2012). For example, educational policies such as the introduction of co-education by private schools have been shown to be effective in helping deliver practices that are directed to meeting such goals as some female students admit that studying with males in the classroom would make them more confident and relaxed when they go into the workplace (Naidoo and Moussly, 2009). The formation and structure of educational policies, or the relationship of policies to educational practices are effectively demonstrated through measures of progress and achievement. Moreover, such measures offer policy makers an awareness of educational practices and the impact such practices have on gender achievement. In addition, removing gender inequality in elementary and secondary education has also been presented as the means of empowering women (Kelly, 2013). For example, Kelly (2013) noted that in some countries where sex segregation is predominant (such as Pakistan), school provision for females is constrained because the government tends to build more boys' schools than girls' schools, suggesting that building and developing more co-educational schools may stimulate women's access to education.

5.2.3.2 Significance of Gender Equality in Education for the GCC and UAE

The commitment by the international community to advance education of all persons has been reflected in a framework known as the Dakar Framework for Action (Colclough, 2012). In this framework, two goals for achieving gender equality are reflected in a timeline goal for educational programs serving primary and secondary students, and the other, an overall goal for achieving educational equality within the educational system for all students. While these goals were set before the current research, it is important to note that the efforts to achieve these goals are ongoing, and when applied to GCC countries and those countries where Arab and Muslim are majority, they are needed to produce large change. The fact that these goals are ongoing, may explain an understanding of the efforts needed to achieve gender equality in education. In particular, it offers an insight into the complexity involved in drafting policies and standards that enforce educational practices embedded within traditional culture. Moreover, such policies offer guidelines for measuring progress toward achieving gender equality, which in turn may deliver a process to provide feedback to stakeholders such

as students, parents, and members of the school community on gender equality in education and its impact on society in terms of social inclusiveness.

Considering such commitments by the international community and efforts in the region among GCC countries, it is beneficial to develop an understanding of what is understood by gender equality in relationship to education and study its connections. In addition, it is valuable to establish a process for measuring the outcomes of efforts to achieve such goals. This will help ensure that a shared understanding of the terms and concepts is applied, and that common measures are utilised to report progress in achieving desired goals. This thesis contributes to these aims in that it explains the importance of gender equality in education and provides a universal framework to identify equality advancements. This thesis argues that the study of educational gender equality and measuring its progress, specifically among women living in GCC countries, Arab women, and women of Islamic faith, requires focus on a broad range of metrics beyond educational achievement alone such as labour force participation and earnings (Moghadam, 2014). Women's employment varies significantly across the Arab world, and within the GCC. Research from GCC countries shows that although women are exceeding men in university enrolment and 65% of graduates in the region are women (Young, 2017), their participation in the labour force (20.9% on average) still lags behind the world average of 39% (Buttorff et al., 2018; World Bank, 2018). For example, while in 2016, women's enrolment in higher education had doubled that of men (53% compared to 27% for men), this has not translated into greater economic participation. Women are still largely underrepresented in corporate and political leadership positions in the UAE and Arab world in general (Kemp et al., 2013; Marmenout and Lirio, 2014). In addition, expanding the range of measures related to gender equality will require an understanding of the sensitive underlying factors that may exist within this context. The complexity of such an analysis can be appreciated as efforts are made to identify relationships, and potential interventions that can positively impact gender equality in education. Thus, measuring advancements in gender equality requires a reliable and thorough method of analysis that accounts for many different factors.

5.3. Gender Equality in the Workplace

In defining gender and identifying metrics of gender equality, one must include other factors such as the relative positions in society of men and women at various stages of their development beyond formal education. For example, there are differences in the economic power of men and women as can be seen in the workplace, gender pay gaps,

glass ceiling, lack of women in positions of power and influence such as CEOs, world leaders and so on. This section on gender equality in the workplace and next section (5.4) on gender and leadership provide some discussion and evidence around this.

5.3.1. Gender Workforce Discrimination and Gender Wage Gaps

International economic developments are affecting women's employment opportunities, but sadly, there is an increasing gender gap for wages (Potrafke and Ursprung, 2012). According to the World Bank (2011), women globally have gained more employment in the public sector and export-based industries, such as farming and garment making. However, there are still arguments that female involvement is low in many sectors, particularly in computer science, technology, and engineering fields (Al Marquozzi and Forster, 2011) and also in leadership positions (Kemp, Madsen and El-Saidi, 2013). In addition, there are still gender wage gaps even though the observed gaps between men and women's educational attainment has closed up (World Bank, 2011). Rudman and Glick (2010) explain challenges for women in the workplace, such as gender discrimination in employment, particularly gender pay gap. The term 'gender pay gap' is defined as a real average difference between a male's and a female's wages or salaries. This can take place throughout one's whole career. Although technically illegal, salary discrimination occurs where women are paid less than men for doing the same work. Even women with advanced degrees earn 66 percent of what men earn. (Blau and Kahn, 2007). The gender pay gap is complex, and economic studies show different estimates of its size and continued existence in the modern day (Rudman and Glick, 2010). Little (2014) provides some evidence of gender discrimination and gender wage gap in the workplace using statistical indices in Canada. Despite women making up 48 percent of total employment in Canada, they are greatly outnumbered by men in authoritative and powerful leadership positions and in high paying jobs. Women's annual income for full time workers has remained at 72 percent of men's income since 1992 (Little, 2014).

In many societies globally, women who are in the paid labour force still perform most of the unpaid work at home. They spend a lot more hours than their male fellows looking after children or caring for their parents. Hochschild and Machung, 1989) argues that this double duty keeps working women in a lesser role in the family structure. Gender stratification through division of labour strengthens male authority that still exist in many parts of modern society. In response to the issue of unpaid work and child care, the World Bank (2011) has supported greater access to part-time work for mothers so they can meet their children's care needs, and to ensure affordable community-based provision of childcare, which is usually subsidised in many developed countries. However, this calls

into question, the quality of community care provision and the equalisation of child care for all children, particularly in developing countries where there are fewer resources and facilities that are targeted at poor children (Razavi, 2012).

In response to the need to providing equal opportunities between the sexes in the UAE, the UAE government recently (in April 2018) announced a draft law to ensure gender equality and reduce gender pay gaps in the workplace (Al Serkal, 2018). His Highness Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoum, Vice-President and Prime Minister of the UAE and Ruler of Dubai, made the announcement of a draft law of gender equal pay. The idea is to enhance, enforce and guarantee the constitutional right of women through the new law. Earlier in 2017, the UAE government also launched the *Gender Balance Guide: Actions for UAE Organisations* (OECD, 2017), which will be adopted by private and public organisations, as well as institutions, as a tool to advance gender balance in the workplace. The guide, which was established by the UAE Gender Balance Council in coordination with the OECD, was the first of its kind in the world. The guide is in line with the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals, and the UAE Vision 2021 of becoming one of the top 25 countries for gender equality. The UAE aims to build a cohesive society and preserve its identity with gender balance being a key component in achieving these goals.

According to the OECD (2017), progress in organisations following the Gender Balance Guide will be measured through three levels — bronze, silver and gold. The bronze level (Gender Balance Commitment) recognises organisations that demonstrate organisational commitment to gender balance, as well as efforts to promote awareness and achieve national gender balance indicators. This includes focusing on awareness building among employees through communication campaigns, and inclusion of gender balance in supervisory and managerial training and development programmes. The silver level (Gender Balance Distinction) will be awarded to organisations that are engaged in developing a Gender Balance Action Plan, the successful use of Gender Impact Assessments (GIAs) for policy and programme design, and the measurement of progress through collecting and analysing data. The gold level (Gender Balance Excellence) will be the highest award and will be given to organisations that achieve gender balance excellence through the implementation of advanced gender balance practices, the successful use of GIAs for budgeting, and taking actions to support other organisations and share lessons learned. They will be deemed as the best practice sites for gender balance. In addition to these proposed performance measures, the UAE government had in 2016 extended maternity leave from 60 days to 90 days in the public sector (OECD,

2017). All these portray the efforts of the current UAE government in achieving gender equality in the workplace.

5.3.2. Female Employment in the UAE

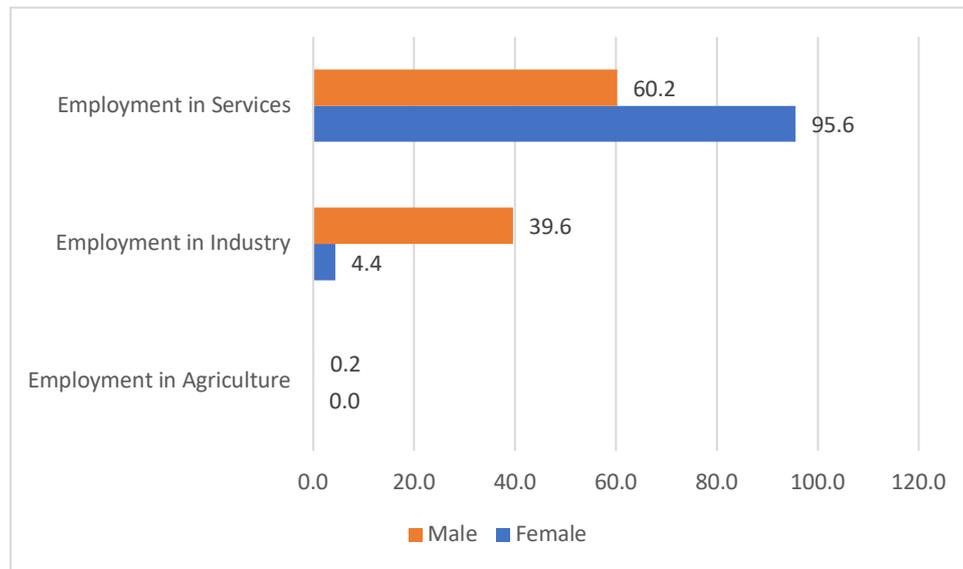
The availability of educational options for women is significant for countries in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), and according to the World Bank, the investment in education in the gulf region is among the highest in the world (Kumar and Quisumbing, 2015). However, despite this accessibility and investment, women are still underrepresented in the workplace. Low employment figures are reflected across the Middle East and North African (MENA) region, which represent the lowest percentages when compared to the rest of the world. (Van Laar, Derks, and Ellemers, 2013). However, female employment in the UAE has been improving significantly over the years. The number of Emirati women in the national workforce grew from 18,144 in 1995 to 38,657 in 2000, to more than 100,000 in 2010 and is expected to increase significantly over the next ten years (Al Marquozzi and Forster, 2011). Latest employment figures show that 46.6% of UAE's labour force comprises women, the second highest in the GCC after Kuwait (Khamis, 2017). However, unemployment rates among Emirati citizens have reached 13% (about 41,000 people) in 2013. And, of this number of unemployed, 62% are women and the majority (Badam, 2018). One of the key factors that contribute to the high unemployment rate of Emirate women include traditional gender roles that influence both family structure and social attitudes. In the UAE, as a member of the family unit, women are often expected to first fulfill family duties before following professional interests. Then, if she is able to balance both, she can continue employment. Also, of importance, is an ability to observe social norms that includes segregating sexes. This may not necessarily be practiced in the workplace, and thus may discourage women from pursuing employment, or limit the types of employment that they may pursue. With relevance to women in UAE, females occupy many roles, such as mothers, partners/spouses, employees, and community members, and their lifestyles are generally broader and more complex than males. Females have more time limitations than their male fellows and their family commitments affect their career ambitions. These commitments can include caring for young children and elderly parents and grandparents. Reduced flexibility due to child-care issues limit the ability and confidence of female workers to pursue a career path or even further their education.

Though the total number of Emirati women in the national workforce has been growing, most of this growth has been in the public sector. When examined from the perspective of public sector employment, the statistics of female employment show encouraging

results - Emirate women currently account for 66 percent of the workforce in the public sector and 30 percent of senior management positions in the public sector are held by women (Khamis, 2017). The private sector, however, is still largely dominated by men, as only 10 percent of entrepreneurs in UAE's private sector are women and 5.5% of senior positions in UAE's private sector are held by women (Khamis, 2017). It is clear that women are more interested in government employment. One key factor that continues to influence women towards government sector employment is job security (Kemp, 2013). The government is the main employer for Doctors, Teachers, and professions that follow cultural norms of acceptable careers for females (Kemp, 2013). Though private sector employment offers opportunities for women, and is often the largest sector with available employment, Emirati women still may not prefer to take this option (Hamdan, 2013). This is because the private sector is an environment where mixed gender is more of a common, and as such there are barriers to women's progress in such an environment (Gallant and Pounder, 2008; Hughes, 2011).

Another possible reason for the relative increase in the participation of women in the public sector compared with the private sector is that the public sector offers more opportunities for women to balance their work schedule with family commitments. The public sector offers more benefits that support family orientation, such as shorter working hours, higher pay, as well as flexibility and paid leave during pregnancy and after delivery (Kemp, 2013). On the other hand, the private sector seems too commercially focused to accommodate working women with family commitments. In terms of labour force participation (% of population ages 15+) in the principal sectoral categories of agriculture, industry and services, it is clear that a greater percentage of women (95.6%) than men (60.2%) are in service-oriented sectors, while a greater percentage of men (39.6%) than women (4.4%) are in industrial sectors (see figure 5.1). The number of both men and women participating in agriculture seem to have declined over the years.

Figure 5.1: UAE Labour Force Participation Rate by Sex (2016)



Source: World Bank Gender Data Portal

Even though Emirati women have made positive success in several service sectors such as education, government, and health sectors, there is evidence that Emirate women are still noticeably less in technical fields such as UAE’s IT sector. Al Marzouqi and Forster (2011) provide two explanations for this. First, a career in IT is possible option for Emirati women, but only very few choose to work in this sector because of its demanding nature, and Emirate cultural and family limitations discourage many young women from choosing careers in IT. Second, gender discrimination does exist in the UAE IT sector, and there are structural, cultural and attitude barriers that have blocked the progress of Emirate women in the business sector in the past. This thesis will conclude with policy suggestions for lowering of such real and perceived social barriers to women’s full participation in the UAE workforce, particularly in the private sector. Removing cultural and attitude barriers to women’s participation in the workplace will help to promote the Emiratization program of the UAE government which seeks to increase the number of Emirati citizens (both male and female) in the workforce.

5.4. Gender and Leadership

5.4.1. Women as Leaders

In many societies, leadership positions have traditionally been taken by males. Although more women are assuming leadership roles today than before, the idea of a woman as a leader is still not automatic for many individuals, males and females alike. Changes in perception are difficult to achieve, because the traditional norms of leadership are firmly

rooted (Moran, 1992). Traditional gender stereotypes have a powerful influence on the difficulty women experience in reaching leadership positions. Today, women have begun to break the glass ceiling and enter the upper levels of organisational power (Stroh, Langlands, and Simpson, 2004). Rudman and Glick (2010) comment that the glass ceiling, an invisible, unacknowledged but very real barrier to professional advancement, keeps women from getting promotions, pay rises and career development compared against their male colleagues.

Once women have gained leadership roles, they face challenges within them. The attributes that characterise masculine roles, such as CEOs, managers, and principals are stereotypically male qualities. This suggests a perceived 'lack of fit' from the beginning, and when women compete against men for employment, it may be necessary to adopt masculine qualities to fit the pattern of leadership (Karpf, 2006). For example, women have been advised to lower the tone of their voices (Karpf, 2006). Women must show that they are exceptions to descriptive stereotypes that they are secondary, because such stereotypes make them seem less suited for powerful roles (Koenig and Eagly, 2014). Although necessary, disconfirming female stereotypes is not enough to clear the barrier. Females can break the barrier and disprove the masculine traditional thinking about them, but we must set up a tradition of getting feminised leadership positions in society (Rudman and Glick, 2010). Females with an ambition seem to be breaking the barrier and taking up the lead but both stereotypes for men and women persist. When women present themselves as self-confident and good to be viewed as qualified for leadership roles, they may face criticism for violating the traditional personality traits of the female gender (Rudman and Glick, 2010). Specifically, submissive women are rated as highly competent and capable of leadership, but they are also viewed as socially incomplete and unlikable by both male and female observers (Heilman, et al, 2004). For example, when the performance of a female manager is observed, both men and women assessors agree on her competence and suitability for the job, but they also viewed her as more unfriendly, difficult, unpleasant, selfish and tricky than male managers (Heilman et al., 1995).

Women are gradually rising up to the challenges of leadership most notably in the political sphere. Well-known examples are the German Chancellor, Angela Merkel and UK's Prime Minister, Theresa May. Hillary Clinton's historic selection as the first woman representative of a major political party in the US has also made a major statement in international politics, notwithstanding the opposition she faced. American people are beginning to regard women leaders in politics. In fact, in a public poll

conducted on Hilary's presidential nomination, the Associated Press-NORC Centre for Public Affairs Research (2016) found that a large majority of Americans regard women political leaders as equal to men and think a woman would be up to the challenges a president may face. But about half of the public think women still have fewer opportunities in politics than men. And while 75 per cent of the public say discrimination against women has declined over the past 25 years or so, an equal number of Americans think it remains an issue today for many women. However, just 4 percent of Fortune 500 CEOs are women; thus, the workplace is still perceived as an unequal playing field for women (*ibid*). To be successful in leadership, many women face double standards; a need to navigate the double standard for agency. More than men, ambitious women must choose between being respected but not liked - by displaying submissive qualities or being liked but not respected - by displaying communal or relational/warm qualities (Rudman and Glick, 2010).

5.4.2. Gender and Leadership Styles

There are several studies indicating that men and women exhibit different leadership styles, abilities and personality traits. Using meta-analytic methods, Eagly and Johnson (1990) reviewed 50 studies that compared the leadership styles of principals in public schools and found some evidence that women showed more democratic or participative leadership styles and less autocratic styles than their male fellows. Their study also showed that female principals, in general, scored somewhat higher than male principals on measures of task-oriented style, but there was less evidence for a sex difference on measures of interpersonally oriented style. Rosener (1990) found that men are more likely to use "transactional leadership" approaches as they tend to perceive their job as a series of transactions with subordinates. As reviewed in chapter three, transactional leaders give rewards in exchange for services received or punishments for poor performance.

On the other hand, women were characterised as "transformational leaders". They may tend to get subordinates to transform their own self-interests into the achievement of wider organisational goals. They may do so by using more cooperative and collaborative approaches to leadership and by enhancing the self-esteem of others (Patel and Buiting, 2013). Rosener (1990) also found that men are more likely to use power that comes from their organisational position, while women are less likely to use their position but their own personal characteristics. Rosener (1990) attributes the behaviour of these women to their socialization and career paths. Women are often socialised to be more cooperative, emotional and supportive, while men are moulded to be more competitive, influential

and to be in control. McKinsey and Company (2009) extended the study of gender and leadership styles to corporate performance using a survey of 800 business leaders to find out which sex adopts the most effective leadership styles for corporate performance to address post-crisis global challenges. The study showed that women often adopted more beneficial leadership styles than men. Women were found to be people-based and acted as role models. They also set clear expectations and rewards. Another study by Zenger Folkman, a well-known authority in leadership development, evaluated the leadership effectiveness of a sample of 7,280 male and female leaders (including executive and senior management staff, middle managers, and front-line managers) from high performing companies globally in 2011. The study found women to be more skillful in taking initiatives, driving for results and practicing self-development, integrity and honesty (Zenger Folkman, 2015).

This study of gendered differences in leadership styles and personality traits has also been extended to the Arab world. According to a study conducted by Professor Lynda Moore in 2005 at Sheikh Zayed University, it was discovered that women leaders in the Arab culture can be successful as they can effectively listen to their followers, assign duties to them and, work in teams (Moore, 2008). As opposed to the male leaders, who may be taught from childhood to be groomed for managerial roles, females may be taught to be more open to new ideas, give subordinates a chance to perform and excel, and are also happier than their male fellows if their subordinates achieve a goal (Bourantas and Papalexandris, 1990). Female leaders, both in the Arab countries and around the world, tend to display transformational leadership styles (Madsen, 2010a) and lead employees by showing example. They encourage employees to think creatively and always seek open views of their colleagues.

5.4.3. The Development of Women Leaders in the UAE

The UAE is currently seen as a leader in the Gulf region in terms of gender equality in education and women empowerment (World Economic Forum, 2017). Latest figures show that women now represent 46.6% of the entire UAE workforce (Khamis, 2017) and more than two-thirds of the government sector is represented by women as noted earlier. In terms of political participation, latest statistics from the UAE Government website¹ shows that eight of the twenty-nine cabinet ministers in the UAE are women, representing 27 percent of the cabinet. The Federal National Council has 9 women

¹ Gender Equality: Women in the UAE. <https://www.government.ae/en/about-the-uae/leaving-no-one-behind/5genderequality>.

members out of a total of 40; four women have been appointed as judges, two as public prosecutors and 17 as assistant public prosecutors and marriage officials. Women make up 20 percent of the diplomatic corps. In addition, The UAE has opened the region's first military college for women, Khawla bint Al Azwar Military School (UAE Government website). However, women's leadership in the workplace is still in short supply and women are still under-represented in senior business leadership and top management positions (Kemp, Madsen and El-Saidi, 2013). There are several trans-organisational leadership development initiatives currently being implemented to promote and encourage young Emirati women to take on more leadership roles (Alhaj and Van Horne, 2013). Although the traditional Arab culture and its practices are still rooted in many aspects of the country, women have more opportunities than in past decades and are confident that they can contribute to (and influence) social change on a larger scale than in past years (Madsen, 2010a).

Several factors have played a key role in the leadership development of Emirati women. One major factor is education and training. Some views on the early development of UAE, women leaders show that they held strong beliefs with regards to their Islamic faith, the importance of family, modesty and cultural tradition (Madsen, 2010b). Another key influence for these women is access to books and an importance attached to reading in the house which stimulated their passion for learning and education (Alhaj and Van Horne, 2013). UAE women's passion for learning can be seen in how they have embraced formal education, particularly in the last decade. This is proved by the high enrolment rate of females for all levels of education as shown earlier. During the academic year (2014/15), females accounted for 89.5 per cent of 4,283 UAE citizen teachers (Halder, 2016). Due to the Government's constant efforts in the field of education, the literacy rate among Emirati females (aged 10 years and over) rose steadily reaching 92.7 per cent by 2015. On the other hand, illiteracy among Emirati females dropped from 89.8 per cent in 1970 to only 7.3 per cent in 2015 (*ibid*). In fact, 95 percent of Emirati female high-school graduates continue onto further education at professional-level, in comparison with 80 per cent for men (Al Abed, Vine and Potts, 2007). Madsen (2010a) explored the learning experiences of young Emirati women attending college using in-depth interviews and noted that UAE women are transformed by their learning because they tend to show critical features of transformational learning which are well suited to leadership development. This implies that Emirati women are now more interested in leadership and enjoy being challenged.

The UAE government, as well as local and international development organisations, have

all played a massive role in the development of women and the transformation of UAE as a pro-women nation state. In 2012, the UAE passed a law stating that women must be represented on all government boards, making it the first country in the Gulf region to make and implement a law of this kind and second in the world (Permanent Mission of the UAE to the UN, 2015). By passing many legislations supporting the equal rights of women, including – the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, (2004), the Hours of Work Convention (1982), and the Equal Remuneration Convention (1996), UAE has taken prominent lead for female empowerment and gender equality. Powerful people have also had strong influence on the development of women leaders, endorsing women as agents of social change. Founder of the United Arab Emirates, His Highness Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan once proudly said about female empowerment that “*(Emirati) women are the half of the society; no nation should leave her in poverty or illiteracy if it hopes for the country’s development. I am on the side of women*”. Madsen (2010a) also noted the comments made by the Minister of Economy and Planning in the UAE, H.E. Sheikha Lubna Bint Khalid Al Qasimi in 2007, saying that women play a vital economic role in the UAE and contribute to the development of the nation by acting as agents of social change. However, equality is not there yet. Much is to be done for women to be represented equally in all sectors and management levels.

5.5. Gender and Educational Leadership/Management

5.5.1. Gender and Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness in Education

It has been proved by research studies that leadership styles of men and women are different as noted in section 5.4.2. Similarly, there are also differences in male and female gender when it comes to leadership effectiveness in education. Good school administration is often seen as more familiar to female than male styles of leadership behaviour. Female qualities of caring for others, being sensitive, kind, intuitive, cooperative, and accommodative have gradually been linked with effective administration. Eagly et al. (1992) conducted a meta-analytical study that reviewed 50 studies comparing leadership styles of male and female principals of public schools in the USA and found that female principals adopted a more democratic or participative style and a less autocratic or directive style than their male counterparts. However, as argued by Coleman (2003) who researched gender and leadership practices in England and Wales, though female models of transformational and participative leadership seem

to be suitable in solving educational leadership challenges, it doesn't mean that women are better leaders than men. Men are not only acknowledging the benefits of female leadership approaches, but they are also adding these good practices to their leadership skills to maintain their dominance as leaders. A few recent studies have also shown support for male leadership in schools in developing countries. For example, Eboka (2016) conducted an investigative study to know the effect of principals' leadership styles and gender on teacher morale in some public secondary schools in Nigeria and found that transformational leadership style and male principals had a greater effect on teacher morale. In another recent study on perceptions of gender differences in educational leadership in Pakistan, Aziz et al. (2017) showed that both male and female respondents perceive that males have more leadership qualities when compared to females. This is particularly true about decision-making abilities and employee empowerment.

While female characteristics are inborn and valuable, women possessing the qualities of a good leader still face slower career progress especially in higher education (Porat, 1991). Whitaker and Lane (1990) used data on equality of opportunity in educational administration to show that gender, more than age, experience, background, or ability determines the role an individual will be assigned in education. For example, African American women who hold leadership positions in the educational system in the USA face dual challenges of sexism and racism which prevents them from being promoted and completing their term. Though gender presents a problem, race is a greater obstacle to career progress (Allen, Jacobson, and Lomotey, 1995; Singh, Robinson, and Williams-Green, 1995). In addition, due to the self-imposed and society-imposed barriers, female leaders prefer not to take leadership posts but rather want to keep a low profile (Madsen, 2010b). In a survey of head teachers in England and Wales, Coleman (2001) found that most women head teachers felt that they had to justify their position as managers and leaders both at the time of application for headship and while serving as heads. Two-thirds of the women reported experiencing some form of gender discrimination and majority said they had to provide convincing reasons why they thought they were better than a man to get the job. Another important differentiating factor between men and women in headship is the obvious impact of their jobs on family life, which is especially important for women. As discussed earlier, women face double responsibilities and have more complex roles than men because they must balance work with their childcare and other family responsibilities in a way that puts a lot of pressure on them compared with their male counterparts who have partners that take the load of domestic responsibilities off them.

However, despite the limitations associated with being a woman and the negative impact of the job on family life, female leadership in education is often considered as being more advantageous than male leadership. This is because many stakeholders – parents, women staff and girl students see women head teachers as more approachable than their male fellows and are more likely to be able to calm down any angry male student, teacher or parent. Women head teachers also felt that they could share emotion in unhappy circumstances and show compassion with families where sad events had occurred in a way that men might find more difficult (Coleman, 2003). Men, on other hand, are often criticised for their gender stereotypical preference in leading others, particularly in allocating tasks and handling important school affairs.

5.5.2. Gender and Educational Leadership in UAE

5.5.2.1. *Emirati Women in Higher Education*

Previous educational policies in the UAE focused completely on Emirati men, and providing them with greater access to higher education. At present, however, women account for nearly 70% of the overall student population in public universities in the UAE (Al-Suwaidi, 2017). An important point is that most of these female students are the first females in their families to attend higher education. Abdulla (2015) states that the increase in the number of Emirati women seeking higher education is due to the fast growth in the UAE and a focus by the leadership to increase the availability of educational options to all Emiratis. Moreover, the cost for higher education is often less or significantly funded by the government, such that tuition does not become a barrier to higher education; a factor that is often the case for less wealthy communities. Another factor that has given confidence to women toward higher education is the availability of segregated schools. This brings together the traditional values and customs that limit the level of interaction between males and females. A female staff has more positive attitude toward a female principal or administrator as she can understand their problems and issues better (Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji, 2012).

5.5.2.2. *UAE Government Policy on Education and Shortage of Male Teaching Staff*

Though sex segregation of schools and teaching staff may have benefitted the progress of women, it has also caused major problems in the UAE educational system. For example, the UAE government's hiring policies of schools recommend that only male teachers can be selected and recruited to teach in boys' schools up to secondary school

level, but no female teachers are appointed. Similarly, only female teachers can teach in the girls' secondary schools. According to Hamdan (2013), this stereotype system has limited the number of local men in the education system, as they are either not interested or do not qualify for the positions of secondary school teachers, resulting in a shortage of male school teachers in the public schools. According to the Ministry of Education, 80% of male teachers in UAE public schools are from the nearby Arab countries (Ridge, 2010). As per rules of the UAE government, no permanent residence is given these non-Emirati teachers. Foreign workers, including these teachers can only live and work in the country till the end of their contract, and they must leave the country once their term of contract is finished. This has caused a serious inconsistency in the teaching quality and style in public schools over the years (Ahmed, 2013). Additionally, the salaries of teachers in schools are not enough for these men to support their families in the UAE. Thus, men mostly prefer administrative roles in the education sector, as compared to teaching duties (Hamdan, 2013), while females are more actively participating in teaching in the UAE (Baud, and Mahgoub, 2001).

5.5.2.3. Gender Equality Concerns for Women in Education Management in the UAE

Despite the participation of Emirati women in teaching and in higher education, women are still under-represented in leadership roles in the country, even in the education sector, where they are in a greater number (Adam, 2003; Kemp et al, 2013). According to Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2012), women are not only missing from such positions as vice chancellor, but at all levels: from research-funding panels and boards of journals, to being involved in the recruitment process of other leadership roles. The situation is similar in many countries around the world. In the UK, for example, only one in five of Vice Chancellor positions are currently held by women (Jarboe, 2016). According to statistics provided by Morley (2013), the situation is worse in Hong Kong with no female vice Chancellors, and in Kuwait (2 percent), Japan (2.3 percent), India (3 percent), and Turkey (7 percent). Sweden ranks highest globally with 43 percent and vice chancellors are appointed by the state rather than by individual universities (Tickle, 2013).

There may be several factors behind the under-representation of women in leadership roles in the UAE education sector and in other fields.

UAE's male-controlled society:

Society in UAE, like most Arab countries, is highly controlled by men. While this is seen as a good sign in more traditional family settings where men play a very supportive role in their families, it does not necessarily apply to all families and tribes across the different Emirates. Men are responsible to earn money and support the family, while women are supposed to stay at home and take care of the children and household (Hills and Atkins, 2013). According to Baud, and Mahgoub (2001) women are free to go shopping and attend social events, but they are not expected to go out and work. This has been a major problem preventing women from taking additional responsibilities at work not to talk of taking leadership positions. But with recent measures taken by the UAE government in recent years, this is beginning to change as more women are increasingly being represented in higher and professional education and in the workforce in a number of sectors, though much less in educational leadership and management.

Gender discrimination:

Despite government's efforts to bring women in the business world, we see that those occupying high positions still prefer male managers and administrators. It is a common belief that men handle pressure better than women, and can also work late hours, something not to be expected from women, especially in a society like the UAE (Gallant, 2006). Thus, if more women leaders have to rise, especially in the field of education, there has to be a complete change in the belief system that not just men, but also women can reach the top. Female leaders can take up top educational leadership roles across all academic institutions, leading both boys' and girls' schools up to universities of some stereotypes are ended.

Limited women's progress:

From observation, many women, especially in the education sector, do not make efforts to increase their knowledge and skills by studying further, or working towards a doctorate degree or top professional qualifications. Thus, they seem to be limited to teaching jobs, which they may finally leave once they are married or have children. This has helped create a stereotype that women can only be good teachers, nurses, or lower administrative staff (Gallant, 2006).

Limited mentor support:

Since there are not many women occupying top positions in the education sector of the UAE, even those who desire to reach leadership roles are unable to, because they do not have role models to follow to motivate them. Females are unable to receive career

guidance or counselling from male leaders in high positions because the Arab culture does not allow women to interact with male members of the society (Adam, 2003). According to Gallant (2006), UAE women at work are only allowed to have little contact with males during work hours, while too much contact with men who are not their husbands outside the home or office will be taken as inappropriate. Similarly, men find it easy to train other men and support them to achieve higher roles in the academic institutions at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. This situation creates a strong barrier to female leadership in education as the UAE does not have adequate female-to-female and male-to-female support systems and mentorship.

Impact of religion:

In traditional Arab communities and families, the Arab culture can be confused with religion, and some believe that women are not allowed to work (Moghadam, 2003). However, this is not the case as Islamic history shows that many prominent women were great scholars, businesswomen, and were even serving in the military (Pinch, et al., 2004). In a survey carried out by the Dubai Women Establishment (2009), most of the Arab women leaders agreed that, overall, Islam is pro-women. However only 25 percent said the religious environment in their countries was favourable, when it came to taking up leadership positions, compared with 44 percent who found it to be 'unfavourable or very unfavourable'. The main reason for these differences in response is due to religious interpretation of the Islamic faith, which most people confuse with the stereotypical beliefs of the Arab culture about gender roles of women.

Lack of self-confidence:

Women are brought up in a culture and family setting where men are considered to be the heads of the family (Moghadam, 2003). It is common for the men of the family to make important decisions. Typically, the women's input is not as highly valued. This can make women lose confidence and feel incapable, both at home and in the workplace. Many women believe that they are not good at making decisions; and that men are more capable in this respect (Madsen, 2010b). This lack of self-confidence prevents women from advancing their careers or working harder to attain leadership roles (Madsen, 2010b). In the education sector, many women feel satisfied working as middle managers and assistants, deputies, heading up student experience and welfare but they are not getting to the top. Most women in the UAE, and around the world too, will not even find it meaningful to apply for top positions, even in academic institutions because they either end up being rejected or they find men taking away these posts, based on their gender, and not on their leading abilities.

Longer work hours:

In male-controlled cultures, women are expected to be at home for their husbands and children (Moghadam, 2003). In the joint family system of the Arab culture, the housewife is expected to take care of her husband's elderly parents and even grandparents in addition to taking care of the children. This explains why most Arab women cannot afford to work long hours. This is a major barrier to their career success, especially in teaching jobs that are demanding (Adam, 2003). Teachers and many workers in the education sector are expected to work flexibly, sometimes outside of normal working hours. Cultural traditions in society would not allow women to choose a demanding career and may even see it as harm to the family.

5.6. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has shown that achieving gender equality in education, workplace and in leadership positions is important. Social theories have helped us to understand the complex differences between sex and gender. Sex means the biological features that differentiate males and females, while gender implies the social and cultural features of male and female behaviour. Gender discrimination normally takes place when people, particularly males, hold gender stereotypical views of the opposite sex. Gender inequality often arises because of social stratification that exists in society, which results in males and females having unequal access to resources and opportunities. Access to education is often seen as the starting point in measuring gender equality globally. However, despite international focus on providing equal access to boys and girls in education, there are still important differences between males and females in terms of educational attainment, workplace discrimination and leadership ambitions. Gender stereotypes of women and leadership are deeply rooted and culturally learned and strengthened. As can be seen in the western research presented – despite clear policies of gender equity, signs of inequality continue – gender pay gap, lack of women in ‘top roles’ in the workplace and even in education where women are more in number. Women face barriers globally in terms of reaching the highest levels of education and in educational management and leadership.

However, the UAE has a specific context with specific gendered associations, many of which are only recently being challenged (e.g. sex segregation). While there has been a remarkable rise in overall enrolment for both males and females in the last three decades, there are growing levels of inequalities, especially the underperformance of male

Emiratis in education. Though females are taking the lead in educational enrollment and the most of them are reaching higher levels of education, the number of Emirati women in the workplace is still in short supply and women are under-represented in business leadership and top management positions, including educational leadership. Several socio-cultural and attitude barriers can account for these inequalities, especially the male-controlled nature of the UAE society, gender segregation, the impact of religion and traditional family values in the Arab culture. Even though these challenges exist, the UAE has shown real courage towards promoting gender equality as it has made significant improvements in this area over the years, proved by the significant reduction in illiteracy of women and participation of women in government and politics. However, effort towards gender equality is a continuous process, driven by a passionate force of both males and females, with strong government support across the country. This thesis comes at this time of great change in policy and practice in the UAE. Structural change is happening to reduce the existing discrimination, but culturally learned gender stereotypes and roles may change more slowly and negative attitudes to women in power, maybe even more slowly still. This thesis will provide policy suggestions towards reducing the real and perceived social barriers to women's full participation in the UAE workforce and leadership.

Chapter Six

Methodology

6.0. Introduction

The previous three chapters have focused on establishing the theoretical foundations upon which this study is based. Chapter three looked at leadership theories on a general level, while chapter four examined leadership models and styles in various educational and cultural contexts. Chapter five then introduced the concept of gender equality in education and the workplace and then specifically used gender in explaining differences in leadership styles. This chapter presents the methodological framework used in the current study, which is evaluating the effect of gender (and associated socio-cultural factors) on educational leadership styles in Abu Dhabi public schools in UAE. The Abu Dhabi Department of Education and Knowledge (ADEK) is committed to raising the bar of excellence to bring about constant improvement to educational leadership in Abu Dhabi. School leaders and staff need to be trained and given responsibility for accomplishing the mission of a successful educational system. As noted in chapter two, the main objective of education for Abu Dhabi and the United Arab Emirates is to achieve the goals of social and economic growth through improved educational standards. Thus, ADEK is working thoroughly to develop a knowledge-based economy with its new model of educational reforms. The current study reflects on educational leadership styles in Abu Dhabi public schools, to see whether there are gender effects in leadership styles used by educational leaders – namely principals, vice principals and curriculum managers, and the role of other social and cultural factors affecting educational leadership effectiveness in public schools. The selection, recruitment and promotion of leaders is also major part of this research study.

In order to answer the research questions of the current study, a number of methods were used. This chapter discusses the researcher's position in relation to the study, the philosophical approaches used in the study as well as the research design and methodology. It also explains the approaches and procedures followed in the data collection process. There were two phases involved in the research. Phase one involved a questionnaire survey using two sets of the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), one for teachers and one for principals. Phase two involved data collection using semi-structured interviews of principals, (both male and female). The techniques and protocol used in the recruitment of participants, as well as the MLQ tool, are discussed fully in this chapter. In addition, this chapter examines the methods used in evaluating

and analysing the data including statistical procedures followed. Finally, the ethical procedures and issues involved with both phases of data collection are also examined.

6.1. Research Questions

Before discussing the methodological procedures, it is important to review the purposes of the study and research questions to see how the methods used help in addressing the important issues.

The main objectives of this study are:

1. To understand the leadership styles and personality traits of school leaders and how they are developed;
2. To examine the leadership style differences between male and female leaders;
3. To know whether leadership styles change according to the given roles or positions for both genders;
4. To evaluate the effectiveness of ADEK's recruitment policies;
5. To determine the influence of gender considerations in ADEK's set standards of recruitment, appointment and promotion of the leaders to various educational roles;
6. To examine the influence of culture and tradition on gender discrimination, job performance and leadership aspiration; and
7. To examine the influence of other factors such as training and monetary rewards on educational and learning outcomes and leadership effectiveness in schools;
8. To make recommendations to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies) in Abu Dhabi public schools.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools?
2. Do these styles vary according to gender of the leader?
3. Do these styles vary according to the position held by the rater (Leader or Teacher)?
4. Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?
5. Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?
6. What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?

7. Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?
8. What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?

Two questionnaires were used in order to answer the research questions, one for the principals and one for the teachers. The idea was to understand differences in responses according to the position of the participants (i.e. whether leader or teacher). Both genders were also targeted to see if there was any evidence of gender differences. Face-to-face meetings were arranged to ensure that the results of questionnaire were valid and to gather richer personal data or experiences. During the face-to-face interview, specific leaders were targeted, and responses of the people were deeply observed. Answers of the respondents were also probed by behavioural observation.

Both questionnaires and face-to-face interviews were used to reach a better understanding of the research questions.

Table 6.1: Research questions and techniques used to address them

Research questions	Techniques used
What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools?	Questionnaire for principals, vice principals and teachers
Do these styles vary according to the gender of the leader?	Questionnaire for principals, vice principals and teachers
Do these styles vary according to the position held by the rater (Leader or Teacher)?	Questionnaire for principals, vice principals and teachers
Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?	Face-to-face interview from selected participants, on one-to-one basis
Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?	Face-to-face interview from selected participants, on one-to-one basis
What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?	Face-to-face interview from selected participants, on one-to-one basis
Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?	Face-to-face interview from selected participants, on one-to-one basis
What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?	Face-to-face interview from selected participants, on one-to-one basis

6.2. Researcher's Position in Relation to the Study

Before discussing the research methods and approaches used in this study, it is helpful to provide a brief description of my position and motivation as a researcher, stating my values and perspectives in relation to gender, nationality, family traditions and my experience in the education sector in the UAE, and how these have influenced my decision to study this topic as well as the data and choice of methods.

From my personal experience as a researcher, my motivation and decision to choose this topic on gender and educational leadership was borne out of many related reasons. First, I have worked as a teacher for 16 years in four different schools, and I observed over this period that many of our school leaders use a managerial style of leadership, because they are used to a dictatorial approach of just giving orders and ensuring that they are obeyed. This focus is only on achieving set targets, ignoring the human relations aspect of the job. Such leaders seem not to take interest in assisting and developing teachers and in their welfare. They focus more on looking for mistakes and errors made by their staff. This was worrisome to me, and I wanted to know how this could be resolved.

Second, I have a personal interest in gender issues, particularly as it relates to school and administrative leadership. I observed that there are more men than women in top administrative positions such as Director General in ADEK, Executive Directors, Heads of Department in Education Ministry, Cluster Managers, etc, despite the fact that there appear to be more educated and qualified female teachers and principals. I also did not understand how the recruitment processes of ADEK would lead to the best available people being appointed. ADEK simply focuses on educational qualifications and English language qualifications (6.5 IELTS). They do not focus on requiring educational leadership qualities and competencies beyond qualifications and experience.

A third reason for deciding to study this topic is connected to cultural tradition. I observed that many men do not want their wives to take up leadership positions, because of the workload of responsibilities that school leaders have which may distract them from focusing on their families. Also, many men do not want their wives to appear in media. All these factors, taken together, tend to prevent women from aspiring to leadership positions. In addition, I also observed from my experience that women in authority often use the same dictatorial approach, which their husbands use to control their homes to control their staff, which may not work well, as staff are not motivated to work with such leaders. In terms of gender discrimination more widely, I also observed that there were gender pay gaps and inequalities. For example, men at the same grade level with women

in government receive housing allowance, whereas married women often do not receive any because of the patriarchal attitude of the UAE society, which promotes men as heads of the household and financially responsible for the family. But this unfair treatment of workers amounts to gender discrimination at the institutional level. Although the UAE is now a modern globalised country, there are still culturally induced stereotypical views held by men regarding women. For example, men typically discourage women working outside the home in non-traditional jobs and seem to be reluctant to abandon their traditional viewpoint of women primarily committed to the house and children.

As a woman, because of these beliefs and stereotypes, my associations growing up from childhood until now have been only with women, including my schooling, and my work as a teacher. The society in which I live forbids women from mixing with men, and this is a problem of society, affecting women's confidence and preventing social inclusion. While many have attributed these stereotypes to religion, it is a misconception, as it is more of a patriarchal attitude towards women, not in any way connected to religion. In fact, the Islamic religion actually supports women making progress, but the Arabic culture of male dominance has, over the years, influenced people's perceptions and attitudes towards women.

Thus, I thought it was interesting to examine first the perceived challenges women face at work and when seeking higher leadership positions. I wanted to investigate the differences in leadership styles between men and women, to provide some information about how both teachers and principals perceive leadership effectiveness, and what ADEK could do to improve effective leadership and gender equality in educational leadership, to improve conditions for women like myself- my peers and colleagues, and the generations of women who will come after. Driven by this passion, I decided to approach the study from a pragmatic approach (which combines scientific and interpretative methods to analysing social events) but decided to allow the choice of data collection and analytical approaches to be decided by best practice techniques of research in order not to bias the answers to the research questions, leading to mixed methodology. Thus, whilst my past experience and knowledge as a teacher was useful, it was also essential not to make assumptions, but rather to use thorough approaches to research this topic from a top-down theoretically driven approach, as well as a bottom-up data driven approach. In this regard, I considered that to minimise the incidence of subjectivity in research associated with human experience, it was necessary to use mixed methods approaches, and combine qualitative and quantitative methods, to enhance the validity of findings, and reduce researcher bias.

6.3. Philosophical Paradigms

Philosophical paradigms are models or conceptual frameworks that provide underlying views of world problems or social facts (Silverman, 2013). Two main philosophical paradigms that are of interest in this study are *positivism* and *interpretivism*. Positivism is an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond. (Bryman, 2008). In other words, positivism emphasises the use of empirical data and scientific methods in evaluating real world problems (Jakobsen, 2013). The positivist approach performs social exploration by observation and experiment (Cohen et al 2011). Advocates of positivism stress that knowledge about the world or social phenomena should be acquired through direct observation (induction) rather than deduced from abstract propositions. Positivism, as a model of research, treats ‘social facts’ as existing independently of the activities of both participants and researchers (Silverman, 2013). For positivists, the aim is to generate data which are valid and reliable, independently of the research setting. Thus, evidence based on direct observation and collected in objective and unbiased way are key tenets of positivism (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

Interpretivism, on the other hand, interpretivism is an epistemological position that requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action. (Bryman, 2008). It is an approach that helps the researcher to interpret social experiences that cover broad human interests (Myers, 2008). Unlike positivism, advocates of interpretivism argue that there are other ways of knowing about the world other than direct observation and that knowledge transcends beyond basic empirical enquiry. They therefore believe that there should be human interpretations of what our senses tell us. They assert that ‘perceptions’ and ‘understanding’ can shape the way we think and interpret particular events or experiences. (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003:6-7). Thus, in interpretive research, researchers focus on understanding the feelings and perceptions of the participants under study (Lodico, et al, 2006). For example, most studies on gender have been seen as belonging to an interpretive framework (Silverman, 2013). This is perhaps because different people have their own interpretations of gender roles, which can mean multiple things in different contexts.

Given that this study uses a mixed methods approach² (combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches) in understanding the social concepts of gender and leadership styles in public schools, it is consistent with a *pragmatic paradigm*, which further leads

² See section 6.4 for details on the mixed methods approach.

to both positivist and interpretivist interpretations of the research questions (Cohen, 2011). For example, quantitative methods provide objectivity to the research study, which is a positivist approach, while qualitative methods provide subjectivity to issues, consistent with an interpretivist perspective. In this study about perceptions of leadership styles by gender, the researcher employed a positivist approach by using a questionnaire to obtain standardised responses, which helped standardised data collection on leadership styles used by educational leaders. The philosophical side of the questionnaire was covered by face-to-face meet up with a few selected or available, which learnt insight of the views personally expressed.

6.4. Research Design

Research designs are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research study (Denzin and Lincoln 2011; Creswell, 2012). As noted earlier, the **mixed methods approach** is the research design used for this study. Mixed methods design is a procedure that associates qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection and analysis in a single study or series of studies, to understand a research problem (Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). As argued by Bryman (1988), the ‘best of both worlds’ can be achieved if both qualitative and quantitative approaches are combined together. Mixed methods design is used when the researcher seeks to build on the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data, such as scores from surveys, provide numeric data that can be statistically analysed and produce results to assess the frequency and magnitude of trends (Creswell, 2012). In other words, quantitative data can provide useful information if one needs to describe trends about a large number of people. On the other hand, qualitative data, such as open-ended interviews, provide actual words of people in the study, offering many different perspectives on the research topic and providing a complex picture of the situation (Creswell, 2012). Qualitative researchers select their participants based on their characteristics and knowledge as they relate to the research questions being investigated (Lodico, 2006). While quantitative data, such as those obtained from surveys, help in getting standardised opinions, qualitative data from interviews can help to gather in-depth thoughts, feelings and expressions and help the interviewer to make more observations. Thus, both quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined to give different levels of understanding (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

Greene and Caracelli (1997) suggested that numerous paradigms might be used in mixed methods studies, and that each paradigm adds to new insights. Mixed methods approach provides some pragmatic advantages when exploring complex research questions (Driscoll et al, 2007). It offers a better understanding of the research problem by merging both numeric data from quantitative research and details from qualitative research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell, 2003). However, it has been recognised that every method has some limitations and researchers observed that biases in one method might hide biases of other methods. For such reasons, some researchers have debated whether mixed methods study is possible (Cherryholmes, 2006). A major disadvantage of mixed methods is the time it takes to design and conduct separate tailored instruments to understand a single research problem (Driscoll, 2007). Ethical issues are also frequently experienced in mixed methods research since they combine qualitative and quantitative methods.

Ethical issues relate to:

“...obtaining permissions, protecting anonymity of respondents...communicating the purposes for the study, avoiding deceptive practices, respecting vulnerable populations, being aware of potential power issues in data collection, respecting indigenous cultures, not disclosing sensitive information, and masking the identity of participants”, (Creswell, 2012:553).

In addition, it is difficult to achieve similar sample sizes in a mixed method approach as most times, sample sizes used for quantitative surveys are larger than those used for qualitative interviews (Creswell, 2012), thus introducing some inconsistencies in generalising the responses from both instruments.

Regardless of the limitations of the mixed methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative instruments provides a ‘powerful mix’ which helps in analysing complex research problems (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 42). Thus, the mixed methods approach best supports the descriptive research design and interpretivist philosophy that has been selected for this research study.

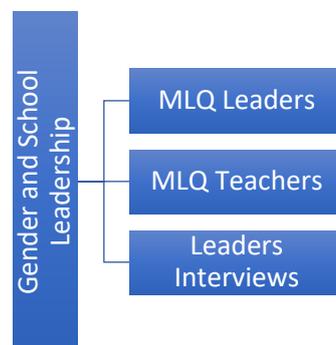
The mixed-method research approach was used in the two main phases of data collection for this study:

1) structured questionnaire (MLQ tool) was used to obtain responses on leadership styles from leaders and teachers (i.e. quantitative method of data collection)

2) semi-structured interviews were also conducted with selected leaders explore the key issues in greater depth (i.e. qualitative method of data collection).

These methods were selected to address the research questions listed in section 6.1 and to gain insights into the topic of gendered leadership in Abu Dhabi public schools, including insights on leadership styles adopted. The Multi factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) ranks participants based on the extent to which they use different leadership styles - transformational, transactional or laissez-faire and this will be discussed later in section 6.5. To obtain further information, the researcher used semi-structured interviews which included some educational leaders across several positions in Abu Dhabi schools. Thus, the mixed method approach helped in obtaining both standardised responses and in gaining in-depth knowledge of the differences in leadership styles between male and female principals, and the various factors that influence these differences. The questionnaires and subsequent interviews were used to understand the leader's and teacher's gendered leadership styles (see fig 6.1).

Fig 6.1: Components of data collection



The mixed methods approach was not only used in data collection, it was also used in the data analysis segment as data collected was both statistically and qualitatively analysed in themes (see section 6.8. for details on the methods used for data analysis). Each phase of research will now be addressed in turn, the first method of data collection being questionnaire and the second method, interviews.

6.5. Phase 1: Data Collection Using Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a broadly utilised and helpful instrument for gathering and organising data and providing numerical data without the need for the researcher to be present (Wilson and McLean, 1994). Thus, the questionnaire is a mainstream and key

exploration instrument (Middlewood, Coleman and Lumby, 2001). Amid the procedure of information accumulation, constrained by time and expense, the organisation of surveys is the most ideal approach to study a large sample size (Gray, 2013). The procedure helps measuring the validity, while reliability deals with measurements of the test results (Boswell and Cannon, 2007). Validity and reliability are inseparable. When the data measurement tools are having less reliability, then validity must be affected (Burns and Grove 2011). Thus, information collected through valid data and reliable survey could be useful in addressing the research questions.

6.5.1. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Tool

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is an instrument used in evaluating the leadership styles utilised by leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1995). Bass and Avolio (1997) proposed three leadership styles that can be employed: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire, and the MLQ seeks to measure the extent to which leaders exhibit these three styles. A detailed discussion of transformational and transactional leadership was presented earlier in chapter three. However, a quick review of these three models is helpful:

Transformational leadership is a process whereby individuals engage with others and create a connection that raises the level of motivation and encouragement in both the leaders and followers (Burns, 1978). This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their maximum potential (Northouse, 2015). In transformational leadership, the relationship between the leader and the follower is based on mutual needs, aspirations, and value. The leader has to look for potential motives, seek to satisfy higher needs and engage the full person of the follower.

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, involves a leader-subordinate exchange, where the subordinate receives some type of reward in return for compliance with the leader's expectations or punishment for non-compliance. This type of leadership involves a leader clarifying expectations and developing goals and objectives. Here, the leader communicates the organisational tasks and activities with the cooperation of employees to ensure that goals are met.

Laissez-faire leadership is a “hands-off” approach to leadership (Northouse, 2015). The leader will allow the group to take action and make decisions and will only intervene if problems arise and are brought to their attention. Leaders offer no feedback or support

to the follower and assume that followers are self-motivated to independently complete tasks. The laissez-faire leader does not provide direction or guidance (Jones and Rudd, 2008).

The purpose of this study is to find out the degree to which educational leaders in Abu Dhabi schools use transformational vs transactional leadership style and whether their gender affect their leadership style. Transformational leadership has proven to be a very effective leadership style which could greatly benefit schools in Abu Dhabi today, as success of students could be dependent on the effectiveness of the leadership demonstrated in school. The decision to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was based on how this study would classify the principals' leadership style and it was discovered that many scholars have used MLQ for their studies to determine the leadership style of administrators and managers (e.g. Antonakis et al, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass et al, 2003, Judge and Piccolo 2004). The MLQ was chosen because of extensive use in leadership research, as it had been used in nearly 200 research studies, doctoral dissertations, and master's theses around the globe (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999). Many prominent leadership researchers feel that transformational leadership is most common to the continued success of organisations because, of its team cohesion, commitment, and increased levels of job performance and satisfaction (Avolio, Bass and Jung, 1999).

The MLQ is a tool used for evaluating the extent to which leaders use transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. The MLQ identifies the characteristics of a transformational leader and shows individuals how their leadership is perceived by their colleagues and themselves, by providing an in-depth summary of how often leaders are perceived to display behaviours along with a range of leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Rowold, 2005). MLQ can give assessment, feedback and development help for individuals and organisations (Avolio and Bass 2004). The instrument has been interpreted into many languages and successfully used by both practitioners and researchers throughout the globe.

There are forty-five items in the MLQ tool, showing nine leadership factors and three leadership outcomes:

In five items of MLQ, there are some common characteristics of transformational leadership: idealised influence (attributed); idealised influence (behaviour); intellectual stimulation; inspirational motivation; consideration of an individual;

Two characteristics of transactional leadership are contingent reward and exceptionally active management; Non-leadership scales are counted on two, such as exceptionally passive management and Laissez-Faire;

Three leadership outcomes are exceptional effort; efficiency and leadership satisfaction. The 45-item MLQ questionnaire (see appendix V and VI) was used in this study to measure the leadership style of educational leaders in Abu Dhabi schools. The MLQ was developed with likert scale responses: 4= frequently, if not always; 3= fairly often; 2= Sometimes; 1= Once in a while; 0= Not at all. The MLQ was developed by Bass to determine if a leader uses transformational or transactional style of leadership. The MLQ results were based on responses to questions that fall under specific subscales: (a) Transformational leadership; (b) Transactional leadership, and (c) Laissez-faire leadership. The questionnaire indicates which subscales a leader fell into by examining the five characteristics under the subscale of transformational and three characteristics under the subscale titled transactional. Bass added the other leadership subscales with two characteristics along with an outcome of leadership subscale with three characteristics. The MLQ was used as a measurement that examines a variety of leadership styles from passive leaders to leaders that give contingent rewards (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

It is important to quickly review the characteristics of the elements under each style of leadership.

Transformational leadership is based on the following core characteristics, which are measured by the MLQ tool:

Inspirational motivation - This is the degree to which the leader articulates a goal that inspires followers. A shared vision and optimistic ambition motivate followers by instilling in them a strong sense of purpose and confidence (Bass and Riggio 2006). Purpose and confidence provide the force to drive groups forward. The leader is a good and powerful communicator, engaging and inspiring followers.

Idealised influence - Idealised Influence refers to the attribution of captivation to the leader (Bass and Riggio 2006). As noted in chapter 3, transformational leaders are charismatic leaders, possessing great power and influence (Bass, 1990). They attract the confidence, trust and admiration of their followers. They seek to influence their followers

to achieve more by inspiring them and acting as a role model. In the MLQ tool, idealised influence is represented by two factors:

Idealised influence (attributed): This refers to the attributed charisma of the leader, i.e., whether the leader is perceived as being confident and influential and whether the leader is seen as focusing on high-level ideals and ethics (Antonakis et al, 2003)

Idealised influence (behaviour): This refers to charismatic actions of the leader that are focused on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis et al, 2003).

Intellectual stimulation – This the degree to which the leader challenges followers' assumptions and takes risks (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders stimulate innovation and motivate followers to think independently and creatively. They value unexpected situations and chances for growth and learning. Followers think deeply and analysis the best approach to a task. This means that transformational leaders encourage independent and creative thinking and approaching task in a practical and efficient way. Individualised consideration- This the extent to which the leader attends and listens to the needs of each follower and acts as a mentor. The transformational leader is empathetic and supports and celebrates each follower. They patient listeners and motivate followers through guiding and mentoring. Transformational leaders value each follower and their input as beneficial for the whole team (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Transactional leadership is represented by two factors in the MLQ tool: contingent reward and active management-by-exception.

(1) Contingent reward: As reviewed in chapter three, contingent reward is the reward (or punishment) that a leader gives to his followers for performance-related outcomes (Avolio, et al., 1999). Here, the leader's behaviour is focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with material or psychological rewards conditional on the performance of contractual obligations (Antonikas, et al, 2003).

(2) Active management-by-exception: The transformational leader is actively vigilant to ensure that goals and standards are met (Antonikas, et al, 2003). He/she closely monitors followers and take corrective action in any form if there are any deviations from the task.

(3) The passive-avoidant leadership scale (developed by Avolio et al, 1999) measures two factors of behaviour: passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire, which represented the non-leadership factor. Passive-avoidant leadership tends to react only

after problems have become serious to take corrective action, and often avoids making any decisions at all (Avolio et al, 1999).

Leadership Outcomes

The MLQ tool also measured the outcomes of leaders and the factors that involved extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. The MLQ was chosen to measure the leadership style of principals to determine if leadership style played a role in the success of their schools, that is in terms of educational outcomes and student performance.

6.5.2. Sampling Technique and Recruitment of Participants

In order to answer the research questions, the study made use of **purposeful (convenience) sampling** technique. The reason for choosing this technique is because it is one of the most often used techniques in quantitative research (Lodico, 2006). According to Patton (1990:169), “the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research”. In other words, purposeful sampling is a procedure where the researcher identifies **key informants**: persons who have some precise knowledge about the topic being investigated. The current study is aimed at investigating gender and leadership styles of educational leaders in Abu Dhabi schools. Thus, to get an insider’s perspective, it was only appropriate to select a group of participants who had specific knowledge about the leadership styles exhibited by school leaders, which in this case are teachers (who can provide insightful views or perception of their principals/leaders and rate them) and the leaders themselves (principals and vice principals) who know the style or traits they exhibit. The sampling technique is purposeful sampling, because a purposeful sample was first determined based on key informants, followed by a convenient sample of respondents who were willing to participate online.

A total of 600 qualified school principals, vice principals, senior personnel and teachers from various schools in Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain and Western district were recruited online to participate in the study. The respondents recruited were required to have experience of three years or more at their designated school. The survey also included respondents from both UAE nationals and non-UAE nationals. For this study, respondents were asked to complete survey instruments that would measure their leadership styles. Principals in this study were from urban and rural areas across UAE. The sample was further divided into two groups to separate educational leaders from teachers. Thus, the first category consisted of 300 educational leaders namely principals, vice principals, curriculum

managers and admin managers (including 151 males and 149 females), while the other category consisted of 300 school teachers (including 152 males and 148 females). Since the study was on gender and leadership styles, it was important to have a balanced number of gender representation in order to allow for meaningful comparison of results without bias towards any gender. The analysis of the data collected was used to determine the dominant leadership style exhibited by leaders and if the gender of the leader and position of the rater have a significant impact on principals' leadership styles.

6.5.3 Pilot Study

Pilot study is commonly conducted for detecting and solving problems in a research instrument. For obtaining the required results out of the research, a pilot study helps in ensuring the smooth running of the research process (Burns and Grove 2011). The purpose is to refine data collection and modify questions (where appropriate) after seeking participants' opinion on the subject matter. Pilot study was conducted for this research work, after a week of questionnaire distribution. The purpose was to get feedback about the quality of the designed questionnaire and to get clarity on the data collection process. There were some challenges for the participants. So, to help them in providing clear response on the questionnaire, a face-to-face meeting took place for the participants in one of the schools. The principal was given an explanation about the questionnaire. For her feedback on the clarity, one question was found doubtful while teachers needed more clarity in terms of language context. Some content was modified and a time for data collection was set with the participants of the questionnaire. There was a deep concern about confidentiality for some, as well as lack of interest by others. The questionnaire was further divided into two separate versions: one for leaders and the other for teachers as agreed by the participants. It was also agreed that the questionnaire should be distributed online, so that all those who are willing can take part from wherever is convenient.

6.5.4. Questionnaire Distribution and Procedure

The questionnaires were published and distributed online via email for the participation of all public schools in Abu Dhabi, Al-Ain and Western Regions, including KG to Grade 12 (cycle 1-3). Responses were then received from 213 public schools. As noted earlier, the questionnaire was administered to two different segments of the study population; one set of questionnaires were given to 300 leaders and another set were given to 300 teachers, of both male and female gender. The idea was to get the views of both the principals (leaders) and the teachers (followers). As initial response rates were low, a

second round of data collection was necessary to achieve the desired response rate. The data was collected from various schools in Abu Dhabi, Al Ain and Western Regions of UAE. Among the 300 leaders, 17% were Principals (N=52), 16.66% were Vice Principals (N=50), 31% of the survey was were Admin Managers (N=94) and 35% were Curriculum Managers (N=104). Among curriculum managers, 47% were teachers (N=45). In addition, 51% were male and 49% were female.

In terms of distribution procedure, the researcher sent an email using the list of online contacts for all public schools to reach the leaders. The covered areas were Abu Dhabi, Al Ain and Western Regions for ADEK approved schools. The email included the following:

1. Background of the researcher and purpose of the research
2. Link to the online questionnaire
3. Nominated people for completing the questionnaire (principal and vice- principal; teachers)
4. Plain language statement explaining the research (see Appendix I and II)
5. Purpose of including the participants
6. Consent for all the participants for volunteering their opinion (see Appendix III and IV)
7. ADEK approval for questionnaire distribution (see Appendix VII)

The questionnaire was typed in Arabic, the national language of UAE, for the benefit of the participants. No names or other private information were included in the study. Each participant remained anonymous. Each questionnaire contained the multiple factors measured in the MLQ instrument discussed earlier, and the results are explained in subsequent chapters.

6.6. Phase 2: Data Collection Using Qualitative Interviews

6.6.1 Qualitative Interview Technique

Qualitative research is a method of collecting, analysing and interpreting data in narrative form. Data is analysed in narrative form to gain insight into a specific area of research interest (Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2006). Qualitative interview is a good way to obtain data in narrative form. A qualitative interview is a method of data collection or exploration in which direct interaction between the researcher and the participant involves oral questions to the interviewer and oral responses (Martella et al, 2013). It is a procedure in which the interviewer poses different questions to the respondent (interviewee) and both of them trade their individual data (Ruane, 2005). Interviews are

the most prevalent and fundamental examination instrument (Middlewood, Coleman and Lumby, 2001). According to Patton (1990:278), “the purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind”. Interviewing is an alternative to observations and a well-suited method of data collection. The advantage of interviewing over observing is that it is almost unrealistic to observe everything that someone else is doing, whereas, interviewing (especially open-ended interviews) can be used to obtain details about the research problem from the interviewee. However, the effectiveness of interview is dependent on the quality of information obtained by the interviewer. This is why interviewers need to be trained to acquire the skills needed to access information from the interviewee in a way that allows the interviewer to understand the interviewee’s world (Martella et al, 2013).

According to Wilson (2014), there are many types of interviews which researchers can follow, ranging from structured to unstructured and semi-structured. Structured interview involves verbal interaction that is limited to the fixed set of questions. Unstructured interview is conducted while observational data is in hand and the interviewer takes participants on a guided conversation. Semi-structured or conversational interviews are aimed at encouraging participants to speak personally and at length about issues of interest (Silverman, 2013). This study followed the **semi-structured interview**. The semi structured type is the most common type of interviewing technique used in qualitative data collection (Dicicco-Bloom and Crabtree, 2006). Data gathered using conversational interviews includes information about behaviours, routines, needs, desires, and a range of other information that are necessary in answering the research question (Madrigal and McClain, 2012).

In exploratory research, interviews may also take different forms, such as face-to-face interviews with individuals, face-to-face group interchanges and telephone interviews (Sapsford and Jupp, 2006). Taking into account the complex nature of investigating gender and leadership styles in the current study, **face-to-face interviews** were combined with questionnaires surveys to get a better understanding and in-depth information on key issues. The main focus of the interviews conducted in this study was to bring useful and substantial information for improving leadership participation and quality standards in public schools. Along with that, the interview aimed to identify certain obstacles and hindrances which might come across in the way of improvement and change process in the Abu Dhabi’s education context. After data was gathered, it was analysed inductively by organising and categorising the information into different patterns, which further produced a narrative and descriptive synthesis. The idea was to look for similarities or

differences across the research population samples and try to identify trends (more discussion on descriptive analysis and thematic analysis, which were the methods used in analysing interviews can be found in section 6.8.3).

6.6.2 Recruitment of Interview Participants in this Study

The interviews were conducted in 12 public schools in Abu Dhabi, rather than reaching all the schools in the whole region. This was not done to limit the scope of the research study, but the idea was to reach only the number of schools that will be convenient in doing face-to-face interviews. Thus, **purposive convenience sampling** was used for the interviews. Lodico (2006) noted that convenience sampling is often used when the researcher is faced with time or resource constraints or limited purpose (or all of these). The disadvantage of convenience sampling, however, is that it severely limits a study's generalizability of the results back to the entire population from which the sample was drawn (Lodico, 2006). A total of 12 principals participated in the interviews, including six males and six females. Eleven of the schools were single sex schools, while only one was a mixed school headed by a female principal. The reason for this is due to time and resource constraints and as a matter of convenience as there are more single sex schools within reach than mixed schools that are fewer in number. For the purpose of developing a better understanding about the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the research components, experienced and well-qualified principals were involved in the process of interview session. Thus, each participant had to have been a school principal for more than three years. It was estimated that the selected population of principals would be sufficient to provide a diverse and result-oriented data regarding the best strategies and means to be applied in the near future.

All the interviews with principals were conducted face to face in a different public-sector school in Abu Dhabi, where notes on their acquired responses were generally documented for transcription and analysis afterward. The time duration for each interview was around 45 to 60 minutes. Notes were taken by the researcher, as recording was not allowed for any of the meetings. However, participants were asked to talk in a slow pace slow during the sessions and sometimes they were asked to take a break so that every single important point could be noted. Participants' eagerness and interest to answer were also observed. Although, lack of interest was also found for any unexpected questions, especially regarding nature of job or appropriate training.

6.6.3. Development of Measures and Interview Protocol

After defining the research problem and determining the number of interviews you need, the next step is to develop an interview protocol (Silverman, 2013). The construction of an interview protocol is an important component of conducting a good interview. An interview protocol should include a brief script for explaining the purpose of the study to the interviewee, places to record the date and background information on the interviewee, and the preliminary questions to be used in the interview (Lodico et al, 2006). In the current study, an email was sent to each participant arranging the date and time of each interview. The email, which was forwarded to participants (principals) included the following:

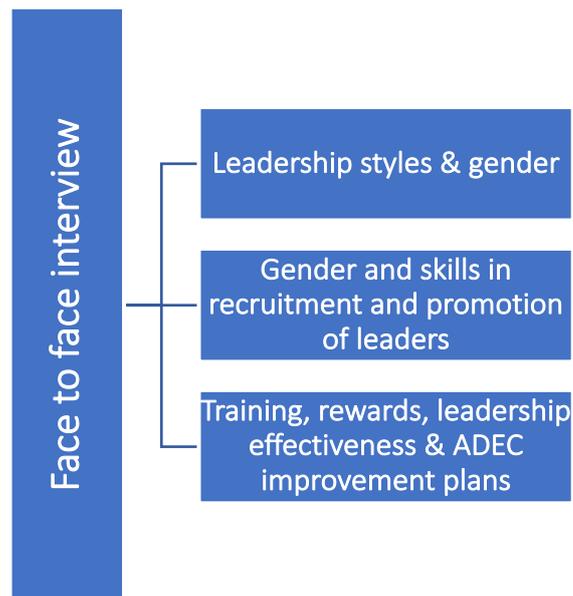
1. Background of the researcher and purpose of the study
2. Plain language statement explaining the research (see Appendix I and II)
3. Purpose of including the participants
4. Consent for all the participants for volunteering their opinion (see Appendix III and IV)
5. ADEK approval (see Appendix VII)
6. Interview questions (see below)

The interview protocol used explained the purpose of the research and the importance of the principals' participation. The purpose of sending the questions in advance was to make participants aware, expecting them to be ready with some valid points of their own. However, the disadvantage of doing this is that participants may already be biased towards a particular opinion as they may have spent some time to think through their responses. Each interview script was given to the specific people individually, so that confidentiality was held for each participant in the study. Each of the school's information was also unknown to any of the participants.

The semi-structured interviews were based on a core set of issues and the questions were on the broad themes presented below and in figure 6.2:

- 1) Leadership styles and gender used by principals
- 2) Gender and skills in principal recruitment and promotions
- 3) Training, rewards, leadership styles/effectiveness and ADEK improvement plans

Fig 6.2: Interview components



A set of 13 interview questions were created as shown below:

- 1) How does a leader affect the staff by his/her leadership style?
- 2) Have you fulfilled all your aims workwise?
- 3) Are you looking for a higher leadership position than a Principal?
- 4) Does your performance change according to the gender of your boss?
- 5) What would stop you from looking for a higher role?
- 6) In your opinion what are the main traits the leader should have?
- 7) What was the reason that you were appointed as a leader?
- 8) Do you think, current policies in ADEK focus on the required skills in leaders regardless of their gender?
- 9) Do you think gender is the most important factor to consider when recruiting leaders?
- 10) In your opinion, what should ADEK do to emphasize women involvement in leadership roles?
- 11) Do you think monetary benefits impact leadership style (promotions, incentives or bonuses)? If yes, why?
- 12) What kind of improvements have you seen in your school when leaders were awarded with promotions?
- 13) Does the school environment and students' participation as well as their response improve if these benefits are provided to their leaders?

The interview was conducted in Arabic language however it was translated in English, later on. Both translation methods were used to develop the questions for the

questionnaire. The theme of the questions and the points to inquire on was based on the prior practical knowledge of the researcher for about 16 years. Additionally, the researcher's previous colleagues helped develop a clear and sheer sense of interview items.

There were many factors considered during the interviews and data-collection. Some of the key factors are given underneath:

- a. The information from the interview was entered manually into a journal.
- b. The recording of the interview was not possible due to various reasons such as council's concerns (ADEK), rules and regulations of the schools.
- c. Some participants showed unexpected levels of privacy, since they didn't want their personal beliefs and opinions to be made public or to potentially harm someone else.
- d. The reliability of the data collected was also of concern since the respondents may subscribe to different schools of thought which may bias their viewpoints. A related issue is that of internal consistency of viewpoints with actual practices of the participants. This problem was partly addressed by the clear reasoning and explanations of the study's purpose and partly by obtaining the opinions of both teachers and principals using a separate instrument, the MLQ tool in order to balance any lopsided opinions.

6.7. Research Ethics

Research ethics is a field of investigation that points out various ethical encounters with the help of a number of different guidelines, which protect any and safeguard the human rights of subjects in research (Cassell and Young, 2002). Research is considered to be a process that is prepared under various ranges of guidelines, protocols, methods and legislations (Gerrish and Lacey, 2010). Research ethics indicate that no harm should come to research participants (Cormack, 2000). With this in mind, the current research was carried out to observe all research ethics, from obtaining permissions/licenses to assuring participants of their right to confidentiality and privacy. The ethical approvals process will now be described below.

6.7.1. Permissions and Licenses Obtained

At the start of the field trip, the researcher obtained ethical approval to conduct the research from the College of Social Sciences ethics committee after a thorough vetting process. As part of the ethics approval process, the researcher was made to prepare a

participant information sheet, also known as plain language statement (PLS), and a consent form for each group of participants (i.e. principals/vice principals and teachers). The PLS detailed the purpose of the study, the potential benefits and risks of participating in the study and how the data and findings of the study will be used. The consent form stated the rights of participants to participate voluntarily and withdraw their consent or discontinue participation at any time, without giving reason. The researcher also agreed to abide by ethical data collection, processing and storage principles. Permission was also obtained from the Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEK) (see Appendix VII for the ADEK approval letter). The researcher contacted ADEK's research department and gave brief information about the study and attached the sample questionnaire, interview and the ethical approval already obtained to do the study. After about two weeks, the researcher received a letter conveying approval to approach the school principals to conduct the study. Prior to this time, the researcher contacted Mind Garden on their website to obtain a license for the MLQ tool. The researcher paid the license fees and approval was granted for the researcher to distribute up to 800 copies, though the researcher eventually used 600 copies. During the data collection process, the researcher took advantage of her 16 years' experience as a teacher in the UAE and relationships with teacher colleagues and close friends to facilitate the distribution of the questionnaires and follow up of respondents, and this yielded positive results.

6.7.2. Participant's Right to Confidentiality and Privacy

The clause of participants' confidentiality was highly considered by the researcher. With the help of following essential protocols, it was necessary to make all the research participants comfortable with the entire research process. Therefore, the researcher recognised that the interviewee may feel uncomfortable during the interviews, and informed participants that if they feel stressed any time during the interview sessions, the interview may be continued another time. Each interview was conducted in Arabic for the benefit of the participants and for the sake of accurate study. In order to gain the richest responses from participants, the researcher used the native language in Abu Dhabi to interview principals who serve in the public-sector schools in Abu Dhabi. From distribution of the instruments to the collection, the whole process was packed up with mounting ethical issues, like privacy of the data and not sharing responses with anyone besides the interviewer. Most of the respondents were opposed to the idea of recording the interview, so the researcher advised that it was ethically permissible to decline request for interview to be recorded. In order to lessen the impact of no recording, the researcher made interview and observational notes, although this slowed down the pace of the interview.

Each participant was given the right to withdraw from participating in the questionnaire at any time. Regarding confidentiality, to protect participant's privacy all information collected was not used for any other purpose other than the study. No names or other private information were included in the study. The researcher protected the participants' privacy such that they would not be contacted after the questionnaire. All personal information about the participants were collected using an information sheet by the researcher. The consent from the participants to participate in the interview and survey was taken in advance, which was free of compulsion. This suggests that the participant's participation was open at every stage of the interview and that they were allowed to withdraw from the study at any time.

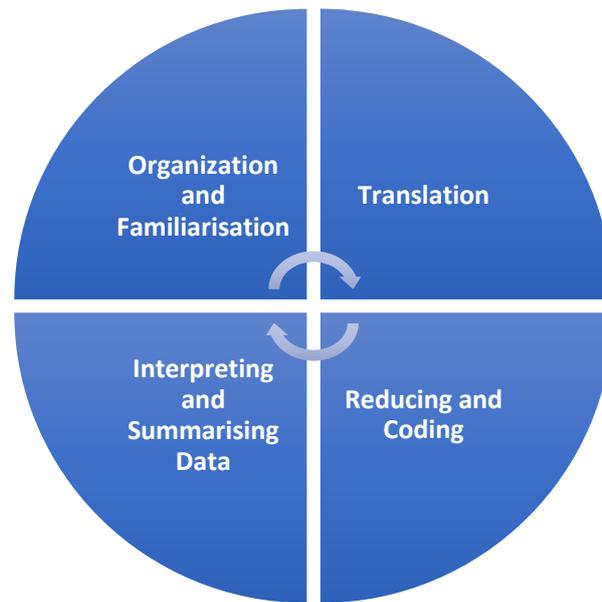
6.8. Data Coding, Evaluation and Analysis

After data collection, the whole information needed to be put into a structure that would be easier for analysis (Lichtman, 2009). This required transcribing of the interviews and organising the questionnaire data and the observational sheets. In the first stage, a cross-case analysis was done leading to generalisation. Then, to understand the data in more depth, the researcher worked on different procedures and stages, as described below.

6.8.1 Stages in Data Analysis

The researcher followed several stages in analysing the quantitative and qualitative data collected in the study. According to Ary et al (2010), the approaches to carrying out qualitative data analysis in diverse texts slightly vary, but they can be well described in four stages: familiarising and organising, translation, reducing and coding and representing and interpreting (see figure 6.3). Each is discussed below:

Figure 6.3: Stages Observed in Analysing the Data



Source: Ary et al. (2010)

1. Organisation and Familiarisation

The first stage of data analysis starts with a researcher's own familiarity with the data. This familiarisation process must be interactive and prior knowledge of the researcher can be of great value here. However, initial analytic interests and thoughts are quite important. The first step in this stage will be for the researcher to read the data repeatedly. Next, the researcher needs to develop a deep and clear understanding of the entire data once the process of coding starts. Researcher's ideas, identification of possible patterns and thorough study is important in this stage of analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

2. Translation

As the interview transcripts were originally in Arabic, all quotations and notes were translated into English from Arabic. While translating the Arabic text in English, special care of maintaining the sense of quotations and notes were taken into consideration. Translation was done primarily using **Google Translate** and then the English text was also subjected to further proof reading and editing to provide meaningful interpretation of the original ideas expressed by the interviewees. The researcher also consulted fellow research students who could read and write fluently in both Arabic and English to verify that the translated texts fully reflected the opinions and words of the respondents.

3. Reducing and Coding

Once a researcher familiarises his or herself with the basis to extend understanding of the data collected, the next step is the preparation of production of initial coding for the data analysis. The process of familiarising the data included the list of interests for data analysis, which assists for code identification, featuring semantic (stated directly) content or latent (implied). This stage deals with basic segments, elements of raw data information for the assessment in a meaningful way (Boyatzis, 1998: 63). The coding process is part of data analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994), so that data can be organised while having a meaningful grouping (Tuckett, 2005). In this stage of the data analysis, the raw data was used to identify the main categories, themes and concepts. Subsequently, this data was reduced into different broad themes and categories that were further discussed and analysed later in the subsequent chapters. For this study, a total of 104 codes were obtained from analysing the interview script, and these were reduced to 5 themes and 18 sub-themes, which will be discussed in chapter 8.

6.8.2. Evaluating and Analysing Quantitative Data

Quantitative research method is the collection of numeric data from a particular sample (Singh, 2007). It uses numerical information such as mean and median to explain the variables (Bieger and Gerlach, 1996). A quantitative comparative and descriptive research design was selected as the most appropriate method for the comparisons of leadership styles between men and women in the present study. The descriptive model in this study investigated how test scores were affected and determined whether the scores increased or reduced based on position of the rater and gender of the one being rated. The differences were then used to investigate how the gender of a principal affects student performance. Quantitative data collected was evaluated for reliability and validity before being analysed statistically. The empirical data was analysed with SPSS for windows, which is possibly the most widely used computer software for the analysis of quantitative data.

Reliability and Validity

Reliability is concerned with the question of whether or not a result is stable (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The abstract concept helps measuring the validity while reliability deals with measurements of the test results (Boswell and Cannon, 2007). The idea of reliability is important for measuring. Our method is carefully explained throughout this research. The sample selection is based upon non-probability. The people are selected because of their positions of authority and responsibility in this area. The respondents are free to

answer the questionnaire without undue stress which would have negative effects upon the reliability of this study. This study is possible to reproduce with consistent results.

The data which was collected from qualitative method respondents, was used to improve the reliability of questionnaire, later Cronbach' alpha tested the reliability. One of the commonly used measures of internal consistency and reliability is Cronbach's Alpha. "The Cronbach's Alpha provides a coefficient of inter-item correlations that is the correlation of each item with the sum of all the other items" (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007:506). Cronbach' alpha quantified this reliability by proposing a coefficient which theoretically ranges from 0 to 1. If alpha (α) is near 0 then the quantified answers are no reliable, and if alpha (α) is close to 1 the answers are very reliable. (Cronbach 1951). The table provides the range of alpha values and its interpretation.

Table 6.2: Alpha values

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

For reliability testing of the data, pilot testing is considered very important phase because it is helpful for researchers to modify things if needed before considering full scale adoption (Cohen, 2007). In addition to this, this test helps in specification of important fields which need more attention (Schwarz and Sudman 1995). Table 6.3 below shows value of Cronbach's alpha as 0.71 for 45 items and this value is considered reliable. All the scale values are greater than 0.6 and it is accepted as reliable according to George and Mallery (2003).

Table 6.3: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
0.71	45

Validity was concerned with “the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research” (Bryman and Bell, 2007:41). The process of survey, the questionnaire was sent to the pilot study to ensure the questionnaire was understandable.

Independent Sample t-tests

The quantitative data on leadership styles obtained from the MLQ questionnaire was analysed using independent t-tests. The student t-test is a statistical technique used in social research to determine the differences between two groups (Mowery, 2011). The t-test is a powerful parametric test of statistical significance, which compares the means of two sets of scores to determine whether the difference between them is statistically significant at the chosen alpha level (Martella, et al, 2013). In this study, the t-test was applied to determine the gender differences in the approach to leadership styles and differences based on the position of the respondents i.e. whether teacher or leader. According to Mowery (2011), the appropriate use of t-test requires the following conditions: (1) the outcome variable is at the continuous level, (2) two groups are being compared, and (3) the two groups are independent.

The general steps used for independent samples t-test in this study are as follows:

- 1. Define null and alternative hypotheses:** the null hypothesis (H₀) of this study is that there is no difference in the leadership styles used by male and females, while the alternative hypothesis (H₁) is that there are differences in the leadership styles used based on gender.
- 2. State Probability:** The significance level, also denoted as, is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true. Three levels were used for this study: 0.01, 0.05 and 0.10 significance levels, indicating that there is a 1%, 5% or 10% chance of concluding that a difference exists between male and female leadership styles when there is no actual difference.
- 3. Calculate degrees of freedom:** Degrees of freedom is calculated as $df = (n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1)$, where n_1 is the number of leaders in one group (male) and the n_2 is the number of leaders in another group (female)
- 4. State decision rule:** the decision rule is obtained by comparing the t-statistic (obtained from the t-table) with the critical value, given the degrees of freedom and chosen P value.
- 5. Calculate Test Statistic:** This was done automatically using the SPSS software.
- 6. State Results:** This is the decision of whether to reject the null hypothesis or to accept based on calculated test statistic and the probability level (the decision rule).
- 7. State Conclusion:** Based on the results, it was either concluded that there was a significant difference between male and female leadership styles.

This procedure was observed for both the sample containing the data for leaders and that of the teachers to see if there were also differences based on the position of the rater as noted earlier. The results of these analyses have been presented and interpreted in chapter 7.

6.8.3. Thematic Analysis of Qualitative Data

A major aspect of qualitative research study has to do with developing and analysing broad themes that emerge from the data to form answers to the research questions. This process involves “examining the data in detail to describe what you have learned and developing themes or broad categories of ideas from the data” (Creswell, 2012:247). Thematic data analysis is a qualitative approach to analysing data by describing and developing themes from data and helps to “...map the shared patterns of behaviour, thinking or talking” (Creswell, 2012:473). In other words, thematic analysis is the process of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns within the theme or subject of discussion. Quite a lot of details are found using this type of data analysis. Thematic analysis is being used widely by the researchers (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Boyatzis, 1998; Tuckett, 2005). Thematic method is subjected to qualitative analysis for commonly used themes (Braun and Wilkinson, 2003:30). As every data analysis counts on a theme, so here arises the question of ‘what a theme really means during a research paper writing?’ A theme holds anything significant for the data, which is included in the research paper. Themes consist of size and pattern for data analysis. According to Creswell (2012:248), “themes are similar codes aggregated together to form a major idea in the database”, and they form core element in qualitative data analysis. A good theme typically contains between two to four words. If a researcher finds 30 to 50 codes through initial analysis, Creswell (2012) advises that the codes be reduced to five to seven major themes in subsequent analyses, through the process of eliminating redundancies.

Describing and developing themes from the data consists of answering the major research questions and forming an in-depth understanding of the central issues through description and thematic development. For this study, 5 research themes and 18 sub-themes were developed from 104 codes obtained from the actual responses to questions asked during the interview stage. These themes and sub-themes are discussed in chapter 8 on interview analysis.

6.8.4. Triangulation

Given that the current study combines both questionnaire and interview data sources, the findings from both the techniques will be triangulated to corroborate evidence needed to answer the research questions. Triangulation involves the use of different methods and sources to check the integrity of a research finding or extend inferences drawn from the data (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). It has been widely adopted and developed as one of the preferred ways of validating qualitative research evidence. It involves the use of quantitative research to corroborate qualitative research findings, and vice versa (Bryman, 2008). The value of triangulation lies in extending understanding or adding breadth or depth to a piece of analysis (Fielding and Fielding, 1986). For example, the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods can help to confirm or improve the clarity and precision from the research findings. In the current study, the findings from the questionnaire are corroborated with findings from the qualitative interviews, to strengthen our understanding of the evidence and compare different perspectives. For example, in the current study, it will be possible to see if the responses provided by male and female teachers regarding leadership styles used by their leaders in the questionnaire agree with or disagree with practices self-reported by male and female principals during the interviews.

6.9. Chapter Conclusion

In this chapter, the research methods used were justified and the overall research design of the study was presented. The procedures followed in participant selection, ethics and overall methods for conducting the present study (including methods of data collection and analysis) were also discussed. This chapter also examined how the selected methods could help to address the research questions on gendered leadership in the Abu Dhabi public schools. The next two chapters present the detailed findings and interpretation of the findings with respect to the phase one (quantitative questionnaire survey) and phase two (qualitative interviews), respectively.

Chapter Seven

Presentation of Survey Findings

7.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the evaluation of data collected from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) conducted among educational leaders (principals, vice principals, admin managers, curriculum managers) and teachers of various public schools across Abu Dhabi Emirate in UAE. This chapter was guided by three of the main research questions:

1. What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi Public Schools?
2. Do these styles vary according to gender of the leader?
3. Do these styles vary according to the position held (Leader or Teacher)?

The following research questions were examined specifically using interview data (see chapter 8):

4. Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?
5. Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?
6. What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?
7. Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?
8. What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?

The literature review (chapter 5) demonstrated that gender is one of the significant variables which play an important role in leadership analyses. Previous research studies have shown that male and female leaders may tend to employ different leadership styles (e.g. Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990, McKinsey and Company, 2009; Zenger Folkman, 2015). Although, this association level is not always high, it consistently exists while analysing the significant factors in leadership success. In addition, Antonakis et al. (2003) hypothesise that evaluations of leadership (and hence the psychometric properties of leadership instruments) may be influenced by the context in which leadership is observed and evaluated, for example, the environmental risk, leader-follower gender, and leader hierarchical level. Thus, it is important for researchers to fully report results with the contextual conditions under which the measures were gathered along with

associated tests of scale reliabilities, standard deviations and other model parameters. In this chapter, data collected from standardised questions were analysed quantitatively using SPSS statistical software. Descriptive statistics including percentages, frequencies are presented, as well as Cronbach's alpha for reliability and finally inferential tests, such as t-tests and correlations are used to evaluate the responses, and to highlight important differences in leadership styles reported by male and female principals (leaders) and teachers.

7.1. The Survey

This section serves as an introduction to the statistical analysis. It provides an overview of the participant groups and the research environment. The aim is to provide the reader with insight to gain more familiarity with the sample and survey, in the context of UAE.

7.1.1. Reliability Analysis

The table below shows value of Cronbach's alpha as 0.71 for 45 items and this value is considered reliable. All the scale values are greater than 0.70 and therefore accepted as internally reliable according to George and Mallery (2003).

Table 7.1: Alpha Value of the Study (Whole Sample)

Reliability Statistics: MLQ (Whole Sample)	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.71	45

The reliability statistics for leaders and teachers are presented separately in Table 7.2 below. Again, these show a high internal consistency as they are both above the acceptable threshold of 0.7.

Table 7.2: Alpha Value of the Study (Sub-Sample)

Reliability Statistics: MLQ (Leaders Sub-Sample)		Reliability Statistics: MLQ (Teachers Sub-Sample)	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.70	45	0.72	45

7.1.3. Response Rate

As part of questionnaire distribution for data collection, the questionnaires were distributed online to various public schools in Abu Dhabi, Al Ain and the Western Regions. However, the desired amount of data could not be collected during the first-round, due to lack of adequate response from respondents, as explained in chapter 6. A second round of data collection was necessary, as response rates were initially low. The total surveyed sample consisted of responses from 600 personnel and was subjected to further analysis. Among the n=600 participants, n=300 were leaders and n=300 were teachers of the various schools. The survey included respondents working in the Abu Dhabi education system, regardless of nationality (implying that both Emiratis and non-Emiratis participated in the study, but no record was taken on participants' nationality). Among the leaders 151 (50.33%) were male and 149 (49.66%) were female leaders. The frequency descriptors of the data are provided below:

Table 7.3: Gender Distribution of Educational Leaders

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Males	151	50.33	50.33
Females	149	49.66	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

The survey comprised of teachers of the respective schools who responded with their view on the leadership styles adopted by the leaders. The total male teachers were 152 and female teachers were 148. The tabular representation of the data is:

Table 7.4: Gender Distribution of Teachers

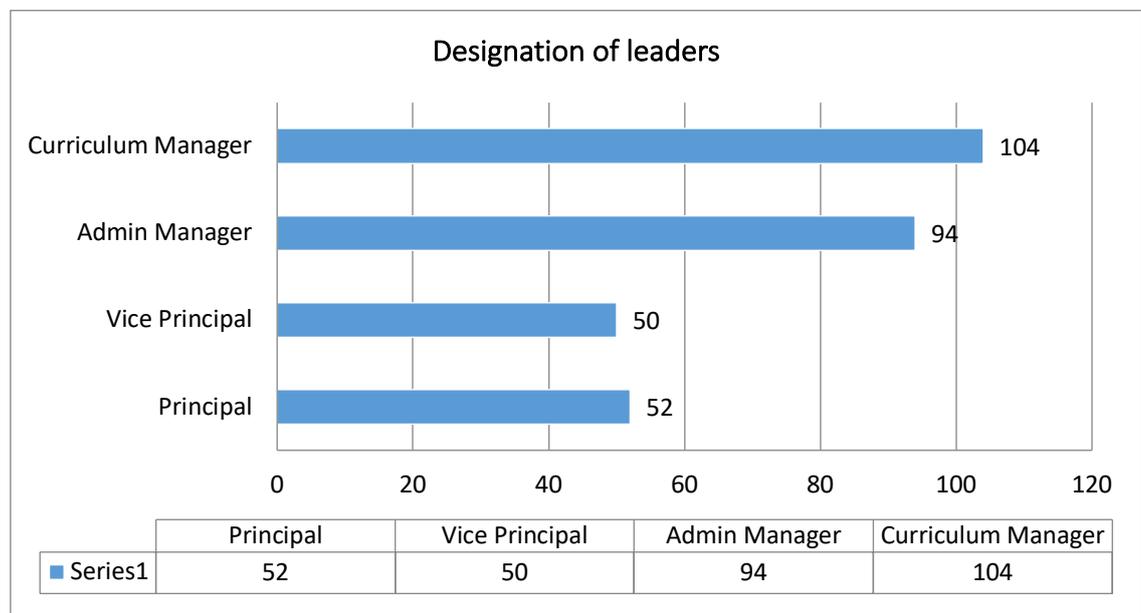
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Males	152	50.67	50.67
Females	148	49.33	100.0
Total	300	100.0	

The male respondents though by a small margin were larger than the female teachers. Table 7.4 gives the exact number of respondents. Although equal numbers are not necessary to run parametric tests, the aim was to be as balanced as possible.

7.1.4. Demographic Profile of Participants

The survey conducted among leaders comprised of Principals, Vice-Principals, Admin Managers and Curriculum Managers. Among the 300 respondents, 17% were Principals, 16.66% were Vice Principals, 31% were Admin Managers, and 35% were Curriculum Managers. A diagrammatic representation of the distribution of the leaders' role is provided in the graph below.

Fig. 7.1: Designation of Educational Leaders



The survey was also conducted among the teachers to derive their opinion about the leadership style of their leaders, the analysis of which is provided in the sections below. A brief re-cap will also be given of leadership styles and how they were assessed on the MLQ.

7.2. Transformational Leadership Analysis

As noted in chapter 3 and 6, transformational leadership is a process whereby individuals engage with others and create a connection that raises the level of motivation and encouragement in both the leaders and followers (Burns, 1978). This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their

maximum potential (Northouse, 2015). Transformational leadership is defined as the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and value (Northouse, 2015). The leader has to look for potential motives, seek to satisfy higher needs and engage the full person of the follower. In this section, we are trying to highlight the degree of the transformational leadership style among the leaders. This was measured by 20 items as can be seen in Table 7.5. Comparison and analysis is conducted to obtain the results.

7.2.1. Leader and Teacher Analysis of Transformational Leadership

This section first takes a look at the responses of leaders and teachers to the MLQ constructs on transformational leadership, regardless of their gender. Table 7.5 below summarises the leaders' self-rating of their use of transformational leadership by ranked means and the interpretation the researcher has given to the MLQ construct based on the literature. From table 7.5, the whole sample of leaders report that they are exhibiting all the elements of transformational leadership, including idealised influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, as reviewed in chapters 3 and 6. However, an examination of the top five factors reveal that they appear to give more consideration to the moral and ethical aspects of their decisions and the importance of values and beliefs, which suggests that they appear to also exhibit some elements of moral leadership. More discussion of this will be made in chapter 10.

Table 7.5: Leaders' Self-Rating of Transformational Leadership by Ranked Means

Transformational Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean Rating	SD	Rank by Mean
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of my decisions	Idealised influence	2.33	1.433	1
I act in ways that build others' respect for me	Idealised influence	2.28	1.457	2
I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	Individualised consideration	2.28	1.449	3
I talk about my most important values and beliefs	Inspirational motivation	2.25	1.417	4
I spend time teaching and coaching	Intellectual stimulation	2.24	1.458	5
I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	Inspirational motivation	2.24	1.412	6
I specify the importance of having a collective sense of mission	Inspirational motivation	2.02	1.434	7
I instil pride in others for being associated with me	Idealised influence	2.00	1.473	8
I articulate a compelling vision of the future	Inspirational motivation	1.84	1.419	9

I display a sense of power and confidence	Inspirational motivation	1.83	1.413	10
I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	Inspirational motivation	1.80	1.473	11
I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	Intellectual stimulation	1.78	1.450	12
I help others to develop their strengths	Individualised consideration	1.78	1.465	13
I talk optimistically about the future	Inspirational motivation	1.77	1.425	14
I re-examine critical assumption to question whether they are appropriate	Intellectual stimulation	1.76	1.438	15
I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	Idealised influence	1.75	1.415	16
I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others	Individualised consideration	1.74	1.423	17
I get others to look at problems from many different angles	Intellectual stimulation	1.72	1.449	18
I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	Intellectual stimulation	1.72	1.360	19
I express confidence that goals will be achieved	Inspirational motivation	1.44	1.388	20

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

According to the teachers' perception, the most frequently displayed transformational leadership behaviour of leaders are inspirational motivation that is marked by self-confidence and enthusiasm, idealised influence as well as intellectual stimulation through problem solving and critical thinking. These can be seen in the top five ranking of the constructs (see Table 7.6). In other words, teachers seem to have a different perception of how school leaders use transformational leadership in that they emphasise other aspects of transformational leadership, which the leaders have not reported strongly. However, teachers do not seem to agree with leaders regarding individualised consideration, as teachers' rank of elements of individualised consideration do not feature in the top 10, but rather feature as the 16th, 18th and 20th ranked characteristics. The reason for this is not clear cut, though it might be reflective of the individual experiences of the teachers with respect to receiving personalised support from their leaders.

Table 7.6: Teachers' Perception of Transformational Leadership by Ranked Means

Transformational Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean	SD	Rank by Mean
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	Inspirational motivation	2.14	1.425	1
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	Inspirational motivation	2.13	1.475	2
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	Intellectual stimulation	2.13	1.335	3
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	Intellectual stimulation	2.12	1.434	4
Instils pride in me for being associated with him/her	Idealised influence	2.07	1.399	5
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	Intellectual stimulation	2.07	1.413	6
Talks about their most important values and beliefs	Inspirational motivation	2.06	1.426	7
Spends time teaching and coaching	Intellectual stimulation	2.06	1.433	8
Articulates a compelling vision of the future	Inspirational motivation	2.06	1.394	9
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	Idealised influence	2.06	1.428	10
Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	Idealised influence	2.04	1.468	11
Displays a sense of power and confidence	Inspirational motivation	2.03	1.476	12
Acts in ways that build my respect	Idealised influence	2.02	1.409	13
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	Inspirational motivation	2.00	1.427	14
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	Intellectual stimulation	2.00	1.432	15
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	Individualised consideration	1.99	1.395	16
Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission	Inspirational motivation	1.98	1.453	17
Helps me to develop my strengths	Individualised consideration	1.98	1.464	18
Talks optimistically about the future	Inspirational motivation	1.62	1.360	19
Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	Individualised consideration	1.04	.851	20

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

7.2.2. Transformational Leadership Mapping Diagram

Below is an item-by-item summary of responses on the MLQ for transformational leadership traits of leaders. Table 7.7 shows mapping of the qualities and statistical significance of gender differences with X indicating the higher group mean, and asterisks indicating statistical significance or independent/unrelated (or between groups) t-tests.

Table 7.7: Transformational Leadership Mapping for Male and Female Leaders

Transformational Leadership Traits	Male	Female	<i>p-value</i>
I re-examine the critical assumption to question whether they are appropriate		×	***
I talk about my most important values and beliefs	×		***
I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	×		***
I talk optimistically about the future	×		***
I instill pride in others associated with me		×	***
I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished		×	***
I specify the importance of having strong sense of purpose	×		***
I spend time teaching and coaching		×	***
I go beyond self-interest for the good of group		×	*
I treat others as individuals instead of as members of a group	-	-	n.s
I act in ways that build others' respect for me	×		***
I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decision		×	***
I display a sense of power and confidence		×	***
I articulate a compelling vision of the future		×	***
I consider an individual as having different needs from others	×		***
I get others to look at problems from many different angles		×	***
I help others to develop their strengths		×	***
I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments		×	***
I emphasise importance of a collective sense of mission		×	**
I express confidence that goals will be achieved		×	***

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

n.s. (not significant)

Table 7.7 suggests that there are significant gender differences in the reported use of transformational leadership styles on all but 1 of the transformational leadership items, in Abu Dhabi public schools based on mean differences, implying that gender appears to play a crucial role in the style exhibited by leaders. As shown in the item analysis mapping above, women tend to display more features of transformational leadership than men overall. Male teachers tended to be significantly higher in reporting that they are more optimistic about the future, better at problem solving and have a stronger sense of purpose than women reported in general. They also tended to self-report that they are more charismatic than women (as they claim to act in ways that build other's respect for them). Women on the other hand, reported that they are more enthusiastic and critical than men, better in spending more time teaching and coaching followers and in helping others develop their strengths than men reported. Women were more likely to report they 'go beyond the self-interest of the group' and 'consider the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions' than men. Women tended to articulate a 'compelling vision of the future' and 'emphasise the importance of a collective mission' than men. They also reported a higher 'sense of power and confidence' that goals will be achieved. Women reported higher levels of looking at problems from different angles than men and suggesting new ways of completing tasks (i.e. intellectual stimulation). However, both men and women reported the same levels of consideration for individuals, though women show better traits in other measures of individualised consideration, which is one of the key elements of transformational leadership, along with idealised influence, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation.

7.3. Transactional Leadership Analysis

As reviewed in chapter 3 and 6, transformational leadership involves a leader-subordinate exchange, where the subordinate receives some form of reward in return for compliance with the leader's expectations or punishment for non-compliance (Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996; Avolio et al, 1999). Rouché, Baker and Rose (1989) defined transactional leadership as an individual taking the initiative for an exchange for rewards such as wages to employees for their effort and skills. Transactional leadership is believed to be structured and supports the use of power to ensure followers complete transactions. Transactional leaders were sometimes referred to as the benevolent dictators, where the leader directs the organisation through heroic and charismatic efforts (Webb, Neumann, and Jones, 2004). Transactional leadership was created from reciprocity and the idea that there was a relationship between a leader and followers, which in turn developed from the exchange of some reward, such as a performance

rating, pay recognition or praise (Burns, 1978). This type of leadership involves a leader clarifying expectations and developing goals (Antonikas et al, 2003). Transactional leaders communicate the organisational tasks and activities with the cooperation of employees to ensure that goals are met. According to Burns (1978), this relationship is often dependent on a hierarchy and the ability to work through this mode of exchange. Transactional leadership also requires skills such as: the ability to obtain results, structure and process to solve problems; plan and organise, and work with boundaries of the organisation. This section analyses the transactional leadership style adopted by school leaders in Abu Dhabi and the significant impact of the gender on this style of leadership. On the MLQ, this was measured by 12 items as can be seen in Table 7.8.

7.3.1. Leader and Teacher Analysis of Transactional Leadership

This section first takes a look at the responses of leaders and teachers to the MLQ constructs on transactional leadership without gender considerations. Table 7.8 below summarises the leaders' self-rating of their use of transactional leadership by ranked means and the interpretation the researcher has given to the MLQ construct based on the literature on transactional leadership. An examination of the top three factors reveal that leaders self-report that the predominant strategy of transactional leadership used is passive management by exception, which according to the literature means that leaders fail to take corrective action until problems become serious or chronic. This is an interesting finding and will be the subject of triangulated discussion in chapter 10. Leaders also report that they use contingent reward and active management by exception, though to a lesser extent based on ranked means.

Table 7.8: Leaders' Self-Rating of Transactional Leadership by Ranked Means

Transactional Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean	SD	Rank by Mean
I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action	Management by exception (passive)	2.36	1.442	1
I fail to interfere until problems become serious	Management by exception (passive)	2.33	1.400	2
I show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"	Management by exception (passive)	2.32	1.416	3
I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	Contingent reward	2.15	1.426	4

I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes	Management by exception (active)	2.14	1.394	5
I keep track of all mistakes	Management by exception (active)	2.06	1.455	6
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	Contingent reward	1.92	1.475	7
I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	Management by exception (active)	1.87	1.431	8
I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	Management by exception (active)	1.83	1.501	9
I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	Contingent reward	1.82	1.491	10
I make clear what one can expect to receive once performance goals are achieved	Contingent reward	1.67	1.426	11
I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	Management by exception (passive)	1.10	.936	12

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

In the case of teachers' perceptions of the use of transactional leadership, findings revealed in Table 7.9 show that teachers agree to a large extent that leaders use passive management by exception based on ranked means of the top five items. In addition, they seem to disagree regarding the use of contingent reward. In fact, contingent reward, as measured by a leader expressing satisfaction when followers meet expectations has a relatively high mean of 2.59, implying that this is close to the consensus opinion. However, other constructs of contingent reward seem to be perceived by teachers as less frequently used.

Table 7.9 Teachers' Perception of Transactional Leadership by Ranked Means

Transactional Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean	SD	Rank by Mean
Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	Contingent reward	2.59	1.278	1
Fails to interfere until problems become serious	Management by exception (passive)	2.16	1.449	2

Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	Contingent reward	2.13	1.448	3
Shows that he/she is a firm believer in “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it”	Management by exception (passive)	2.12	1.417	4
Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	Management by exception (passive)	2.04	1.435	5
Concentrates his/her attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	Management by exception (active)	2.02	1.448	6
Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	Management by exception (active)	2.00	1.398	7
Keeps track of all mistakes	Management by exception (active)	1.98	1.465	8
Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	Management by exception (active)	1.88	1.457	9
Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	Contingent reward	1.68	1.325	10
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	Contingent reward	1.68	1.325	11
Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	Management by exception (passive)	.53	.520	12

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

7.3.2. Transactional Leadership Mapping Diagram

Below is an item-by-item summary of responses on the MLQ for transactional leadership traits of leaders. Table 7.10 shows the mapping of the qualities and statistical significance of gender with X indicating the higher group mean and asterisks indicating statistical significance or independent/unrelated t-tests.

Table 7.10: Transactional Leadership Traits Among Male and Female Leaders

Transactional Leadership Traits	Male	Female	<i>p-value</i>
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts		X	***
I fail to interfere until problems become serious		X	***

I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards		X	***
I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving targets	X		***
I wait for things to go wrong before taking action			n.s.
I make clear what one can expect to receive after achieving targets	X		***
I show that I am a firm believer in "if it ain't broke don't fix it"		X	***
I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action		X	**
I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.		X	***
I keep track of all mistakes		X	**
I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards		X	***
I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	X		***

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

n.s. (not significant)

The transactional leadership mapping shown in table 7.10 show that female leaders reporting on average being more dominant in exhibiting this leadership style, implying that there is a significant gender difference in the styles self-reported by the leaders. Men tended to be higher than women, on average, in reporting ‘clarifying goals and expectations for performance related outcomes’. They are also higher in ‘clarifying who is responsible for achieving targets’ and ‘showing satisfaction when others meet expectations. Women, on the other hand, were higher in leader-subordinate exchange of reward and efforts. They also have a relatively higher mean in many areas that emphasise taking corrective actions only when things go wrong but higher in attention when dealing with mistakes.

7.4. Laissez-Faire Leadership

The laissez-faire leadership style is an abnormal leadership style that is linked to poor organisational performance, low follower satisfaction and limited leadership effectiveness. Laissez-faire leadership is leadership that is neither reactive nor proactive and the leaders are incapable of making decisions and to supervise. Laissez faire leadership is closely aligned with passive management-by-exception, implying that this leadership style tends to have negative effects on key organisation variables (Den Hartog,

VanMuijen and Koopman, 1997). In organisations with a laissez-faire leadership style, there seems to be a disconnect between organisational goals and outcomes (Schyns and Sanders, 2004). This section analyses the significance of gender on the laissez-faire leadership style represented by 4 items on the MLQ.

7.4.1. Leader and Teacher Analysis of Laissez-Faire Leadership

Table 7.11 show leaders' self-rating of the use of Laissez-Faire leadership style by both genders, while Table 7.12 show the perception of teachers on the same. A quick look at the mean values show that both leaders and teachers report low mean values, indicating that this is a seldom used approach to leadership in Abu Dhabi public schools. The results is expected as laissez-faire style is an abnormal approach to leadership as explained earlier.

Table 7.11 Leaders' Self-Rating of Laissez-Faire Leadership by Ranked Means

Laissez Faire Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean	SD	Rank by Mean
I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	Non-leadership	1.84	1.438	1
I avoid making decisions	Non-leadership	1.77	1.451	2
I delay responding to urgent questions	Non-leadership	1.08	.916	3
QQ7: I am absent when needed	Non-leadership	1.07	.855	4

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

Table 7.12 Teachers' Perception of Laissez-Faire Leadership by Ranked Means

Laissez Faire Leadership Question	Interpretation of MLQ Construct	Mean	SD	Rank by Mean
Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	Non-leadership	1.68	1.437	1
Is absent when needed	Non-leadership	1.30	.937	2
Delays responding to urgent questions	Non-leadership	.52	.500	3
Avoids making decisions	Non-leadership	.52	.500	4

Notes: (1) Valid N=300 (Male and Female Responses Inclusive) (2) Rating Scale: 0 = Not at all, 1= Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3= Fairly often, 4= Frequently, if not always.

7.4.2. Laissez-Faire Leadership Mapping

An item-by-item summary mapping of the Laissez-faire leadership qualities and the dominance of gender over it is shown in Table 7.13.

Table 7.13: Laissez-Faire Leadership Traits Mapping Among Male and Female Leaders

Laissez-faire leadership Traits	Male	Female	p-value
I avoid getting involved when important issues arise		X	***
I am absent when needed		X	***
I avoid making decisions			n.s
I delay responding to urgent questions			n.s

*p<.05

**p<.01

***p<.001

n.s. (not significant)

The results show that only two of the four laissez-faire leadership factors are significant, implying that school leaders in Abu Dhabi may not be particularly reporting or employing this style. In other words, the lower overall means tells us that there is not as clear a gender difference and that the Laissez faire style is not reported or used as much. However, on two of the significant factors, more females than men reported that they avoid getting involved when important issues arise and that they are absent when needed, implying a non-leadership style or hands-free approach to leadership.

7.5. Leader Analysis: Gender and Leadership T-Test Analysis

An independent sample T-test was conducted among the items to identify the significance of gender on the different leadership styles, after running reliability and the items were computed into three leadership variables. The t-test assessed whether the means of two groups were statistically different from each other. The t-test results are as follows:

Table 7.14: T- Test Results for Male and Female Leaders

Leadership Style	Gender	Rank	t value	Mean	SD	Sig.
Laissez-Faire	Female	#3	0.806	1.42	0.55	n.s
	Male	#3		1.47	0.60	
Transactional	Female	#1	0.282	1.97	0.36	n.s
	Male	#2		1.95	0.54	
Transformational	Female	#2	2.221 P<.05	1.87	0.30	*p<.05(=.03)
	Male	#1		1.98	0.48	

The above table reports the results of T-Test of leadership styles (Laissez-Faire, Transactional, and Transformation) as self-reported by female and male leaders in schools. The results show there is no significant difference between male and female leaders in their use of laissez-Faire leadership ($p > 0.05$). In addition, the results show there is no significant difference between male and female leaders in their use of transactional leadership ($p > 0.05$). However, there is a significant difference between male and female leaders on self-reported transformational style ($p < 0.05$). The results of the means indicate that male leaders have a higher score ($M = 1.98$) than female leaders have ($F = 1.87$), which means the males in the leaders' sub-sample reported using the transformational leadership style more than female leaders.

While Laissez-faire was the least reported style by leaders, interestingly the male leaders self-reported themselves as using transformational style more than transactional (according to ranked means) and statistically, their levels are higher than the female counterparts. This was an unexpected finding and will be addressed in the discussion chapter. Female leaders, according to their rankings reported using more transactional than transformational leadership style, however, there was no statistical difference when compared to male leaders. This was also unexpected and will be discussed as regards leaders' reports trying to 'fit' with expectations of ADEK and traditional cultural stereotypes (and tensions between these).

7.6. Teacher Analysis: Gender and Leadership T-Test Analysis

The questionnaire was also circulated among teachers to collect their opinion and perceptions about leaders and leadership styles employed in their schools. The data collected was subjected to further analysis and yielded the following results.

Table 7.15: T-Test Results of Male and Female Teachers

Leadership Style	Gender	Rank	t value	Mean	SD	Sig.
Laissez- faire	Female	#3	7.65	1.19	0.46	**p=0.01
	Male	#3		0.81	0.38	
Transactional	Female	#2	0.902	1.92	0.40	n.s
	Male	#1		1.87	0.45	
Transformational	Female	#1	8.570	2.17	0.30	***p<.001
	Male	#2		1.79	0.44	

*p<.05
**p<.01
***p<.001
n.s. (not significant)

The above table reports the t-test results of perceptions of leadership styles (Laissez-Faire, Transactional and Transformational) currently being employed in the schools as rated by female and male teachers. The data from the table shows that there is a significant difference between male and female teachers in their perception of the use of Laissez-faire leadership ($p < 0.05$). From mean values, it can be seen that female teachers ($M = 1.19$) were higher than male teachers ($M = 0.81$) in rating the use of this leadership style. In addition, the results show that there is significant difference between male and female teachers in Transformational Leadership ($P < 0.05$), with female teachers ($M = 2.17$) reporting more use of transformational leadership styles than the male teachers ($M = 1.79$). By contrast, there was no significant difference between male and female in transactional leadership perceptions ($P > 0.05$).

With respect to ranking, both male and female teachers perceived the use of laissez faire leadership as the least used by leaders and this is statistically significant. This is similar to the self-reported ranks of the leaders in Table 7.8, as reviewed earlier, confirming that school leaders hardly employ this style. Male teachers, however, reported a higher ranking of the use of transactional leadership by school leaders, though this ranking is not statistically different from that of the female teachers. Interestingly, this does not conform with the self-reported ranking of male leaders, which revealed more use of transformational leadership. Conversely, female teachers reported a higher ranking of the use of transformational leadership by school leaders than the female leaders self-reported, and this time, it is statistically significant. These results could be an issue of subjectivity or bias that often clouds self-assessment, or a behaviour that has to do with differences in perceptions between men and women, as predicted by Eagly and Karau (2002). These issues will be addressed in the discussion chapter.

7.7. Limitations of the Study in Relation to the MLQ Survey

Notwithstanding the reliability of the data collected through the MLQ survey (as indicated by the Cronbach alpha) and sample size, it is not without limitations. First, the MLQ survey is very rigid, and is designed to emphasise three main styles of leadership: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire. Thus, the survey instrument does not accommodate other types of leadership like Islamic leadership, which have unique

features such as the importance of leader-follower relationship based on cultural and religious lines. This implies that results from the questionnaire may not be a reliable indicator of other leadership qualities not examined by the MLQ, but which may be relevant in the context of the location of the research. Notwithstanding, many of the leadership traits covered in the MLQ are also consistent with Islamic leadership qualities (as reviewed in chapter 3). Second, the findings of this research are limited to the context of public schools and principals in the UAE and may not be generalisable to other countries of the world. A third limitation is the possibility of bias arising from having cross-cultural respondents. As noted earlier, participants involved in the study come from different nationalities and may have different perspectives of the items asked in the questionnaire. He and van de Vijver (2012) argue that three kinds of bias (construct, measurement and item bias) are likely to occur in cross-cultural studies where equivalence (the lack of bias) cannot be demonstrated. For example, construct bias could occur where the construct measured is not identical across cultures (i.e. not defined in the same way across cultures). In addition, an item is biased when it has a different psychological meaning across cultures. More precisely, an item of scale (e.g. measuring the moral and ethical consequences of decisions) can be said to be biased if persons with the same trait, but coming from different cultures, are not equally likely to endorse the item. Such cases could pose a challenge for comparability of cross-cultural data, leading to invalid conclusions. Though the MLQ has been widely used by several studies across the world and tested in homogenous contexts, where it was found to be stable (e.g. Antonakis et al., 2003), there is no guarantee regarding the comparability of the data across multiple cultures. Given the potential for bias in triangulating views of participants from different nationalities and cultures, the results of the current study should be interpreted with caution and not generalised across the board.

7.8. Chapter Conclusion

The MLQ was administered to $n = 300$ leaders and $n = 300$ teachers (in the same schools) in order to measure the extent to which leadership styles, namely transactional, transformational and laissez-faire are used in Abu Dhabi public schools. This chapter presented a whole sample analysis of leaders' self-reported ratings and teachers' perception of the use of these leadership styles regardless of gender as well as gender differences in the reported results. Findings from ranked means reveal that, overall (i.e. inclusive of both genders), leaders report that they are exhibiting all the elements of transformational leadership, while giving more consideration to the moral and ethical

aspects of their decisions. They also self-report the use of transactional leadership marked predominantly by passive management by exception. On the other hand, teachers perceive that the most frequently displayed transformational leadership behaviour of leaders are inspirational motivation that is marked by self-confidence and enthusiasm, idealised influence as well as intellectual stimulation through problem solving and critical thinking, while they think that leaders use more of contingent rewards and passive management by exception within the transactional leadership style. Both leaders and teachers report that Laissez-faire leadership style is hardly used as a main style of leadership.

This chapter also presented an item mapping of analysis examining gender differences in response to each, as well as between groups t-test analyses to look at computed leadership style variables. Initial results based on the higher mean difference between male and female show that female leaders self-report more features (items) of transformational, transactional leadership and, to a lesser extent, laissez faire leadership than men. However, when independent samples t-tests were conducted based on the computed variables, female leaders were only higher in self-reported transformational leadership. The t-test results for leaders revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female in laissez-Faire and transactional leadership, but there is significant difference in transformational leadership reported (with male leaders self-reporting more use of transformational leadership style). By contrast, t-test results for the teachers show female teachers were higher in rating leaders as transformational. However, there was no significant difference between male and female leaders in transactional leadership style based on the teacher's evaluation. These findings of the phase one quantitative data analysis will be combined with the thematic analysis of phase two (presented in the next chapter) in a triangulated analysis of these findings with a view to providing valid answers to the research questions. However, as mentioned earlier, given the focus of the study in one particular country and the potential for bias in triangulating views of participants from different nationalities and cultures, the findings of this chapter need to be interpreted with caution and need not be generalised.

Chapter Eight

Interview Analysis

8.0. Introduction

The previous chapter has examined the differences in perceptions of leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools using data collected from phase one (the MLQ survey). This chapter analyses the data collected from phase two data of the research, involving semi-structured interviews. The qualitative data was collected by interviewing 12 Principals from 12 different public schools in Abu Dhabi. Six participants were female and six were male, all with between 12 and 15 years of experience working in a leadership role (vice principal/ principal). The principal's ages range from 40 to 50 years old. They are all Emiratis and have the same cultural background and religion. Two of the participants had obtained masters degrees while the rest had bachelor's degrees. The questions were designed to include enough detail to ensure that enough information was gathered about school leadership in Abu Dhabi. The purpose of this interview design was to ensure that participant's responses covered issues highlighted in the literature, provide potential answers to the research questions, with the hope of providing insight into developing leadership practices in Abu Dhabi for both males and females. The participants were asked to respond to 13 semi-structured questions. The interview was designed to identify participant's opinions and perceptions around several areas in Abu Dhabi's education sector.

The following research questions were examined specifically using interview data:

1. What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi Public Schools? (this question was answered fully in chapter 7, but some aspects of leadership traits are covered in this chapter as well)
2. Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?
3. Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?
4. What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?
5. Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?
6. What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?

The framework for qualitative data analysis proposed by Ary et al. (2010) was used in this research. This framework consists of three stages: Organisation and familiarisation,

reducing and coding, and interpreting and summarising data. The researcher added a relevant stage between stage one and stage three, which is translation. As the interview was conducted in Arabic, a translation stage was necessary to transform the data into English. In analysing the interview responses, a systematic process of interpreting and coding the data from the interview was carried out, while themes were developed from the codes. These have all been explained in the methodology chapter and have also been summarised below in section 8.1. The rest of the chapter (section 8.2. to 8.6) analyses the five themes (and 18 sub-themes) developed from interview responses, while section 8.7 concludes the chapter.

8.1. Review of Interview Analysis Procedure

8.1.1. Organisation and Familiarisation

The first stage in analysing qualitative data involves familiarisation and organisation so that the data can be easily processed (Ary et al, 2010: 481). Various steps were undertaken in this stage. Participant responses were transcribed by the researcher during each interview, none of the interviews were recorded. Because of this, the written responses were read many times to ensure the researcher was familiar with the data. Non-verbal information was included in the transcriptions, such as laughter and participants leaving the room. During the interviews, all responses were transcribed precisely as they were heard by the researcher. To ensure confidentiality, information that participants said that they did not want to be published were removed.

8.1.2. Translation

The translation stage could be viewed as an extension of stage one. Ary et al (2010) notes that in stage one of analysing data, transcriptions should be made of all data. “Words should be transcribed directly to avoid potential bias in selection or interpretation that may occur with summarising” (Ary et al, 2010: 481). After the completion of stage one, all transcripts were translated from Arabic into English. All participant responses were written in Arabic during the time of the interviews, and later translated into English by the researcher, as well as two independent translators. Both are bi-lingual in English and Arabic. The interview data was translated three times in total, and later, one standard translation was agreed on per participant per question. During the translation stage, interview responses were properly verified to provide exact and meaningful interpretation of the original ideas expressed by the interviewees.

8.1.3. Reducing and Coding

Reducing and coding is an essential aspect of qualitative analysis and includes “the identification of categories and themes and their refinement” (Ary et al, 2010:483). A common approach to coding was used in this research. The data was read and re-read many times and sorted by looking for units of meaning such as: words, phrases, ideas, ways of thinking, perceptions, behaviour patterns and occurrences which appear often and that seem important. However, irrelevant information in some of the participants’ responses were excluded. A total of **104 codes** were obtained from analysing the interview script.

8.1.4. Interpreting and Summarising Data

After coding and reducing the data into themes and sub-themes, the data was ready for the final stage of analysis, interpreting and summarising. This was an important stage as it moved the research from description to inference, and ready for discussion. The 104 codes obtained from interview responses were reduced to **5 themes and 18 sub-themes**.

These themes and sub-themes are as follows:

1. Crucial Traits Needed for Leadership
 - a. Goal Achievement and Problem Solving
 - b. Healthy People Relationships
 - c. Cooperation and Understanding
 - d. Leading Teams and Supporting Others
 - e. Understanding Culture and Traditions
 - f. Other Important Attributes
2. Traditional and Cultural Influences on Leadership
 - a. Family Commitments and Traditions
 - b. Cultural Influences on Gendered Discrimination
3. ADEK’s Leadership Recruitment Policies
 - a. Effectiveness of ADEK’s Recruitment Policies
 - b. Gender and Recruitment Policies
4. Influences on Leadership Effectiveness
 - a. Qualifications and Skills
 - b. Monetary Incentives, Motivation and Performance
 - c. Monetary Incentives and School Improvement
 - d. Pressure at Work
5. ADEK’s Role in Women Empowerment
 - a. Promoting Gender Equality

- b. Empowering Women in Authority
- c. Encouraging Work-Life Balance
- d. More Training and Continuous Support

These are now analysed below.

8.2. Crucial Traits Needed for Leadership

During the semi-structured interviews, many participants highlighted the perception that leaders should display many positive qualities. Of these qualities or sub-themes, five seemed to be very significant, as they appeared many times in similar contexts. These sub-themes are analysed below:

8.2.1. Goal Achievement and Problem Solving

Some of the participants said that good leaders in education should be focused on achieving goals and solving problems. One female participant said in response to the question on the main traits a leader should have:

“Today, ADEK are really striving for all government public schools to be of a very high standard... ADEK’s leaders have three traits. If you have these three things, you can be a leader. All ADEK require from leaders is an IELTS 6.5 certificate, five years’ experience and a master’s degree. These are ADEK’s requirements. But, in my opinion, a leader should achieve goals and successfully lead their team...They should solve problems and resolve conflicts. To be able to positively affect others and lead by example. So, what will I do with 6.5 in IELTS and a master’s degree if I can’t solve simple problems or achieve goals.” (P.F.1).

Another two participants said something similar:

“Leader who has ability to achieve goals and lead and support his or her staff. I would say we need someone who can support people, understand our culture and have a problem-solving mentality” (P.F.3)

“The leader... must care and devote their time to their staff. Also, they should try to create a good working environment. He should be able to adapt to any environment to achieve the goals” (P.M.10)

Achieving goals and solving problems as a sub-theme appeared four times in total within this context. However, female participants actually stressed problem solving much more than their male counterparts, which may be indicative that they were more concerned about the problem-solving skills of a leader, and not just on the qualifications of the leader.

8.2.2. Social Networks: Developing Healthy People Relationships

Many of the respondents emphasised that developing healthy relationships with subordinates both within and outside the workplace makes leaders influential.

One male participant said:

“Healthy relationships must be built on understanding. It is important to build good personal relationships before work relationships. A leader should be a friend to their staff, not just a boss” (P.M.9)

One female participant also agreed on the need the leader to develop good personal relationships:

“Social relations at work are important but it is the relationship between the leader and their staff outside of work that is very important. Spending time together outside of work, celebrating and sharing together is also important, it positively enhances the relationship” (P.F.4)

One male participant linked good interpersonal relationships with employee performance:

“I understand that good interpersonal relationships (in and out of work) lead to good working relationships and improved employee performance” (P.M.10)

Another male participant introduced the idea that democratic leadership is built on strong relationships:

“There is no doubt that a democratic leader with a strong personality appeals to employees and catches their hearts... Democratic leaders listen to employees and try to help them in any way they can. This creates strong relationship inside and outside of work” (P.M.7)

Building healthy work and social relationships as a sub-theme appeared five times within the context of leadership traits, though it seemed to be emphasised slightly more in males (three times) than females (two times). This is quite surprising as the general notion is that women tend to be more people and relationship oriented. However, this may not be the case with these sample of leaders. Many UAE leaders tend to use managerial leadership styles where even social relationships are geared towards achieving work goals. This idea was especially supported by male leaders during the interview.

8.2.3. Cooperation and Understanding

One female participant emphasised that one of the key influences of a leader over his/her staff is cooperation and understanding:

“I see cooperation and understanding as a great incentive to work. More importantly, whether the leader understands and appreciates the needs of each employee” (P.F.3).

In line with appreciating the needs of employees, another female participant mentioned that leaders can influence their staff and inspire cooperation in them if they treat them respectfully and appreciate the work they do:

“The leader should focus on understanding the needs of staff and students... The leader who cares for their employees, respects them, shares their views and solves their problems. The leader who works in a respectful manner, appreciates his employees and appreciates the work they do. Leaders shouldn't order people. They should work from their heart and speak kindly” (P.F.2.)

The position of another female respondent is that cooperating with staff can create a positive working environment:

The leader affects the staff greatly. They should be conscientious. If a leader can cooperate with their staff, they can create a positive working environment. Lazy leaders will affect the staff and the workflow. Also, the leader should be available all the time when they are needed. Leaders are influential if they are understanding and do all they can to meet the needs of their team” (P.F.1.)

Other male participants point to the need for the leader to understand the morale of his staff as well as his work environment and be honest, patient, humble and sincere in dealing with staff.

All in all, cooperation and understanding appeared nine times within this context during the interview. Incidentally, more males (five) than females (four) actually emphasised either or both of the traits. However, the female principals that spoke about these traits were much more vocal in expressing themselves and provided more explanations than their male counterparts. Elsewhere, during the interview, one female participant, however, mentioned that male bosses are more understanding in practice than their female counterparts.

8.2.4. Leading Teams and Supporting Others

One of the main factors that affects a leader's influence on his/her staff, according to the interview respondents, is a leader's ability to lead teams and support team members.

One male participant pointed to the need for good team working:

“...I believe that good work needs and cannot be completed without a good team. The leader should make the staff feel equally valuable and that their voices matter. They should appreciate everyone's opinions and treat staff equally. He should feel that no one is above anyone else, including him. If he wants to succeed, he should value his staff equally, no member of the team should feel irrelevant. Then staff will work with him towards success” (P.M.8)

Two other male principals also noted:

“To guarantee followers' cooperation, leaders need to be loved and respected. This occurs when leaders are down to earth and support their team. Leaders need to be there to support their staff every day. Staff are different, some are more independent, but some need frequent guidance from leaders. They should always be available” (P.M.12)

“Participating in team activities, understanding and being there for their followers whenever needed. Leaders should appreciate the differences between staff. They should respect and understand their staff's and international students' culture. This will help them to connect with others” (P.M. 11)

In line with leading teams, some respondents mentioned that attributes of collaborative leadership may be helpful, particularly where a leader shares goals and responsibilities

with his staff. One other female participant also noted the importance of team members in supporting and defending each other.

In total, leading teams as a sub-theme appeared seven times, and was emphasised four times by female principals and three times by male principals. This shows that both male and female leaders think that leading and supporting teams is a crucial trait of leadership. As reviewed in chapter 3, Islamic leadership supports team spirit rather than individual efforts in the achievement of group goals. Team spirit is, in turn, nourished by a high level of understanding, cooperation, appreciation and tactics, which was also supported by interviewees.

8.2.5. Understanding Culture and Traditions

As many teachers and principals in UAE public schools are recruited from neighbouring Arab countries and other non-Arab countries, some participants have stressed the need for a leader to develop an understanding of the culture and traditions of their working environment as this is crucial for leadership success.

One female participant said:

“...We have leaders from foreign countries who do not understand the culture, traditions and customs of the country. They really need to understand and appreciate our culture, they need time to get used to it. ADEK should train foreign leaders before they come so they are prepared. I will give you an example: We have a short, specific time in our timetable where children should go to pray. Many students disregard prayer time and do not attend. We need leaders who will try to rectify this and encourage those who don't attend to go. ADEK don't select leaders very carefully...So, today, we need leadership that suits and supports our customs and traditions. Global teaching techniques don't all align with practices here” (P.F.2)

One male respondent stressed the need for foreign leaders to adapt their skills to suit the unique culture and working environment they have found themselves:

“...Naturally, there are many leaders in ADEK from other countries. These leaders have great qualities, but they are suitable for their own culture. I think that leaders from abroad should adapt their skills to suit the working environment they are in. This will enhance their overall leadership ability” (P.M.8)

The need for a leader to understand culture and traditions as part of the criteria for educational leadership emerged seven times, five of which was emphasised by female participants. This may be connected to the fact that women seem to be more sensitive to the implications of culture and tradition in the Arab world and how this influences all aspects of life including education, work and social interactions. Chapter 9 provides a full discussion on the influence of culture on leadership effectiveness in Islamic context.

8.2.6. Other Important Attributes

A fewer number of leaders stressed the need for leaders to have other attributes to be successful, for example, professionalism and excellence, confidence and determination, relevant work experience, sharing goals and encouraging student success.

On professionalism and excellence, one female principal noted:

“The leader should show professionalism and excellence at all times. They must be able to cope in emergencies. He must be a role model. It doesn’t matter if they are male or female, they just must have good leadership skills” (P.F.5).

Two other female principals also noted the importance of confidence and determination to succeed as important attributes of a leader:

“In my opinion, one of the most important attributes of the leader is his confidence, the quality of his work, his determination to succeed, the completion of his mission, and most importantly the understanding of the working environment in which he serves” (P.F.4)

“The most important attribute of a leader is confidence. Experience related to work is also important to be a successful leader” (P.F.6)

One male leader stressed the need for goal sharing, achieving personal success and encouraging student success:

“An active leader who is looking toward the future, must focus on short-term and long-term. He must share these goals with his staff. The leader must always strive for the best to achieve personal success. They must encourage leaders and employees to share goals and visions. In education, the leaders’ role it to promote good leadership, to encourage student success. To stimulate students, it is important be a good role model.

This will establish graduates in the working environment in Abu Dhabi and the UAE in the face of expatriate labour in our country” (P.M.7).

One other principal mentioned the need for leaders to be equitable:

“Leaders should demonstrate good leadership in both good and challenging times. They must be equitable, and treat staff equally” (P.M. 9)

In a very different response, one female leader mentioned one element of managerial leadership, control, as the basis for successful leadership:

“A leader should control their staff, without control, there is no management. That is my opinion and I don’t care what anyone else says” (P.F.6)

8.3. Traditional and Cultural Influences on Leadership

The participants highlighted several traditional and cultural barriers to leadership aspiration, leadership effectiveness and job performance. These are broadly grouped into: family commitments and traditions and cultural influences on gendered discrimination.

8.3.1. Family Commitments and Traditions

Most of the participants commented that they felt that family dynamics and work-life balance represent a major challenge in taking and sustaining leadership roles.

Three female participants expressed deep concern about their family commitments while responding to the question of whether they were looking to take on higher leadership positions:

“Everybody wants a higher position, but yes, I do. If I have the opportunity to be higher than being a school principal and if it fits with my family situation, I will definitely seek the highest leadership position. Higher positions require more and greater responsibility, and this would concern my family as I would be very busy. I still need to focus on them at the moment until they are more independent and then I will try to achieve my goals and reach a higher leadership position” (P.F.1)

“Honestly, I do not want to be more than what I am now. My career is suited to my family commitments. Honestly, my husband doesn’t want me to be away from home after work. My first and final priority is to make my family happy. I need to take care of my family. That is really important to me” (P.F.3)

“No doubt, yes. Everyone is looking for a higher position in their life. I hope that my family commitments and my qualifications would allow to get a higher position” (P.F.4)

Another female principal cited family commitments as a hindrance to taking additional qualifications in preparation for leadership:

“...I am developing myself and still need to take many courses (the nature of the work requires that) but, my role as a mother makes it difficult to attend them. It is my responsibility to be at home to help my children after school. Even if I am successful, I can only be happy if they are successful” (P.F.5)

One male participant also expressed concern for women’s involvement in leadership and how this has caused them to neglect their family commitments:

“... My wife is a teacher, and sometimes I get very angry with her, because she is always very busy. She is physically there but not it is not enough. When I get angry, I ask her to leave her job. I am not against the empowerment of women, sure, I would be happy if my wife reached a higher position in leadership. However, I would not be happy if she neglected me and my kids. Hours in a day should be devoted to work, but outside of those hours, time should be spent with the husband and children. Would it not be a problem for you if you were always away from home and stayed alone, without your husband and your children?” (P.M.10)

Family traditions and Muslim customs also pose some sort of cultural barriers to leadership aspiration particularly for women. When asked what prevents them from taking higher leadership positions, two women responded:

“Again, I would say my family because they rely on me. Also, I wear a niqab (face cover). I don’t think my husband would be happy for me to remove my niqab for a higher position. And now, I feel that most women in senior leadership positions don’t wear face covers. I don’t know what will happen in the future, but I know that I have to

work, so I am positive for the future” (P.F.1)

“As mentioned before, my family and social status is important to me. I will not sacrifice my family’s happiness for a position that would take up a lot of my time. I would miss my family. Praise be to Allah, the role of school principal suits me perfectly. When I finish work, I take care of my family. I know my schedule and it works for me” (P.F.3)

A man also mentioned family concerns as a barrier to taking on higher leadership roles:

“My family as I am attached to them and feel that they need to be my first priority” (P.M.12)

Family commitments and traditions as a sub-theme appeared an overwhelming 12 times in the discussion, nine of which were highlighted by women and other three by men. This suggests that women, as expected, are more concerned about their family commitments being a hindrance to their full commitment to work and in taking up leadership opportunities. This point has been made repeatedly in chapter 5 given the stereotypical role that women play as mothers, wives, carers and home makers in traditional patriarchal systems which has been a major hindering force to achieving gender equality in the Arab world in particular. These findings are further discussed in chapter 9.

8.3.2. Cultural Influences on Gendered Discrimination

Beyond family commitments and traditions, there seems to be some culturally learned stereotypes and gender discrimination among some men and women regarding involvement in leadership roles and their ability to work with the male or female gender.

When asked what stops her from taking higher roles, a female principal responded:

“I think it comes down to discrimination. Some people believe that men are better leaders than women.” (P.F.5)

A male principal did not agree that women should be empowered for leadership roles:

“I don’t think a woman needs to be involved in more roles than she already has. She is a mother and a wife which should be the most important thing in her life. That will not give her enough time to be a leader in a high position which requires being out of the house or even country for a long time away from her family” (P.M.11)

Two male principals mentioned overtly their disapproval of women in leadership, giving some ideas about male dominance in the Arabic culture as discussed in chapter 5:

“As a middle eastern man, I was raised to lead women, not to be led by women. I am sorry but that is true” (P.M.7)

“...when it comes to power, I don’t like to feel that I am below women” (P.M.11)

Some women also expressed concern when it comes to working with a man, as they feel that they are restricted and that it is culturally improper. Many women feel more comfortable working under another woman. Here are some of their thoughts:

"My performance does not change. The most important thing is how the boss works, if they work perfectly and follow the rules, I would be happy. But if I could choose to work with a woman or a man, of course I would prefer a woman. I am talking about my personal opinion. I would feel more comfortable working with a woman. Since I was young, women and men have always been working and studying separately. This is typical of our culture. I will work in a mixed environment, but I am not used to it, and working with a man restricts me. I have to consistently make sure that my scarf is positioned, and my hair is covered" (P.F.1)

“Yes, personally there is a difference for me. I prefer to work under a woman. They are likely to understand my family ties as they may have children too. She would feel empathy. Most importantly, my husband wouldn’t mind if my boss was male or female, but he would prefer if they were female” (P.F.3)

“Yes, I wear a niqab and I like to work with females who do the same. I feel free, comfortable, and I can wear perfume. I can’t do this if I am working with a man” (P.F.6)

Interestingly, one of the female principals favoured working with men than women:

“Honestly, I love working with men more than I do women. I think men are more understanding. Women pay attention to every little trivial detail. Men don’t do this, they work simply” (P.F.4)

However, a few others, both men and women, were indifferent about whether a leader’s

gender affects their work performance and thought it didn't matter much, provided they are qualified, have good leadership qualities and follow their job description and other laid down rules.

Here is what one female principal had to say:

“Of course not. It doesn't mean much to me whether my boss is a man or woman. All I care about is whether they treat me well and follow ADEK requirements of work. My cluster manager is a man and I am very happy working under him. Honestly, he is a good man and he always appreciates everything I do, even the simplest things at work”
(P.F.2)

In all, comments relating to gender-based discrimination sub-theme appeared nine times; six times by females and three times by males. Incidentally, the comments made by these men were quite strongly held stereotypical opinions, while those of the female principals were a mix of preference for male and female leadership. This suggests that UAE men may have more biased view of gender-based leadership than females at least from this sample of educational leaders. This is discussed in detail in chapter 10 where triangulated findings are used to uncover what might be potential ambivalent sexism (a mixture of hostile and benevolent prejudice towards women).

8.4. ADEK's Leadership Recruitment Policies

This section examines the perception of principals on ADEK's recruitment policies, including the effectiveness of current policies, and the role of gender in ADEK's recruitment policies. It also examines the perception of respondents on the recruitment of foreign leaders.

8.4.1. Effectiveness of ADEK's Recruitment Policies

Participants commented on ADEK's new recruitment policies and why they think that they create challenges for people seeking leadership and in leadership administration. As reviewed in chapter 2, according to ADEK's *professional standards for principals* (ADEK, 2015a), principals recruited to manage and lead schools in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi must possess a Master's degree, have recognised teaching qualification and significant teaching experience, including teaching management experience as well as some experience of working as Vice-principal. Applicants are also required to have a

minimum IELTS (Academic) score of 6.5 and be bilingual in Arabic/English where possible.

One participant said that they felt that ADEK's old recruitment process was more flexible than the new policies:

“Honestly when I applied to be a vice-principal, it was easy. They wanted 5 years teaching experience and a university degree, so I applied and got the job easily. Five years later, I applied to be a principal. All they required was five years of experience as a vice-principal. I was accepted easily, and I was confident that I would be. The conditions were very flexible then, they are stricter now. They require IELTS 6.5 now and a master's degree” (P.F.1)

A few respondents also mentioned that in addition to qualifications, they were recruited to leadership because of their relevant experience and personal skills. However, some of the participants have expressed dissatisfaction regarding the effectiveness of the recruitment process.

A female principal noted that the recruitment process lacks depth and rigor:

“I submitted my application according to the requirements of ADEK. I had qualifications and enough experience. Thankfully I was accepted as a school principal. I wasn't questioned on my cognitive and personal abilities. Also, I remember that the interview questions were simple, not very complex. I thought the questions would be deeper than that” (P.F.6)

Three participants displayed similar views that having a Master's degree and work experience is not enough in leadership:

“I met ADEK requirements of IELTS 6.5 and adequate experience. I feel that IELTS and Masters' degree isn't enough because educational environments need motivation. Qualifications like these cannot prepare leaders to flourish in schools...” (P.F.5)

“They chose me because I had IELTS 6.5 and experience. That's what ADEK required. But, I have recently discovered that being an effective leader requires much more. From my perspective, ADEK's recruitment process may be logical for them, but I

don't think it is very effective. I am always trying to improve my skills but it is not easy, especially with the pressure of work. Although ADEK look for certain qualities like a problem-solving mentality, they spend a lot of time training candidates in general leadership” (P.F.4)

“Today, ADEK are really striving for all government public schools to be of a very high standard. Whatever ADEK require. ADEK's leaders have three traits. If you have these three things, you can be a leader. All ADEK require from leaders is an IELTS 6.5 certificate, five years' experience and a master's degree These are ADEK's requirements. But, in my opinion, a leader should achieve goals and successfully lead their team. They should support people and understand the culture of the country. They should solve problems and resolve conflicts. To be able to positively affect others and lead by example. So, what will I do with 6.5 in IELTS and a master's degree if I can't solve simple problems or achieve goals?” (P.F.1)

In fact, some participants have also raised concerns about the requirement of English Language skills (IELTS) as a barrier to leadership aspiration:

“Yes. I have reached the position of principal, and I am happy. It is enough for me. To apply for a higher position, I would have to study further. My problem is English language. If I can find a solution for this, I would consider going for a higher position” (P.M.10)

“I would need to specifically improve my skills in English. This would need time. Maybe I can't now. I have many responsibilities; I feel tremendous pressure at work” (P.M.7)

“My qualifications ... will stop me. I have a bachelor's degree. The next position would require a Master's degree and IELTS 6.5. That's hard for me. I would have to study for a long time” (P.F.6)

A male principal also mentioned that language is not a yardstick for measuring leadership effectiveness:

“Frankly, ADEK has standards that focus on skills in English language and this is a great challenge for those who have spoken from childhood to the university and the years of experience in Arabic as well. In my personal opinion, the language is not a

measure that you measure as a leader or a reformer. There are many leaders who are highly efficient but face the problem of language. I do not know why they are not promoted and the ADEK trains them on the language intensively. The language needs to be practiced on a daily basis” (P.M. 10)

However, one female principal has maintained that English Language skills are important to support the new school model (NSM) in Abu Dhabi:

“...Now, ADEK has designed schools adhering to global standards. New school models are student-orientated. They try to create a motivational and inspirational environment. English and Arabic languages are of equal importance. Staff for main subjects like English, Maths and science are English. ADEK’s new policies require IELTS at 6.5 to support the new school structure in the best way” (P.F.2)

Some have also expressed concerns that ADEK’s HR policies do not identify leadership skills in candidates, but rather just look out qualifications and English language skills:

“ADEK focuses on English skills and experience. They don’t consider the competence of the applicant and his ability in (school administration). Females are chosen for female schools and males for male schools. Females, because they are safer and know the nature of students. ADEK does not have special criteria for choosing leadership, so we find that the leaders are selected, especially without sufficient training. We have seen that some principals can’t operate in their schools” (P.F.5)

Some participants have also stressed that ADEK’s policies lacked effective training for leaders, and have highlighted the need of qualify principals through training and workshops and leadership empowerment:

“... the policies in general do not guide principals on effective leadership. I think ADEK should work on qualifying current principals through training and workshops before recruiting new principals” (P.F.3)

“Currently, school leaders in the education sector of Abu Dhabi face great challenges. The first is empowering leaders. Some leaders are missing the necessary the characteristics to be effective. Recently, ADEK has improved its practices of developing leadership, but still further steps are needed to create similar environments which are

found in schools in developed countries. ADEK need to further empower leaders to be able to make independent decisions and have authority” (P.M.7)

Some participants have also mentioned foreign leaders’ lack of understanding of the Arabic culture as a key hindrance to effective leadership and communication. The participants noted that the reason foreign leaders seem not to understand the local culture is because their contracts would not allow them to stay for a long time to learn the culture:

“... in the last ten years, people from outside of UAE have been employed as leaders more frequently than those from Arabic countries. A leader who understands our culture is hard to find. Before, leaders and principals from Arabic countries kept their position for a long time, 10 or 15 years. Now, the majority of leaders often only stay for three or four years. In my opinion, that is not enough time to make a significant difference. I understand that ADEK want us to learn from teaching and leadership in other countries, but how can we be sure that they are the right people to learn from. I do not know understand what ADEK wants from these leaders, and why they are needed. Why can’t we do it ourselves? ... Another problem is that foreign leaders cannot communicate with children’s’ parents. This is a problem which affects the whole educational process. I think it is just as important for leaders to speak good Arabic as it is for them to have 6.5 in IELTS. I think this requirement is absent from the Education Council” (P.F.2)

“ADEK’s current policies and regulations have focused mainly on the educational efficiency of training teachers, regardless of the culture of society. Therefore, foreign managers are chosen based on an understanding of the job regardless of their knowledge of the given culture. I don’t mean leaders from abroad are bad, but they usually only work for a few years before moving elsewhere” (P.F.6)

The recruitment policies of ADEK featured in two main questions on the criteria for appointment of educational leaders and suitability of the current policies of ADEK in terms of emphasis on skills. All twelve participants responded to the questions and emphasised their respective experiences and current challenges for ADEK. On balance, both males and females, tend to agree on key issues raised.

8.4.2. Gender and Recruitment Policies

One of the objectives of this study is to examine whether gender plays a role in ADEK's leadership recruitment decisions and whether gender should be considered important in leadership recruitment. Most of the participants expressed their views on this.

Many participants have noted that gender is important in recruitment because of the Arab culture and traditions and the predominance of single sex schools in the UAE (which separate male and female students). However, some noted that sex plays a role mainly in deciding the placement of leaders:

“ADEK choose candidates based mainly on their sex. Males work in boys' schools and females work in girls' schools. There are no real assessments of leadership skills by the board, they just want qualifications. Here sex is important only to decide which school the leader should work in, not because one is a better leader than the other...Today, in our society, most schools aren't mixed. I am sure most families would not accept a man to be principal of a girls' school. So, men have to work in boys' schools and females in girls' schools” (P.F.1).

“ADEK should focus on the applicant, and not their gender. Females lead in female schools and males in male schools, this is our culture. I feel that women lead better in girls' school. They share female values” (P.M.9)

“...the (recruitment) policies focus on experience and qualifications as well as gender when it comes to leadership positions. They try to respect societal norms and traditions” (P.M.12).

Some respondents also noted the suitability of gender in catering to gender-based social and emotional needs:

“...since Abu Dhabi and UAE schools aren't mixed, gender must be considered when recruiting leaders. There is no doubt that each gender will be more understanding of the same gender. They will more easily understand their psychological and social needs and better help them to grow” (P.M.7)

“As the society in which we live in has a specific tradition needs especially when it comes to appointing a leader to a female secondary school which have teenage girls. Teenagers are at a sensitive age which could cause problems if they develop feelings for their teachers/leaders and fellow students” (P.M. 12)

Some respondents, however, do not agree that gender is important in the recruitment of leaders, but that situational factors such as school environment, job position and suitability of candidate should be the key considerations in recruitment:

“It is not necessary to focus on sex. Perhaps Western regions would disagree, but it is working in Abu Dhabi. I think we should focus on what is suitable for the school environment, whether the leaders are suited, not choose them based on their sex” (P.F.3)

“It depends on the job position. Some positions need men and a long absence from home and move from one country to another. Some positions are suitable for women, those where she can go home after work” (P.F.4)

“I think that the focus should be only on the suitability of the candidate and not on gender. In society, there is a perception that the school principal of the female schools should be female. I do not deny today women have become a powerful influence in their leadership roles” (P.M.10)

Some participants have also argued that the new school model may be changing the dynamics of recruitment based on gender, given that it seeks to integrate boys and girls as part of efforts to promote and sustain gender equality as a modern country.

“Now our schools are demanding young, modern leaders and teachers. ADEK wants younger leaders to adapt quickly to their new school model, which integrates male and female students and teachers. Sex may be important when considering junior high and high schools, schools that do not integrate students” (P.M. 8)

“ADEK still need to focus on gender when recruiting in some current schools, as even though we have new school models, some families do not want to send their children to mixed schools. Our new model schools mix students from grade one to grade five. ADEK still need to recruit based on gender for principals in current schools which follow old school models where only female leaders lead female schools, and the same with males” (P.M.9)

“Female schools require female leaders. However, not all female principals are suitable to serve as leaders. Some work following old ADEK policies and standards. They are not aware of modern requirements in education and ADEK’s new policies.

ADEK have to spend a lot of time training them. This adversely affects the school in which the leader is working in...However, the UAE has achieved some degree of gender equality. It is a modern country, it is working hard to empower women to give them equal rights to men” (P.F.2)

Gender related comments on recruitment also covered two main questions and all twelve participants responded to the two questions. However, the evidence is mixed with respect to incorporating gender into recruitment decisions.

8.5. Influences on Leadership Effectiveness

In Chapter 3, leadership effectiveness was defined to mean the ability of the leader to achieve collective goals, take effective decisions, be creative with resources and maintain high performance. In the context of education, leadership effectiveness also includes driving school improvement and quality educational outcomes for students. One of the objectives of this study is to investigate other human/social factors (excluding cultural factors) affecting leadership effectiveness, and work performance in general. This section presents some of the views of the respondents. Specifically, it looks at the place of qualifications and skills and the role of monetary incentives in motivating and driving performance and school improvement. It also considers the influence of other factors such as pressure at work.

8.5.1. Qualifications and Skills

Qualifications and skills were seen to play a dominant role in determining a leader’s performance, as well-trained leaders are more likely to do better than untrained and inexperienced leaders.

One female participant noted that lack of professional development and skills can be a barrier to leadership effectiveness and career progress:

“Higher positions require higher skills. I honestly do not feel ready now, I need time to develop myself and when I feel qualified I will not hesitate to pursue the top position. ADEK offer one leadership training session per semester before the start. We (principals) have meetings with our cluster manager every week. We have some leadership training in these meetings, but it is all limited. It is not enough for me. I really want to improve my leadership skills. Today I am spending a lot of money on my

development. I have had professional leadership training. Thankfully, now I am a professional leadership trainer. I really need to practice giving leadership courses to others. Now, I give my teachers leadership training in the week before the students start the school term. I need more time to improve my skills to be ready for my next position. I think my skills are a barrier at the moment to me achieving greater things in my career” (P.F.2)

As noted earlier, many participants have called for ADEK to improve policies on training and qualifying principals before and after recruiting them to leadership positions.

While qualifications and skills as recruitment criteria featured very prominently during the interview, the link between these and performance were not quite emphasised directly but implied in the responses. Overall, these appeared seven times, and stressed five times by females, and twice by males. The emphases by the participants, especially the female principals were mostly on leadership skills and that these should be a pre-requisite for leadership in addition to qualifications and experience.

8.5.2. Monetary Incentives, Motivation and Performance

Another aspect of human resource consideration on work and leadership performance is reward and monetary incentives. When asked if monetary benefits (such as promotions, incentives or bonuses) have an impact on leadership style and effectiveness, majority of the participants (both male and female) agree that monetary and material incentives provide motivation for performance:

“There is no doubt that rewards, incentives and promotions motivate staff generally in any job. Yes, we live in a world where money is important. ADEK gives a relatively good salary. If a leader is financially stable, they won’t worry about money. They will be less stressed which will contribute to a stress-free environment in school. I mean, in other words, rewards and incentives are important to any working environment because they create healthy competition and encourage continuous work” (P.F.1).

“Of course, material benefits and support have a direct impact on the performance of managers and leaders in general. If leaders are given rewards; they will keep improving their work. I feel that ADEK should reward those who work hard, so it is important that they keep doing this” (P.F.5)

“Clearly, monetary advantages directly affect performance and the execution of all leadership responsibility. Monetary benefits can inspire leaders to perform well, and keep them performing well. Some female leaders value success more as an incentive to perform well” (P.M.9)

“Monetary reward is the primary motive of all workers in a contemporary world. Leaders feel more motivated and devoted when they are paid well and are offered promotions. The biggest motivation for a leader is his performance but money has its own significance no doubt” (P.M.10)

A few others, however, argued that monetary incentives are not the ultimate determinant of motivation and job performance. Some see the achievement of success and self-motivation as a great reward in itself.

In this light, three participants noted:

“ADEK offers good rewards and salaries for all employees, but I believe that motivation in all aspects of education really comes from achieved success. Success in itself is a great reward. I know that there are many incentives, but success itself is the biggest incentive for me” (P.F.2).

“Not ultimately. Success comes from self-motivation and cannot be assessed according to material rewards. This is from my personal point of view” (P.M.7)

“...Benefits are important, but they are not everything to improve work performance. Success and devotion to work is important in any work. Success and sincerity at work. Maybe monetary benefits will improve your work, but leaders should work hard regardless of whether there are monetary benefits available or not. Some of my colleagues have left the education sector to find a higher-paid job with bonuses. Every person wants different things from their job” (P.M.8)

Overall, the links between rewards, motivation and performance were emphasised by all twelve participants during the interview. Four of the men valued monetary benefits more than other factors, while two didn't quite agree with that perspective. Interestingly, five of the female participants perceived money as a dominant factor in the motivation and performance of leaders, against one. Thus, on the balance, more females than males in this sample prize monetary incentives over other drivers of performance.

8.5.3. Monetary Incentives and School Improvement

Apart from motivating performance, benefits and rewards given to leaders, according to the respondents, have also led to better leadership and some improvements in the school learning environment and educational outcomes for students.

Three female principals commented as follows:

“Yes, (benefits) create a healthy atmosphere in schools. Students are happy and teachers work hard. This is enough to create a good competitive learning environment... Frankly I have made many improvements in my school in all aspects of education and this requires me to double my effort to keep track of the successes in my school. Thanks to God, my grade 12 students have great results every year” (P.F.2)

“Definitely, yes. With such incentives, the school will continue to excel. For example, these rewards will help the school to buy the latest devices which improves the quality of education. I observed students starting to achieve greater success. This shows that incentives do have a big impact in school, however we need to carefully study this in detail. Methods of stimulation aren’t always affective in improving results” (P.F.4)

“...Yes, it is working to improve the behaviour of the leader and is leading to better student participation. It is improving the working environment of schools and even colleges...Students co-operate together in a good working environment” (P.F.5).

Four male participants also noted the positive relationship of rewards with school improvement:

“Yes, the school environment has improved significantly. When there are benefits, students achieve high academic results. Students are motivated and get good results. In my school, academic results are higher than in most schools. It is because of leader benefits” (P.M.7)

“Yes, it has brought about a noticeable change in the conduct of leaders prompting more investment in resources. I have observed improvements in school culture and student performance” (P.M.9)

“Yes, leaders who get high monetary rewards and promotions help their schools and colleges to foster a better learning environment, resulting in improved performance of students. The schools and colleges which are under the supervision of highly rewarded leaders normally have better environments and student results. In a survey conducted by ADEK, those with higher authority who are rewarded financially grow successful educational establishments” (P.M.10).

“Extra benefits allow principals to increase spending on general school improvements. Students also perform better” (P.M.12)

Overall, all twelve participants commented on the link between rewards and school improvement. However, while majority of the participants witnessed school improvement outcomes in their school, only four of the females and four of the males attributed these outcomes to financial rewards or promotion.

8.5.4. Pressure at Work

Many of the participants also spoke about the enormous amount of pressure they have to face and how this is preventing them from achieving their work goals or even taking higher positions.

One male participant said:

“...I have great goals to pursue. After work, I have to spend my time being with my family. In the future, I will start to achieve my greater goals, but of course, at the moment, I am working according to the laws from the Council, so my work is focused on completing what I need to. I need to follow ADEK rules and guidelines specifically which requires focus. This is time-consuming. I have goals but I can't balance both, as I am employed by ADEK, I try to do my best at work to meet the requirements of me” (P.M.1)

Another said:

“No, no, no, no, no. I will certainly not apply for a higher position in education. I am not really happy in education, there is too much pressure to perform well. I would like to choose a new career. I hope. This is my goal, to leave education” (P.M.11)

Another male participant said:

“At the moment, I want to feel free, and a higher position would restrict me. I don’t want more pressure in my life. I do not imagine that I reached the point of seeking the highest position now. Higher positions come with more work and more responsibilities” (P.M.8)

Two more participants, one female and one male, gave a similar opinion:

“I aspire to be in senior positions, but I am worried about the responsibilities. It is not easy to prove yourself. There are many pressures from ADEK, as they want only top-performing leaders. They want to be confident in leaders’ abilities. ADEK also evaluates principal performance every year. Principals have to prepare for this on top of their work load” (P.F.4)

“I would need to specifically improve my skills in English. This would need time. Maybe I can’t now. I have many responsibilities, I feel tremendous pressure at work” (P.M.7)

Comments relating to pressure or enormous responsibilities at work appeared seven times in all; four times stressed by men and three times by females. In other words, both male and female leaders alike consider pressure at work as a key influence on their work effectiveness and leadership aspiration.

8.6. ADEK’s Role in Women’s Empowerment

The participants were also asked how ADEK could emphasise and improve women participation in leadership roles. Their responses were categorised into four themes, which are discussed below.

8.6.1. Promoting Gender Equality

One female participant argued that it was necessary for ADEK to give more opportunities for women in leadership and management roles:

“I strongly believe that it is absolutely necessary for women to occupy leadership and management roles. ADEK must give women more chance in higher positions, and provide training at all levels of employment. This is a common practice in many countries, such as America, which promotes gender equality in work” (P.F.2).

But when asked whether she was looking for a higher leadership position than a principal, another female participant complained that she didn't think she will get the opportunity:

“I hope so, but I don't think I will get the opportunity. Higher managers in ADEK would bring their friends or family to work alongside them. I am sure they would not consider me. I don't understand ADEK sometimes” (P.F.6)

But ADEK still has to face cultural barriers in its efforts to improve gender equality in educational leadership and promote equality of outcomes for male and female students as well.

One female participant links the gender of the leader with educational outcomes and that women could do better in boys' schools:

“...But I see that customs and traditions are still a major challenge in choosing a leader. Men still do not choose to study education in university in our society. They are orientated towards management, business and engineering. Today, we need a suitable leader for male schools. We don't have local leaders. We are still using males from outside the UAE, but we have enough females working in education. Boys schools aren't as successful as girl's school academically. Also, many boys in school are quite naughty and leaders outside of UAE don't know how to react to situations, they worry that ADEK might fire them. If culture opens the door for us to be principals of male schools this will really help us. I feel I could manage in a boys' school and make a difference” (P.F.1)

As reviewed in chapter 5, some studies have found that within educational settings, the gender of the teacher could influence the academic performance of students, with female teachers better suited for girls and male teachers suited for boys (e.g. Dee, 2006). This appears to also have some extensions to leadership, as revealed by this participant.

8.6.2. Empowering Women in Authority

Some participants mentioned that ADEK needs to empower women in authority and allow them to make important decisions.

Two female principals said:

“My point of view is that the male and female leaders in school must be given authority. They must be entitled to independently lead in the way they think is best. This will enable them to be more effective in work and meet their challenges. Training in brainstorming techniques is important. So ADEK has in fact made some arrangements to empower women in the government sector, but there is still a need for further efforts to give women authority and allow them to make important decisions. Female leaders still face physical, psychological, cultural and educational challenges. ADEK should plan to support women further because women can work hard, and reach high positions in work. Women have great ability” (P.F.5)

“Women should be given more authority and power. Today female schools and universities see a lack of empowerment in female leaders. I have no doubt that ADEK supports the empowerment of women and supports women significantly” (P.F.6)

Two male principals also spoke in support of women empowerment:

“Female leaders face empowerment issues. ADEK should take steps to ensure the empowerment of female leaders and promote women in authoritarian positions. Female leaders should also be provided with training opportunities around teaching and management...” (P.M.10).

“Female "school" leaders need to be provided with special help in school work and qualify them to practice administrative work better. Female and college schools suffer in particular from "lack" and weak empowerment and limited power given to females and this requires ADEK to take effective steps to correct this” (P.M.7)

8.6.3. Encouraging Work-Life Balance

While some participants agree that ADEK is doing its best to promote women empowerment, they however advised that more could be done around recognising

women's extra responsibilities and family commitments, and the need to support them in balancing work and family life properly.

One female participant said:

“Honestly, ADEK work very hard to empower women. They have given us everything we have needed so far. We hope ADEK will take into account that women need to balance work and life at home, especially their families, their children and their husbands. If laws are drafted that take this into account, I feel that family ties would not be an obstacle to reaching senior leadership positions in the Education Council” (P.F.1)

Another male participant also spoke in support:

“...Today, UAE are empowering women. Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid said that we have passed the stage of empowering women. That is why ADEK should be craft their empowerment policies around the recognition of women's responsibilities and family commitments...” (P.M.10)

8.6.4. More Training and Continuous Support

Other participants urged ADEK to improve training and support for women both in educational leadership and management and in balancing work and family life. Some also talk of more support in terms of resources and better decision making.

Two female participants said:

“They should provide training, continuous support, and take the need of women into consideration. Especially married women with children” (P.F.3)

“Yes, ADEK should give women more training. Today, UAE is trying to empower women to reach high positions in work, which also fit well with her life” (P.F.4)

Two male participants also voiced their concerns regarding training and support:

“ADEK should provide training courses for female staff to make a group of well-trained female leaders as the current leaders are not as trained as they should be” (P.M.12)

“Male and female leaders and principals in schools ought to be given basic leadership training to make improvements. They ought to be given persistent meetings to generate new ideas keeping, in mind the end goal to make them sufficiently capable of independent decision-making. ADEK has given women leaders training opportunities, but still there is a need of further effort including the accessibility of better sources, support and autonomous basic leadership power. Female instructive leaders confront disturbance and diversion because of mental and instructive societies” (P.M.9)

In all, the theme on women empowerment policies as a whole appeared at least twelve times; six comments attributed to men and six to women. While most participants stress the role of training and continuous support, as well as empowerment of women in authority, two men in particular had divergent views regarding empowering women, which could be perceived as discriminatory. These comments have already been analysed under cultural influences on gendered discrimination in section 8.3.2.

8.7. Limitations of the Study in Relation to the Interview

While the interviews were very useful in corroborating evidence from the MLQ survey, there were some restraints in the data collection process due mainly to limitations of time and scope. First, interview participants were solely Emirati school principals and it was not possible to include non-Emiratis in the sample, because most of the principals in the region of study were Emiratis (following the government's Emiratisation policy). The study could have been richer where comparison was made between the views of Emirati leaders and non-Emirati leaders. Thus, the results of the interviews could only be interpreted within the local UAE context of leadership and not generalised across other leadership cultures. Second, just like the MLQ instrument, the interview questions did not suggest any other style of leadership which could be influential in the discussion of gender and leadership in UAE schools, even though many of the comments were pointing to the traditional Islamic leadership context. Thus, while emphasis was placed on trait-based theories, transformational and transactional leadership styles, as well as the influence of gender considerations, it would have been interesting to fully uncover other Islamic leadership traits which could change the dynamics of the results, using a top-down Islamic interpretive framework. Future research should therefore focus on investigating the application of Islamic leadership and management theories, which could be construed as an alternative model of leadership based on cultural and religious leanings.

8.8. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter discussed the stages and procedure of phase two data collection, including methods of analysing data collected from the interview. Specifically, the discussions contained in this chapter were coded into 5 main themes and 18 sub-themes. The first theme was on *crucial traits needed for leadership*. Here, five attributes were repeatedly mentioned, including the need for leaders to display ability to achieve goals and have a problem-solving mentality, build healthy people relationships (in and out of work), foster cooperation and understanding, lead and support their team members and understand the culture and traditions of their working environment. Other important attributes include showing professionalism and excellence, confidence and determination, sharing goals and responsibilities, and encouraging student success, among others.

The second theme is about *traditional and cultural influences on leadership*. Most respondents, particularly female participants expressed deep concern about their family commitments and the role of cultural tradition, which prevents them from taking and coping with leadership positions. Other responses showed that some elements of culturally learned gender discrimination were at work, and this was evident in some men and women's preference for working with leaders of their own gender, though this was not the case for others.

The third theme covered *ADEK's leadership recruitment policies*. Many participants raised some issues in ADEK's recruitment process, with some saying that they lacked flexibility, complexity and thoroughness. Others said ADEK's qualification requirements, particularly English Language skills (IELTS), were a barrier to leadership aspiration. Others commented on the lack of understanding of the Arabic culture by foreign leaders, which they said was a major obstacle to effective leadership and communication. Cultural tradition and the predominance of single sex schools were also given as major reasons for gender considerations in recruitment.

The fourth theme focused on the (non-traditional) *influences on leadership effectiveness*. Many participants admitted that monetary incentives (in the form of bonuses, rewards, promotions) not only motivate a leader's performance, but also drive school improvement and student performance. Some also mentioned lack of effective training and skills and pressure at work as the reasons preventing them from achieving their work goals or even taking higher positions.

The fifth theme was on *ADEK and women empowerment*. While many admit that ADEK is tackling the issue of women empowerment and gender equality in leadership, some suggest that more training and support are required around helping women balance their work and family life, especially. This will be addressed in the policy implications chapter.

Chapter Nine

Discussion of Qualitative Themes

9.0. Introduction

The previous two chapters have laid out the findings from phase one (MLQ survey) and phase two (semi-structured interviews) of the study. Chapter seven explored principals' and teachers' perceptions of leadership style in school leaders in Abu Dhabi, while chapter eight enabled the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of how school principals perceive leadership styles and describe various challenges and factors affecting school leadership. This chapter examines, in detail, the findings that have emerged from phase 2 of the study to describe what we have learnt and to describe the shared patterns of thoughts or beliefs held by the respondents regarding the theme of discussion. As noted in chapter 6, thematic analysis involves developing and analysing broad themes that emerge from the data to form answers to research questions (Creswell, 2012). This chapter discusses the findings from the five established themes and link these findings with the literature in order to ascertain whether the findings agree with or disagree with the existing literature and/or whether there are any new extensions to the discourse. Section 9.1. takes a look at the first theme on crucial traits needed for educational leadership, while section 9.2. discusses the theme on traditional and cultural influences on leadership. The respondents' shared patterns of thinking on ADEK's leadership recruitment policies are discussed in section 9.3. Section 9.4 discusses the influences on leadership effectiveness, while section 9.5 describes ADEK's role in women empowerment. The discussions from these broad themes with regard to previous literature will then be combined with a triangulated discussion of the findings on gender and leadership styles in chapter 10 to inform answers to the research questions of the study.

9.1. Theme 1: Crucial Traits Needed for Educational Leadership

The first theme is on crucial traits needed for school leadership. Here, several attributes were repeatedly mentioned, including the need for leaders to display ability to achieve goals and have a problem-solving mentality, build social networks and healthy people relationships (in and out of work), foster cooperation and understanding, as well as lead and support their team members. Other important attributes mentioned by the

respondents include showing professionalism and excellence, confidence and determination. Most of these traits agree with the literature on psychological and effectiveness traits and skills as reviewed in chapter 3 (e.g. Stogdill, 1974; Smith and Peterson, 1989; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bolden, et al, 2003; Ahmed and Bach, 2014; Northouse, 2015; and Alkatani, 2016). For example, Ahmed and Bach (2016) noted that people who possess key leadership traits such as achievement, motivation, drive, honesty, integrity, initiative, self-confidence, vision and cognitive ability tend to be effective in formulating an organisational vision and executing plans to achieve that vision. In the context of school leadership, Gurr et al (2006) report on research conducted in Australia showing that principals who possessed personal traits and qualities such as honesty and openness, high order communication skills, flexibility, commitment, passion, empathy with others, and a sense of 'innate goodness' have made significant contributions to schools, especially in the area of capacity building and improved teaching and learning outcomes.

Some principals also mention sharing goals and responsibilities as some of the crucial attributes of a successful leader, implying that they support the idea of collaborative and distributed approaches to leadership. As examined in chapters 3 and 4, a collaborative leader strives for shared understanding and seeks beneficial solutions to problems by eliciting opinions and engaging team members (Chrislip, 2002) as well as encourages participative management and decision making by all teaching staff (Leithwood et al, 1999; Bush, 2007). In other words, principals wishing to practice distributed and collaborative leadership styles should be encouraged to take the opinion and expertise of teachers into consideration in improving teaching and learning as well as in decision making. Principals can also delegate power and authority to teachers to take the lead in certain aspects of administering teaching and learning (Wilhelm, 2013), but should be careful to monitor the performance of the assigned tasks so as not to abdicate responsibility.

Another important attribute of a school leader mentioned by the interview participants is encouraging student success. This is similar to what Leithwood et al. (2008) found when they concluded that school leadership has significant effects on the quality of school organisation and on pupil learning. According to them, it is impossible for a school to successfully turn around its pupils' academic performance in the absence of talented leadership. Of course, this does not imply that the school leadership only consists of the school principal, although in practice, this is often the case. However, in the case of the UAE, school leadership, at least as defined by this study, constitutes the principal, vice

principal, admin manager and curriculum manager. Thus, this implies that all these officials should maintain standards and procedures that enhance educational outcomes for pupils. The attribute of encouraging student success also agrees with instructional leadership theory. As noted in chapter 4, instructional leadership focuses on the learning and development of students (Scherer, 2013). In essence, the principals should act as role models to teachers for the exercise of instructional leadership through the transfer of excellent curricular and pedagogical knowledge as well classroom management techniques to teachers. For example, in the context of the UAE, attention has been repeatedly drawn to the poor educational attainment of male students in particular, to grade repetition, long absences and drop out levels in some Emirates of the UAE such as Ras Al-Khaimah and Sharjah (Ministry of Education, 2007; Ridge, 2009). Effective instructional leadership in the UAE will have to find ways of resolving these problems, perhaps, by adapting the curriculum to address the needs of boys and girls alike in terms of vocational skills and interests as well as by engaging male and female teachers alike to address any gender gaps. There may also be need for school leaders to address important family and cultural impediments to schooling.

In addition to core leadership qualities, respondents also emphasised the need for a leader to understand the culture and traditions of the land as it applies to the working environment. Specifically, they mentioned that most foreign leaders may have great leadership qualities, but these do not necessarily suit the working environment they have found themselves, implying that they need to adapt their leadership skills to suit the Arabic culture and work environment in the UAE. This emphasis on cultural orientation as a leadership trait is very interesting, because it extends the literature on educational leadership to incorporate aspects of cultural and belief systems. As reviewed in Chapter 4, leadership models and styles should vary according educational contexts and cultural backgrounds. Pugh and Hickson (2003:11) see education as a ‘deep cultural institution’ where theory and practice are shaped by the values, beliefs, ideologies, behaviour and conventions in that social system.

Shah (2010:27) argues that:

“People from diverse ideological and ethnic backgrounds conceive, perceive and practice educational leadership differently, drawing upon their beliefs, values and knowledge sources”.

In Muslim societies, for example, education and educational leadership are influenced by the religious teachings derived from the sacred texts, as is the case with many other

belief systems (Shah, 2010). In other words, some understanding of relevant Islamic teachings is necessary to appreciate the Muslims' perceptions of education and their expectations of educational provisions in Muslim or non-Muslim societies (Shah, 2016). Recall that one of the main objectives of basic education in UAE is to strengthen pupils' cultural identity with the Islamic Arabic culture (UNESCO 2011), as reviewed in chapter 2. This is perhaps why one of the female respondents in the current study admitted that an understanding of the culture, traditions and customs of the country will enable foreign leaders, especially, to help students observe some of their religious rites such as prayer time. In Islamic leadership, one of the primary duties of a leader is to lead people in offering prayers as reviewed in chapter 3 (e.g. Ahmad, 2006). But this type of Islamic leadership seems to be waning in especially schools that are run by expatriate leaders. Thus, many participants are concerned that the UAE government and ADEK are embracing globalisation and western practices at the expense of the local culture and traditions by recruiting expatriates who may not be familiar with the Arabic culture as educational leaders. The respondents noted that global teaching techniques often do not align with practices in the UAE, implying that an attempt to deploy such techniques in the UAE without observing the cultural norms of the country will be counter-productive. This is one of the vital implications of this study.

9.2. Theme 2: Traditional and Cultural Influences on Leadership

The second theme is about traditional and cultural influences on leadership aspiration and workplace effectiveness. Most respondents, particularly female participants, expressed deep concern about their family commitments and the role of cultural tradition, which prevents them from aspiring to (and coping with) leadership positions. This finding agrees with those of Shah (2010) who found that Muslim women in Pakistan consider looking after their family as their first priority and that they avoided taking on any professional responsibility which conflicted with their family commitments. Similarly, Madsen (2010b) in her study also found that women leaders in UAE held strong beliefs with regard to their Islamic faith, the importance of family, modesty and tradition. As noted in chapter 5, global research on gender roles suggests that men and women are assigned unique roles in society (e.g. Blackstone, 2003; Lindsey, 2011; Hills and Atkins, 2013; Little, 2014; Wood and Eagly, 2015). Women globally contend with several responsibilities as mothers, spouses, carers and as working women. In fact, the role of a woman has been described as that of unpaid domestic labour (Shah and Shah,

2012). This suggests that females have more time limitations than their fellow men and their family commitments affect their career ambitions.

One of the key factors that contribute to the low employment rate of Emirati women include traditional gender roles that require women to carry out more domestic and nurturing responsibilities before fulfilling professional interests. This reduced flexibility tends to limit the ability and confidence of female workers to pursue their career or education, let alone develop leadership ambitions. Even in the education sector, most workers are expected to work flexibly, sometimes outside normal working hours. But cultural tradition in the UAE often prohibits married women from working long hours or choosing a demanding career. In the current study, most of the female respondents admitted that they would be happy to consider higher leadership positions conditional on such positions suiting their family commitments and meeting their husbands' expectations. Family commitments have also posed a major hindrance to taking additional qualifications in preparation for leadership. These findings are also consistent with those of Brinia (2012) who found that women in Greece face lower chances of promotion and advancement due to breaks in service and family commitments, and that women also face stereotypes concerning their management abilities. Given that UAE women give priority to their families as a mark of respect for the family tradition, it will be ideal for ADEK to institute policies and programmes that can help women with work-life balance. More of this is discussed under ADEK's role in women empowerment (see section 9.5).

Another sub-theme within cultural and traditional influences focuses on cultural influences on gender discrimination. Here, responses showed that some elements of culturally learned gender discrimination were at work, and this was evident in some men and women's preference for working with leaders of their own gender, though this was not the case for others. These findings are in line with the literature on social stratification and gender discrimination (Rudman and Glick, 2010; Little, 2014) and patriarchy or male dominance (Adam, 2003; Moghadam, 2003; Salaam, 2003; Gallant, 2006; Shah and Shah, 2012). The responses of two of the male participants to the question of whether their performance changes when working with a leader of the opposite sex was highly illuminating: *"As a middle eastern man, I was raised to lead women, not to be led by women...|"*. *"...when it comes to power, I don't like to feel that I am below women"*. These kinds of comments reinforce the patriarchal, male-controlled nature of the UAE society, where men are seen to take the lead and make decisions, while women are relegated to the background. In highly patriarchal societies like the UAE and other

societies with strong traditional orientation, these culturally learned stereotypes have often led to the marginalisation of women in education, the labour market and in the society at large (Salaam, 2003). Here, women are seen as stereotyped to be best suited for lower administrative jobs, and secretaries, while men are expected to take up managerial and executive positions (in line with Blackstone, 2003). In the UAE in particular, cultural attitudes and familial factors have been found to be some of the factors behind the under-representation of women in the IT sector (Al-Marzouqi and Forster, 2011), and in educational leadership roles, even though there are more women attending higher education these days (Kemp, 2013). In terms of pay, there are also challenges for women as in some cases, women tend to be paid less than men for doing the same work as reviewed in chapter 5 (Rudman and Glick, 2010, Little, 2014). Although, most people held gender stereotypical views about working with leaders of the opposite gender to some extent, a few participants noted that they were happy to work with either male or female leaders and that their approach to work or performance will not be different as long as the leaders are qualified, have good leadership qualities and observe ADEK's requirements. This is encouraging and does show that it is possible to dispel gender stereotypes by emphasising the desired attributes of a leader.

9.3. Theme 3: ADEK's Leadership Recruitment Policies

The third theme covered ADEK's leadership recruitment policies. Findings showed that many participants expressed concern regarding the effectiveness of ADEK's recruitment and general staffing policies. Though ADEK has professional standards for recruiting principals, some participants mentioned that ADEK's recruitment process lacked flexibility, complexity and thoroughness. One female participant mentioned that during the time she applied to be a principal, she was not questioned on her cognitive and personal abilities and that the questions she was asked were less complex than expected. This suggests that the requirements are tough, but the interview process itself does not consider personal abilities and skills of the candidate, but only focuses on qualifications and experience. This finding is in agreement with some of those found by Alhelali (2014) who examined the selection process of public school principals in Al-Ain Education Office in the UAE. According to Alhelali's study, a high number of respondents felt that personal characteristics (such as the sociological and psychological traits) of a school principal's candidates should be evaluated as part of the selection methods, which was not the case at the time of that study.

In the current study, other respondents said ADEK's qualification requirements such as

the possession of a Master's degree, work experience and especially English Language skills (IELTS), wasn't enough to qualify someone for school leadership. This brings back the issue the researcher raised in chapter 2 regarding the relevance of IELTS qualifications in a country where Arabic is the official language. For example, in Alhelali's study, many of the respondents noted that English language was not necessary but admitted that having a good degree with some teaching qualifications was necessary. However, in the current study, one of the participants in support of the English language requirement based her argument on the fact that Abu Dhabi was transforming to a new school model (NSM) and that English and Arabic language are of equal importance if ADEK is to create schools that conform with global standards. In addition to existing standards, it might be helpful if ADEK could test or train candidates on leadership qualities, personality traits and skills such as problem solving, setting and achieving goals, team leadership, dealing with difficult situations, building relationships and other social skills. This would ensure that candidates who emerge are suitable for the job in terms of educational qualifications and leadership skills (Bolden et al, 2003; Barber et al, 2007). This will be revisited in the policy implications chapter.

Some other respondents commented on the lack of understanding of the Arabic culture by non-native leaders, which they said was a major obstacle to effective leadership and communication, particularly between school leaders and parents. This is primarily because international leaders have short contracts, which doesn't give them ample time and incentives to stay and learn the local culture. One female participant noted that this makes foreign leaders unable to communicate with children's parents, and that it is absolutely crucial for leaders to learn to speak good Arabic as it is important for them to have a 6.5 in IELTS. This finding seems to extend the literature on requirements for school leadership in the UAE to include an understanding of the local culture in addition to personality traits and leadership skills mentioned earlier by participants. As reviewed in chapter 5, the issue of non-native educational workers has caused serious inconsistency in the teaching quality and style in UAE public schools over the years (Ahmed, 2013). ADEK needs to work with the government (particularly the immigration authorities) to address this issue of international leaders' fit with the local culture since non-Emirati teachers and school leaders are not grounded in the local culture. A key aspect to consider is the length of the term of contract given to these non-nationals and how this is impacting on their capacity and incentive to learn the local culture. Beyond cultural considerations, staff development policies may have also been inhibited by the contract system.

As remarked by Shaw et al (1995:11):

“...Though contracts are renewable, and staff are frequently long serving, there is little incentive to provide in-service training and systematic opportunities for professional development to teachers who may move on for a better offer”.

The same can be said of the recruitment of non-native principals if their tenure does not allow them to fully commit to a long-term plan for professional development in the UAE educational context, which has implications for the quality of leadership provided and educational outcomes. This will be addressed further in the policy implications chapter.

Another sub-theme relates to the role gender plays in ADEK’s leadership recruitment decisions. Many participants noted that sex segregation plays a major role in deciding the placement of leaders, due to the predominance of single sex schools in the UAE (which separate male and female students). In other words, some male and female respondents agree that females have to lead in female schools and males in male schools, in line with the Arabic culture. But some others also called for cross-gender leadership integration to address the issue of equality of educational outcomes for both male and female students. This finding is partly in agreement and in contrast with studies that support single sex schools as a cultural/religious requirement (Shah and Conchar, 2009), since the Arabic culture/ religious tradition is particular about the relationship between people of the opposite sex. For example, it is claimed that ‘in Muslim culture girls are not allowed to go out with boys, which is not a problem in a single-sex school’ (Shah and Conchar, 2009:195). In the same manner, participants in the current study admit that it would be culturally inappropriate for a man to be a principal of a girls’ school for obvious reasons. For example, given existing cultural and religious norms, it may be the case that the majority of girls feel more comfortable, safe and secure, with reduced risk of sexual temptation and teenage pregnancy in girls only schools (Shah and Conchar, 2009).

However, what is not clear is whether male leaders perform better in boys’ school or girls’ school and vice versa. One male participant noted that he feels women lead better in girls’ school since they are socialised with more feminine/communal values. Recall that Dee (2006) also found evidence of the influence of teacher gender on student’s performance and academic participation in USA, concluding that girls tend to have better educational outcomes when taught by women and boys may be better off when taught by men. However, this may not necessarily be the case and cannot be universally applicable, as it depends on the educational and cultural context and expectations of

gender integration in a given society. In addition, in the current study, there were tremendous variations among female leaders as to leadership styles used and likewise for men so that it is unlikely for leadership styles to be generalised in terms of their effectiveness by gender. But what Dee found may be more likely to be associated with the prevailing social norms, which could be summarised as the ‘masculinisation’ vs. feminisation of leadership styles. In a study that examined the relationship between gender and female leadership styles in single-sex academic institutions in Saudi Arabia, Taleb (2010) found evidence to suggest that female leaders are inclined to adopt stereotypical attributes of feminine qualities of leadership. In this regard, it can be said that female leaders may be better able to cater to the social and emotional needs of girls than their male counterparts but may not necessarily be more effective overall.

Some respondents, however, do not agree that gender is important in the recruitment of leaders, but that situational factors such as what is good for the school environment, the nature of the job position and suitability of candidate should be the key considerations in recruitment. This suggests that some participants think that situational leadership styles may be required depending on the schools’ needs or circumstances surrounding the leader. As reviewed in chapter three, contingency or situational leadership theories show that leaders should be able to adapt and flexibility to ever changing situations and circumstances and that effective leadership does not stem from behavioural traits alone. For example, internal culture and environment of an organisation and the external socio-economic environment an organisation finds itself may determine the choice of a leader or the style of leadership required (Fielder, 1967). In this regard, some participants in the present study have argued that the new school model (NSM) may be changing the dynamics of recruitment based on gender, given that it seeks to integrate boys and girls as part of efforts to promote and sustain gender equality as a modern country.

Yet, others argue that some families may still not want their children to attend mixed schools regardless of the new school model, indicating that cultural orientation may still present a barrier to ADEK’s efforts to achieve gender balance both in school leadership and educational outcomes for boys and girls. In fact, one female participant links the gender of the leader with educational outcomes in UAE schools arguing that women could do better in boys’ schools. She complained that boys’ schools aren’t as successful as girl’s school academically and that many boys in school are behaving badly and that male school leaders (particularly non-native leaders) seem not to have the courage to tackle such situations for fear of losing their job. As reviewed in chapter 5, Ridge (2009, 2010) found that boys’ schools lacked the right learning and teaching environment and

that the poor performance of boys can be partly explained by flaws in the recruitment, training and management of male, expatriate teachers (and principals). Unless the New School Model sets standards for the adoption of more co-educational schools, the cultural barriers facing single sex schools in the UAE may still continue to cause setbacks in equalising performance levels for boys and girls.

9.4. Theme 4: Influences on Leadership Effectiveness

The fourth theme focused on other influences on leadership effectiveness beyond traditional and cultural influences. Some participants (principals) mentioned lack of effective training and skills as the reasons preventing them from achieving their work goals or even taking higher positions. One participant mentioned that higher positions require higher skills and that the leadership training provided by ADEK is limited. This finding does not seem to agree with existing studies that have examined the professional development of principals in the UAE. For example, in a study on the effectiveness of ADEK's professional development for principals in Al Ain Government schools, Al-Ghaffri (2014) found that professional development programs were effective across all five components used by ADEK to evaluate principals' leadership performance (i.e. leading strategically, leading teaching and learning, leading the organisation, leading people and leading the community).

As reviewed in Chapter 2, ADEK seems to be focusing a lot of efforts and resources on the training and professional development of teachers, whilst paying less attention to the professional development of principals and other school leaders. For example, the professional development training week carried out ADEK (known as Tanmia) is only adequate for addressing the teaching and learning needs of teachers but seems to miss many important aspects of educational leadership. In the current study, many participants have called for ADEK to improve policies on training and qualifying principals before and after recruiting them to leadership positions. As noted in chapter 2, professional training of principals is essential to enable them to perform their duties effectively and bring about educational excellence in all aspects of teaching and learning as well as in administrative leadership. Appropriate training for leaders and teachers is necessary for providing sound school leadership and encouraging student success. Effective school management and leadership also has a considerable impact on teacher's quality. In their study of government schools in Dubai, UAE, Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2012) also found a positive correlation between principals' leadership styles and their effectiveness. Thus,

well-trained leaders are likely to be effective in both instructional and administrative leadership.

Another sub-theme focused on the links between monetary incentives, motivation and leadership effectiveness and performance. Many participants admitted that monetary incentives (in the form of bonuses, rewards, and promotions) not only motivate a leader's performance, but also drive school improvement and student performance. This finding seems to agree with earlier reviewed studies on transactional leadership, which is concerned with exchange of rewards for performance (e.g. Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996; Avolio et al, 1999; Antonikas, 2003). The findings are also in line with studies that examine the link between a principal's compensation and performance incentives. For example, Schuermann et al. (2009) argue that if the objective of a performance-based compensation system is to motivate virtually everyone in a school to contribute to enhanced student performance, it would be a significant oversight to omit a principal or other school leaders. This is because the principal is the chief executive of the school and plays a primary role in shaping the culture, evaluating performance, communicating with parents and other members of the outside community, and in general sets the tone for the school's day-to-day and long-run operation. In other words, rewarding the contribution of the school principal should be at the heart of any thoughtful school compensation structure. In the current study, many participants admit that material benefits, incentives and promotion have a direct impact on the performance of managers and leaders and have also led to better leadership and some improvements in the school learning environment and educational outcomes for students. Some noted that material incentives have brought about a noticeable change in the conduct of leaders, enhanced student participation, and have even prompted more investment in resources. However, a few others, argued that monetary incentives are not the ultimate determinant of motivation and job performance. Some see the achievement of success and self-motivation as a great reward in itself, which is an unexpected finding.

9.5. Theme 5: ADEK's Role in Women Empowerment

The fifth theme was on ADEK's role in women empowerment. Participants were asked how ADEK could emphasise and improve women participation in leadership roles. Many of the participants expressed their thoughts around four main areas: promoting gender equality; empowering women in authority; encouraging work-life balance and more training and continuous support. Female participants in particular argued that it was necessary for ADEK to give more opportunities for women to occupy leadership and

management roles. This finding has generally been echoed by many studies on gender equality in the UAE that have emphasised the need for a redress of the underrepresentation of women in senior leadership and top management positions (e.g. Al Marzouqi and Forster, 2011; Kemp et al, 2013). As reviewed in chapter 5, the UAE is committed to promoting gender quality and empowering women. The UAE is currently seen as a leader in the Gulf region in terms of gender equality in education and women empowerment (World Economic Forum, 2017), and the representation of women in government sector employment and political participation is on the rise (Ministry of State for Federal National Council, 2009; Kemp, 2012; Halder, 2016). The challenge remains the short supply of women in workplace and business leadership, particularly the private sector. Recent statistics in UAE educational leadership, however, appears to endorse UAE's top position in gender equality in the Arab world, as the proportion of female principals in Abu Dhabi, UAE has reached 61% - the largest proportion among the countries surveyed in the Teaching and Learning International Survey 2013 (OECD, 2014).

In addition to promoting gender equality in school leadership, most participants (male and female inclusive) also suggested that women should be given more authority and power to make important decisions. One male participant asserted that female and college schools suffer in particular from weak empowerment and limited power given to females and that this required ADEK to take measures to effectively correct this. It was also recognised that ADEK still has to face cultural barriers in improving equality of outcomes for male and female students as well as noted earlier. While some participants have praised ADEK's efforts in promoting gender equality and empowering women, some participants however, advised that more could be done around recognising women's extra responsibilities and family commitments and the need to support them in balancing work and family. This finding is in agreement with the view of the World Bank (2011) that mothers who are faced with unpaid domestic work and child care should be allowed greater access to part-time work so they can meet their children's care needs. It may therefore be helpful if ADEK could allow more women with heavy family commitments to work flexibly, whilst it will be appropriate for the UAE government to consider instituting affordable community-based provision of childcare. Participants have also called for ADEK to improve training and support for women in educational leadership and management and in balancing work and family life.

A summary of the five themes and their level of agreement with the corresponding literature is shown in table 9.1 below.

Table 9.1: Summary of Level of Agreement of Theme Findings with the Literature

Broad Theme	Strand of Literature	Agree	Disagree	Possible Extensions
Theme 1: Crucial Traits Needed for Educational Leadership	Trait-Based Theories of Leadership; Educational Leadership	X	-	There are possible extensions to the known leadership traits. This study has discovered that cultural orientation could be an additional leadership ‘trait’, as the practice of educational leadership differs from society to society depending on the cultural and belief systems prevalent in that social system. Cultural awareness is a key attribute.
Theme 2: Traditional and cultural influences on leadership	Gender Roles; Gender Discrimination; Patriarchy	X	-	Perhaps the overt attitudes of some of the male leaders were unexpected. Much of the literature concerns subtle stereotype bias and social norms which affect women through perpetuating the status quo, however, some of the male participants show explicit hostility to the idea of women in power. This may be an unexpected finding and shows disconnect between official government rhetoric of inequality and SOME male leaders’ attitudes
Theme 3: ADEK’s leadership recruitment policies	Recruitment and Selection of School Leaders in the UAE	X	-	Qualification criteria for school leadership should be amended to include personality traits and demonstration of strong leadership skills as well as understanding of the Arabic culture/language in addition to existing requirements such as degree qualifications, work experience and English language requirements.
	Gender and Leadership Single Sex Academic Institutions	Mixed		Some leaders expressed concern that sex segregation of leaders in schools was not helpful in addressing some of the pertinent challenges facing schools such as educational outcomes of boys and girls alike. In addition, situational factors such as school environment, job position, suitability of candidate may also be necessary considerations in recruitment of leaders beyond gender.

Theme 4: Influences on leadership effectiveness	ADEK's professional development for principals	-	X	ADEK's training and professional development of principals largely ignores several areas of school leadership accountability as well as transformational and communal leadership competencies/attributes. These should be incorporated into future professional development plans.
	Principal Compensation and Performance Incentives; Transactional Leadership	X	-	Female leaders seem to place quite some value on transactional processes, and it was also useful to note that male leaders were more 'on board' (in the survey at least) with incorporating/ valuing transformation approaches. Perhaps female leaders are more 'old fashioned' and traditional in what they think is valued.
Theme 5: ADEK's Role in women empowerment	Promoting gender equality and women empowerment	X	-	Possible extensions to the debate relate to cultural barriers which ADEK has to face in its effort to improve gender equality in educational outcomes for male and female students.

Source: Researcher's own analogy.

9.6. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the broad themes of the study in line with findings from phase 2 of the study and different strands of the literature. Findings from the first theme on crucial traits needed for leadership agree with much of the literature on leadership traits and models of educational leadership, including instructional leadership, distributed/collaborative leadership styles and moral leadership. However, the findings reveal that there is need to incorporate cultural orientation as an additional leadership trait, which would help educational leaders to adapt their skills and competencies to the cultural environment they have found themselves in order to be effective and successful in their leadership duties and meet the expectations of stakeholders. Responses from the second theme on traditional and cultural influences on leadership show that cultural tradition plays a huge role in influencing gender-based stereotypes and discrimination, thus supporting the literature on gender roles, gender discrimination and patriarchy.

Findings from the third theme on ADEK's recruitment policies agree with the literature on the selection of school leaders in the UAE, while it was mixed on the literature on gender and leadership of single sex academic institutions. However, findings show that qualification criteria for school leadership in the UAE should be amended to include personality traits and demonstration of strong leadership skills as well as understanding of the Arabic culture/language in addition to existing requirements such as degree qualifications, work experience and English language requirements. Findings from the fourth theme on influences on leadership effectiveness yielded mixed results. Participants noted that ADEK's existing delivery of training largely ignores school leaders and thus it is suggested that future training plans should incorporate several areas of school leadership accountability as well as transformational leadership competencies. However, the findings on principal compensation and incentive performance agrees with existing studies on transactional leadership.

Finally, finding from the fifth theme on ADEK's role in promoting gender quality and women empowerment agrees with the existing literature. However, ADEK still faces cultural barriers in its effort to improve gender equality in educational outcomes for male and female students, which could be explored further. The next chapters will focus on a triangulated discussion of leadership styles and gender differences.

Chapter Ten

Triangulated Discussion of Findings on Leadership Styles and Gender Differences

10.0. Introduction

This chapter adopts a triangulated discussion of the key findings of both phases of the study on gender and leadership styles and draws some insights, for the purpose of answering the key research questions on the effects of gender on leadership styles. Triangulation is a strategy used by researchers to enhance the validity and accuracy of a study (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003; Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2012). Triangulation is the process of corroborating evidence from different individuals (e.g. a principal and a teacher), types of data (e.g. survey, interviews) or methods of data collection (e.g. qualitative and quantitative methods) [Creswell, 2012]. Triangulating findings from both phases of the current study will, not only help to validate the results of the study, but will also deepen and widen our understanding of the subject matter as perceived by the respondents. The analysis of all perceptions across both phases demonstrated that issues and topics were perceived and reported differently by participants. This was useful, as the responses covered a wide range of relevant material functional in addressing the key research questions. Moreover, potential strategies can be formulated, considering these, sometimes conflicting, perceptions to identify good leadership in Abu Dhabi, and to highlight areas in need of improvement in many areas of school leadership.

Given that the last chapter has discussed a great deal of issues regarding traditional and cultural influences on leadership, ADEK's recruitment policies, other influences on leadership effectiveness and ADEK's role in women empowerment, the discussions contained in this chapter will now be focused on the principal aspects of this study which are centred on gender effects on leadership styles in the UAE. The triangulated discussion presented in this chapter examines the 'overarching story' of the data taken as an opus, examining the extent to which the findings from both phases of the study actually answer the research questions and achieve the stated principal objectives of the study. The discussions also compare findings to the works of others to see where there are similarities and differences. The chapter begins in 10.1 by briefly reviewing what we know about the leadership and management styles used or portrayed in the UAE to set the tone for understanding the triangulation of evidence on gender and leadership styles as reported in this study. It also highlights the UAE government's transformation agenda in section 10.2 to set the interpretive frame, for the government's vision for

transformational leadership and a knowledge-driven economy. Next, in section 10.3, the chapter examines leadership styles and personality trait theories. Within this section in 10.3.1, we examine the followers' (male and female teachers') perception of leadership styles currently being used in the schools today (including both the transformational and transactional aspects) and then in section 10.3.2, we see how the leaders themselves self-report their use of these leadership styles and the differences in their responses based on gender as well as differences in relation to the teachers' perception. There is also a section on cultural awareness and moral leadership which is part of the extension of this study. Section 10.4 provides some possible reasons for the differences in perceptions by position of the raters and by gender. More importantly, this section explores the reasons behind the conflict between leader and follower reports and the overt and subtle sexism emerging in both strands. Section 10.5 concludes the discussion.

10.1. Leadership and Management Styles in the UAE

Following the literature and the findings from the current study, the principal leadership and management styles adopted in the UAE today are a combination of managerial leadership (with some elements of transactional leadership), Islamic leadership, transformational leadership and moral leadership. The centralisation of formal powers in the royal rulers, who set the strategic vision and broad goals, portrays the UAE as a nation that practices managerial leadership (Mathias, 2017b). There is usually less room for manoeuvre of the vision by the followers, though there is room for consultation regarding implementation strategies (Mathias, 2017a). Managerial leaders in the UAE follow key Islamic principles of practice, including dependence on God, mutual consultation, accountability, justice, ethics, and team spirit. Islamic leadership also emphasises some key elements of transactional leadership, since it advocates spiritual or heavenly rewards for the achievement of good deeds and punishments for the execution of bad deeds (Ather and Sobhani, 2007; Egel and Fry, 2014). Supporting Blake and Mouton's (1978) managerial grid (examined earlier in chapter 2), Ather and Sobhani (2007) argue that Islam supports high productivity and high involvement of employees in an organisation. Hence, from Islamic point of view, Blake and Mouton's 9.9 style (team management) may be the target as an ideal leadership to become successful in managerial leadership. Islam also supports 5.5 style of leadership (middle of the road management). But Islam does not support 1.1 (impoverished management) and 1.9 (country club management) styles of leadership as these encourage low productivity in an organisation. On the other side, 9.1 (task management) cannot be accepted as employees' opinion is not considered

or consulted at all in this style of managerial leadership.

Studies examining transformational leadership practices in the UAE and GCC cultural settings (e.g. Khan and Varshney, 2013; Alharthi et al., 2014; Litz and Scott, 2017) suggest that there is some evidence that the use of transformational leadership style is positively associated with employee motivation, job satisfaction and organisational performance. In the current study, findings from the MLQ show that the most frequently displayed transformational leadership traits are inspirational motivation (that is marked by self-confidence and enthusiasm), idealised influence and intellectual stimulation (through problem solving and critical thinking). These three are key components of transformational leadership. The charismatic nature of leadership in the UAE is also demonstrated by the public leaders' recognition of the need to act as a role model to their followers (Rugh, 1999; Mathias, 2017b), which is consistent with idealised influence. In addition, the fact that the UAE government is committed to transforming the country into a modern economy and has consistently demonstrated this by setting and meeting broad economic and social goals also suggests it meets the second criteria for transformational leadership, inspirational motivation. In particular, UAE women are now confident and inspired by the UAE's leading role in the Middle East in championing the role of women in society. The intellectual stimulation element of UAE's transformational leadership is evident in the literacy rate of the country, which is now over 95%, with more than 70% of women in higher education suggesting that public leadership has been able to encourage innovation and creativity, as well as critical thinking and problem-solving in its followers, the citizens. Finally, the fourth element in transformational leadership, individualised consideration, is also demonstrated in the attention and care the UAE government gives to its citizens, and in addressing the needs of the people decisively. As noted by some of the participants in the current study, leaders in the UAE tend to value good human relations both within and outside work. Similarly, Khan and Varshney (2013) also noted that Saudi business managers tend to give preference to personal considerations over work goals.

Moral leadership also seems to stand out clearly as another practiced leadership style in the UAE. It is that kind of leadership where a leader observes the behaviour of others and holds himself to high ethical standards. He makes ethical decisions with the right moral values and character. In the UAE educational context, for example, students are taught the fundamental ideals of Islam in addition to learning from diverse cultures, an awareness of social rights and the role of Arabic culture in social life. As noted in chapters 2 and 3, school education and leadership in the UAE has historically followed

Islamic norms and traditions as well as the pursuit of the well-being of civilization. In fact, a new school curriculum including a new subject of moral education to promote ethics, tolerance, respect, and national loyalty has been introduced in the 2017/2018 academic year (International Trade Administration, 2018). The objective of the new initiative is to promote ethics, community growth, culture, heritage, sustainability, rights and responsibilities among students. To demonstrate the use of moral leadership further, participants in the MLQ survey in the current study seemed to value the moral and ethical conduct of their decisions (see section 10.3.3), which is clearly consistent with the tenets of moral leadership.

10.2. Background to Abu Dhabi's Transformation Agenda

Since the 1820s, the UAE has gone through several stages of educational transformation, beginning with traditional education in the form of religious education to more organised forms of formal school establishment and modern education. One of the main aims of the current administration, under the leadership of Sheikh Khalifa bin Zayed Al Nahyan, is to use education as the main driving force towards achieving the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 which aims to position UAE as a knowledge-based and productive economy of global standing (Government of Abu Dhabi, 2008). As a result, the Abu Dhabi Education Council (now known as Abu Dhabi Department for Education and Knowledge) was established to develop and implement innovative educational policies, plans and programmes that aim to improve education in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi and to support educational institutions and staff in a manner that helps to achieve the objectives of national development.

There have been significant improvements when it comes to the educational transformation in the UAE with the development of a new structure of education across all levels, improvement of educational management and governance as well as the establishment a New School Model which sets the foundation for an improved educational system in the Emirate of Abu Dhabi. However, there are a few areas that need further improvement, particularly the role of expatriates in the development of UAE New School Model, gender gaps in educational outcomes, the role of gender considerations in leadership appointments and the influence of culture and tradition on gendered leadership in the UAE, some of which have been reviewed already in the previous chapters. It is against this background that we can understand the wider

implications of some of the responses given by the respondents of the current study, who were drawn from Abu Dhabi public schools.

10.3. Leadership Styles and Personality Trait Theories

Although this discussion has focused mainly on the two contemporary leadership styles investigated – transformational and transactional leadership, it has attempted to extract other useful leadership styles that could also be inferred from participants' responses, especially from suggested leadership traits. Some of these theories are related to managerial leadership, moral leadership and situational leadership theories. The previous chapter (chapter 9) also showed evidence that leaders also support the use of instructional leadership and distributed/collaborative approaches to school leadership. Whereas individual leadership traits have not been strongly supported in the literature there is still a chance that some specific traits may be advocated by the study participants (apart from leadership 'style'). In chapter 8, participants mentioned several traits that school leaders should possess to be effective leaders – including being charismatic, visionary, influential, powerful, good at achieving goals, fostering relationships and resolving conflicts as well as leading and supporting team members. These advocated traits are line with trait theories that suggest prominent leaders have certain traits in them that make them successful (Stogdill, 1974; Smith and Peterson, 1989) and that leaders who possessed such traits were often selected for appointment to top positions (e.g. Bolden et al, 2003).

This section examines in detail the three main research questions regarding the leadership styles used, gender differences and differences by position of the rater. Findings from the MLQ survey conducted revealed that school leaders in Abu Dhabi use both transformational and transactional leadership styles and rarely report use of the laissez faire approach (which is not discussed in this chapter). This was revealed in the ranking of the mean values reported by the respondents. It should be noted that questions in the questionnaire did not directly ask participants which of the three leadership styles are present in the principals' leadership. The questionnaire included a range of strategies which the school leaders might employ, and leadership styles were then statistically inferred. However, from the interview responses, most of the school principals favoured what can be described as more of the use of transformational leadership styles, followed by the (less popular) transactional leadership approaches, laissez-faire approaches were not reported nor advocated. It should also be noted that, while the mapping diagram of the individual MLQ constructs presented in chapter 7 was useful in showing some unique

differences in the aspects of leadership projected by men and women, it has not been used to discuss the findings. Rather, responses to each of the items have helped to infer the general style reported overall (as reported in the t-tests and mean rankings). The next two sub-sections now discuss the followers' (teachers) perception as compared with leaders' self-reporting of the use of these styles and attempts to link these findings with previous research on leadership styles.

10.3.1. Followers' Perceptions on Transformational Leadership Styles and Personality Traits

This sub-section examines how followers (male and female teachers) currently perceive the leadership styles being used, as it is today in Abu Dhabi schools. In general terms, without gendered considerations, followers perceive that leaders (both male and female) practice some elements of transformational leadership, such as inspirational motivation, marked by self-confidence and enthusiasm, idealised influence, as well as intellectual stimulation through problem solving and critical thinking. But the teachers' perception of individualised considerations is low in general. This finding is interesting, as we may be able to learn that followers have a good understanding of what individualised consideration is and its importance, but leaders may be failing to implement it in practice- or they may be implementing it without recognising that they are doing so (and without recognising its importance). Litz and Scott (2017) also reported in their study of transformational leadership in the UAE that principals generally felt that they practiced many aspects of transformational leadership, such as modelling the way for staff, inspiring teachers, challenging the process, enabling staff to act, and encouraging subordinates through commendation and rewards, while teachers disagreed in all cases by providing significantly lower ratings than principals self-reported in agreement with the current study. This means that there could be potential social desirability bias occurring with these self-reported leadership practices of school leaders, in which case they may be responding in a socially acceptable manner rather than responding based on actual practices (more of this is explored in section 10.4.2).

With respect to transactional leadership, teachers (male and female inclusive) perceive that the predominant strategy used by leaders is passive management by exception based on ranked means of the top five items. A leadership style based on passive management by exception suggests that leaders may fail to take corrective action until problems become serious or chronic and only intervene if standards are not met (Bass, 1990). In addition, male and female teachers also unanimously think that leaders use a contingent

reward approach to leadership in the sense that they value exchange of rewards for effort, and promise rewards for good performance, as well as recognise accomplishments in line with the findings of Burns (1978), Bass (1990) and Avolio et al (1999). As shown below in the discussion of interview results with leaders (section 10.3.1), evidence from both phases of the study support the use of transactional leadership in conjunction with transformational leadership.

The above results are general perceptions of male and female teachers inclusive. However, when gendered considerations are taken into account, the t-test results reported in chapter 7, show that there are significant differences in male and female teachers' perception of the school leaders' use of both transformational and transactional leadership styles. Teachers perceive the display of transformational leadership more in female leaders, based on the overall ranking by female teachers. Female teachers rated the use of transformational leadership in principals as ($p < .05$) whereas male teachers rated the use transformational leadership in principals as ($p < .05$). This means that female teachers report that female principals show more attributes of transformational leadership, compared with male teachers' reports of their male principals. In contrast, as shown in chapter 7, female leaders self-reported lower levels of transformational leadership than their male counterparts. This implies that the female leaders may not be aware they are practicing transformational leadership, or feel inclined not to report it, but their followers perceive they are. In chapter 7, it was concluded that more women than men reported spending more time teaching and coaching followers and in helping others develop their strengths. This appears to be consistent with studies that show women to be particularly strong in person development; in teaching, mentoring and attending to the needs and concerns of their followers (Al-Taneiji, 2006). Within the context of UAE education in particular, Al-Taneiji (2006) and Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) found that female principals in Al-Ain and Dubai schools clearly possess transformational leadership characteristics, such as practicing more use of interpersonal relationships, and are more capable of providing their teachers with learning opportunities through mentoring. In line with trait-based theories reviewed in chapter 3, followers may be perceiving women as more empathetic (i.e. having high emotional quotient), in the sense that they are able to influence followers by arousing strong emotions and identification with the team (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Alkatani (2016) also note that leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to correctly assess and regulate the emotions of their followers to achieve the desired emotional state so that they are able to attain their expected performance, which appears to be evident in this study as reported. Thus, followers perceive that female leaders display a good level of psychological traits and

some social skills in line with trait theories. One other intuition is that female leaders are likely to also exercise referent power over their followers, instead of legitimate power (power from one's position in the chain of command or hierarchy). As reviewed in chapter 3, referent power comes from loyalty and goodwill than a leader earns because of his/her healthy relationship with his followers.

With respect to transactional leadership, male teachers (followers) rated their school leaders (principals) as more transactional leaders, though this finding was not significant. However, based on overall rankings, male teachers ranked their school leaders as more transactional ($M=1.87$) than transformational ($M=1.79$), implying that followers perceive male principals as having more preference for transactional leadership than transformational leadership. In line with transactional leadership theories, this means that followers' overall ranking suggest that male leaders may be more effective in using contingent reward, where leaders exchange reward in return for compliance from subordinates (Burns, 1978; Baker and Rose, 1989; Bass, 1990; Avolio et al, 1999) as well as in exercising control over task accomplishments to achieve desired performance (e.g. Antonikas, 2003; Patel and Buiting, 2013). Trait theories also seem to suggest that one of the effectiveness traits of task-oriented leaders is ambition, that is, being achievement-orientated (Bolden et al, 2003). Interestingly, as shown in chapter 7 and below, male leaders disagree with followers by self-reporting higher levels of transformational leadership than women ($p<.05$) and in overall ranking. Some of the reasons for these discrepancies are discussed in section 10.4.

10.3.2. Leaders' Self-Reporting of Leadership Styles and Personality Traits

This sub-section examines what leaders say about their own use of transformational and transactional leadership styles and whether they agree or disagree with followers' perception as well as important gender differences or similarities in their responses. Findings from the MLQ responses for the whole sample of leaders (male and female inclusive) showed that leaders self-reported themselves to be exhibiting all the elements of transformational leadership, including idealised influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration across the 20 constructs of transformational leadership used as postulated by Bass and Avolio (2000). The results from the MLQ were corroborated by findings from the interviews in which a sub-set of the leaders participated. Many school principals supported the use of transformational leadership as they mentioned repeatedly that respect for others, cooperation and understanding, and healthy people relationships were among the crucial traits of a good leader. They emphasised the need for the leader to be available to guide

and support the team members toward the achievement of group goals and in solving problems.

As noted in earlier chapters, transformational leadership involves the development of a relationship of mutual needs, aspirations, and value (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Avolio et al, 1999; Northouse, 2015; Alkahtani, 2016). Most of the respondents appeared to have stressed the key transformational leadership elements in their responses as they maintained that an influential leader should create a positive working environment, be a role model and appreciate the needs of each employee. In other words, as the team achieve their work objectives, they get closer to the fulfilment of their own needs and aspirations. In the present study, participants admit that a leader should be charismatic, inspiring, motivational and treat all employees as individuals rather than as just members of a group. One interview participant mentioned that influence must come from the leader first and that team members are likely to follow a leader that is credible. In this regard, another participant mentioned that a leader must strive for the best to achieve personal success, implying that with his personality, he can influence both staff and students toward achieving success by being a good role model. Another participant mentioned that a democratic leader with a strong personality appeals to employees. This means that charisma is required in school leadership to help set a vision, instil trust, confidence and pride in working as a team towards goal accomplishment.

Another respondent suggested that to obtain the full cooperation of followers, leaders need to be humble and guide and support their team. This means that principals perceive transformational leadership as a mutually beneficial form of leadership since both leaders and followers are passionate and co-operate well with each-other based on healthy relationships built in and out of work. Transformational leaders sincerely serve the needs of others, empower them and inspire followers to achieve great success. In addition, many of these people management and relationship-based traits suggested by participants in the current study also corroborate Blake and Mouton's (1978) highest managerial grid - which is team management (high production, high people). Accordingly, a leader is able to achieve high performance through leading teams toward goal achievement. In other words, this kind of leaders tend to satisfy members' needs for team work and participation and value the creative and constructive contributions of their team members in making sound decisions that lead to attainment of group goals (Blake and Mouton, 1978).

Though majority of the MLQ and interview respondents (male and female inclusive)

valued transformational leadership qualities, the respondents seemed to suggest qualitatively that there should be some element of control and managerial leadership to maintain a balance. One participant suggested that without control, there is no management. In fact, control is one of the main features of transactional leadership, since the leader uses contingent reward (or punishment) as a basis for obtaining a follower's cooperation. This is in line with findings of studies reviewed earlier on transactional leadership (e.g. Burns, 1978; Bass, 1990; Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996; Antonikas et al, 2003). In many of these studies, as with the present study, it was found that transactional leaders tend to focus on taking corrective actions to ensure that there are no deviations from the task. This is referred to as 'active management by exception' (Bass, 1990; Avolio et al, 1999). They also tend to clarify goals and expectations and communicate the tasks and activities that are necessary to achieve the goals set. However, according to the leaders' self-reporting of their use of transactional leadership, the predominant strategy of transactional leadership used is 'passive management by exception', which appeared in the top three by mean ranking.

When gender differences are taken into consideration, evidence from the t-test results presented in chapter 7 showed that male leaders self-reported themselves as using transformational style more than transactional (according to ranked means) and statistically, their levels ($M = 1.98$) are higher than the female counterparts ($F = 1.87$). This was an unexpected finding as it does not agree with the mapping diagram and the mainstream view on women's way of leading, which show that women are perceived as exhibiting more transformational leadership behaviour than male leaders in that they adopt more democratic and participative management style and less transactional and directive approaches (e.g. Rosener, 1990; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau and Johnson, 1992; Al-Taneiji, 2006; Rohmann and Rowold, 2009; Taleb, 2010).

On the other hand, this result seems to be consistent with the findings of Eboka (2016) which revealed that teachers in secondary schools with transformational principals and male principals experienced a higher level of morale than teachers in schools with transactional principals and female principals, implying that male principals were more charismatic and provided more inspired leadership than female principals. But as noted earlier, in the current study, followers perceived transformational leadership more in female leaders. So, when followers' perspectives are taken into consideration, the self-reporting of male leaders may be misleading. In fact, one intuition may be that male leaders, knowing the transformation agenda of the UAE government may be showing signs of impression management in the sense that they may want to be perceived to be

in favour of the government's vision of transformational leadership in schools but may not in actual fact be practicing what they have reported or at least be seen to be doing so by the followers (More on this is discussed in section 10.4.2 under socially desirable responding). In addition, these could also be the reflection of a subtle form of sexism, in which case, the results might be confirming some of the cultural learned gender stereotypes assigned to males and females, which were also evident in the qualitative segment of the study (more of this is explored in section 10.4.3 under ambivalent sexism)

In terms of transactional leadership, the mapping diagram showed that female leaders reported on average to be more dominant in exhibiting this leadership style, implying that there is a significant gender difference in the styles self-reported by the leaders. Men tended to be higher than women, on average, in reporting 'clarifying goals and expectations for performance related outcomes'. They are also higher in 'clarifying who is responsible for achieving targets' and 'showing satisfaction when others meet expectations'. These results are consistent with those studies that found men to be more effective in using transactional and task-oriented leadership approaches (e.g. Rosener, 1990; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau and Johnson, 1992; Rohmann and Rowold, 2009; Taleb, 2010) as well as in exercising control to achieve desired performance (e.g. Patel and Buiting, 2013). However, according to the results, women were higher in leader-subordinate exchange of reward and efforts. They also have a relatively higher mean in many areas that emphasise taking corrective actions only when things go wrong but higher in attention when dealing with mistakes. This latter result is consistent with the view held by one female interview respondent regarding the use of elements of managerial leadership as a basis for successful school leadership, and also consistent with studies that showed that women apply more expectations and rewards, that is, they set clear expectations and responsibilities and rewards for achievements (Patel and Buiting, 2013). Male teachers, however, reported a higher ranking of the use of transactional leadership by school leaders, though this ranking is not statistically different from that of the female teachers. Interestingly, this does not conform with the self-reported ranking of male leaders, which revealed more use of transformational leadership. The possible reasons for these divergent results are explained in section 10.4 below.

10.3.3. Cultural Awareness and Moral Leadership

Another interesting finding from the interview is that the possession of transformational leadership qualities alone may not be sufficient for successful school leadership without an understanding of the local culture in which the leader works. This finding is similar

to what Litz and Scott (2017) have noticed about the practice of transformational leadership in the UAE, wherein they suggested that those wishing to practice transformational leadership in UAE schools should accommodate the cultural beliefs of the country. This is because they found great variations in the leadership styles adopted by Emirati principals and their western counterparts. For example, as noted in chapter 4, equality and fundamental human values are central to the Islamic faith, and as such, a good leader in the Islamic context must be seen to demonstrate qualities that promote equality and equity in all decisions regardless of teacher/ practitioner/ leader faith, cultural background (Syed and Ali, 2010; Khan and Varshney, 2013). Thus, it is about awareness and not being from 'one' religion/ country. At least two of the interview participants mentioned the need for leaders to be equitable and treat all staff equally in line with the teachings of Islam (Shah, 2010). In fact, an examination of the top five factors that leaders ranked in the MLQ reveal that they appear to give more consideration to the moral and ethical aspects of their decisions and the importance of values and beliefs, which suggests that they appear to also exhibit some elements of moral leadership. In other words, participants may be unanimous in their view of transformational leadership as being moderated by a reflection on the moral aspects of leadership. As reviewed in chapter 4, advocates of moral leadership in education believe that leaders have a moral and ethical responsibility to manage schools in the sense that they must decide what is ethically correct and enforce it autocratically (Bush, 2007). Branson (2007) suggested a self-reflection model, wherein leaders think deeply about their motives and inner beliefs before taking certain actions, which he argues will help leaders in developing and using their moral consciousness in making decisions. In the context of UAE, school leaders have the obligation to promote the goal of basic education in cultivating students' enthusiasm for knowledge, academic freedom and creativity, whilst upholding the main tenets of Islam in all teaching and learning endeavours.

Trait theories also seem to emphasise some aspects of moral leadership, particularly honesty and integrity as part of the effectiveness traits of a leader Bolden et al (2003). In the current study, women were more likely, based on higher mean differentials, to report they 'go beyond the self-interest of the group' and consider the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions' than men though overall, both gender equally emphasised the importance of their values and beliefs. This finding appears to show that female leaders in Abu Dhabi schools may be exhibiting some level of moral leadership and ethical decision making and tends to support some studies that appear to show that women practice more honesty and integrity. For example, the research by Zenger Folkman, which asked 7,280 leaders across several organisations globally to rate men

and women based on 16 competencies, showed that the largest gaps in favour of women were found in taking initiative, practising self-development, integrity and honesty and driving for results (Zenger Folkman, 2012).

10.4. Possible Reasons for Differences in Perceptions

Findings from t-test result reported in chapter 7 and the analyses given above show that there were significant differences between the teacher's and principals' perceptions of the use of transformational and transactional leadership styles with and without gender considerations. There may be two possible reasons for the differences in opinion. One is attributional bias, and the other is socially desirable responding (SDR).

10.4.1. Attributional Bias and Role Congruity

One possible explanation for the contradictory results shown in terms of how raters have perceived the leadership styles of principals is what Lopez and Ensari (2014) have called 'attributional bias' within the context of leadership. This is the tendency for "observers to attribute organisational outcomes mainly to the leader regardless of whether the leader's behaviour was in fact, relevant to that outcome" (Lopez and Ensari, 2014:22). In other words, people tend to give blame or credit to their leaders for a particular outcome, not because of their ability or traits, but because of other factors which may be connected to their social environments. In this regard, Eagly and Karau (2002) argue that there is a difference between men's and women's perception of leaders. Men have lesser experience with female leaders, and this makes them have a masculine perception of leadership. Male perceivers show a stronger tendency than female perceivers to view women as less qualified than men for leadership (Eagly and Karau, 2002: 577). This is the concept of role congruity theory, which proposes that a group will be positively evaluated when its characteristics are recognised as aligning with that group's typical social roles (Eagly and Deikman, 2005). Accordingly, perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles may lead to prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

However, Paustian-Underdahl et al (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of perceptions of leadership effectiveness across 99 independent samples from 95 studies and found that when all leadership contexts are considered, men and women do not differ in perceived leadership effectiveness. Yet, when other-ratings only are examined, women are rated significantly more effective than men. In contrast, they found that when self-ratings only are examined, men rate themselves as significantly more effective than women rate

themselves. This latter finding is similar to the current study, where female leaders rated themselves lower in using transformational leadership than men did even though their followers perceived them as having transformational leadership qualities, which may be attributed to female-leadership role incongruence. Another good example is the study by Aziz et al (2017) who examined the perceptions of male and females regarding gender-based differences in educational leadership in Pakistan and found that both male and female respondents perceive that males displayed more leadership qualities as compared to females particularly in decision making and in empowering the employees. This may be pointing to the influence of patriarchy and male dominance in Muslim-dominated countries, which may have influenced the mindset of even the female perceivers in favour of men.

10.4.2. Socially Desirable Responding (SDR)

Indeed, another factor that may have affected the self-reporting of responses by leaders in the current study, just as in many other studies, is the notion of socially desirable responding (SDR), which suggests that respondents in a survey tend not to respond truthfully but simply provide positive self-descriptions to make themselves look good (Steenkamp, et al, 2010). This kind of behaviour affects the validity of the responses. Consequently, SDR has been described as “one of the most pervasive response biases” in survey data (Mick, 1996:106). Kim and Kim (2016) also show that self-reported questionnaires studies are vulnerable to social desirability bias due to respondents’ tendencies to answer in a more socially acceptable way. They showed in their study that a country’s national culture may have an impact on social desirability in public service motivation. In line with this behaviour, one intuition with the self-reporting of male leaders in the current study could be that their higher ranking of transformational leadership may have been coloured by the need to portray themselves as being in agreement with the transformational leadership agenda of the Abu Dhabi government, which aims to promote a knowledge-driven economy by reforming school leadership and educational practice. Hence, if their actual practices are inconsistent with this vision (at least as perceived by teachers), they may not want this to be seen in the eyes of the public. In other words, they may be making efforts to create a positive impression of themselves. On the other hand, female leaders may be responding to report the leadership style that they perceive to be valued in the hierarchy (which is transactional leadership in this case).

In fact, there might be evidence to suggest that male participants have in the past socially responded to gender issues in matters of national importance in the UAE. For example, the results of a survey and interview on prevalent attitudes toward political participation

in the UAE conducted by the Dubai School of Government and the Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs (Al Dabbagh and Nusseibeh, 2009) showed that most men and women held overtly positive attitudes about women's political participation, especially when government plays an active role in facilitating women's participation. But, according to the study, there were gender differences in more subtle attitudes toward women's participation when respondents were asked about women's contribution to the political process with more men saying that voters were not willing to elect a woman to the Federal National Council (FNC). In other words, there seems to be conflict between this latter response and the former one, which might suggest that men's overall notion of support for women in politics may be biased. Interestingly, more women than men also thought that voters did not have as much confidence in women than they had in men, confirming studies that show that women tend to display less self-confidence than men (e.g. Madsen, 2010b; Patel and Buiting, 2013).

10.4.3. Ambivalent Sexism

The foregoing example of conflict of responses often presented by men in discussion of gender participation in matters of public interest could be related to the concept of 'ambivalent sexism', which is an ideology composed of both a "hostile" and "benevolent" prejudice toward women (Glick and Fiske, 1996). According to Glick and Fiske (1996), hostile sexism is a form of overt antagonism or hostility toward women, while benevolent sexism refers to attitudes toward women that appear to stimulate behaviours typically perceived as prosocial (positive and socially acceptable) but in actual fact is a subtle form of sexist opposition. This brings to mind the overt 'old-fashioned' sexist attitudes of some of the interviewees in the current study as compared with some of the subtle forms of bias demonstrated by others in the study by Al Dabbagh and Nusseibeh (2009) discussed above. For example, as reviewed in chapters 8 and 9, some of the blatant (overt) sexist comments made by two male participants were: "*As a middle eastern man, I was raised to lead women, not to be led by women...|*". "*...when it comes to power, I don't like to feel that I am below women*". Culturally learned stereotypical attitudes towards women like this reinforce the patriarchal, male-controlled nature of the UAE society, which has over the years led to the marginalisation of women in education, employment and in the society at large as reviewed by several studies (e.g. Salaam, 2003; Al Marqouzi and Forster, 2011; Kemp, 2013).

But these overt or 'hostile' sexist attitudes can be contrasted with the subtle biases or 'benevolent' prejudice were also apparent in many of the female and male comments during the qualitative interviews and could help to explain results from the quantitative

angle. For example, it was observed that one female principal noted that some people believe that men are better leaders than women and another male principal did not agree that women should be empowered for leadership roles since she is already a mother and a wife. Another female principal noted that she prefers working with men more than she does women, arguing that women pay attention to every little detail while men work simply, and are more understanding and easy going. On the other hand, quite a number of women also revealed their preference to work under their fellow women, with some citing the natural characteristics of women in terms of family orientation, feeling of empathy and cultural similarities in appearance and dressing as main factors for this preference. These kind of culturally learned gender stereotypes tend to project some subtle shades of 'benevolent' sexism in favour of a particular gender. These might also explain why the followers' perceptions of their leader's leadership styles (male leaders perceived by male teachers to be more transactional and female leaders perceived by female teachers to be more transformational) seem to conform with these gender stereotypes, though leaders' self-reporting of themselves give the opposite results.

However, it was observed that both men and women alike in the current study had more negative stereotypes for female leaders while females are generally more discriminatory of male leaders than males. This confirms global cross-cultural studies that show that attitudes toward female authorities are usually negative for men and women alike while women generally report less prejudice against female authorities than men, implying that women's explicit attitudes are more equal than are men's. (e.g. Glick and Fiske, 1996; Rudman and Kilianski, 2000). As reviewed in chapter 5, the barriers women face in reaching senior leadership positions are more complex given that both males and females alike are not traditionally supportive of female leaders. In fact, because most leadership positions (such as CEO, managers, educational leaders) are stereotypically masculine in nature, females aspiring to leadership positions have to adopt masculine qualities to fit the established pattern of leadership (Karpf, 2006). In fact, as reviewed in chapter 5, in a survey of head teachers in England and Wales, Coleman (2001) found that most women head teachers had to justify their leadership position both at the time of application for headship and whilst still serving as head. However, it is only when women can disprove these traditional masculine thinking about them that they can overcome the barriers to their leadership aspiration/development and a culture of 'feminised leadership' (Rudman and Glick, 2010) can be established within a traditional patriarchal society like the UAE.

10.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has examined the findings of the study as an opus, against the research questions and objectives, in order to tell the story of perceptions and ‘fit’ of male and female followers (teachers), and their leaders set within traditional patriarchy, and the subtle and overt biases produced. Findings from the MLQ survey conducted revealed that school leaders in Abu Dhabi use both transformational and transactional leadership styles and rarely use the laissez-faire approach. However, from the interview responses, most of the school principals favoured more of the use of transformational leadership styles than transactional leadership approaches. In summary, there seems to be evidence to suggest that while, women are reported by their followers as displaying more features of transformational leadership, the t-test results showed the opposite results for leaders, as male leaders self-reported higher levels of transformational leadership, which was statistically significant. The differences in perceptions and opinions expressed may either be because of attributional bias on the part of the raters or perceivers, or because of socially desirable responding for the self-reporters- in efforts to ‘fit’ with organisational, cultural and patriarchal demands, which may have introduced bias in projected their leadership strengths. But in all, this study has found a mix of reporting and preference for both transformational (reported more by male leaders but perceived more in female leaders by their female followers) but equally high reporting of transactional styles by female leaders and perceived in male followers. Even the triangulated findings in the interview show much support for both styles- at least in terms of transactional rewards (such as money and promotion opportunities).

Chapter Eleven

Conclusion and Recommendations for Policy and Practice

11.0. Introduction

This study has examined gender effects on leadership styles in public schools in Abu Dhabi, UAE. The study was motivated by the apparent lack of women in educational leadership and management in the UAE, despite increasing number of women in higher education and the relatively high enrolment and academic performance of females at all levels of education. The study specifically examined the differences in leadership styles between male and female school leaders (principals) in the UAE (as well as teachers' perceptions) and the perceived challenges that women face in leadership positions, particularly when seeking higher leadership positions. The research explored a range of different associated factors including traditional and cultural influences on leadership, issues in leadership recruitment and gender discrimination in leadership, as well as the role of training, skills and monetary rewards in leadership effectiveness and school improvement. The study firstly made use of data collected from the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) responses of 300 school principals and 300 school teachers (male and female inclusive) and secondly, semi-structured interviews of 12 male (6) and female (6) principals selected by purposeful sampling in the Abu Dhabi, Al Ain and Western regions of UAE. Therefore, the study adopted a mixed-methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative paradigms of data collection and analysis. Quantitative data analysis (descriptives and t-tests) and thematic analysis were employed to validate the findings and to address the range of research questions. This combination of subjective and objective data interpretation was employed to achieve a 'multi-dimensional' depiction of the research area.

This chapter will revisit the findings and draw concluding remarks from the literature. It also proffers policy recommendations for improving educational leadership in the UAE, in general, and driving women empowerment, in particular. There is a final section on the researcher's position after the study, which sets out my final remarks on the whole discussion on gender and educational leadership in the UAE, particularly laying out out how my world view on the subject matter has been influenced over the course of my study and equally how it has given me insight, access and shared language/experience with participants.

11.1. Summary of Findings by Research Questions

The findings of the study will be examined against the stated objectives and research questions of this study provided in chapter 1. Due to the nature of the study, both phases of data collected evoked participants' perceptions of issues related to the research topic. It is important to make some conclusions based on whether the findings from the research are sufficient to answer each of the research questions as outlined previously in chapter 1 and 6.

Research Question #1: *What are the main leadership styles used by educational leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools?*

Findings from the MLQ survey conducted revealed that school leaders in Abu Dhabi use both transformational and transactional leadership styles more often than the laissez-faire approach. However, from the interview responses, most of the school principals mentioned several psychological and effectiveness traits and skills that a leader should possess, which are consistent with transformational leadership and other relevant models of leadership such as Islamic leadership, managerial leadership, moral leadership, distributed/collaborative leadership, and instructional leadership. The triangulated discussion of findings showed that, while educational leaders in the UAE support transformational leadership, they may not be particularly implementing all aspects of it, as teachers perceived that leaders hardly demonstrated the use of individual consideration and personalised support. Both leaders and teachers also agree that the predominant strategy of transactional leadership used is 'passive management by exception', while teachers also unanimously think that leaders use a contingent reward approach to leadership. Thus, evidence from both phases of the study support the use of transformational leadership in conjunction with transactional leadership and seen as the most effective regardless of gender.

In addition, it was revealed that cultural orientation should be an additional leadership trait as the practice of educational leadership differs from society to society depending on the cultural and belief systems prevalent in that social system. Thus, for school leaders to be effective in the UAE, they would need to accommodate the cultural beliefs of the country and embrace the principles of moral leadership based on enforcement of what is ethically right.

Research Question #2: *Do leadership styles vary according to the gender of the leader?*

Findings from phase one indicated that there are crucial gender differences in the use of

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles based on the higher mean difference between male and female responses to the MLQ survey. While women leaders reported displaying more features of transactional leadership, the t-test results showed that male leaders self-reported higher levels of transformational leadership, which was statistically significant. Both male and female leaders rated laissez-faire as the least reported style.

Research Question #3: *Do leadership styles vary according to the position held by the rater (Leader or Teacher)?*

Results are mixed. When independent samples t-tests were conducted based on the position of the respondents (i.e. whether leader or teacher), there were contradicting results for the relative use of transformational and transactional leadership styles by males and females. Analysis of results for leaders revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female in laissez-faire and transactional leadership, but there is a significant difference in transformational with male leaders self-reporting that they exhibited more transformational leadership style than female leaders. By contrast, the results for the teachers (followers) show they are perceiving their female leaders as exhibiting significantly more transformational leadership styles. However, there was no significant difference between male and female in transactional leadership style based on the teacher's evaluation. These outcomes may be linked to attributional bias between male and female respondents towards their leaders, or it could be that leaders want to conform to perceived expectations of a successful leader in the UAE system, in what looks like socially desirable responding (SDR) of their self-reporting.

Research Question #4: *Are ADEK's leadership recruitment policies effective?*

No, findings from phase 2 (interviews) showed that many participants expressed concern regarding the effectiveness of ADEK's recruitment and general staffing policies, citing lack of flexibility of the requirements and lack of depth and rigor of interview process as key shortcomings. Other issues include non-inclusion of personality traits and leadership competencies as part of testing procedures, barriers posed by English language requirement to leadership aspiration, lack of effective training to qualify principals and foreign leaders' lack of understanding of the local culture caused by their short contract length.

Research Question #5: *Does gender play a role in the recruitment and appointment of educational leaders?*

Results are mixed here. Gender plays an important role in recruitment because of the

need to respect the Arab culture and traditions and the predominance of single sex schools in the UAE (which separate male and female students). In this regard, gender plays a role, not as qualifying criteria, but mainly in deciding the placement of leaders, as most male leaders are posted to boys' schools and female leaders to girls' schools. However, some leaders expressed concern that sex segregation of leaders in schools was not helpful in addressing some of the important challenges facing schools such as educational outcomes of boys and girls alike. In addition, this study shows that beyond gender, situational factors such as school environment, job position, suitability of candidate may also be necessary considerations in recruitment of leaders.

Research Question #6: What is the influence of culture and tradition on leadership in public schools?

There are several traditional and cultural barriers to leadership aspiration, leadership effectiveness and job performance, particularly family commitments and traditions and cultural influences on gendered discrimination. Most respondents, particularly female participants expressed deep concern about their family commitments and the role of cultural tradition, which prevents them from taking and coping with leadership positions.

Research Question #7: Do other factors such as training, skills and monetary rewards play a role in leadership effectiveness and school improvement?

Yes. In terms of leadership effectiveness, lack of effective training and skills prevented many from achieving their work goals or even taking higher positions. In addition, monetary incentives (in the form of bonuses, rewards, promotions) not only motivate a leader's performance, but also drive school improvement and student performance lending credence to the effectiveness of the transactional aspects of leadership (especially those based on contingent reward) in UAE public schools.

Research Question #8: What areas should ADEK focus on in efforts to improve educational leadership (including women empowerment policies)?

For women's empowerment, the study shows that ADEK seems to be tackling the issue of gender equality and women empowerment in leadership, but more training and support are required around helping women balance their work and family life, especially. Section 11.3 below presents more specific recommendations for ADEK and UAE authorities.

11.2. Concluding Remarks from the Literature

Leadership theory suggests that there may be variations in the leadership styles used at different levels within the organisation, depending on the task at hand and the knowledge, capability, motivation and readiness levels of staff within the organisation (e.g. Fiedler, 1967; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; Hersey and Blanchard, 1988; Hoy and Miskel, 1996; Bolden et al, 2003). Leadership styles also vary by ideological beliefs, educational contexts, cultural values, knowledge sources, religious orientation, and gender, among other factors (Gunter, 2001; Walker and Dimmock, 2002; Pugh and Hickson, 2003; Bush, 2007; Shah, 2010, 2016). Within the context of educational leadership, contemporary theories (e.g. by Bottery, 2001; Marzano, 2012) suggest that school leaders can create and articulate a vision for their school and should be able to inspire the motivation and participation of not just teachers, but all stakeholders in making that vision a reality. The UAE is on the constant path of development for its educational transformation and has realised the need to utilise more transformational leadership approaches in schools rather than just relying on elements of transactional or managerial leadership. Transformational leadership is driven by vision and change, and the role of the leader is in envisioning and executing organisational transformation through inspirational and charismatic leadership. By contrast, transactional leadership emphasises the importance of the contractual relationship between the leader and the followers and the rewards (or penalties) that leaders give in return for the commitment and performance of the followers. But both are seen as used and useful by men and women leaders in this study along with other relevant models of educational leadership such as moral leadership, instructional leadership, distributed/collaborative leadership, and managerial leadership.

Effective leadership within the context of Arabic culture at least as shown by some recent studies (e.g. Shah, 2010; Alhaj and Van horne, 2013; Khan and Varshney, 2013; Litz and Scott, 2017) requires that leaders develop good understanding of the local culture (including religious beliefs) and embrace equality and basic human values (which are the key tenets of Islam). However, it appears that there are tensions between some Islamic teachings and what exists in the UAE today, as gender stereotypes of women and leadership are deeply rooted and culturally learned and strengthened across all aspects of society. This is demonstrated by inequality in educational leadership outcomes between Emirati males and females, gender workplace discrimination, lack of women in top leadership positions and even in education where women are more in number. Though females are taking the lead in educational enrolment, and the most of them are reaching higher levels of education, the number of Emirati women in the workplace is still in short

supply and women are under-represented in business leadership and top management positions, including educational leadership. Several socio-cultural and attitudinal barriers can account for these inequalities, especially the patriarchal, male-controlled nature of the UAE society, gender segregation, the impact of religion and traditional family values in the Arab culture, which affects the leadership ambition of women. The present research revealed conflicting views on gender equality. For example, men and women participants express different tolerance levels with respect to working with the opposite sex, and some men held extreme stereotypical views on gender roles and women's involvement in leadership. Even though these challenges exist, the UAE has shown real advances towards promoting gender equality and has made significant improvements in this area over recent years, (e.g. the New School Model, ADEK trainings, etc) and the significant reduction in illiteracy of women, participation of women in government and politics. However, gender equality is a continuous process, driven by a passionate force of both males and females, with strong government support across the country

11.3. Recommendations for Policy and Practice

This section provides policy suggestions towards improving educational leadership in the UAE and in reducing the real and perceived social barriers to women's full participation in the UAE workforce and leadership.

11.3.1. Improving Educational Leadership in the UAE

The findings of the study have revealed that all stakeholders, including ADEK, school leaders, teachers and other relevant policy makers should consider change or improve certain aspects that require attention, in line with but extending the transformation agenda of the Abu Dhabi Government. Here are some key areas for improving educational leadership in the UAE.

Leadership Training: Appropriate training for leaders and teachers is necessary for providing sound school leadership and encouraging student success. The OECD also advocate different stages of training for school leaders in its manual for improving school leadership (Pont et al, 2008). These training programs cover preparatory training for school leadership, formal induction programs for beginning school leadership and in-service professional development for school leadership. Induction programmes are particularly valuable to prepare and shape initial school leadership practices and they provide vital networks for principals to share concerns and explore challenges (Pont, et

al., 2008). These programmes should provide a combination of theoretical and practical knowledge and self-study. It is thus advisable to make initial induction training mandatory for school leaders regardless of tenure to unify standards of leadership and practice across the board. Thus, it would also be helpful if ADEK considered training new leadership recruits in specific aspects of educational leadership rather than general leadership. For example, it might be worth training school leaders on ADEK's own areas of accountability for principals, such as continuous improvement and evaluation of school performance, developing policies and programmes, ensuring effective and efficient utilisation of school resources, building leadership capacity within the school and stakeholder engagement (ADEK, 2015a). But what might this training look like?

ADEK could incorporate training on leadership qualities that principals have perceived to be important in the current study, such as goal setting and achievement, problem solving, stimulating cooperation and understanding, team leadership, building healthy relationships, and understanding culture and tradition in the school environment, professionalism and excellence, confidence and assertiveness, leading student success, among other areas. ADEK can turn these into a set of standardised or accredited training workshops or programmes for educational leadership. ADEK can also organise training sessions on the five competencies with which it evaluates principals: (1) Leading Strategically; (2) Leading Teaching and Learning; (3) Leading the Organisation; (4) Leading People, and (5) Leading the Community. Professional training of principals could help them to perform their duties effectively and bring about educational excellence in all areas. ADEK can also consider training leaders on other key areas that have been found by educational leadership scholars to be crucial to effective transformational leadership of schools such as articulating, developing and achieving a school's vision and mission; determining goals and objectives; offering intellectual orientation, providing personalised support, adopting best practices and values; requiring high performance expectations, establishing a productive school culture and developing an organic structure to promote participation in school decisions (Leithwood, 1994). In addition, the value of communal or relational leadership approaches and making transformational leadership practices explicit to both male and female trainees might also be incorporated in formal training programs.

Reforming the Recruitment Process: There is need to improve not only the quantity but the quality of teachers and leaders in Abu Dhabi public schools. As the present study shows, many female leaders felt that the qualification criteria (especially IELTS) were a significant barrier to forward progression. One possible way to resolve this is for ADEK

to help non-English native speakers to qualify for leadership by creating or collaborating with IELTS support centres where appropriate. Participants also felt that under the current recruitment system, leadership candidates do not demonstrate strong leadership skills especially in relation to personality traits. Thus, ADEK should consider introducing tests on key personality traits, teaching management and educational leadership competencies to attract higher quality teaching and leadership candidates. Introducing a more rigorous screening and selection process to evaluate candidates before they begin training as teachers will allow ADEK to invest more resources in the best ones. Barber, et al. (2007) show that in both Finland and Singapore, candidates for university teacher-training programs must pass a rigorous application process, including a curriculum vitae screen, literacy and numeracy assessments, and interviews with experienced head teachers. In Singapore, only students in the top 30% of their class can apply for those programs and with a teacher acceptance rate of one in six, the process is very selective. Low acceptance rates help to boost the prestige and desirability of such programs. By contrast, university teacher training programs in the GCC attract some of the least qualified secondary school graduates - a 'trait of almost all underperforming educational systems' (Barber et al, 2007:44). Thus, ADEK should consider reclassifying qualifying criteria for leadership candidates. It can also create career tracks for teachers, with meaningful professional development opportunities and more generous starting salaries, to help attract better candidates, including well trained university graduates in line with global practices.

Exploring Further Leadership and Teaching Excellence in all Male Schools: Given the poorer educational performance of Emirati boys in secondary schools blamed by some educationists partly on the shortage of male Emirati teachers and on the poor quality of Arab expatriate teachers (e.g. Ridge, 2009), it would be appropriate for ADEK to consider improving further evaluation of teaching and leadership approaches in all male schools in the UAE. For example, ADEK can consider introducing performance related salaries as part of its appraisal standards for teachers and more effective professional development for expatriate teachers focused on pedagogy (and classroom management techniques) once they arrive the UAE (Ridge, 2009). This would help improve the quality of teaching and address the attitude of boys toward learning. Though better compensation is a transactional approach, it is generally accepted that greater reward incentivises performance. In addition, more attention needs to be given to attracting high-quality Emirati males to the education sector. Selection of teachers and administrators should be based on academic performance, as in countries like Finland and Singapore, where teachers are selected from top-performing graduates as noted

earlier. Appropriate salaries and continued training should be given to exceptional teachers in order to encourage them to stay in the education field and to encourage others to join (Ridge, 2009).

Additional Support for Cultural Orientation: ADEK can consider working with relevant immigration authorities to improve the contract length of international leaders to allow them more time in their role. However, this should be done to the extent that it does not negate the Emiratisation policies of the government (which seek to replace many expatriates with UAE nationals). In addition, consideration can also be given to conducting more training for international leaders on the local culture and belief systems to improve their leadership and communication effectiveness. This is in line with earlier suggestions on the need for cultural orientation as an additional leadership trait for leadership effectiveness (e.g. Shah, 2010; Alhaj and Van horne, 2013; Khan and Varshney, 2013; Litz and Scott, 2017).

Promoting Collegiality: As noted in earlier chapters, due to Arabic culture and tradition, ‘the atmosphere of schools is nearer to a command system than a collegiate one’ (Shaw et al, 1995). There is therefore need for school leaders to embrace more collaborative and transformational leadership approaches as part of efforts to promote collegiality and equality of opportunities and participation for all team members (Botes, 2012). School principals should consider sharing goals and functions with teachers and encouraging their participation in decision making processes within the school. Such an approach ensures the full participation of teachers in administrative and decision-making processes, working harmoniously to accomplish school goals. However, the present study showed that monetary incentives were seen as equally important in motivating both school leaders and teachers. So, there still has to be combination of transactional and transformational approaches to leadership. Historically, money has always played a role in defining family structures and wealth and so monetary incentives are integrated into the societal system. Hence, as advocated earlier, it will be appropriate to establish a system of performance-based reward that can induce the participation of team members.

Principal-Teacher Relationships: As revealed by the current study, building healthy interpersonal relationships have been seen by many participants as a key ingredient of effective leadership. Thus, to drive school effectiveness and school improvement, principals, both male and female, must pay close attention to their interpersonal relationship with teachers and seek to promote the interest, professional development and empowerment of teachers. As noted earlier, Eboka (2016) found strong association

between transformational leadership and high teacher morale, implying that principals that are charismatic and strong in character and influence can inspire the cooperation of teachers. Ibrahim and Al-Taneiji (2013) also noted that school management and leadership has a considerable impact on teachers' quality, arguing that when the leadership is encouraging and motivating, teachers try to give their best. In line with Branson's (2007) self-reflection model, principals must also reflect on their motivation, moral values, beliefs and professional practice always as these largely shape their leadership behaviour. Principals should therefore reflect on ADEK's laid down professional standards and the general moral expectations of society while taking all decisions.

11.3.2. Empowering Women in Workplace and Educational Leadership

Policy measures aimed at empowering women in the UAE can include the following:

Promoting Gender Equality: Though the number of female principals compared to male principals in the UAE is very encouraging (at the moment 61%), the number of women in top administrative positions in UAE education remains lower than men. ADEK should consider giving more opportunities for women in senior leadership and management roles. It could do this by introducing a quota system, whereby it seeks to achieve a balance in the number of men and women it recruits to leadership positions such as Executive Directors, Heads of Departments, and Cluster Managers. In some countries like Norway, for example, the law mandates businesses to have 40% female board members (Patel and Buiting, 2013). Whilst quotas are useful measures of gender balance, it might be more practicable to initiate gender-equality programs such as recruitment schemes designed to balance any gender gaps identified in particular schools or areas of educational activity (amidst other cultural barriers) as statistics show that there are far more women attending higher education than men as noted in the introductory chapter.

However, other cultural and practical barriers must be addressed as follows:

Empowering Women in Authority: Studies have shown that a main barrier to women's success in higher positions may be lower sense of self-confidence than men (Madsen, 2010b; Patel and Buiting, 2013). For example, women often have pre-conceived notions of women's ambitions and abilities (e.g. having less ambition and less professional commitment due to family responsibilities) and these tend to shape their self-confidence. As one interview participant noted, female leaders still face physical, psychological, cultural and educational challenges. ADEK should plan to support women with self-

confidence in their ability. Another participant suggested that ADEK should provide female school leaders with additional support in school work and qualify them to practice administrative work better. These aspects of school administration that might refer to leadership and management, budgeting and financial management, human resource management, developing school improvement plans, etc. ADEK needs to empower women in authority by allowing them to make important decisions (such as curricular decisions, resource decisions) and holding them more accountable for results. This will enable women to be more effective at work and confident in decision-making, helping to address the cultural idea that men are better decision makers as shown by Madsen (2010b) and Moghadam (2003).

Encouraging Work Life Balance: While ADEK seems to be doing its best to promote women empowerment, more could be done around recognising women's extra responsibilities and family commitments and supporting them in balancing work and family life properly. When employees feel a greater sense of control and ownership over their own lives, they tend to have better relationships at work and improve their productivity. In this regard, ADEK should support women in their flexible working needs and ultimately target family friendly policies for all their staff especially working parents who are teachers. A family-friendly work environment has proven to benefit both employers and employees in a variety of different industries. ADEK can consider providing onsite childcare facilities that employ trusted staff and take the guesswork and frustrations out of other babysitting and day care services. If this is not possible, ADEK may want to offer women employees a childcare service discount to alleviate the stresses of caring for children during the workday and reduce the amount of missed work. If neither one of these options is feasible for their teaching and other school commitments, then ADEK can allow women employees at least some flexibility to care for their children. This can include the ability to take time off to pick up a sick child from school, the ability to see a child's school play at lunch time, or flexible start/end time for parents who drop off or pick up kids from school.

In some cases, ADEK can also allow women to work from home, even if part of the time (for example, offering even 1 day per week) or consider allowing principals to attend meetings remotely (with the help of technology) rather than in person. ADEK could also set standards for keeping focus on educational or school improvement outcomes, rather than on hours worked. High productivity doesn't necessarily come in hours worked. In other words, productive principals, for example, may get their work done efficiently, and not need to be in school the full hours every day. Another positive way of reducing stress

in women and all staff is exercise and mindfulness meditation space and time within schools for this. Both men and women should be getting at least 30 minutes of it per day. Employees who eat healthy and exercise are less at risk of getting sick and missing days from work, which could ultimately undermine their school or work effectiveness. Thankfully, the New School Model boasts of onsite gym facilities, which is a brilliant idea. However, for schools that do not offer these facilities, ADEK should consider giving both men and women employees membership discount at a local gym, or other initiatives to promote holistic approaches to mental and physical health.

Training and Continuous Support: ADEK should consider improving training opportunities and support for female leaders around teaching and educational leadership/management as well as practical decision-making skills within a school environment such as resourcing, curriculum design, stakeholder management and so on. In addition, it should consider facilitating regular workshops around balancing work and family life. The simple act of just providing information and training about work/life balance to women employees can foster a better culture and can result in them taking better care to ensure this balance exists. Another aspect of importance is to improve counselling and mentorship support. One of the problems aspiring women face is limited mentorship support since there are not many women occupying top positions in the education sector in the UAE. ADEK should assist in facilitating network building and mentoring for women. ADEK can also support and create forums through which female role models can visibly support and encourage other aspiring women. In this regard, successful Emirati women leaders have a role to play in making themselves available to support younger colleagues and help them attain leadership positions. The media can also play a role in giving prominence to and celebrating successful women achievers. For example, the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Community Development in the UAE often publicly recognises and celebrates female athletes who do the nation proud in international sporting events.

The above recommendations made in section 11.3.1 on improving educational leadership and those on empowering women in the workplace and leadership (section 11.3.2), if implemented vigorously, will go a long way in achieving the broad objectives set out in the 2030 economic vision of the government and its Emiratisation policies as well as complement relevant laws of the UAE. For example, rigorous university teacher training and adequate leadership training for educational leaders will help to drive the country's Emiratisation program as it would prepare Emiratis for employment and leadership in the UAE education sector. This will in turn will be reflected in positive outcomes for

students and help develop a highly skilled and productive workforce (one of the focal points of the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030). In addition, adequate remuneration of teachers will not only encourage existing teachers to stay in the education field but would also attract qualified Emirati school graduates to join the education labour force. This would also help achieve another Vision 2030 policy focus of driving significant improvement in the efficiency of the labour market. The support for cultural orientation of expatriate educational leaders will help to preserve the cultural heritage and promote the values of the country. The recommendations on promoting gender equality and empowering women in authority will further help to drive the country's gender balance initiatives. In particular, the work-life balance recommendations will help to complement the new federal laws amending the Federal Law No 11 (2008) relating to human resources which have now increased the length of maternity leave, improved breastfeeding rules and other working conditions for UAE women.

11.4. Researcher's Position After the Study

This section describes my position within and subsequent to the study, especially how my interactions with the participants, and my stay in the UK, have all shaped my understanding of the discourse on gender and educational leadership in the UAE.

Since the course of my study, I have observed and learnt a lot about leadership and gender in many cultures. First, I noticed that the UK, as with many other cultures, embraces gender equality, particularly both men and women are responsible for doing domestic chores and childcare. For example, it is common for a man in the UK to take or pick up the children from school. This is not possible in my country (UAE), as women are the ones expected to do this. This idea may have been reinforced by the orientation given to children from their childhood, that girls are meant to take care of the home, while the boys are trained to become leaders. While the woman in a typical UAE home does the chores, the man is only concerned with supervising what the woman does. In addition, while in the UK, women are given up to one-year maternity leave, women in the UAE have only about two months paid maternity allowance after giving birth to return to work (However, this has now changed to 3 months as of 2016, thanks to the recent UAE gender balance initiatives and the amendments to the Federal Law on human resources). I still find this unfair and inhumane, and further changes should be made to redress this inequality if UAE is to be at par with the rest of the world in all aspects of gender equality and equity.

Second, as I interacted with my colleagues, especially the female research participants, I observed that many of them shared similar beliefs and viewpoints with me regarding the influence of culture and tradition in educational management and leadership in the UAE, especially the patriarchal nature of the society, culturally induced gender discrimination and sex segregation, which have led to unequal educational outcomes in many UAE schools. However, not many held strong beliefs about managerial leadership, which I found surprising, because I know this style of leadership is still prevalent in the UAE. Some of the teachers confirmed this in their discussion of leadership styles, wherein they maintained that leaders were not particularly displaying all the elements of transformational leadership. Teachers also reported that leaders used transactional (reward type) approaches. If UAE education is going to be transformed into a modern global educational hub, it will have to change its style of leadership to a more democratic and transformational approach where school leaders develop a healthy working relationship with their staff and inspire their followers' cooperation in achieving results rather than compelling them or enforcing strict rules. We need leaders that will spend time teaching and coaching their staff, treat them with respect and consider their needs, abilities and aspirations in making decisions. We need leaders that will help others develop their strengths and not promote their weaknesses. Since the course of this study, my approach to leadership has been more of a transformational leader. I believe that it is one of the best approaches to leadership since it creates valuable and positive changes in the followers with the end goal of developing followers into leaders. I am also a firm believer in modelling moral and ethical leadership in schools given the cultural heritage of the UAE and the need to preserve the right values and traditions which are founded on equality, justice and public interest.

Third, I observed that women globally are generally hardworking, and they can equally achieve in the workplace what men can achieve, if not more. For example, studies have shown that women excel in most leadership competencies as discussed in the literature, and this has been my experience of my fellow PhD and academic colleagues that I have met in the UK, as well as my teaching peers in UAE. Men and women are endowed with diverse abilities and societies that embrace and harness the talents and human capital of men and women alike have made significant progress in the area of gender equality and women's political might continues to grow. For example, the German Chancellor, Angela Merkel, is a woman. The current Prime Minister of the UK, Theresa May is a woman. For the first time in America, a woman, Hilary Clinton, contested the Presidential election, though this has been met with opposition. Notwithstanding, women in the UAE have started to break the glass ceiling and rising to positions of influence as

noted in Chapter 5. Even if there are fewer women than men today in government and leadership positions, they are actually role models to younger girls and women of future generations. I believe that, with time, men who have not helped their wives and daughters to improve their skills and education will one day realise that women in other families have made significant progress, while their own wives and daughters are confined to the home, doing only domestic chores and not effectively contributing to society, their voices are not heard in places of influence. This might disprove rigid beliefs and attitudes.

As part of efforts towards achieving the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030, the government has instituted several laws and regulations and I am hopeful that the cultural attitudes of men will change, because the government of UAE supports women and there will be no way for any man to suppress a woman, since the laws and regulations on gender equality will help to promote women empowerment. Moreover, the participation of women, especially in the labour force, has been steadily increasing over the past decades and I expect it to rise further. Women are also now actively involved in politics, gaining more seats in the parliament. So, I remain optimistic that men and women will become more equal as UAE society progresses. I am confident that my daughters and my son and those of my junior colleagues will grow up to have their full voices heard in an Emirati society that is fast becoming more educated and more open-minded than ever before. People have come to accept the idea of having female colleagues in the workplace, who could be as productive and innovative as their male counterparts. In all, I see a brighter future for UAE with equal opportunities for boys and girls, and men and women to achieve their full leadership potential without the constraints of gender roles.

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Appendices



College of Social
Sciences

Appendix I: Participant Information Sheet: School Principals and Vice-principals

1. Study title and researcher details

Title: Gender Effects on School Leadership in Abu Dhabi, UAE

Researcher: Mariam Alhammadi

Course: PhD (Education)

Supervisor: Dr Mike Carroll

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research study as you are a School Principal working in the Abu Dhabi Education Council. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Approximately 300 school leaders (Principals and Vice-Principals) will be invited to take part in a questionnaire study. From this group, approximately 6 male Principals and 6 female Principals will be invited to take part in an interview. All interviews and questionnaires will take place within Abu Dhabi within participating public schools.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this research is to study whether differences exist in how male and female school principals perform their leadership duties – specifically how they administer teacher supervision, plan, and enrich the curriculum. In addition, the research aims to determine whether differences exist in educational leadership styles between male and female principals in the performance of their roles.

What will happen if I take part in this research study?

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

- I will ask you to complete a short questionnaire, lasting no more than 30 minutes, which will seek your views on your role as an administrator. All participants will be invited to complete the questionnaire.
- I may ask you to participate in an interview, lasting no more than 30 minutes, to explore in more detail issues raised in the questionnaire.
- If you agree to be interviewed I will ask that this be recorded.

Are there any potential risks or discomforts that I can expect from this study?

No risks or discomforts are anticipated from taking part in this study. If you feel uncomfortable with a question, you may skip that question or withdraw from the study altogether. If you decide to withdraw at any time before you have finished the questionnaire and/or interview, your responses will NOT be recorded.

Are there any potential benefits if I participate?

Your participation will greatly benefit the research and understanding of the influence of gender on leadership with respect to the following:

- It will help produce a modern descriptive document for management roles of the male and female school principals in the UAE. It provides necessary insights about the differences or similarity of management and/or supervision assumed by both.
- It will also contribute to the wider research in terms of identifying factors that may contribute to differences in leadership styles of male and female principals. Also, the research may provide evidence of gender and roles.

Furthermore, it will help develop a new description of the leadership duties assumed by male and female school principals conforming with the development of the school management concept in the 21st century, both at national and global levels.

Finally, as the research is one of the first studies on the managerial leadership of male and female school principals in Abu Dhabi, the data from the study may help develop recommendations to assist male and female school principals in improving their leadership and educational roles to enrich the learning process.

How the findings will be used?

The results of the project will be published as a PhD thesis by the University of Glasgow. You will not be identified in the thesis. A summary of the findings will also be made available to participants in order for them to determine if it adds value to what we already know about school leadership.

The results of the study may also be used for other scholarly purposes. The results from the study may be presented at professional conferences, and the results might be published in a professional journal in the field of educational leadership.

Will information about me and my participation be kept confidential?

All data gathered, as part of the research, will be stored in a secure environment and will be destroyed at the end of the research project. The only other person who will have access to the data will be my supervisor, Dr Mike Carroll. In addition, you will not be mentioned by name and I will ensure that any contributions that you make which are used will be through the use of a pseudonym so that you cannot be recognised.

Confidentiality will be respected unless there are compelling legal/moral reasons (e.g. evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered) for this to be breached in such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory authorities. If this were to be the case I would inform you of any decisions that might limit confidentiality.

What are my rights if I take part in this study?

- You can choose whether or not you want to be in this study, and you may withdraw your consent and/or discontinue participation at any time without giving a reason.
- You may refuse to answer any questions that you do not want to answer and still remain in the study.
- Any contribution that you make will be referred to by the use of pseudonym so that you are not identified by name in any publications arising from the research.

Who can I contact if I have questions about this study?

If you would like to discuss any aspects of this, please contact me by email.

Mariam Alhammadi, m.alhammadi.1@research.gla.ac.uk
Phone: +44 783 1573 722

Or my research supervisor

Dr. Mike Carroll, Mike.Carroll@glasgow.ac.uk.

University of Glasgow:

If you have questions about your rights while taking part in this study, or you have concerns or suggestions and you want to talk to someone other than the researchers then please contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, email: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Thank you for reading this Participant Information Sheet

You may retain this copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your records.

Appendix II: Participant Information Sheet: School Teachers**1. Study title and researcher details**

Title: Gender Effects on School Leadership in Abu Dhabi, UAE

Researcher: Mariam Alhammadi

Course: PhD (Education)

Supervisor: Dr Mike Carroll

Invitation

You are being invited to take part in a research study as you are a schoolteacher working in the Abu Dhabi Education Council. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

Approximately 300 teachers will be invited to take part in this study by completing a questionnaire. All questionnaires will take place within Abu Dhabi within participating public schools.

Why is this study being done?

The purpose of this research is to study whether differences exist in how male and female school principals perform their leadership duties – specifically how they administer teacher supervision, plan, and enrich the curriculum. In addition, the research aims to determine whether differences exist in educational leadership styles between male and female principals in the performance of their roles. The questionnaire will seek teachers' views on the issues outlined above.

What will happen if I take part in this research study?

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

- I will ask you to complete a short questionnaire, lasting no more than 30 minutes, which will seek your views on the role of leaders. All participating teachers will be invited to complete the questionnaire.

How long will I be in the research study?

It will take a total of approximately 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Are there any potential risks or discomforts that I can expect from this study?

No risks or discomforts are anticipated from taking part in this study. If you feel uncomfortable with a question, you may skip that question or withdraw from the study altogether. If you decide to withdraw at any time before you have finished the questionnaire, your responses will NOT be recorded.

Are there any potential benefits if I participate?

Your participation will greatly benefit the research and understanding of the influence of gender on leadership with respect to the following:

- It will help produce a modern descriptive document for management roles of the male and female school principals in the UAE. It provides necessary insights about the differences or similarity of management and/or supervision assumed by both.
- It will also contribute to the wider research in terms of identifying factors that may contribute to differences in leadership styles of male and female principals. Also, the research may provide evidence of gender and roles.

Furthermore, it will help develop a new description of the leadership duties assumed by male and female school principals conforming with the development of the school management concept in the 21st century, both at national and global levels.

Finally, as the research is one of the first studies on the managerial leadership of male and female school principals in Abu Dhabi, the data from the study may help develop recommendations to assist male and female school principals in improving their leadership and educational roles to enrich the learning process.

How the findings will be used?

The results of the project will be published as a PhD thesis by the University of Glasgow. You will not be identified in the thesis. A summary of the findings will also be made available to participants in order for them to determine if it adds value to what we already know about school leadership.

The results of the study may also be used for other scholarly purposes. The results from the study may be presented at professional conferences, and the results might be published in a professional journal in the field of educational leadership.

Will information about me and my participation be kept confidential?

All data gathered, as part of the research, will be stored in a secure environment and will be destroyed at the end of the research project. The only other person who will have access to the data will be my supervisor, Dr Mike Carroll. In addition, you will not be mentioned by name and I will ensure that any contributions that you make which are used will be through the use of a pseudonym so that you cannot be recognised.

Confidentiality will be respected unless there are compelling legal/moral reasons (e.g. evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered) for this to be breached in such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory authorities. If this were to be the case I would inform you of any decisions that might limit confidentiality.

What are my rights if I take part in this study?

- You can choose whether or not you want to be in this study, and you may withdraw your consent and/or discontinue participation at any time without giving a reason.
- You may refuse to answer any questions that you do not want to answer and still remain in the study.
- Any contribution that you make will be referred to by the use of pseudonym so that you are not identified by name in any publications arising from the research.

Who can I contact if I have questions about this study?

If you would like to discuss any aspects of this, please contact me by email.

Mariam Alhammadi, m.alhammadi.1@research.gla.ac.uk
Phone: +44 783 1573 722

Or my research supervisor

Dr. Mike Carroll, Mike.Carroll@glasgow.ac.uk.

University of Glasgow:

If you have questions about your rights while taking part in this study, or you have concerns or suggestions and you want to talk to someone other than the researchers then please contact the College of Social Sciences Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston, email: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Thank you for reading this Participant Information Sheet

You may retain this copy of the Participant Information Sheet for your records.

Appendix IV: Consent Form: Teachers**Title of Project:** Gender Effects on School Leadership in Abu Dhabi, UAE**Name of Researcher:** Mariam Alhammadi

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the Participant Information Sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I understand that participants will be referred to by a pseudonym and not identified by name in any publications arising from the research.
4. I understand that participation or non-participation in the research will have no effect on relationships with any staff in the school.
5. I agree / do not agree to complete a Questionnaire.
6. I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

Appendix V: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Leader Form (5 X- Short)

My Name:.....Date :

Organization ID:.....Leader ID :.....

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

Forty – five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word “other ‘may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and /or all these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
0	1	2	3	4

		0	1	2	3	4
1	I provide other with assistance in exchange for their efforts					
2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious					
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise					
6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs					
7	I am absent when needed					
8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems					
9	I talk optimistically about the future					
10	I instill pride in others for being associated with me					
11	I discuss specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
12	I wait for thing to go wrong before taking action					

13	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
14	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
15	I spend time teaching and coaching					
16	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
17	I show that I am a firm believer in “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it”					
18	I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group					
19	I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group					
20	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action					
21	I act in ways that build others respect for me					
22	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints , and failures					
23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
24	I keep track of all mistakes					
25	I display a sense of power and confidence					
26	I articulate a compelling vision of the future					
27	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards					
28	I avoid making decisions					
29	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					
30	I get others to look at problems from many different angles					
31	I help others to develop their strengths					
32	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
33	I delay responding to urgent questions					
34	I emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission					

35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations					
36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved					
37	I am effective in meeting others job-related needs					
38	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying					
39	I get others to do more than they expected to do					
40	I am effective in representing others to higher authority					
41	I work with others in a satisfactory way					
42	I heighten others desire to succeed					
43	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements					
44	I increase others willingness to try harder					
45	I lead a group that is effective					

فيما يلي قائمه جمل وصفيه تصف نمطك القيادي ، يرجى اعطاء حكمك حول مدي اتفاق ذلك مع سلوكك القيادي في مدرستك.

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
١	أمنح الآخرين المساعدة مقابل جهودهم					
٢	أعيد فحص فرضيات بيئة العمل المدرسي لكي أتأكد من أنها مناسبة					
٣	أخفق في التدخل حتى تصبح المشكلات خطيرة وجادة .					
٤	أركز انتباهي على الأمور الخارجة عن المألوف ، وعلى الأخطاء، والاستثناءات ، والأمور الخارجة عن المعايير .					
٥	أتجنب التورط عند ظهور أو نشوء قضايا حساسة ومهمة .					
٦	أفصح وأعبر عن أهم قيمي ومعتقداتي .					
٧	لا أتواجد عند الحاجة					
٨	أبحث الأمور من زوايا واتجاهات متعددة عند حل المشاكل والقضايا .					
٩	أتحدث بتفاؤل وأمل عن المستقبل .					

				أعزز الافتخار بالآخرين كونهم مرتبطون ويتعاملون معي .	١٠
				أناقش بدقة كل فرد مسئول عن تحقيق أهداف العمل .	١١
				أنتظر حتى تحدث الأخطاء ثم أبادر في التحرك لتصحيحها .	١٢
				أتحدث بحماس عما يجب تحقيقه .	١٣
				أؤكد على أهمية وجود شعور قوي تجاه الأهداف والغايات .	١٤
				أبذل جهداً بالتعليم والتوجيه .	١٥
				أوضح المرود المتوقع الذي سيتلقاه الفرد عند تحقيقه الأهداف .	١٦
				أعزز فكرة : " إذا كان الشئ يعمل لا تصلحه " أي لا تحرك ساكناً	١٧

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
١٨	أتغاضى عن مصالحي الشخصية مقابل مصلحة الجماعة					
١٩	أعامل كل فرد كشخص وليس مجرد فرد في المجموعة .					
٢٠	أظهر بأن المشاكل يجب أن تكون مزمنة قبل أن أبادر بحلها.					
٢١	أتصرف بطرق تعزز احترام الآخرين لي .					
٢٢	أركز جل اهتمامي للتعامل مع الأخطاء والشكاوى والإخفاقات .					
٢٣	أنتظر للاعتبارات الأخلاقية عند اتخاذ القرارات .					
٢٤	أتابع بدقة جميع الأخطاء .					
٢٥	أظهر الشعور بالقوة والثقة .					
٢٦	أعزز بعد النظر للمستقبل.					
٢٧	أوجه انتباهي تجاه فشل الآخرين في تحقيق الأهداف .					
٢٨	أتجنب اتخاذ القرارات .					
٢٩	أعتبر بأن لكل فرد احتياجات وقدرات وتطلعات خاصة تميزه عن الآخرين .					

					أشجع كل فرد على النظر إلى الأمور والمشاكل من عدة زوايا واتجاهات .	٣٠
					أساعد كل فرد في تنمية قدراته ونقاط قوته .	٣١
					أقترح طرق جديدة للنظر في كيفية تحقيق مهام العمل .	٣٢
					أتاخر في الرد على أسئلة وقضايا ملحة .	٣٣
					أؤكد على أهمية وجود إحساس مشترك برسالة المدرسة وأهدافها .	٣٤
					أعبر عن الرضا والسرور عندما ينجز الفرد المطلوب والمتوقع .	٣٥
					أظهر الثقة بأن الأهداف سوف يتم تحقيقها .	٣٦

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
٣٧	أحقق احتياجات العمل لكل فرد بفاعلية					
٣٨	استخدم أساليب قيادية مرضية .					
٣٩	أجعل العاملين في المدرسة ينجزون أعمال أكثر مما يتوقعون .					
٤٠	أقوم بتمثيل كل العاملين في المدرسة بشكل فعال لدى الإدارة التعليمية العليا .					
٤١	أعمل مع كل العاملين في المدرسة بشكل مرضي .					
٤٢	أعزز بقوة رغبة العاملين في المدرسة بالنجاح .					
٤٣	ألتزم بشكل فعال بمتطلبات واحتياجات المدرسة .					
٤٤	أزيد وأعزز من إرادة العاملين في المدرسة لبذل جهود أكبر .					
٤٥	أقوم بقيادة مجموعة فعالة ونشطة					

Appendix VI: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form (5 X-Short)

My Name: Date:

Organization ID:.....Leader ID :.....

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer leave the answer blank. Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

<p>Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating. - The person I am rating is at my organizational level. - I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating - I do not wish my organizational level to be known.
--

Forty – five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
0	1	2	3	4

THE PERSON I AM RATING:

		0	1	2	3	4
1	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts					
2	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate					
3	Fails to interfere until problems become serious					
4	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
5	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise					
6	Talks about their most important values and beliefs					
7	Is absent when needed					
8	Seeks differing perspectives when solving					

	problems					
9	Talks optimistically about the future					
10	Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her					
11	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
12	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action					
13	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
14	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose					
15	Spends time teaching and coaching					
16	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved					
17	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it"					
18	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group					
19	Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group					
20	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action					
21	Acts in ways that builds my respect					
22	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures					
23	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions					
24	Keeps track of all mistakes					
25	Displays a sense of power and confidence					
26	Articulates a compelling vision of the future					
27	Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards					
28	Avoids making decisions					
29	Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others					

30	Gets me to look at problems from many different angels					
31	Helps me to develop my strengths					
32	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments					
33	Delays responding to urgent questions					
34	Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission					
35	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations					
36	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved					
37	Is effective in meeting my job-related needs					
38	Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying					
39	Gets me to do more than I expected to do					
40	Is effective in representing me to higher authority					
41	Works with me in a satisfactory way					
42	Heightens my desire to succeed					
43	Is effective in meeting organizational requirements					
44	Increases my willingness to try harder					
45	Leads a group that is effective					

يما يلي قائمه جمل وصفية حول الأنماط القيادية ، يرجى إعطاء حكمك حول مدى إظهار مدير المدرسة

للسلوك القيادي المذكور :

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
١	يمنحني المساعدة مقابل جهودي في العمل					
٢	يعيد فحص فرضيات بيئة العمل المدرسي للتأكد من أنها مناسبة					
٣	يخفف في التدخل حتى تصبح المشكلات جادة .					
٤	يركز انتباهه على الأمور الخارجة عن المألوف ، وعلى الأخطاء ، والاستثناءات ، والأمور الخارجة عن معايير العمل .					
٥	يتجنب التورط عند ظهور مسائل هامة					
٦	يفصح ويعبر عن أهم قيمه وقناعاته .					
٧	غائب عند الحاجة .					
٨	يبحث الأمور من زوايا مختلفة عند حل المشاكل .					
٩	يتحدث بتفاؤل عن المستقبل .					
١٠	يعزز الافتخار بي كوني مرتبطة معه .					

١١	يناقش بدقة كل فرد مسئول عن تحقيق أهداف العمل .				
١٢	ينتظر حتى تحدث الأخطاء قبل أن يبادر بتصحيحها .				
١٣	يتحدث بحماس عما يجب تحقيقه .				
١٤	يؤكد على أهمية وجود شعور قوى تجاه الأهداف والغايات .				
١٥	يصرف وقتاً لتعليم وتوجيه العاملين .				
١٦	يوضح المرود المتوقع أن يتلقاه الفرد عندما يحقق الأهداف .				
١٧	يظهر قناعة راسخة بفكرة : " إذا الشيء يعمل لا تصلحه " أي لا تحرك ساكناً				

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
١٨	يتجاوز مصالحه الشخصية لأجل مصلحة الجماعة					
١٩	يعاملني كفرد مستقل وليس مجرد عضو ضمن مجموعة .					
٢٠	يظهر بأن المشاكل يجب أن تكون مزمنة قبل أن يبادر بحلها .					
٢١	يتصرف بطرق تبني احترامى .					
٢٢	يركز جل اهتمامه للتعامل مع الشكاوى والأخطاء والإخفاقات .					
٢٣	يأخذ في الاعتبار التبعات الأخلاقية للقرارات .					
٢٤	يتابع بدقة جميع الأخطاء .					
٢٥	يجسد معنى القوة والثقة .					
٢٦	يعزز بعد النظر للمستقبل .					
٢٧	يوجه انتباهي لفشلي في تحقيق الأهداف .					
٢٨	يتجنب اتخاذ القرارات .					
٢٩	يعتبرني كفرد لذي احتياجات وقدرات وتطلعات خاصة بي تميزني عن الآخرين .					
٣٠	يجعلني أنظر إلى المشاكل من عدة زوايا .					
٣١	يساعدني في تنمية نقاط قوتي .					
٣٢	يقترح طرق جديدة للنظر في كيفية تحقيق مهام العمل .					
٣٣	يتأخر في الرد على أسئلة ملحة .					
٣٤	يؤكد على أهمية وجود إحساس مشترك برسالة المدرسة .					
٣٥	يعبر عن الرضا عندما أنجز المطلوب كما هو متوقع .					
٣٦	يظهر الثقة لي بفاعلية احتياجاتي المتصلة بالعمل .					

م	الفقرة	دائماً	غالباً	أحياناً	نادراً	مطلقاً
٣٧	يحقق لي بفاعلية احتياجاتي المتصلة بالعمل .					
٣٨	يستخدم أساليب قيادية مرضية .					
٣٩	يجعلني أنجز أعمالاً مما أتوقع .					
٤٠	يمثلني بشكل فعال لدى الإدارة التعليمية العليا .					
٤١	يعمل معي بشكل مرضي .					

					يرفع رغبتى بالنجاح .	٤٢
					فعال بتلبية متطلبات المدرسة .	٤٣
					يزيد رغبتى لبذل جهود أكبر . .	٤٤
					يقود مجموعة فعالة ونشطة	٤٥

Appendix V1: ADEK Approval Letter



Date: 15 th November 2015	التاريخ: 15 نوفمبر 2015
Ref:	الرقم:
To: Public Schools Principals,	السادة / مديري المدارس الحكومية
Subject: Letter of Permission	الموضوع: تسهيل مهمة باحثين
Dear Principals,	تحية طيبة وبعد،،،
The Abu Dhabi Education Council would like to express its gratitude for your generous efforts & sincere cooperation in serving our dear students.	يطيبُ لمجلس أبوظبي للتعليم أن يتوجه لكم بخالص الشكر والتقدير لجهودكم الكريمة والتعاون الصادق لخدمة أبنائنا الطلبة.
You are kindly requested to allow the researcher/ Mariam Ahmed Al Hammadi , to complete her research on: Gender effect on schools leadership in ADEC	ونود إعلامكم بموافقة مجلس أبو ظبي للتعليم على موضوع الدراسة التي سيجريها الباحث/ مريم أحمد الحمادي ، بعنوان: Gender effect on schools leadership in ADEC
Please indicate your approval of this permission by facilitating her meetings with the sample groups at your respected schools.	لذا، يرجى التكرم بتسهيل مهمة الباحثة ومساعدتها على إجراء الدراسة المشار إليها.
For further information: please contact Mr Helmy Seada on 02/6150140	للاستفسار: يرجى الاتصال بالسيد/ حلمي سعدة على الهاتف 02/6150140
Thank you for your cooperation.	شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم
Sincerely yours,	وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام والتقدير،،،
 محمّد سالم محمد الظاهري المدير التنفيذي لقطاع العمليات المدرسية	