Global Citizenship Education and Heritage Preservation of Host National Students in GCC International Bilingual Schools

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Abstract

International private schools adopt Eurocentric accreditation and curriculum standards that aim at developing global citizens. However, global citizenship education is a problematic construct based on a colonial instrumentalist framework. Contextualized in Type C international schools for GCC host national students, the problem of practice is GIBS’s unmitigated adoption of international GCE accreditation and curriculum standards in a manner that erodes the students’ culture and heritage. Grounded in a transformative worldview, GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator is in a unique position to lead organizational improvement that restructures school systems in a way that prioritizes GCC host national students’ heritage while empowering teachers to enact equitable instructional change. To address the problem of practice, a framework of change was developed by integrating ISA’s (2017) accreditation framework with Schein’s (2017) model of change management and Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model while using transformative, instructional, and servant leadership approaches. Culturally responsive learning’s three dimensions of culturally responsive care, culturally responsive instruction, and curriculum indigenization and decolonization were identified as the key to solving the problem of practice. To monitor and evaluate GIBS’s embedding of CRL into formal school systems, organizational change management takes place at the macro and micro levels using the API Model and PDCA cycle respectively. Synchronous alignment of GIBS’s accreditation phases and strategic improvement cycle with the OIP’s change implementation plan leverages the school’s pre-existing systems to achieve successful transformation.

Key words: global citizenship education, host national student, Type C school, transformative, culturally responsive learning, curriculum indigenization and decolonization
Executive Summary

This Organizational Improvement Plan (OIP) takes place in Gulf International Bilingual School (GIBS; a pseudonym), a Type C (Bunnell, 2014) international school for Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) host national students of Arab and Muslim heritage. I am the school’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator. The problem of practice (PoP) is GIBS’s promotion of global citizenship education (GCE) by adopting international accreditation and curriculum standards without taking into account GCC host national students’ ethnocultural, historical, and geopolitical contexts.

Chapter 1 uses deductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016) to frame both the organization and PoP within a broader context. A philosophical overview of GCE is presented, noting that the concept’s evolution from early proponents (Kant & Smith, 1917) to later critics (Abdi, 2015; Andreotti, 2011; Marshall, 2011) mirrors my personal shift from a social constructivist worldview to a transformative one (Creswell, 2014) that seeks to restore social justice to GIBS’s host national students.

The PoP’s context is examined through a political lens of racism, an economic lens of GCC private education industry, and sociological lens of education’s global and local intersections. GIBS is an international Type C school for GCC host national students that aims to offer an international education that is rooted in local Arab and Muslim heritage. As part of the school’s effort to achieve international accreditation with the International School Association (ISA), GIBS recently embedded a Eurocentric instrumentalist approach to GCE (Andreotti, 2011; Bray, 2007; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013). This approach is problematic because it places GCC host national students’ heritage at risk. Change readiness analysis (Cawsey et al., 2016; Stewart, 1994) indicates that GIBS should work to balance the uneven power dynamic between
expatriate staff and host national students given that students play a limited role in the school’s improvement efforts.

Chapter 2 uses integrative thinking (Martin, 2009) to align the OIP’s leadership approaches, change process frameworks, and critical organizational analysis tools with my leadership positionality in the following three school leader dilemmas: balancing clashing leader aims, negotiating competing stakeholder needs, and bridging gaps between theory and practice. The integration of three leadership approaches—transformative (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003), instructional (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012), and servant (Lynch 2012; Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007)—empowers me as the accreditation and curriculum coordinator to advocate for social justice while guiding teachers toward practical implementation of teaching and learning improvements to serve GCC host national students who are at risk of losing their heritage.

By integrating ISA’s (2017) accreditation framework with Schein’s (2017) model of change management and Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model, I can ensure that the aspirational and theoretical components of the OIP change framework align with practical components of accreditation-driven change (ISA, 2017) that are within my scope and agency of influence. A critical organizational gap analysis that pairs ISA’s (2017) accreditation standards with Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) congruence model provides further evidence of the power imbalance between expatriate GCC staff, who make most teaching and learning decisions, and GIBS host national students, who have little influence over curriculum and instruction. Meso, macro, and national level solutions are examined, with preference given to macro organizational strategic planning that transforms school operational systems through schoolwide stakeholder collaboration (Bryson, 2011; Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003).
that aligns with a transformative worldview (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), mindful of the ethics of critique, justice, and caring (Starratt, 2017).

Chapter 3 uses a strategic approach to describe the implementation, management, and communication processes of the proposed organizational change (Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Ontario Ministry of Education, 2017; Stringer & Hourani, 2016). The recommended change is for GIBS to leverage its strategic improvement cycle to embed culturally responsive learning by building a caring community among all stakeholders, developing teachers’ culturally responsive instruction, and indigenizing and decolonizing the curriculum in all English language subjects. Short-term effectiveness of organizational change will be monitored and evaluated at the micro level in a single loop that uses a plan-do-check-act cycle. Long-term sustainability of the organizational change will be managed at the macro level in a double loop that uses an Associates in Process Improvement model (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009) along with a plan-do-survey-act cycle (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Macro and micro change management monitoring and evaluation data presentation will be streamlined into a single balanced scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1996) that includes demographic, process, and perceptual data (Ontario’s Principal Council, 2009).

The OIP concludes by encouraging future scholar practitioners to use inductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Imenda, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016) to continue critiquing school inequity beyond GIBS’s specific context and beyond the school leader dilemmas of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice.
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It has been a privilege to start my post-secondary education journey at Western University, where I completed all my undergraduate and graduate studies. Achieving this doctorate would not have been possible without my alma mater’s exemplary faculty and administration.

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I would like to thank my amazing family for their constant encouragement. To my husband: no words can express my gratitude for your unwavering faith and confidence in me.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge Gulf International Bilingual School’s host national students. May this OIP help restore justice to your learning experiences and may your global citizenship practices be rooted in knowledge of your rich heritage.
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AITSL</td>
<td>Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>API</td>
<td>Associates in Process Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRL</td>
<td>Culturally responsive learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNMI</td>
<td>First Nation, Métis, and Inuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCC</td>
<td>Gulf Cooperation Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>GCE</td>
<td>Global Citizenship Education</td>
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<td>GIBS</td>
<td>Gulf International Bilingual School</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISA</td>
<td>International Schools Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>OIP</td>
<td>Organizational Improvement Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parent Teacher Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDCA</td>
<td>Plan-do-check-act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDSA</td>
<td>Plan-do-study-act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PESTE</td>
<td>Political, economic, sociological, technological, and environmental (factors)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PoP</td>
<td>Problem of practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>The World Trade Organization</td>
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Definitions

Culturally responsive learning: learning that takes into account students’ ethnocultural background and context by building communities of culturally responsive care, developing culturally responsive instruction, and by indigenizing and decolonizing curriculum.

Curriculum decolonization: the removing, taking away, and undoing of colonial elements of the syllabus that present Eurocentric norms of knowing, doing, and being as aspirational standards while presenting, explicitly or implicitly, Indigenous ways of being as less worthy (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018).

Curriculum indigenization: the act of embedding, adding, and redoing Indigenous ways of knowing, doing, and being, while presenting those ways as equally worthy to Western ways (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018).

Double loop: a long-term, strategic API model (+ PDSA) cycle of macro change management that uses annual trends to monitor and evaluate the sustainability of successful organizational change initiatives (Argyris, 1993).

Ethical inquiry: reflective processes by which school administrators apply ethics of critique, ethics of justice, and ethics of caring as they transform their organizations (Starratt, 2017).

Global citizenship education: a school’s adoption of international curriculum and accreditation standards to promote teaching and learning that develops students’ global thinking coupled with local action that demonstrate culturally appropriate service learning, intercultural learning, environmental responsibility, and social justice.

Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC): an alliance of nations that was established in 1981 to promote economic and political unity among six Middle Eastern nations—namely, Saudi Arabia,
Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, and Oman—all of which are Arabic and Muslim countries (Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.).

**Host national students:** a reference to students attending an international school who are citizens of the nation of the country where the school is located (Bunnell, 2014).

**Instructional leadership:** a leadership approach that focuses on empowering and guiding teachers as they enact curriculum and instruction changes (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012)

**Intercultural competency:** critical understanding and abilities necessary for people to manage their interpersonal interactions with those who come from cultures that are different themselves at an increasingly complex levels of perceptual distinction (Cushner, 2016; p. 203-204).

**Intercultural learning:** learning about people from diverse ethnocultural backgrounds

**Intercultural sensitivity:** ability to view cultural aspects in their context while recognizing the existence of cultural similarities and differences between people (Cushner, 2016; p. 203)

**International education:** formal education with the following criteria:

- It affords students global mobility in both education and the work field (Sylvester, 2005; Tarc, 2013);
- It develops students’ intercultural competence (Allan, 2013; Bray, 2007; Cushner, 2016);
- It enables students to view themselves as global citizens (Marshall, 2011);
- It is based on internationally recognized academic and administrative standards (Anderson-Levitt, 2003, Bray, 2007; Cambridge & Thompson, 2004); and
- It leads to a competitive edge in a global market (Allan, 2013).

**Leadership dilemmas:** the three tensions faced by change leaders of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice
**Servant leadership:** a leadership approach that focuses on meeting stakeholders’ needs by consulting others, displaying selflessness and empathy, and enacting stewardship (Lynch 2012; Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007).

**Single loop:** a short-term, tactical PDCA cycle of micro change management that uses quarterly data to monitor and evaluate the immediate effectiveness and impact of organizational change initiatives (Argyris, 1993).

**Strategic planning** a deliberative, disciplined approach that produces fundamental decisions and actions to shape and guide organization’s future actions (Bryson, 2011).

**Transformative leadership:** a leadership approach that acknowledges that organizations are influenced by inequities that exist within a broader sociopolitical context (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010).

**Transformative worldview:** a world view that emphasizes the importance of the lived experiences of marginalized communities by analyzing asymmetric power relationships and by linking results of social inquiry to transformative action (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009).

**Type C school:** an international school for host national students (Bunnell, 2014).
Chapter 1: Introduction and Problem

Since I started working in the region in 2005, there has been an increase in the number of for-profit international bilingual private schools in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries that are attended mostly by host national students. GCC is an alliance that was established in 1981 to promote economic and political unity among six Middle Eastern nations—namely, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain, and Oman—all of which are Arabic and Muslim countries (Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.). My work experience in GCC has solely been at Type C schools, which are international schools for host national students (Bunnell, 2014).

Having worked at GCC Type C schools as a teacher, curriculum coordinator, and accreditation coordinator, my experience with students who are GCC citizens has shown them to have a strong national identity and great pride in their family history and cultural heritage. Although I have participated in national cultural celebrations at all of my schools, I have never incorporated or promoted my students’ rich history and heritage as part of the taught international curricula. The problem of practice (PoP) that I address is GCC’s bilingual schools’ complete adoption of international curricula (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998) and accreditation standards (International Schools Association [ISA; a pseudonym], 2017) without regard to host national students’ ethnocultural, historical, and geopolitical contexts. In this Organizational Improvement Plan (OIP), I provide GCC’s international bilingual school leaders and teachers with strategies for the development and implementation of high-quality international school curricula and learning experiences that promote global citizenship and intercultural learning while preserving students’ ethnic heritage, historical narrative, and cultural pride. This chapter frames the PoP by using deductive reasoning that starts with general principles and to leads to conclusions that are specific to my context (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016, Western University, 2016).
Organizational Context

This OIP focuses on the written and taught school curriculum for GCC international bilingual schools, in general, with specific examples taken from Gulf International Bilingual School (GIBS; a pseudonym). This section provides historical and cultural context to GIBS by overviewing the school’s mission, organizational structure, and history.

Vision, Mission, Values, Purpose, and Goals

In their guiding statements, several GCC international bilingual schools have aimed to develop global citizens who are rooted in their heritage (e.g., GIBS, n.d., 2015). This shared vision among GCC international bilingual schools attracts parents of host national students who wish their children to have the best of both worlds: Arabic and English communication skills, Eastern and Western cultural competencies, and local and international employability. The schools’ guiding statements also meet accreditation organizations’ requirement that the international schools provide students with high quality learning that develops the students’ global citizenship and intercultural competencies (Bray, 2007; ISA, 2017; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013).

GIBS sought accreditation with ISA because the latter is considered one of the most prestigious international school accreditation organizations in the region. What makes GIBS’s situation unique is that it was one of the first schools in the GCC to be accredited using ISA’s 2017 protocol. It is up to individual schools to take initiative by integrating and blending the local and global aspects of curriculum.

What I have observed so far in GCC international bilingual schools, including GIBS, is a disconnect between the Arabic and English language curricula. On the one hand, Arabic curricula are culturally relevant because they are provided by respective nations’ Ministries of
Education. On the other hand, English language curricula are simply imported from overseas with little regard to their local relevance to host national students. For example, GIBS teaches primary students about the four seasons one would find in North America, but teachers may neglect to explain that this is not the kind of climate students would experience in the GCC. Some schools teach entire units about penguins and polar bears, but there is no mention of camels, lizards, and other desert animals that one would find locally. As long as GCC international bilingual schools celebrate major national events and adhere to censorship laws and regulations, neither the Ministry of Education nor the community at large holds them accountable for preserving the students’ cultural heritage in the English language curriculum. The absence of accountability to promote local heritage within English language subjects is also a result of a lack of differentiation in the ISA (2017) accreditation standards between international schools for expatriates and those for host nationals.

Organizational Structure

GIBS’s organizational structure plays a significant role in the degree of effective implementation of any changes at the school. GIBS’s school board is at the top of the organizational structure (see Figure 1), followed successively by the school’s director, deputy director, and other members of the school’s senior management team (principals, financial manager, administrative manager, and accreditation and curriculum coordinator). An advantage of GIBS’s organizational structure is that it affords the school’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator great autonomy and flexibility in her ability to support different divisions and subject departments within the school, because the coordinator has only two line managers: the deputy director and director, successively (see Figure 1). However, with no clear system of accountability to the curriculum and limited collaboration between the accreditation and
curriculum coordinator and the school’s principals, GIBS sometimes experiences desynchronized follow-up of teachers’ instructional implementation of written school curricula.

**Figure 1**

*GCC International Bilingual School Chart*

**Brief History**

GIBS was founded in 2009, but it began its curriculum development efforts two years later, in 2011, when the school employed me to develop curriculum for all K–12 subjects in both English and Arabic. The school’s curriculum was developed using a backwards design model (Wiggins & McTighe, 1998) and was based upon the school’s vision that students will be prepared with the knowledge and skills to succeed in a rapidly changing world within the framework of Islamic values (GIBS, n.d.). As of 2018, the curricular scope and sequence is thoroughly aligned and documented, listing out all the contents to be taught over four quarters during the academic year.
History of Organizational Improvement and Accreditation at GIBS

GIBS’s board initiated organizational improvement efforts in the fall of 2015 by engaging all constituents (students, parents, and staff) in revising the school’s guiding statements, which are the school’s mission, vision, and goals. I facilitated the process of planning and drafting the strategic improvement plan after the school constituency had reached a consensus on the guiding statements, and after the board gave input and approval of those statements. The school board then approved GIBS’s (2016) three-year strategic improvement plan (2016–2019) and related budgets to reflect the values embedded in the school’s guiding statements. GIBS commenced the implementation of its strategic improvement plan and budgets as tools for effective decision-making in the 2016–2017 academic year. A similar process began in January 2019 for the following three-year strategic improvement plan ending in August 2022.

One of GIBS’s major strategic goals is to achieve accreditation from ISA. This goal led me, then the school’s curriculum coordinator, to accept the additional role of accreditation coordinator in February of 2016. ISA is an organization that accredits international schools based on a set of standards that are benchmarked as a rubric for the following three stages of evaluation: membership, preparatory, and self-study. ISA evaluates schools at each of the stages by comparing the school’s self-evaluations to the ISA evaluators’ notes. The objective of the ISA (2017) accreditation protocol is for schools to use the self-study process as an organizational development tool, with the goal being the achievement of sustainable school improvement and not just a certificate of accreditation on display; GIBS achieved accreditation in later 2019.

With GIBS’s history in mind, I have the agency to lead organizational level change in addressing my PoP due to my role in leading GIBS’s curriculum development, facilitating schoolwide strategic improvement planning, and guiding successful accreditation.
**Global Citizenship Education at GIBS**

A 2017 membership evaluation report for GIBS recommended that the school put effort into promoting global citizenship beyond its annual International Day celebrations. With global citizenship as one of ISA’s (2017) key drivers, GIBS put great effort into developing host national students’ intercultural competencies. That December, GIBS (2017) defined global citizenship as global thinking coupled with local action that demonstrate culturally appropriate service learning, intercultural learning, environmental responsibility, and social justice. The school also developed a global citizenship policy (GIBS, 2017), on which staff received training and instructional resources (Oxfam, 2015) for implementing global citizenship and intercultural learning in the school. The school has also unpacked the current global citizenship policy (GIBS, 2017) in a way that is applicable for teachers and students in the classroom. At GIBS, intercultural learning occurs when students engage personally with people from other cultures, celebrate similarities, and respect differences. The school’s curriculum and instruction systems have been updated to incorporate ISA’s global citizenship and intercultural learning requirements, as evidenced by unit plans, lesson plans, and planned activities; GIBS’s unfiltered adoption of international accreditation and curriculum standards to achieve GCE is the underlying cause for this OIP’s PoP.

**Leadership Position and Lens Statement**

In my role as GIBS’s accreditation coordinator, I am a change facilitator (Cawsey et al., 2016). I am responsible for helping the school follow ISA’s (2017) protocol—a document that guides GIBS through stages that are similar to the four steps in Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model: awakening stakeholders, mobilization of change, acceleration of implementation, and institutionalization of successful transformations. The ISA accreditation protocol is also
similar to Schein’s (2017) three-stage model of change management in which organizational leaders create change motivation, promote learning of new concepts, and ensure sustainable internalization of learned concepts. As GIBS’s curriculum coordinator, I am also responsible for overseeing the school’s entire curriculum development.

Although the role of accreditation and curriculum coordinator is placed high on the school’s organizational hierarchy (see Figure 1), this role has power limitations despite my position, networking skills, knowledge, or personality (Cawsey et al., 2016). Through my role at GIBS, I work under the immediate supervision of the director and deputy director to help plan organizational level change by guiding the development of the school’s overall formal operational systems as well as long-term and short-term school improvement plans. However, my individual organizational power of enacting organizational level change is restricted to providing staff with professional development and overseeing the development of written documentation (e.g., curriculum maps, school policies, strategic improvement plans, accreditation reports) without being able to directly follow up on other senior leaders’ implementation of the school’s new organizational systems or improvement plans. Even though my current position has limitations for enacting change, I write this OIP proposal from the perspective of an accreditation and curriculum coordinator who is empowered to equip her school with the tools and strategies to enact organizational change, and whose director and deputy director are committed to following up on the implementation of that change. Despite the limitations of my scope and agency, I can leverage my leadership position within GIBS to enact organizational change by closely collaborating with the principals and department heads who do follow up on classroom implementation.
Lens Statement

An overview of my ethnocultural background and personal history provides readers with the lens I use to view my PoP. In addition to being Canadian, I am Sudanese, and I ethnically identify with being both African and Arab. My ethnic culture is a fusion that emerged when Arab merchants crossed the Red Sea and settled with East Africans between 8th and 9th centuries A.D. (New York Metropolitan Museum of Art, 2001). I am also a Muslim woman who observes the practice of wearing the hijab (head covering) and the abaya (a long, loose-fitting dress). Over a century of global changes in ideology, politics, and economy have influenced generations of my family’s educational experiences and, in turn, have shaped my understanding of international education and global citizenship.

The first Western-style schoolhouse for boys in my parents’ village, Shabarga, was built in 1906 under British colonial rule by my great-grandfather, whose name I carry: Gameil. The boys’ school was one of very few in Sudan at the time, giving the young men in our village access to better-paying civil-service jobs that were coveted under British rule, such as doctor, lawyer, and engineer. To several villagers’ dismay, my grandfather followed in his father’s footsteps by building the first girls’ school 30 years later, in 1936; some considered it shameful and dishonourable to send one’s daughters out of their homes to receive what was viewed as corruptive Western-based schooling. When Ina Beasley, the Superintendent of Girls’ Education in Sudan, visited Shabarga’s girls’ school in 1941, she expressed being “anxious to see welfare workers appointed to assist teachers in the community” (as cited in Durham University, 2019, p. 16). Many of my female relatives who attended the village girls’ school became teachers, resulting in better financial stability for them and their families. By the time I was born in 1979, Shabarga had achieved 100% literacy in its population.
In a post–World War 2 postcolonial era, financial aid and international peace were the main purposes for international education (Bunnell, 2014; Sylvester, 2005). After Sudan had gained its independence from British rule in 1956, the United Kingdom collaborated in a gesture of goodwill with Sudan to offer full scholarships to Sudanese undergraduate students who performed well enough academically to attend a British university. Khartoum University in Sudan sent my father on a full scholarship to the University of Manchester in the early 1970s to pursue a master’s and a doctorate degree in accounting. Unfortunately, the education my father received there did not translate to stability for our family. Sudan was, and still is, plagued by postcolonial political and economic instability. It is also arguable that my father’s inability to find suitable work in Sudan is that the schooling my he received may not have been well suited or sustainable for his local environment (Bakunin, 2012b). My father’s efforts to support his family resulted in our family’s diaspora and my experiences as a global citizen.

By placing me in different countries’ English-speaking schools, my parents provided me with educational “cross-border mobility” (Tarc, 2013, p. 6) that made my academic transition to Canada seamless upon our family’s immigration in 1995. Studying in international schools had developed my intercultural sensitivity, which is the ability to view cultural aspects in their context while recognizing the existence of cultural similarities and differences between people (Cushner, 2016). However, I believe that Canada was where I began developing intercultural competency, which is the critical understanding and abilities necessary for people to manage their interpersonal interactions with those who come from cultures that are different themselves at an increasingly complex levels of perceptual distinction (Cushner, 2016). Living in Canada’s multicultural society gave me the opportunity to have close interpersonal relationships with people from diverse ethnocultural backgrounds in ways that I had not experienced in the GCC or
Sudan, where most of the population identified as Arab and Muslim. Another outcome of the international education I received is that I see myself as a citizen of the world rather than a citizen of one particular country.

Based on my personal and family history, I define international education as formal education with the following criteria:

- It is based on internationally recognized academic and administrative standards (Anderson-Levitt, 2003; Bray, 2007; Cambridge & Thompson, 2004);
- It affords students global mobility in both education and the work field (Sylvester, 2005; Tarc, 2013);
- It develops students’ intercultural competence (Allan, 2013; Bray, 2007; Cushner, 2016);
- It enables students to view themselves as global citizens (Marshall, 2011); and
- It leads to a competitive edge in a global market (Allan, 2013).

Since I started working in GCC private bilingual schools in 2005, I no longer consider international education limited to education of expatriate students; rather, it also includes host national students. I take the term international, in international education, to refer to (a) school systems—the standards that govern a school’s curriculum, policy, and practice (Anderson-Levitt, 2003; Bray, 2007; Cambridge & Thompson, 2004) and (b) student competencies—the students’ intercultural engagement, global citizenship, cross-border mobility, and global marketability (Allan, 2013; Bray, 2007; Marshall, 2011; Sylvester, 2005; Tarc, 2013).

**Philosophical Worldview**

Although I share Arabic and Muslim roots with GCC host national students, it is only recently that I have come to recognize and value the importance of preserving the heritage of
those students. When watching *Schooling the World* (Bakunin, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, 2012d, 2012e, 2012f, 2012g) I realized, much to my dismay, that my blind and unrestrained adoption of international curricula and accreditation standards led me to unwittingly serve a colonial agenda. I was disappointed when I realized that the Global Citizenship accreditation standards I had helped my school adopt could, in fact, play a role in eroding my students’ heritage. The curriculum I helped the school map was based on an American narrative that did not represent my students’ culture or experience. I was especially dismayed considering that I am married to an African American whose parents are proud to have participated in the Civil Rights movement. In my personal life I am determined to ensure that my own children value their diverse heritage, yet my personal experience and insight did not translate to my professional practice.

I used to approach my work at GCC bilingual schools from a social constructivist worldview (Creswell, 2014) as I sought to understand and respect the values and culture that host national students and parents held dear. Through a social constructivist worldview, I believed I was doing my part as a curriculum coordinator by simply making room for GCC’s local social studies and Arabic curricula without questioning the American curriculum standards that my schools adopted for English, math, and science. I did not actively incorporate host national students’ cultural or geographical context into any of the English-speaking subjects, which make up over 60% of the schools’ taught curricula.

I focused on meeting accreditation standards by ensuring that elements of Oxfam’s (2015) definition of global citizenship were embedded in all K–12 subject curricula, but I did not engage my schools’ staff and students in critical discourse of power, oppression, and competing narratives (Creswell, 2014), nor did I make any effort toward the “preservation and protection of traditional knowledge and intellectual property” (Boote & Beile, 2015, p. 17).
This self-critique of my professional practices has helped me transition from a social constructivist to a transformative worldview that advocates for GCC students and is consistent with the literature informing my OIP (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009). The transformative worldview that frames this OIP emphasizes the importance of the lived experiences of marginalized communities by analyzing asymmetric power relationships and by linking results of social inquiry to transformative action (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009).

I believe my positionality now completely aligns with a critical, decolonial philosophical discourse and a transformative worldview that recognizes the subjective and interpretive nature of GCC culture and heritage (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009).

**Leadership Problem of Practice**

The PoP that is addressed is GCC’s Type C schools’ (Bunnell, 2014) adoption of global citizenship education, through complete adoption of international accreditation and curriculum standards, without regard to the host national students’ ethnocultural, historical, and geopolitical contexts. Accreditation and curriculum coordinators can support GCC Type C schools to develop strategic improvement plans that promote both global citizenship and intercultural learning while also preserving students’ ethnic heritage, historical narrative, and cultural pride.

Although schools such as GIBS meet international academic and accreditation standards of high-quality learning and global citizenship (Bray, 2007; Marshall, 2011, Tarc, 2013), I have observed such schools to often base instruction solely on imported curriculum standards, decontextualized teaching resources, and a shallow understanding of global citizenship. By excluding local narratives and contextual examples of learning content, GCC Type C schools place their host national students at risk of erosion of their ethnocultural heritage (Andreotti, 2011). Furthermore, such schools do not prepare students who are GCC citizens to engage with
and respond to a largely negative international media portrayal of their Arab and Muslim heritage (Abdullah, 2015; Alsultany, 2013; Powell, 2011; Schmuck et al., 2020; Starck, 2015; West & Lloyd, 2017). What strategies can accreditation and curriculum coordinators use to support GCC Type C schools’ host national students as they gain knowledge and skills that are culturally relevant, personally meaningful, and authentically applicable, while also instilling intercultural sensitivity and competence?

A key strength of this PoP is the way its structure echoes throughout the remainder of this chapter. A paragraph that follows a deductive model, like the PoP above, starts with a general statement of the PoP, followed by a description of the leader’s scope of influence, a list of the problem’s major symptoms and effects, and, last, a specific question to guide the reader forward (Western University, 2016). The merit of using a deductive model to write this PoP is that the PoP paragraph statement’s structure, from a general phenomenon to a particular problem, prepares the reader for the deductive process that will be used to frame the PoP: from exploring the broad philosophical discourse on GCE to conducting a more detailed PESTE (political, economic, sociological, technological, and environmental) analysis (Cawsey et al., 2016) of the external forces influencing the PoP. A possible area of weakness lies in some of the PoP’s possible assumptions about culture and heritage. A PoP that asserts, as I have above, that “GCC Type C schools place their host national students at risk of erosion of their ethnocultural heritage,” could make the false assumption the notion that culture is a static construct that does not, or should not, evolve.

**Framing the Problem of Practice**

The deductive process (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gray, 2016; Western University, 2016) of framing this PoP is akin to the art of analogue photography (see Figure 2), where a
photographer (doctoral candidate) chooses her best camera (selection of relevant philosophical discourse) and calibrates her trusty lens (PESTE analysis of external factors) to take a high-resolution picture (a well-articulated and framed PoP).

**Figure 2**

*Photography Metaphor for the Deductive Process Used to Frame This Problem of Practice*

Problem of Practice Camera: Philosophical Discourse on Global Citizenship Education

A review of GCE discourse is key to understanding any PoP that questions how host national students in Type C international schools can develop both intercultural competency and pride in their heritage. The importance of GCE extends beyond the instruction of skills such as intercultural competence to students; GCE is an ontological study of *how* humans can exist and be in the world (Gardner-McTaggart & Palmer, 2018). For GIBS’s GCC host national students, global citizenship will become a part of their identity. It will influence how they perceive themselves and how they interact with the world around them both locally and globally. This
section initiates the process of framing the PoP by giving a historical overview of the conceptual evolution of GCE while describing views from both proponents and critics of GCE practices.

Current literature of global citizenship traces its historical roots to Kantian philosophy (Abdi, 2015; Marshall, 2011; Parmenter, 2011), and specifically Kant’s postulation that a “constitution formed in accordance with cosmopolitan law, in as far as individuals and states, standing in an external relation of mutual reaction, may be regarded as citizens of one world-state” (Kant & Smith, 1917, p. 119). Global citizenship has evolved from its cosmopolitan beginnings (Kant & Smith, 1917) into a multidisciplinary concept that permeates the fields of education (ISA, 2017), political science (Spivak, 2018), and international development (OXFAM, 2015), yet current GCE discourse is dominated by an English-language literature that is based on Western narratives (Abdi, 2015; Andreotti, 2011; Parmenter, 2011).

Though perspectives on GCE may vary (Abdi, 2015; Andreotti, 2011; ISA, 2017; Gardner-McTaggart & Palmer, 2018; Marshall, 2011; OXFAM, 2015; Spivak, 2018), a multilingual survey of 642 university students worldwide revealed that the four core concepts integral to global citizenship are human-beingsness, connectedness, engagement, and transformation (Parmenter, 2011). Each of the first three global citizenship core concepts of human-beingsness, connectedness, and engagement can be defined within clear parameters. Human-beingsness refers to the shared experience and common fate of humanity that encompasses notions of the sanctity of life, awareness of diversity, and spirituality (Parmenter, 2011). Connectedness and engagement are global citizenship actions where the former, connectedness, is an action of the heart that includes empathy and compassion, and the latter, engagement, is action of the mind that includes communication, critical thinking, and advocacy (Parmenter, 2011).
Parmenter’s (2011) survey also revealed that, unlike human-beingness, connectedness, and engagement, the fourth and last core concept of global citizenship, transformation, had two distinct interpretations. Students in Europe, North America, and Australia viewed transformation as an external act of social change aimed at restoring justice, whereas students in Asian countries such as the United Arab Emirates and South Korea viewed transformation as an internal act of changing oneself as a prerequisite for effective global citizenship. Applying the distinction between internal and external acts of global citizenship transformation (Parmenter, 2011) to this OIP’s context explains why my initial Western approach to global citizenship at GIBS was focused on the outward social change of my organization, and why it would be likely for GIBS’s GCC host national students to feel the pressure to change, by abandoning their heritage, to become global citizens. If both interpretations of global citizenship transformation result in changing the indigenous (GIBS students) to redeem the colonial (me), how can I as a Western-trained school leader leverage GCE to enact social justice for my Indigenous students?

Educating children to become global citizens is an integral part of international schooling (ISA, 2017), yet “[a] ‘global citizen’ is an oxymoron in the strict sense because there is no constituted global state” (Spivak, 2018; p.122). Although the promotion of peace and justice through global or cosmopolitan citizenship may not have been deliberately racist (ISA, 2017; Kant & Smith, 1917; OXFAM, 2015), critics like Abdi (2015), Marshall (2011), and Andreotti (2011) have noted that much of the current literature on GCE is based on historically exclusionist Eurocentric and colonial discourse that prioritizes non-Indigenous narratives and experiences; these scholars’ views align with a transformative worldview that advocates for marginalized groups (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009).

Abdi (2015) critiqued the Eurocentric origins of GCE by noting that
Kant also constitutes a unique citizenship and global citizenship problem for [Abdi] as an African man. [Kant] actually does so by engaging in what [Abdi] should term negative global citizenship education when [Kant] attempts, albeit so miserably, to teach his European compatriots about Africans which via his demeaning depictions of people he did not know at all, qualifies him to be a philosopher of colonialism and onto-existential oppression. (p. 15)

In his call for decolonizing GCE, Abdi (2015) to scholars like Freire (1968/1993), who recommended that oppressed populations use education for transformative and revolutionary action against the dominant, oppressive elite. Reading a fellow African’s scholarly condemnation of unfiltered adoption of a Eurocentric version of GCE helped to solidify my resolve to rectify my error of implementing international accreditation and curriculum standards without regard to my GCC host national students’ heritage.

A second critic of Eurocentric GCE, Marshall (2011), noted that philosophical discourse on GCE is influenced by competing instrumentalist, idealist, and imaginary agendas. Instrumentalist agendas view global citizenship as a means to an end; idealist agendas emphasize the importance of universal values in global citizenship; and imaginary agendas view global citizenship as imagined, normative, and universalist social constructs. In her theoretical framing of global citizenship, Marshall identified pluralism, power, and cosmopolitan capital as the tools of critical analysis of how global citizenship is taught in schools; she also concluded that all GCE agendas are instrumentalist because, whether based on technical-economy or social-justice, all agendas view GCE as a means to an end. In GIBS’s case, the adoption of GCE is a means to achieve accreditation and recognition as an international school that offers global mobility and intercultural competence to its students.
Andreotti (2011), a third critic of GCE, stretched the discourse past its current debates on capitalism, Eurocentrism, and modernity by presenting Latin American scholars’ perspectives on GCE through a geopolitical lens. Andreotti used Grosfoguel’s comparison between world systems theory and postcolonial theory, and the questions arising from such comparisons, as the starting point of her analysis. She then synthesized different Latin American scholars’ views of Eurocentricity and modernity into the overarching conclusions that non-European epistemologies are considered primitive and flawed, that coloniality is a prerequisite to modernity, and that claims of neutrality and universality result in epistemic blindness and racism. She concluded that, for GCE to be effective, the discourse must move past concepts of Eurocentrism and modernity, and emphasis must be placed on decoloniality and diversality that support the indigenous development of ways of learning based on its own epistemology (Andreotti, 2011). This thinking indicates that schools like GIBS would need to embed decoloniality as part of their formal teaching and learning systems.

Abdi’s (2015), Marshall’s (2011), and Andreotti’s (2011) criticism of Eurocentric implementation of GCE should motivate international school leaders, like myself, to acknowledge their geopolitical context, be critical of how colonialism may influence their worldview, and, in turn, influence their organizational improvement research approach, design, and method. To ensure that the practice of GCE in classrooms does not recreate educators’ current flawed reality, teachers and students must engage in new ways of thinking, teaching, and learning (Andreotti, 2011; Marshall, 2011). Marshall expressed her concerns that a critique of global citizenship may demoralize enthusiastic teachers and that the relativist approach is not helpful to teachers who need absolutes in a classroom context; she concluded that further empirical research is necessary to examine the way that schools teach global citizenship.
In summary, this section’s description of the camera that frames the PoP traces the philosophical evolution of GCE discourse from scholars (Kant & Smith, 1917) and practitioners (ISA, 2017; OXFAM, 2015) touting the benevolent aim of achieving world peace to critics questioning the negative impact of GCE’s Eurocentricity on non-Western populations (Abdi, 2015; Andreotti, 2011; Marshall, 2011). It is worth noting that philosophical evolution of GCE discourse mirrors my personal evolution from an international school leader who holds a social constructivist worldview (Creswell, 2014) that promotes an instrumentalist agenda of GCE (Marshall, 2011) and ignores social injustice and power imbalances at her organization, to a leader who holds a transformative worldview that seeks to restore justice (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009) to her GCC students whose lived experiences have been marginalized.

**Lens 1: Politics of Racism**

The GIBS host national students I have met have expressed having a strong national identity and great pride in their family history and cultural heritage. These children have not experienced much of the post–9/11 media rhetoric and international backlash against Muslims. Not only are these students at risk of erosion of their ethnocultural heritage by attending international schools, but host national students are also ill-prepared to engage with and respond to a largely negative international discourse of that heritage. At the same time, accreditation organizations such as ISA require GCC’s international schools to provide students with high-quality learning that develops their global citizenship and intercultural competencies (Bray, 2007; ISA, 2017; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013). The recent global mobilization of Black Lives Matter has compelled the international school community to start acknowledging its role in perpetuating systemic racism (Engel, 2020; Larsson, 2020; Nyomi, 2020), thus adding to the urgency for GIBS to protect the heritage of students who are GCC host nationals.
**Lens 2: Economics of the GCC Private Education Industry**

According to Alpen Capital (2018), an award-winning investment bank based in the Middle East, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of for-profit private schools in the GCC. Alpen Capital also reported a 69% decrease in total student enrolment in GCC public schools between 2011 and 2016. Although the GCC’s private education market is currently thriving, Alpen Capital has cautioned investors that this market is becoming highly competitive and may even reach saturation soon.

**Lens 3: Sociological Intersections of Local and Global Educational Elements**

Sociological factors influencing this PoP are based on intersections of local and global educational elements of language and culture. Research in American (Padilla, 1977) and Colombian (Pretelt Montero, 2016) bilingual schools has exposed challenges faced by minority students who learn both their cultural language and English, discussed further below. Similar challenges could be faced by students who are GCC host nationals. Scholar practitioners use interviews to uncover strategies that Western-trained teachers can use to successfully transition to working in non-Western cultures (Alban, 2013; Vonderlind, 2015)—strategies that could be incorporated in the OIP.

**Bilingual Schools: A Linguistic Intersection.** The first local–global intersection that GCC’s bilingual schools face is that of curriculum offered in both Arabic and English. Students are expected to achieve native fluency in the two languages by the time they graduate from high school. GCC’s Arabic subjects (Arabic language arts, Islamic studies, and social studies) are dictated by local guidelines, whereas English curricula (English language arts, math, science, art, computers, and physical education) follow American standards. A comparison of Padilla’s (1977) historical study of bilingual schooling in America and Pretelt-Montero’s (2016) research
of bilingual schooling in Colombia indicates that the challenges faced by bilingual school students persist irrespective of time and space. Such challenges include the difficulty of learning a second language due to the students’ cultural disconnect from the newly acquired language, followed by the risk of losing their cultural identity once they do become fluent in the second language. This finding further supports GIBS’s need to consider incorporating its students’ cultural context into the written and taught curriculum, not only to preserve students’ heritage, but to better help students learn English as a second language.

**International Adaptation of Western Teachers: A Cultural Intersection.** Published within two years of each other, Alban’s (2013) and Vonderlind’s (2015) studies used interviews and document analysis to investigate the intersection of Eastern and Western cultures, particularly how Western teachers adapt to a non-Western work environment. Alban examined American teachers’ adjustment to working in Asia’s international schools, and Vonderlind identified efforts made by local and Western teachers, as well as school administrators, to successfully integrate Western teachers to working in the Emirates’ national school system. The researchers argued that culturally responsive teaching is a successful adaptation strategy for expatriate teachers in national (Vonderlind, 2015) and international (Alban, 2013) school settings. Both researchers also mentioned the importance of indigenized learning in their respective literature reviews, so it is surprising that neither advocated for the indigenization of curriculum as a strategy for Western-trained educators to successfully teach in a non-Western environment. In this case, could a GCC-oriented curriculum indigenization of English language subjects be part of an overall solution to the PoP?
From reviewing the overarching philosophical discourse on global citizenship to detailing the more nuanced analysis of intersections between the local and the global, the journey of framing this PoP stands true to the deductive roots of the initial PoP paragraph statement.

**Guiding Questions Emerging from the Problem of Practice**

Three broad questions emerge from a PoP that critiques an entire system of schooling and calls for preserving students’ heritage:

1. How does a school leader with a transformative worldview (Mertens, 2009, Creswell, 2014) develop an aspirational OIP that aims to solve a systemic problem despite the organizational limitation of working at an international, for profit school?

2. How does an international school leader balance between engaging different stakeholder groups in revolutionary pedagogy aimed at empowering marginalized students (Freire, 1968/1993) while, at the same time, continuing her commitment to helping the school meet its organizational goals?

3. How does a school leader engage her organization in theoretically grounded transformative change (Creswell, 2014; while, at the same time, mitigating the risk that ambiguity of such transformative, epistemological shift could demoralize enthusiastic practitioners (Marshall, 2011) who, otherwise, would be eager advocates for change?

These three broad questions lend themselves, respectively, into three dilemmas that the leader will face as she attempts to balance clashing leader aims, negotiate competing stakeholder needs, and bridge gaps between theory and practice.

First, a leader who is grounded in a transformative worldview and aims for aspirational goals that challenge current practices and reform organizational systems (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009) will have to take into consideration important practical limitations such as school
budget, recruitment pool, and adherence to performance standards (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Machin, 2014). Second, a school leader will also have to negotiate between competing organizational and individual needs (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Rafferty et al., 2013; Stringer & Hourani, 2016), while keeping in mind that different organizational subgroups, such as parents, students, teachers, and school owners, may have differing needs (Rafferty et al., 2013). Finally, a doctoral student must bridge the gap between theory and practice (Northouse, 2016; Senge, 1994) by grounding the OIP writing in the language of peer-reviewed theory while ensuring that it is accessible to other scholar-practitioners who may be facing similar challenges. The three guiding questions’ dilemmas of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice will set parameters for the planning and development that is presented in Chapter 2.

**Leadership-Focused Vision for Change**

Although international school accreditation and curriculum standards do not require GCC international bilingual schools to preserve host national students’ heritage (ISA, 2017), these schools are bound to do so by their mission statements. To ensure that GIBS meets its mission of preserving host national students’ heritage, its leaders have a key role in guiding the school community in setting strategic priorities (Davies & Davies, 2006) that bring to life the school’s mission, vision, and values (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Stringer & Hourani, 2016), and balance the school’s short-term operational and long-term strategic goals (Davies, 2003). A bilingual school’s strategic improvement plan must prioritize the following goals:

1. Developing curricula that bring alive the school’s mission, vision, and values through the school’s decisions, actions, and culture;
2. Establishing successful and sustainable school operations that include a system for
distributive and decentralized leadership;
3. Meeting long-term strategic goals for improved performance and capacities at the
individual, group, and organizational level; and
4. Ensuring that successful implementation of the school’s strategic plan happens within
the financial parameters given by the school owner.

Change Drivers

Change drivers are internal and external environmental factors that influence
organizations to alter their structures and systems (Cawsey et al., 2016). Senior school leaders,
and expatriate teachers are the key internal change drivers with potential to enact organizational
change as proposed by the OIP. Senior school leaders, such as me as the school’s curriculum and
accreditation coordinator, are internal drivers who initiate, plan, and support implementation of
Expatriate teachers are also direct internal drivers of organizational change as they are
responsible for developing and implementing culturally responsive curricula, which are a
successful adaptation strategy for expatriate teachers in both national (Vonderlind, 2015) and
international (Alban, 2013) school contexts. Expatriate teachers also act as direct internal drivers
of change as they engage host national students and parents in the indigenization of GIBS’s
curriculum in a process similar to the one outlined in Ontario Ministry of Education’s (2007)
First Nation, Métis, and Inuit (FNMI) Education Policy Framework. Despite host national
students and parents being outside an accreditation and curriculum coordinators’ direct line of
communication, they could act as indirect internal drivers of organizational change. International
accreditation organizations, such as ISA, are external drivers that can also be used to enact
organizational change. Although ISA is not directly involved with this OIP, its systems can be used to plan, implement, and monitor organizational change.

**Envisioned Future State**

Bolman and Deal’s (2013) foundational organizational reframing theory is used in this section to develop a future vision where GIBS can successfully balance its adoption of international and accreditation standards with culturally contextualized learning. As summarized in Table 1, four frames are used to describe GIBS’s current organizational state in relation to the school’s envisioned future state: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames.

**Table 1**

*An Comparison of GIBS’s Current and Envisioned Future States*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frame</th>
<th>Current state</th>
<th>Envisioned future state</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structural</td>
<td>Strategic improvement plan and accreditation structurally embedded and intertwined.</td>
<td>Harnessing strategic improvement planning and accreditation processes to enact change through this OIP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource</td>
<td>School staff not equipped with training or resources to promote local culture through curriculum and instruction.</td>
<td>Equip school staff with training and resources to promote local culture through curriculum and instruction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Power imbalance with expatriate staff making learning decisions for GCC host national students.</td>
<td>Empower GCC host national students to actively participate in developing curriculum and learning decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic</td>
<td>GCC cultural symbols embedded only in Arabic language subjects.</td>
<td>GCC cultural symbols embedded in both Arabic and English language symbols.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The structural frame is based on the assumption that an organization can achieve its goals through effective and efficient formal structures and processes (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Cawsey et al., 2016). For the most part, GIBS uses accreditation and strategic improvement planning to enact organizational level improvement, which I elaborate upon further in the change readiness section that follows. In an envisioned future state, the school will harness those well-established formal organizational systems as part of the OIP’s proposed solution.

The human resources frame focuses on the idea that people and organizations need one another to thrive and that having a mutually beneficial relationship allows for greater yields of success both individually and structurally (Bolman & Deal, 2013). This idea directly relates to this PoP, as school leaders actively develop the right fit between individual staff members and organization in order to create a culture of support. Implementation of this OIP will use professional training and resource collecting to develop the right fit between expatriate staff members and an organization that serves a local GCC community. In addition to empowering staff through training, GIBS can also sustain improvement by promoting a positive organizational culture through the processes of rewarding staff for doing a good job and encouraging them to work collaboratively toward a meaningful goal (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Cawsey et al., 2016; House et al., 2002).

The political frame is based on the assumption that members of an organizational form coalitions due to shared interests, and that members’ individual and group power within an organization dictates who is able to make and enact decisions (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Position power, or authority to influence change, plays a central role to this OIP. If politics is “the act of brokering power to meet one’s own goals” (Cawsey et al. 2016, p. 186), then an expatriate school leader aiming to empower local students is faced with the challenge of students having no
positional power within the school nor any place within the school’s organizational structure. In the envisioned future state of GIBS, host national GCC students will actively engage in changing curriculum and instruction, as those students play the important role of “low-power actors in human service settings facilitated change” (Hyde, 2018, p. 64).

The symbolic frame focuses on people and culture, and how they use life experiences to mold and shape who they are and where they fit in (Bolman & Deal, 2013). The frame relates to the experiences and meaning-making for both local students and expatriate staff, with the OIP questioning the degree to which GCC meaning, belief, and faith are prioritized by GIBS. Part of the problem is that GIBS embeds local symbols only in Arabic language subjects’ curriculum and instruction, by default, due to Ministry of Education directives, while omitting those same symbols from English language subjects. To create and foster a positive organizational culture, it is the responsibility of the school to give local students the opportunity to tell their stories. Ota (2014) wrote, “The more people truly know our story, the safer we are likely to feel with them . . . [and] the safer we feel with people, the more we are inclined to gradually feel attached to them” (p. 45), indicating that local GCC narratives and contextualized curriculum could be valuable tools for learning.

The main takeaway of this analysis of GIBS’s envisioned future state through Bolman and Deal’s (2013) four structural frames is the crucial significance of local GCC contexts, narratives, and symbols to reframe the school. Further analysis is presented in the readiness for change section that follows to determine areas of possible organizational strengths and limitations that will factor into the future planning and implementation of the OIP.
Organizational Change Readiness

An organization is ready for change if its stakeholders believe that the change is necessary and possible; an organization is also ready for change when stakeholders feel positive emotions toward this change. For organizational improvement to be successful, the cognitive factors (beliefs) and affective factors (emotions) underlying change readiness must be present at the macro (organizational), meso (group), and micro (individual) levels (Rafferty et al., 2013). This section uses different tools to present a progressively focused analysis of GIBS’s change readiness at the macro (Stewart, 1994) and meso (Cawsey et al., 2016) levels to deductively triangulate specific areas that could support school change readiness, as well as areas that may pose a threat to organizational improvement.

Macro Organizational Level Analysis

Through leadership that inspires and motivates stakeholders to work toward a common shared goal, a school is more likely to be ready for change (Rafferty et al., 2013). A school leader’s success does not depend solely on an OIP, but on actual school improvement (Grogan & Fullan, 2013). It is the leader’s role to guide the school community in setting strategic priorities (Davies & Davies, 2006) that bring to life the school’s mission, vision, and values (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Stringer & Hourani, 2016), and balance school’s short-term operational and long-term strategic goals (Davies, 2003). As seen in Table 2, 16 categories were considered when rating the GIBS’s readiness for change at the organizational level, with scores ranging from 0 to 3 (Stewart, 1994). Stewart (1994) embedded those categories in a quiz to help business leaders assess their company’s versatility and identify roots of failure. For this OIP, the categories were classified into three dimensions: leaders’ qualities, organizational systems, and stakeholder engagement. Rating GIBS’s organizational systems and employees has helped to
quantify whether the school is fully ready to embrace change or whether there are potential areas of failure.

Table 2

*Rating Readiness for Future Change: Organizational Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leaders’ qualities</td>
<td>1. Sponsorship</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Leadership</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Motivation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Direction</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational systems</td>
<td>5. Measurements</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Organizational context</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Organizational structure</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Competitor benchmarking</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Customer focus</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Process/functions</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholder engagement</td>
<td>11. Rewards</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Communication</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Prior experience</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. Morale</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. Innovation</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. Decision-making</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (out of 48)</td>
<td></td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To rate the impact of leaders’ qualities on change readiness, GIBS senior leaders are a viewed as a collective. They include the school director, deputy director, principals, vice principals, and me as the curriculum and accreditation coordinator. The school’s director and deputy director, above all, are the visionaries who sponsor any organizational-level change by overcoming staff members’ resistance and motivating them to commit to organizational change, giving the school a score of 3. As two of the school’s founders and as GCC citizens themselves, the director and deputy director have demonstrated personal commitment to preserving their ethnic and national identities by ensuring that the school’s vision and mission reference Arab and Muslim heritage and roots along with adhering to ISA requirements for GCE and intercultural competencies.

The second category of leadership applies mostly to the school’s administrative (principals, vice principals) and academic (curriculum and accreditation coordinator) senior leaders who are directly responsible for implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of change. Although those leaders are highly connected across the organization in a way that results in successful change across all departments, this leadership quality is dampened to a lower score of 2.5 due to the inconsistency of coordination between the administrative and academic streams of leadership within the school. Despite inconsistent coordination, the senior leadership collective at GIBS scores a 3 out of 3 in the motivation and direction categories because the school’s director and deputy director prioritize continuous and sustainable school improvement, as evidenced by the school’s ongoing commitment to strategic planning and accreditation cycles.
Table 2 indicates that GIBS’s senior leader qualities are an area of strength that supports successful organizational change.

GIBS scores generally high points out of 3 in most of the second dimension’s change readiness categories due to several factors:

- The school has well-established quality performance measurements (score = 3).
- The proposed change of preserving GCC students’ heritage is a key factor in the school’s organizational context (score =3).
- There is dual stability and flexibility of GIBS’s organizational structure where changes are made only to enhance whole school performance (score = 3).
- The school uses staff turnover data, student enrollment and exit data, accreditation evaluation reports, and the Ministry of Education’s rating system as competitive benchmarking measures to gauge the GIBS’s performance in relation to other schools—which would be enhanced if GIBS had data from its competitors (score = 2.5).
- There is a high customer focus as demonstrated by the guiding statements’ multiple references to local heritage and given that GIBS has a majority enrollment of GCC students—which would be enhanced when the school increases alignment between teaching and learning practices and the students’ heritage (score = 2.5).

GIBS’s high scores on its leaders’ qualities and the five aforementioned organizational systems suggest that this organization is ready for change. However, financial constraints due to the COVID-19 pandemic have impacted the for-profit school, given reduced student enrollment in this economically volatile time period will likely prevent senior leaders and the school board from undertaking any changes with costs that could potentially destabilize purchasing, accounts
payable, or marketing processes and functions (score 0.5). The negative impact of the school’s rigid processes and functions extends beyond the organizational systems and spills to stakeholder engagement, where staff have expressed their frustration with a lack of a rewards system for contributing to organizational improvement and with potential punishment for taking initiative (score = 1). Furthermore, although the stakeholders tend to effectively use the various lines of communication (score = 2.5) for implementing school systems and enacting successful prior experiences with accreditation-related change (score = 2.5), the lack of reward systems and burnout experienced by staff members during the accreditation process have lowered staff morale (score = 1.5) and innovation (score = 1.5).

The last organizational readiness change category, decision-making (score = 1.5), is another hindrance to organizational change because GIBS engages teachers and school leaders in curriculum and instructional development while excluding parents and students from teaching and learning improvement processes, as evidenced by my limited contact with students and parents at GIBS. In summary, Table 2 shows that GIBS scores high (2.5 or 3 out of 3) in 11 of Stewart’s (1994) 16 categories of organizational readiness for change. Although these macro level findings suggest that GIBS is ready to take on the initiative of rectifying the colonization of curriculum and instruction within the school, the following closer examination at the meso level of each stakeholder group’s historical relationship to change further explains GIBS’s low scores in the process/motivation, rewards, and morale categories of change readiness.

**Meso Group Level Stakeholder Analysis**

Successful school improvement requires a certain mindset. In this case, my success as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator in improving the school is part of a group effort that requires a shared mindset among individuals with strong capacities for systems thinking and
strategic thinking (Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013). For a school to have organizational readiness, department members must share the belief that change is necessary and that this change will have a positive outcome (Rafferty et al., 2013). Group members in such schools are also likely to experience group mood synchronization with shared positive or negative feelings toward organizational change (Rafferty et al., 2013). Noting the importance of examining change readiness at the meso level of organizational change readiness, an adaptation of Cawsey et al.’s (2016) tool for analyzing stakeholder readiness to take action could help identify different groups’ change readiness levels within GIBS.

Cawsey et al. (2016) classified individual stakeholders’ readiness to change according to the stakeholders’ attitudes toward and predisposition to change in five categories, with the following differences:

- The innovators or early adopters welcome variety and actively pursue change;
- the early majority are stakeholders who welcome change without being the first to adopt it;
- the late majority adopt change after it has been introduced and tried by other stakeholders;
- the laggards or late adopters reluctantly adopt the change when most of the organization’s stakeholders have implemented organizational change; and
- the nonadopters are very resistant to adopting organizational change.

When looking at Cawsey et al.’s (2016) categorization through the power dynamics lens of who is empowered to initiate, lead, and implement change within the organization, one wonders whether an individual’s adoption of change is due to that person’s attitudes toward and perceptions of the change or whether individual willingness to embrace change is due to one’s
positional power within the organization. It is likely that a GIBS director, principal, or accreditation and curriculum coordinator to be innovators simply because they are positionally empowered to lead school-wide organizational change, not due to those leaders’ individual attitude toward change. Alternatively, students or custodial staff may be eager innovators but, with no organizational level influence, those stakeholders would likely become laggards or late majority adopters of change that they did not, and could not, initiate. The uncertainty of whether an individual’s organizational change readiness is a result of personality disposition or an outcome of positional agency within an organization leads to the applicability of Caswsey et al.’s stakeholder analysis to groups within the organization based on each group’s adoption of change on a meso organizational level.

Table 3 shows an analysis of stakeholder groups’ readiness to take action based on my personal observations and experiences with different constituent groups’ adoption of organizational change in the period between 2016 and 2019, during which GIBS developed and implemented a three-year strategic improvement plan while simultaneously and successfully achieving ISA accreditation for the first time. The data presented in Table 3 show a correlation between each stakeholder group’s position in the organization’s structure and the group’s level of adoption to change during GIBS’s accreditation process. The higher a group is positioned in the school’s organizational hierarchy, the more likely it is to adopt change, demonstrate commitment to the change, be aware of change initiatives and plans, desire the proposed change, and take action to enact change within the school.
### Table 3

**Analysis of GIBS Stakeholder Readiness to Change in Previous Initiatives at Meso Group Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder group</th>
<th>Adoption of change</th>
<th>Commitment profile</th>
<th>Awareness</th>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Desire for change</th>
<th>Taking action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School board</td>
<td>Innovators</td>
<td>Supportive</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior leadership team</td>
<td>Most are innovator or early adopter, one nonadopter</td>
<td>Mixture: 11 are committed or supportive; one is resistant</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>90% yes; 10% no</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heads of department</td>
<td>Early majority</td>
<td>80% supportive; 20% neutral</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>80% yes; 20% no</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support staff</td>
<td>Late majority</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mixture with unclear %</td>
<td>Mixture with unclear %</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>Late majority</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mixture with unclear %</td>
<td>Mixture with unclear %</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>Laggard</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Laggard</td>
<td>Initially resistant</td>
<td>Only</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No data</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The school board, placed at the top of GIBS’s organizational chart, has ultimate power to approve any major school strategic decisions, especially ones that impact the school’s annual budget or affect the school’s vision, mission, and goals. The board acted as innovators who initiated the accreditation change process and supported all administrative and financial decisions to meet ISA (2017) accreditation standards, such as updating the school’s technology infrastructure, increasing building safety and security measures, and implementing staff
professional development. The school’s senior leadership team comprises mostly change innovators or early adopters who have been committed to change and displayed the awareness, interest, and desire for change to take all actions necessary to ensure that GIBS achieved accreditation. I witnessed the senior leaders’ high readiness for change as I worked with those colleagues to develop, implement, and follow up on a school-wide strategic improvement plan. GIBS’s senior leaders’ high readiness for change was also demonstrated by their collaboration to successfully move the school through the different stages of ISA accreditation.

To overcome the single nonadopter principal’s refusal to participate in the school’s change initiatives, GIBS’s director and deputy director delegated the responsibility of leading change in that division to the principal’s deputies. The senior leadership change readiness data in Table 3 indicates that it is within my scope and agency to successfully initiate and oversee organizational-level change within the school as long as the proposed change aligns with the school’s guiding statements, and as long as the proposed change does not impact GIBS’s annual budget.

As middle managers responsible for monitoring implementation of the school’s strategic plan, and as key members of GIBS’s accreditation committees, heads of department have been supportive early majority adopters of school change and have had a high level of awareness, interest, and desire for change. The department heads’ managerial position within the school has empowered them to take actions that included collaborating with me to develop skill and content scopes and sequences for all subjects, implementing new school policies in their classrooms, and supporting their departments’ implementation of school strategic improvement plans. It is worth noting that heads of department who did not show initial interest in the school’s change initiatives have been eventual adopters, not resistors, of school change.
Senior and middle managers at GIBS have tended to demonstrate high adoption of change; however, stakeholder groups’ readiness to change seems to dwindle the further away that group is placed from a leadership position within the school’s organizational hierarchy. For example, with a position that is lower on the organizational hierarchy than senior and middle managers, school support staff (nurses, custodial staff, secretaries) and teachers were late majority adopters of organizational change who showed neutral commitment and unclear interest or desire to adopt the changes necessary for achieving accreditation. GIBS teachers and support staff’s participation in the organizational change process was superficial, as those stakeholders acted based only on directives from their immediate supervisors.

Positioned outside the school’s organizational chart, it is no surprise that parents and students were laggards in the adoption of change. The school’s Parent Teacher Association (PTA) was formed as part of the strategic planning and accreditation processes; otherwise, parents have played a minimal role in GIBS’s change initiatives. Similarly, the student council was formed as part of the school’s strategic planning and accreditation processes, with student opinions coming only from the middle and high school divisions and with no significant impact of those opinions on school strategic planning. Though the accreditation and strategic improvement processes were organizational change initiatives aimed at serving GIBS students and parents, the stakeholder analysis reveals that GIBS students and parents played a limited and superficial role in the school’s improvement efforts.

To summarize, this analysis of GIBS’s stakeholder groups’ readiness for change has two major implications for the OIP proposed herein. The first implication revealed by the stakeholder analysis reveals is that, as a senior school leader, I am empowered to initiate and enact organizational level change as long as the change adheres to the school’s guiding statements and
financial constraints. This finding is promising because the OIP aligns with GIBS’s guiding statements’ commitment to root student learning in their heritage. It becomes my responsibility, however, to ensure that the proposed solution does not pose a financial burden on the school. The second implication of the stakeholder analysis comes from the finding that, historically at GIBS, parents and students have not been active participants in the organizational change process. To ensure the success of this OIP, I must put in place measures that engage students and parents in the planning, implementation, and monitoring stages of the change process.

Chapter 1 Conclusion

The drive to challenge and change current educational practices to empower local populations is the core concept that permeates all sections in this first chapter. Successful school leaders guide their school community in setting strategic priorities (Bryson, 2011; Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Lambertz, 2007; Leu et al., 2005; Sheppard et al., 2009) that bring to life the school’s mission: in this case, developing host national students whose international education is rooted in their heritage (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Stringer & Hourani, 2016). By being critical of their philosophical worldviews and cognizant of their personal biases, school leaders can unpack their personal perceptions to put students’ best interest at the forefront of school improvement planning. An analysis of GIBS’s organizational strengths and addressing the school’s limitations for change readiness suggests that I will have to maintain a fine balance between practical restrictions and aspirational goals, macro and meso levels of organization, and local and international factors. It is my hope that this OIP’s transformative core (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009) will radiate through the next chapters that propose solutions to a highly contextualized PoP.
Chapter 2: Planning and Development

Whereas deductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gray, 2016; Western University, 2016) was necessary for Chapter 1 to specify this OIP’s PoP and identify my positionality as a scholar, the process of integrative thinking used in Chapter 2 shifts the focus to a different frame of mind that is necessary to develop new solutions to the PoP. Martin (2009) recommended the use of integrative thinking to reconcile two opposing concepts by synthesizing those concepts into a third, new possibility. More specifically, Chapter 2 uses integrative thinking to resolve the tension of negotiating the three dilemmas faced by leaders of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice (see Table 4).

Table 4

*Integration of Three Leadership Dilemmas*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dilemma</th>
<th>First consideration</th>
<th>Second consideration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Clashing leader aims</td>
<td>Practical school limitations</td>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leadership Approaches to Change

In this section of Chapter 2, three different leadership approaches—transformative, servant, and instructional—are discussed as separate entities. Elements of each approach are unpacked and, upon comparison to my transformative leader positionality (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), integrated as part of my overall leadership approach. The integration of transformative (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003), instructional (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012), and servant (Lynch 2012; Northhouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong &
Davey, 2007) leadership approaches is not simply an extension or elaboration of my worldview; each approach will be of value during the change process. On their own, none of the approaches are comprehensive enough to help me, as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator, navigate the complexity of transforming an organization that has unique contextual considerations. As seen in Table 5, the integration of different elements of transformative, servant, and instructional leadership approaches into the change process will equip me with the leadership skills that are necessary to resolve clashing leadership aims, balance competing stakeholder needs, and bridge the gaps between theory and practice.

**Table 5**

*Positioning Leadership Approaches Within Leader Dilemmas*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemmas</th>
<th>Transformative leader positionality</th>
<th>Leadership approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 1: Clashing leader aims</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Transformative Leadership**

Congruent to the transformative worldview on which my leadership positionality is based (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), “Transformative leadership begins with questions of justice and democracy, critiques inequitable practices, and addresses both individual and public good” (Shields, 2010, p. 558). Transformative leaders aim to restructure school organizational frameworks into more inclusive and socially just learning environments as they challenge the inappropriate use of power and privilege that creates and perpetuates inequity and injustice (Shields, 2010), thus favouring aspirational goals over practical limitations and individual and group needs over organizational needs (see Table 5). In the case of GIBS, as a transformative accreditation and curriculum coordinator, I would question the way I have unjustly, albeit inadvertently, wielded my positional power and privilege within the school to indiscriminately adopt Eurocentric international standards in a way that silences and undermines the context and narratives of GCC host national students. I should leverage my positional power within my school to help students achieve democratic empowerment of the learning process (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003).

Unlike *transformational* leadership, which focuses on improving an organization’s internal operations, a *transformative* leadership approach begins with acknowledging that organizations are influenced by inequities that exist within a broader sociopolitical context (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010). If I were to use a transformational leader approach for school improvement, I would be more likely to transform current organizational structures and practices with the aim of achieving better learning outcomes without critiquing the assumptions underlying my school’s organizational structures and practices (Shields, 2010). Through transformative leadership, I would be able to help GIBS develop a new vision that makes the
school’s internal organizational instructional and learning processes congruent with the external GCC society in which the school is embedded. Integration of transformative leadership with instructional and servant leadership approaches will help bridge gaps between theory and practice and mitigate transformative leadership’s inaccessibility to school practitioners.

**Instructional Leadership**

Instructional leaders empower and guide teachers as they enact curriculum and instruction changes (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012). As the curriculum and accreditation coordinator, I take on the role of an instructional leader who exemplifies values and practices that promote continuous teaching and learning improvement within the school’s organizational structure (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012). Thus, I align this leadership approach in the first leader dilemma further away from aiming for aspirational goals that challenge institutional limitations. In the second leader dilemma, my instructional leader approach is geared to serving the organization first because I define the school’s mission, manage the learning program, and promote a positive learning environment, as outlined in Hallinger’s (2005) three dimensions of instructional leadership. The greatest merit of instructional leadership to this OIP lies in its value to both school practitioners and theorists because this approach allows the translation of theoretically grounded transformative leadership approaches to practical strategies for other school stakeholders. My expertise in leading and managing organizational-level change at several GCC Type C schools and my agency as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator at GIBS will support this OIP in the development of strategies to create and implement high-quality international curricula that adhere to ISA’s (2017) instrumentalist definition of GCE (Andreotti, 2011; Bray, 2007; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013) while also preserving host national students’
ethnic identity, historical narrative, and cultural pride in a way that aligns with the school’s vision of rooting students’ education in their Arab and Muslim heritage (GIBS, n.d.).

**Servant Leadership**

Servant leadership is a paradoxical term that integrates service and influence (Northouse, 2016). Servant leaders aim to meet stakeholders’ needs by consulting others, displaying selflessness and empathy, and enacting stewardship (Lynch 2012; Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007). Servant leadership’s emphasis on strategy rather than outcome empowers leaders to use different tools as they balance between reaching aspirational goals and adhering to practical organizational limitations (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016). In other words, as Table 5 illustrates, servant leaders can aim to simultaneously meet aspirational goals and adhere to practical limitations instead of actively choosing to achieve one goal or the other. More specifically, a service leadership approach would assist GIBS leaders in their support of host national students while taking into consideration the school’s financial constraints that were identified as challenges to organizational readiness in Chapter 1.

With regards to the second dilemma of balancing individual and group needs with organizational goals, a servant leader is more likely to prioritize individual and group needs to that of the organization, at times to the extent of the leader sacrificing his or her personal gains (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Wong & Davey, 2007). Servant leaders promote a shared vision, show appreciation, provide mentorship, and listen carefully to individuals within their organizations (Lynch, 2012). In the case of this OIP, GIBS has the dual vision of developing host national students’ global citizenship while simultaneously inculcating them with Muslim and Arab values. Although GIBS’s second organizational goal of rooting students’ learning in their heritage is congruent with this OIP’s goal to serve host national students, the school’s approach
to GCE through unmitigated adoption of international accreditation and curriculum standards has come at a cost to students’ heritage. My servant leadership’s emphasis of individual needs over organizational goals will help restore the balance between student global citizenship development and cultural preservation.

A glance at Table 5 shows an alignment between servant leadership and my transformative leader positionality (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009); specifically with the finding that servant leaders can successfully fuse theory with practice given their leadership qualities of integrity, trust, respect, delegation, vision, and influence make this approach accessible to a wide range of scholar practitioners (Northhouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007). The stewardship aspect of servant leadership will support me to enact change as I use the theoretical underpinnings of this OIP to guide how I support the school in its efforts to internalize my proposed changes.

**Framework for Leading the Change Process**

A leader’s clear vision plays a critical role in inspiring and unifying an organization’s community toward an ambitious goal (Cawsey et al., 2016; Geijsel et al., 2003; Hallinger, 2003; Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Rafferty et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2008; Russell & Stone, 2002; Schein, 2017; Whelan-Berry & Somerville, 2010; Wong & Davey, 2007). At the same time, there are various paths by which organizations can achieve this change (Cawsey et al., 2016; ISA, 2017; Kotter, 2014; Schein, 2017). I based my selection and integration of the three change processes included herein using the same methodology outlined in the previous section, where leadership approaches where chosen based on their alignment to my leadership positionality in relation to three dilemmas faced by leaders: balancing clashing leader aims,
negotiating competing stakeholder needs, and bridging gaps between theory and practice (see Table 5).

Once aligned into three stages as seen in Table 6, elements of change models presented by ISA (2017), Schein (2017), and Cawsey et al. (2016) form a composite change process framework. This framework honours organizational structures (ISA, 2017; Schein, 2017), awakens school stakeholders to misgivings of current practices (Cawsey et al., 2016), takes into account both organizational goals (ISA, 2017; Schein, 2017) and individual needs (Cawsey et al., 2016), is grounded in theory (Cawsey et al., 2016; Schein, 2017), and is accessible to international school leaders (ISA, 2017).

Table 6

*Positioning Change Process Frameworks Within the Leader Dilemma Lattice*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemma</th>
<th>Transformative Leader positionality</th>
<th>Change process frameworks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 1: Clashing leader aims</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cawsey et al. (2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ISA Accreditation Framework

ISA is an organization that accredits member international schools based on a set of standards that are benchmarked as a rubric for the following three stages of evaluation: (a) membership stage, (b) preparatory stage, and (c) self-study and team evaluation stage (ISA, 2017), as well as annual accreditation reporting. The three stages of ISA accreditation do not follow a fixed timeline and, instead, provides schools with an improvement framework that can take anywhere from three to seven years to complete all three stages. At the preparatory stage of accreditation, nonresidential international schools are expected to meet 20 out of 57 core accreditation standards (ISA, 2017). By the end of the third stage, self-study and team evaluation, international schools should aim to meet most standards. Once schools have completed one successful cycle of accreditation (membership, preparatory, and self-study/team visit), as GIBS has, they no longer undergo membership evaluation and, instead, continue with internal strategic planning.

ISA appraises member schools at each of the stages by comparing the school’s self-evaluations to the ISA evaluators’ notes. The objective of the ISA (2017) accreditation protocol is for schools to use the self-study process as an organizational improvement tool, with the goal being the achievement of sustainable school improvement and not just a certificate of accreditation on display. Although it is helpful as a self-reflection tool and development guide, the protocol lends itself to document-heavy improvement, with schools focusing on producing policies while ignoring school systems and practical classroom- and student-level areas of growth. In my role as an accreditation coordinator—a change facilitator (Cawsey et al., 2016)—I am responsible for helping the school organization follow ISA’s protocol. The integration of
ISA’s accreditation protocol into this OIP’s change framework empowers me to enact change within my organization through my agency as an accreditation coordinator.

As seen in Table 6, relying solely on ISA’s (2017) protocol to guide organizational change will result in school leaders having to work within practical limitations and to place more emphasis on organizational goals than individual needs. Furthermore, ISA’s accreditation protocol is accessible to practitioners, but it does not include any reference section for school leaders to gain a better understanding of the theory underlying its accreditation framework. ISA’s emphasis on global citizenship as one its key drivers is a major factor in GIBS favouring the development of GCC host national students’ intercultural competencies over grounding the students’ learning in their ethnocultural heritage. The use of ISA’s protocol supports sustainable leadership as it honours my school’s organizational past (Hargreaves, 2007) as it leverages the accreditation framework’s historically successful implementation at GIBS for bringing about organizational improvement efforts. To mitigate the effects of unequitable adoption of international accreditation standards to students’ ethnocultural heritage, this OIP integrates ISA’s accreditation framework with Schein’s (2017) model of change management and Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model.

Model of Change Management

With three stages that are comparable to the stages presented in ISA’s (2017) accreditation protocol, Schein’s (2017) model of change management offers a theoretical parallel to the accreditation model that may help bridge the gap between organizational change theory and school accreditation practice (see Table 6, Dilemma 3). In the first stage of the change management model, leaders create motivation for change within stakeholders by disconfirming the belief that organizational goals are being met; this process is referred to as unfreezing. As with ISA’s protocol,
the implication of the unfreezing in Schein’s change model is that stakeholders should strive to meet organizational goals instead of challenging them (see Table 6, Dilemma 1) and that achieving organizational goals is a greater priority than meeting individual stakeholders’ needs (Table 6, Dilemma 2). The actual change and learning of new concepts occur in the second stage of the model through imitation or role models and using trial and error to discover solutions. Similarly, ISA’s protocol’s second stage of self-study and team evaluation is the point at which schools are expected to meet the most standards and, upon which, a decision is made on whether a school receives accreditation status. The final stage of Schein’s model of change management, refreezing, finds organizations internalizing new concepts and new standards through cultural change.

Change Path Model

Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model is a valuable framework for change leaders who can find no evidence to indicate that any of the school’s stakeholders (students, parents, teachers, and staff) recognize that there is an organizational problem. The change path model fuses theory with practice in this OIP, whereby GIBS’s constituents do not recognize that there is a risk to host national students’ heritage (see Table 6, Dilemma 3). To lead change, school leaders must first awaken stakeholders to the need for preserving local culture (Cawsey et al., 2016); leaders must convince the school community of the challenges and threats that may have a negative impact on the organization as a whole. Cawsey et al.’s change path model’s emphasis on awakening stakeholders aligns with a transformative worldview that challenges current organizational structures (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), as illustrated in Dilemma 1 in Table 6. Once the school community has reached an intellectual awakening to the problems at a hand, leaders must mobilize the school organization by actively engaging its members in a critical analysis of the school’s formal and informal systems. Through awakening and mobilization
stages, the change framework places more emphasis on individuals’ needs rather than organizational goals (Table 6, Dilemma 2). The third step of the change path model is the *acceleration* phase, in which action plans are developed and their implementation occurs (Cawsey et al., 2016). After successful implementation of the school’s change plans, *institutionalization* is the last phase in the change path model. It occurs when change leaders monitor the organization’s progress of continuing this change after achieving initial success (Cawsey et al., 2016).

**An Integrated Framework for Leading the Change Process**

Figure 3 integrates the three change models into a three-stage composite change process framework. GIBS’s leaders will unfreeze (Schein, 2017) and awaken (Cawsey et al., 2016) organizational constituents as leaders and stakeholders collaborate in the strategic planning process. The second stage that coincides with ISA’s (2017) preparatory evaluation will engage all constituents in intense learning of new standards (Schein, 2017) and accelerated implementation of organizational changes (Cawsey et al., 2016). The third, and last, stage of the proposed integrated framework requires a servant leader to act as a steward (Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002) who supports individuals in internalizing (Schein, 2017) and institutionalizing (Cawsey et al., 2016) enacted organizational change in the self-study and team visit stage of ISA accreditation. In Chapter 3, leadership approaches to change are further integrated to the change process as part of the strategy for communicating organizational improvement change to all stakeholders.
Critical Organizational Analysis

A school leader hoping to challenge existing practices can use critical organizational analysis to evaluate the organization’s overall performance against its present human capital and infrastructure (ISA, 2017; Nadler & Tushman, 1980), which could lead to the leader presenting new visions for change. The process of critical organizational analysis may be limited to an organization’s existing systems (see Table 7, Dilemma 1), but the outcome of such analysis has the potential to transform organizations. This section pairs ISA’s (2017) practitioner-driven accreditation protocol with Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) theoretical congruence model as complementary tools that bridge the gap between the practice and theory of critical organizational analysis of schools. Once integrated, the dual analysis tool is used to identify gaps within GIBS’s organizational practices.
Table 7

Positioning Critical Organizational Analysis Tools Within the Leader Dilemma Lattice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemmas</th>
<th>Transformative leader positionality</th>
<th>Critical analysis tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ISA Protocol Accreditation Standards

In addition to outlining three stages of accreditation, ISA’s (2017) protocol acts as an organizational evaluation framework with nine domains, each of which consists of a set of standards that schools reflect on and appraise themselves against:

A. Purpose and Direction

B. Governance, Leadership, and Ownership

C. The Curriculum

D. Teaching and Assessing for Learning

E. The Students’ Learning and Well-Being

F. Staffing

G. Premises and Physical Accommodation

H. Community and Home Partnerships
I. Boarding, Homestay, and Residential (where relevant)

The accreditation protocol (ISA, 2017) explains how committees should be formed, how reports should be written, and how the evaluators’ visit should be arranged. There is also an appendix with additional considerations for early childhood divisions and for schools with special needs students.

A limitation of the ISA (2017) accreditation protocol is the vagueness of the use of the term *global citizenship*: the term is often used interchangeably with *intercultural learning*. As well, an underlying assumption of the document is that there is only one valid definition of global citizenship. The last, and most notable, limitation of ISA’s protocol in relation to this OIP is the lack of differentiation between international schools populated by diverse cultures and Type C schools enrolling a majority of host national students. As a result, it is incumbent upon Type C school leaders to make provisions for local heritage within their schools’ vision, mission, values, and goals.

**Congruence Model**

According to Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) congruence model, an organization’s performance is based on four key components: (a) the task that is the key purpose and work of an organization, (b) the individual stakeholders who form the organization, (c) formal organizational arrangements that include systems and structures, and (d) informal organization that includes culture. Nadler and Tushman posited that the organization’s performance increases as congruence increases between these four components, with fit assessed through the following six pairings:

- individual and organization
- individual and task
- individual and informal
- task and formal organization arrangements
- task and informal organizational
- formal organizational structures and informal organization

Table 8 pairs Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) congruence model components with ISA’s (2017) international accreditation domains; the table also uses the paired frameworks to list GIBS’s organizational components in a manner that can be shared with school stakeholders.

**Table 8**

*Integrated Gap Analysis Framework*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational components</th>
<th>International accreditation domains (ISA, 2017)</th>
<th>GCC’s organizational components</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Nadler &amp; Tushman, 1980)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task</td>
<td>• Domain A: Purpose and direction</td>
<td>• Guiding statements: mission, vision, and goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>• Domain B: Governance, leadership, and ownership</td>
<td>• Ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Domain E: The students’ learning and well-being</td>
<td>• School leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Domain F: Staffing</td>
<td>• Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Domain H: Community and home partnerships</td>
<td>• Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal organizational arrangements</td>
<td>• Domain C: The curriculum</td>
<td>• Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Domain D: Teaching and assessing for learning</td>
<td>• Local community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Domain G: Premises and physical accommodation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal organization</td>
<td>Not addressed by ISA</td>
<td>• Curriculum and learning resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Teaching, learning, and assessment policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• School building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Not explicitly present within the school’s documentation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gap Analysis

Scrupiny of the fit between GIBS’s four organizational components was specific to certain aspects of each component that relate to this OIP’s PoP. GIBS’s task component (Nadler & Tushman, 1980) or purpose and direction (ISA, 2017) was limited to the school’s mission to provide an international program that is firmly rooted in the students’ Arabic and Islamic heritage. Although solutions to the PoP will likely involve all stakeholders, the individual component (Nadler & Tushman, 1980) of this gap analysis focuses on two GIBS stakeholder subgroups: ISA (2017) Domain E for students and Domain F for teachers. Formal organizational arrangements (Nadler & Tushman, 1980) included in this gap analysis included ISA Domain C’s curriculum and learning resources, and Domain D’s teaching, learning, and assessment policies. Given that students are currently learning from home due to school building closures in 2020, Domain G’s school premises and physical accommodation is excluded from this gap analysis.

Student Fit with Organizational Arrangements and Tasks

GIBS offers bilingual English and Arabic curricula based on international and local academic standards, respectively. Each standards-based unit of study follows an overall scope and sequence of contents and skills as required by ISA’s (2017) accreditation standard C7. A documented and sequenced multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approach ensures an all-inclusive development of the students and meets ISA’s standard C5. GIBS appears to show general fit between students’ needs and the school’s formal teaching and learning structure, with the English language curriculum (English language arts, math, science, art) following internationally recognized American standards and Arabic language subjects (Arabic language arts, Islamic studies, and social studies) following regional Ministry of Education guidelines. Although it is evident that there is fit between students and the school’s organizational
arrangements, GIBS’s sole reliance on imported standards and resources for English language subjects results in the omission of contextually and culturally relevant concepts and instruction from students’ learning experience, which leads to a disconnect between individual students and the organizational task of rooting student learning in their culture and heritage.

**Teacher Fit with Organizational Arrangements and Tasks**

GIBS prides itself on the fit between its teachers and organizational arrangements due to the school meeting all ISA (2017) staffing standards. The school recruits qualified and competent faculty members who carry out the school's programs, mission, and activities. As a result, the school continues to increase the scrutiny with which it reviews incoming employment applications as per F2 of ISA’s accreditation protocol. There is continuous coordination between the school’s Human Resources Department and the Heads of Department regarding the competencies that the school needs. This information is used to recruit teachers who can serve as role models of the values expressed in the school’s guiding statement, thus fulfilling ISA standard F1. Such coordination ensures student protection and well-being because the Human Resources Department facilitates the record checks and contractual agreements after the division principals and heads of department have selected the individuals for employment. All staff are employed under clear written contracts, and contracts are subject to regional labour laws, thus ensuring the protection of both the school and its recruited staff as per ISA standards F6 and F7.

Given that most teachers are expatriates, with only four out of 226 of faculty being local hires, GIBS meets ISA’s (2017) F2 recruitment standard by requiring all applicant teachers to be screened through local government procedures, provide three references, and have undergone a criminal record check from their home of origin prior to the approval of any employment applications. With the aim of individualizing professional development offered to staff members,
GIBS implements a school-wide staff appraisal and development policy, as required by ISA standard F3. The school’s Human Resources Department also uses exit interview reports and teacher turnover data as an indicator of staff members’ job satisfaction as per standard C5 of accreditation. GIBS teacher recruitment, hiring, professional development, and exit practices demonstrate a general fit between individual teachers and formal organizational structures, as well as a fit between teachers and overall school tasks. However, there is no evidence in the findings presented thus far that gives any indication on whether there is fit between GIBS teachers and the specific task of rooting students’ learning in their heritage.

**Fit Between Organizational Task and Formal Organization Arrangements**

The previous analyses of GIBS’s fit between individuals and organizational arrangements and fit between individuals and tasks suggests that the key incongruence takes place between the school’s organizational task and its formal structure. A key component of GIBS’s organizational task is the school’s mission statement reference to students tolerating and accepting other cultures while having a deep understanding of their heritage (GIBS, n.d.). This reference to cultural understanding and cultural rooting is of particular significance because it encompasses both the 92% of the students who are host nationals in a majority Muslim country, with Arabic as the official language, and the 96% of the school staff who are expatriate. Unfortunately, a review of the school’s policies, curricula, and resources reveals that GIBS has no formal organizational systems in place to embed, promote, and review the extent to which students’ heritage is integrated with their learning experience. The lack of fit between GIBS’s organizational task of serving GCC students and the school’s organizational arrangements that are designed and implemented by expatriate staff aligns with Chapter 1’s change readiness analysis finding that expatriate staff members tend to make and implement most organizational decisions while host
national students and parents have not been active participants in organizational change process. Viewed through a transformative lens (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), it is evident that there is underlying power inequity within my organization that unethically, unjustly, yet inadvertently, mutes local indigenous input in host national students’ learning experience.

**A Note on Informal Organizational Culture**

A gap analysis that pairs Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) congruence model with ISA’s (2017) accreditation standards could not be performed when GIBS’s informal organization was paired with any of the other three components: task, individual, and formal organizational arrangements. Arguably, the incongruence of GIBS’s organizational components is due to the school’s reliance on standard-based reform initiatives that are inherently flawed because they overlook the importance of reforming organizational culture (Fullan, 2007). ISA’s accreditation protocol mentions school culture in two of its 64 standards (B7, E1), but positive school culture (an informal school structure) is not one of the main drivers. School-wide improvements may not be sustainable in an organization with a rigid hierarchal structure that prevents leaders from collaborating, thereby resulting in policy implementation dissonance, power struggles, and unhealthy competition among leaders.

A leader may be comfortable working with the school’s formal structures, but unsure of how to navigate organizational politics, power, and culture. GIBS’s organizational hierarchy starts with the owners, moves to the board, director, and deputy director, and then filters down through academic principals and administrative managers to teachers and administrators, respectively (see Figure 1). With the exception of the school’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator (i.e., my role), all senior leaders at the school lead a chain of command. Though an accreditation and curriculum coordinator at GIBS is considered a senior leader, supervised only
by the director and deputy director, GIBS’s organizational hierarchy does not guarantee accreditation and curriculum coordinator’ individual power because of her position, networking skills, knowledge, and personality (Cawsey et al., 2016). The change path models assert that school leaders can facilitate change only if they can influence other stakeholders to fully committed to a shared vision of this change (Cawsey et al., 2016; ISA, 2017; Kotter, 2014; Schein, 2017). To overcome risks of limited individual power and influence within GIBS, senior leaders at my school may benefit from vertical and lateral capacity-building (Fullan, 2007) through an OIP that promotes a positive school culture and empowers school leaders to enact sustainable school improvement (Cawsey et al., 2016).

To summarize this gap analysis, the incongruent fit between GCC host national students and GIBS’s international curricular and instructional organizational arrangements explains the school’s PoP of implementing GCE through complete adoption of international curriculum and accreditation standards without regard to the students’ ethnocultural, historical, or geopolitical contexts. The PoP may have been exacerbated when taking into account that an expatriate faculty instructs local students with little evidence that the teachers have received training or support to instruct this unique student population. The PoP may have also been exacerbated due to GIBS’s lack of formal organizational systems to integrate students’ heritage into their learning experiences. Despite these concerning findings from GIBS’s organizational gap analysis, my dual role as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator has promise in leading sustainable improvement because this senior leadership position empowers me with the agency to leverage ISA’s (2017) evaluation framework and GIBS’s formal structures to lead my organization toward a better fit for its students and teachers.

Possible Solutions to Address the Problem of Practice

With the gap between GIBS’s task and formal systems in mind, the three solutions
offered in this section explore different ways to rectify this organizational incongruence. The solutions proposed are national-level large-scale reform, macro-level organizational strategic planning, and meso level teacher development (see Table 9). A national-level approach that addresses underlying causes of the POP is the first proposed solution, where lessons are taken from Australian and Canadian government efforts to restore justice to Indigenous peoples through partnerships aimed at educational reform (Smith, 2009). The second proposed solution would take place on a macro organizational level where I would engage all GIBS stakeholders in the process of strategic school improvement. The third, and last, proposed solution would take place at the meso level where I would work only with teachers to develop resources that support GIBS’s host national students.

Table 9

Positioning of Proposed Solutions within the Leader Dilemma Lattice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader Dilemmas</th>
<th>Translative leadership positionality</th>
<th>Proposed solution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National reform (systemic)</td>
<td>Macro organizational (optimal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 1: Clashing leader aims</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
National Level Solution: Large-scale Reform

The first solution proposed by this OIP’s PoP examines the root causes of injustice experienced by GIBS’s host national students by heeding to Freire’s (1968/1993) call for the oppressed to transform education as a form of resistance against the dominant, oppressive elite. The OIP’s PoP of my expatriate enacting of a Eurocentric approach to GCE (Abdi, 2015; Andreotti, 2011; Marshall, 2011) on GCC host national students parallels the problems caused by European settlers’ imposition of colonial school systems on Australia’s and Canada’s Indigenous children (Smith, 2009). Therefore, examples of Australian and Canadian government-led initiatives that confront the colonial history of Western-based education while embedding local heritage into students’ experience provide some insight as to how I can propose a solution that addresses the systemic roots of my PoP on a national scale.

Inquiry commissions in Australia and Canada revealed that early colonial settlers imposed an extremely abusive Eurocentric public school system on Indigenous populations that used their children for labour (Australian Human Rights Commission, 1997; Government of Canada, 2020; White & Peters, 2009; Wahlquist, 2021). In response to those findings, there have been national-level efforts by the public sector in Australia (Education Council, 2015) and Canada (National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation, n.d.) to rectify this injustice by partnering with Indigenous peoples as active participants who will help transform the public education system (Government of Canada, 2019; Common Wealth of Australia, 2020) to achieve reconciliation through planning, professional learning, and curriculum resources (Australian Government Department of Education, Skills and Employment, 2020; Elementary Teachers’ Federation of Ontario, n.d.).

A similar solution would take place if a GCC state, were to conduct its own commission
into the impact of international schools on host national students. A GCC government may not find the extreme and prevalent child abuse revealed by Australia’s and Canada’s commissions (Australian Human Rights Commission, 1997; Government of Canada, 2020; Wahlquist, 2021; White & Peters, 200) because schools like GIBS go through rigorous international (ISA, 2017) and local inspections to ensure students’ safety and wellbeing. However, inferring from Chapter 2’s gap analysis findings using Nadler and Tushman’s (1980) model, a GCC government inquiry would likely find an uneven power dynamic between locals and expatriates, with expatriate staff making most of the learning decisions for local students. A GCC inquiry would also likely find a scarcity of local heritage elements and a high presence of colonial elements embedded in the curriculum.

Such findings would propel GCC authorities to establish formal local public entities that develop, guide, support, and enforce national scale policy reforms requiring international schools to remove colonial elements and embed local heritage in the schools’ curricula. The benefit of such a locally driven, government-directed, and large-scale educational reform is that it systemically addresses intuitional root causes of this PoP and is driven by GCC citizens who would have better access to accurate information about students’ native culture and heritage than an expatriate educator.

**Macro Level Solution: Organizational Strategic Planning**

At the macro level, strategic planning would empower me, as a senior leader at GIBS, with an appropriate collaborative framework for communication and decision-making on an organizational scale. Strategic planning is a deliberative, disciplined approach that produces fundamental decisions and actions to shape and guide an organization’s future actions (Bryson, 2011). Successful strategic school improvement requires a certain mindset—in this case, a
principal’s success in improving the school is a group effort that requires a shared mindset among individuals with strong capacities for systems thinking and strategic thinking (Grogan & Fullan, 2013). Davies and Davies (2006) “argue[d] that schools need a concurrent or parallel view of leadership development in which leaders focus not only on the ‘now’ of school improvement but concurrently build strategic capability within the school” (p. 121).

Developing strategic leadership in teachers, staff, and students increases the school’s professional capital and improves student learning (Grogan & Fullan, 2013), thereby empowering everyone to improve at an individual, group, and organizational level. Improving staff members’ professional capacity, in this case teachers’ ability to instruct effectively, will also support a principal’s efforts to efficiently monitor implementation of the strategic plan (Hallinger, 2003). Therefore, the school’s strategic priorities should also focus on continuous learning at the individual, group, and organizational levels while developing systems and strategic thinking in all constituents (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Stringer & Hourani, 2016).

This second solution proposed would leverage GIBS’s pre-existing strategic improvement planning cycle to lead organizational level change. As a curriculum and accreditation coordinator, I would continue to play the role of an organizational level strategic leader who is involved in setting school direction, converting strategy into action, supporting staff development, identifying points of intervention, and developing strategic capacities (Davies & Davies, 2006). The proposed meso organizational level solution of developing, implementing, and monitoring a strategic plan is optimal due to my past success in leading GIBS’s strategic planning in the 2016 to 2019 and the 2019 to 2022 cycles by collaborating with different stakeholders to develop a single document to guide school improvement for a three-year period. Though this solution holds promise, one must consider that GIBS is a private international for-
profit school with a strict timeline and an even stricter budget; it is, therefore, paramount that the strategic improvement plan can be monitored and executed efficiently without exceeding my organization’s financial and operational limitations.

**Meso Level Solution: Teacher Development**

At the meso level organization, the third proposed solution is that I enact organizational change through one group of stakeholders, namely teachers. A stakeholder group, like schoolteachers, can act as a change driver who influences organizations to alter their structures and systems (Cawsey et al., 2016). As direct internal drivers of organizational change, expatriate teachers can be empowered to support GCC host national students by implementing culturally responsive teaching instruction that takes into consideration their students’ unique heritage (Alban, 2013; Vonderlind, 2015). A meso level solution would be the professional development of teachers’ ability to provide culturally responsive instruction through workshops and through a policy document that provides guidelines for supporting students’ local heritage while taking into account challenges that arise from linguistic, cultural, and political intersections between local and global elements of education.

A meso level solution would be expedient for me to enact because it would require the least amount of time commitment and the fewest number of GIBS stakeholders with whom to engage. Teacher-specific policy development at GIBS takes several weeks to complete, with me taking on the roles of coordinating senior leaders’ first draft of the policy, leading teachers’ meeting sessions to review and give feedback on the proposed policy, and collecting signed approvals from senior leaders on the policy. Once approved by the school’s senior leadership team, policies are sent to GIBS’s board who review and give final approval on the policy. Though easy to enact, it is worth noting that the proposed meso level solution only engages
expatriate teachers in the process of organizational change while host national students are only recipients, rather than partners, of this change.

**Selected Solution**

Of the three proposed solutions, a macro level organizational strategic improvement plan would be most likely to succeed within an OIP context and within my scope and agency as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator. National-scale efforts in Australia (Australian Government Department of Education, Skills and Employment, 2020; Australian Human Rights Commission, 1997; Commonwealth of Australia, 2020; Education Council, 2015; Wahlquist, 2021) and Canada (Government of Canada, 2019; Government of Canada, 2020; National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation, n.d.) suggest that government partnerships with Indigenous people to improve education would be the most transformative solution to transform GCC’s Type C schools because it aligns fully with my leadership positionality (Table 9) while confronting systemic roots of injustice experienced by host national students whose culture and heritage is not reflected their learning experiences (Smith, 2009). Unfortunately, a national scale initiative is not an optimal solution to my PoP because of the severe practical limitation (Table 9, dilemma 1) I would experience as an expatriate international school leader who has no influence over local GCC regulations.

A teacher policy would be an expedient, practical solution that fuses theory with practice (Table 9, dilemma 3), however, a meso level solution neither reaches for the OIP’s aspirational aim of challenging inequitable organizational arrangements (Table 9, dilemma 1) nor tries to restore balance to the power dynamic between expatriate staff and GCC host national students (Table 9, dilemma 2). Unlike expedient teacher development that does not address inequity between expatriates and GCC locals or systemic national level reform that would require action
beyond the practical limitations of my role as an expatriate school leader, macro level
organizational strategic improvement planning is optimal in resolving all three leadership
dilemmas by:

- reaching for aspirational goals within the practical limitations of my role as an
  accreditation and curriculum coordinator (Table 9, dilemma 1),
- prioritizing the needs of all stakeholder groups while serving organizational goals
  (Table 9, dilemma 2), and,
- speaking to both scholars and practitioners through careful crafting of the plan (Table
  9, dilemma 3).

In the role of GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator, I have the agency to lead
macro organizational level change at GIBS due to my past experiences with guiding the school
in the planning of previous strategic improvement plans, and due to my role in ensuring that
implementation and monitoring of school strategic improvement plans align with international
accreditation and curriculum standards. Using lessons learned from Australian and Canadian
national educational reform efforts, my macro organizational level strategic improvement plan
must include partnering with host national parents and students, removal of colonial practices at
GIBS, and addition of local GCC narratives to students’ learning experiences.

**Leadership Ethics and Organizational Change**

The purpose of this OIP is to ensure that host national students receive a high-quality
education that is relevant to them locally, and not just globally. Improvement of student
academic scores, enhancement of teacher instructional performance, and achievement of
international curriculum and accreditation standards are outcomes that, if fulfilled, would be
byproducts of the true objective of this OIP. As noted in Chapter 1’s philosophical worldview
section, I hope to rectify through this OIP my past unethical, albeit inadvertent, imposition of a colonial agenda on host national students. To remedy my errors, I must embed ethical leadership as an integral part of the school improvement process in a way that aligns with my transformative worldview’s aim to achieve social justice (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009).

In addition to being leadership considerations, this OIP’s three guiding dilemmas of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice are ethical concerns that, if not addressed, could hinder the success of my proposed solutions. This section integrates Starratt’s (2005, 2017) concepts of ethical school leadership into the three leadership dilemmas (see Table 10) by asking the following question: What ethical considerations should I make while restructuring organizational systems (Dilemma 1) in a way that prioritizes GCC host national students’ heritage (Dilemma 2) while empowering teachers to enact equitable instructional change (Dilemma 3)?

**Table 10**

*Ethical Considerations of the Three Leadership Dilemmas*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemmas</th>
<th>Ethical considerations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Clashing leader aims</td>
<td>Restructuring organizational systems to restore power equity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td>Prioritizing host national students’ learning needs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ethical Leadership**

In a statement that aligns with Marshall’s (2011) claim that GCE serves an instrumentalist, outcome-driven purpose, Starratt began his 2005 article with the assertion that “schools must prepare the present generation of young people to participate as active citizens of the global community” (p.124). Starratt’s (2005) statement is striking because it links his five
domains of ethical responsibility to the very core of this OIP’s PoP: the unjust impact of GCE on GCC host national students.

According to Starratt (2005), successful school leaders enact transactional ethics by acting humanely, respecting public order, insisting that faculty appropriately connects the curriculum to meaningful knowledge understanding for students, and developing organizational structures and processes that promote authentic learning. Those four dimensions of transactional ethical leadership stem from an assumption that the degree of employee performance is an outcome of extrinsic motivating factors such as reward systems and positive organizational environments (Kwan, 2020; Shields, 2010; Starratt, 2005). In addition to enacting the four dimensions of transactional ethics, successful school leaders also enact Starratt’s (2005) fifth dimension of transformational ethical responsibility of challenging students and teachers to intrinsically aspire to higher moral ideals (Kwan, 2020; Shields, 2010; Starratt, 2005).

To bridge the gap between theoretical discourse on ethical leadership and practical organizational considerations, Starratt (2017) has developed a framework that places less emphasis on transactional ethics and focuses on the fifth transformational dimension of ethical leadership; he stated: “The ethics of educational administration from their perspectives is about the ethics of choices that administrators make in given circumstances” (p. 79). Starratt’s (2017) reflective processes of ethical inquiry advise school administrators to apply ethics of critique, justice, and caring as they lead transformational organizational change. As GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator, I examine the OIP’s three leadership dilemmas through Starratt’s (2017) three ethical lenses as I plan transformative organizational change aimed at serving the higher moral purpose of restoring equity to the learning process while also challenging the
assumptions underlying the school’s structures and practices (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Starratt, 2017).

It is worth noting that, although Starratt (2005, 2017) consistently used the term *transformational change* to refer to school change that critiques institutional constructs and aspires to achieve an ambitious moral purpose, this OIP uses the term *transformational change* to refer to the same concept based on the works of Creswell (2014), Shields (2010), Quantz et al. (1991) and Weiner (2003). Starratt’s (2017) ethical framework fully aligns with my transformative leader positionality (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009) and greatly aligns with my transformative leadership approach by prioritizing aspirational leader aims over practical organizational limitations, advocating for individual and group needs over organizational goals, and committing to organizational change that fuses theory with practice, as shown in Table 11.

**Table 11**

*Positioning Ethical Leadership within Leader Dilemmas*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemmas</th>
<th>Transformative leader positionality</th>
<th>Transformative leadership approach*</th>
<th>Ethical leadership framework (Starratt, 2017)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 1: Clashing leader aims</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Adapted from Shields (2010), Quantz et al. (1991), and Weiner (2003).*
Shields’ (2010) clarified the distinction between *transformational* and *transformative* leadership in a way that reaffirms my positionality with the latter:

Transformational leadership focuses on improving organizational qualities, dimensions, and effectiveness; and transformative educational leadership begins by challenging inappropriate uses of power and privilege by challenging inappropriate uses of power and privilege that create or perpetuate inequity and injustice. (p. 254)

The question that presents itself is as follows: How does one reconcile Starratt’s (2005, 2017) use of the term *transformational leadership* when Shields (2010) and Quantz et al. (1991) used the term *transformative leadership* to refer to the same concept? The answer can be found by reading Burns’s (1978/2012) seminal book, *Leadership*, which all three authors cited in their reference to either transformational or transformative leadership. Burns did not make distinctions between the two terms in his book, so it is likely that Starratt’s (2017) use of the term *transformational* is based on the latter’s interpretation of the original text, whereas Quantz et al.’s (1991) and Shields’s (2010) use of the term *transformative* is a result of a conceptual evolution of Burns’s original work. The divergence in conceptual evolution between the authors’ views is evidenced by Starratt’s (2017) references, which extend to 1990, making it unlikely that he would have encountered Quantz et al.’s (1991) and Shields’s (2010) contribution to the discourse.

**Ethic of Critique**

Although globalization is a key driving force for Starratt’s (2005) work on ethical leadership, globalization also causes school leaders to critique the ethical merit of overriding individual or group beliefs in the process of adopting international educational standards (Andreotti, 2011; Allan, 2013; Bunnell, 2014; Marshall, 2011; Rizvi, 2009, Zajda, 2005). GIBS’s
organizational need for international recognition is necessary for the school’s survival because, without accreditation, GIBS is unlikely to be able to offer its students cross-border mobility or acceptance to coveted Western universities (Anderson-Levitt, 2003; Bray, 2007; Cambridge & Thompson, 2004). On the other hand, GIBS’s GCC host national students have the right to know and have pride in their heritage (Andreotti, 2011; Allan, 2013; Bunnell, 2014; Marshall, 2011; Rizvi, 2009, Zajda, 2005). I can see this ethical issue arise as I am faced with having to reconcile between contradicting historical narratives, with a Western narrative being given precedence over locally accepted norms (Zajda, 2005).

The uneven organizational power dynamic in GIBS, which was revealed in Chapter 1’s organizational readiness assessment and confirmed by Chapter 2’s gap analysis, indicates that expatriate teachers and school leaders have more influence on learning than the school’s host national students, which leads to an unethical and problematic organizational practice that strips GCC students of access to their own historical narratives. This ethical problem is not limited to history and geography studies, but also extends to science, mathematics, literature, and any English curriculum subject where the hidden value taught to students is that anything or anyone worth learning about comes from outside the GCC, and that the students’ compatriots made no significant contribution to modern knowledge.

**Ethic of Justice**

There is no single form of ethical leadership, but all forms of ethical leadership focus on a leader’s conduct or behaviour (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016). In rule-based ethics, or a deontological approach, the focus is on leaders’ moral obligations, actions, and consequences of their actions (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016). This means that a rule-based ethical leader’s
aspiration to achieve moral obligations would overcome the practical limitations of an organization’s structural arrangements, as described in the first dilemma’s ethical analysis.

As GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator who uses a transformative leadership approach, I have come to recognize the ethical issues arising from the uneven power relationship between GCC host national students and GIBS’s globalization-based organizational priorities (Shields, 2010; Zajda, 2005). It is imperative that I engage all stakeholders in critical reflection of our organization’s unjust teaching and learning practices because

it is the essential work of the educational leader to create learning contexts or communities in which social, political, and cultural capital is enhanced in such a way as to provide equity of opportunity for students as they take their place as contributing members of society. (Shields, 2010, p. 572)

**Ethic of Caring**

In results-based ethics, or the teleological approach to ethics, a leader must decide where she places herself between the extreme of serving herself and serving others (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016). Like a servant leader, an altruistic ethical leader sets aside her own agenda and opts to serve others (Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016). The altruistic service of others, namely GCC host national students and GIBS teachers, is the main focus of the second and third dilemmas’ ethical analyses, respectively.

With regards to a leader’s second dilemma of negotiating competing stakeholders’ needs, integration of the moral underpinnings of rule-based ethics with altruistic elements of results-based ethics results in the alignment of ethical leadership with my transformative leader positionality, prioritizing the meeting of individual or group needs over the achieving of organizational goals. Last, as a theoretical concept, positioning myself within an ethical
leadership framework adds moral value to this OIP’s PoP by validating why a change must be made.

**Chapter 2 Conclusion**

Whereas the first chapter used deductive reasoning (Wester, 2016) to frame the PoP, this OIP’s second chapter used integrative thinking (Martin, 2009) to present a rudimentary integrated tapestry of sorts that weaves my transformative leader positionality (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009), three selected leadership approaches (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Quantz et al., 1991; Russell & Stone, 2002; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003; Wong & Davey, 2007), integrated change process framework (Cawsey et al., 2016; ISA, 2017; Schein, 2017), critical organizational analysis tools (ISA, 2017; Nadler & Tushman, 1980) through a lattice of my guiding questions’ three leader dilemmas: balancing clashing leader aims, negotiating competing stakeholder needs, and bridging gaps between theory and practice (see Table 12 below). In the third and final chapter of this OIP, strategic thinking is used to construct a sustainable solution to the PoP that can be implemented at GIBS and used as reference by other school theorists and practitioners.
Table 12

Integration and Alignment of Leader Positionality, Leadership Approaches, Change Process Frameworks, and Critical Organizational Analysis Tools Against Three Leader Dilemmas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader dilemmas</th>
<th>Transformative leader positionality</th>
<th>Leadership approaches</th>
<th>Change process frameworks</th>
<th>Critical organizational analysis tools</th>
<th>Ethical Inquiry Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>Servant</td>
<td>ISA (2017)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 1: Clashing leader aims</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practical limitations</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 2: Competing stakeholder needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual and group needs</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational goals</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilemma 3: Gaps between theory and practice</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practitioner accessibility</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer-reviewed theory</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starratt (2017)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 3: Implementation, Evaluation, and Communication

While the first chapter of this OIP uses deductive reasoning to frame the PoP (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016)) and the second OIP chapter applies integrative thinking to develop solutions to the PoP (Martin, 2009), the OIP’s third chapter details a strategic approach to the implementation (Bryson, 2011; Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Lambert, 2007; Leu et al., 2005; Sheppard et al., 2009), monitoring, and evaluation of the proposed organizational change. School leaders guide their organization in setting strategic objectives (Davies & Davies, 2006) that fulfill the school’s guiding statements (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Stringer & Hourani, 2016), thereby balancing the school’s short-term operational and long-term strategic goals (Davies, 2003).

Strategic educational administrators successfully lead and sustain school transformation because they think strategic about how their schools will evolve during different stages of organizational improvement (Lambert, 2007; Leu et al., 2005). As a strategic educational leader, an international school’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator plays the dual role of facilitating the school’s overall strategic improvement cycle and, simultaneously, supporting curriculum and instructional improvement within the school. The scope and agency to lead change is achieved by my context-specific role as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator at a GCC international school for host national students. By embedding culturally responsive learning (CRL) dimensions into GIBS’s strategic improvement plan and including the new objectives as part of the school’s accreditation cycle, I am empowered to play a leading role in the planning, implementation, management, and communication of the school’s organizational change.
Change Implementation Plan for Embedding Culturally Responsive Learning

To balance the school’s implementation of GCE without regard to taking into consideration host national students’ ethnocultural, historical, and geopolitical contexts, GIBS’s constituents will collaboratively develop a strategic plan that improves school-wide CRL in three ways: (a) questioning expatriate staff members’ biased social imaginaries (Allan, 2013; Andreotti, 2011; Marshall, 2011; Rizvi, 2009) by building a caring learning community (Gay, 2002); (b) challenging teachers’ Western-based instructional practices by developing their culturally responsive instruction abilities (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2014; Alban, 2013; Gay, 2002; O’Keeffe et al., 2019; Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016; Vonderlind, 2015); and (c) amending the school’s imported curriculum with indigenization and decolonization strategies (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018; Pete, 2016). The strategic improvement plan proposed in this OIP will embed CRL in GIBS’s overall three-year strategic cycle (2022-2025), which is developed progressively via the following steps:

- The school board leads the revision of the GIBS’s guiding statements (vision, mission, goals) with input from all stakeholders and approves them;

- The school’s steering committee, made up of senior and middle managers, leads all constituents in the development of a three-year strategic improvement plan that stems from the school’s guiding statements and aligns with ISA (2017) accreditation standards;

- The director and deputy director create an annual school improvement plan to unpack the strategic improvement plan into targets for each academic year;

- The deputy director monitors senior managers’ progress in achieving targets four times per year as presented in the monitoring performance report;
• Senior managers develop annual action plans for their respective divisions, after which middle managers formulate their departmental action plans;

• Senior managers lead the development and/or update of various school policies to align with the school’s updated guiding statements; and

• Feedback from students, parents, and staff is solicited at each step through surveys, meetings, and workshops.

To evaluate the implementation of the abovementioned strategic and action improvement plans, school senior and middle managers regularly present monitoring performance reports to their immediate supervisors along with evidence that supports the reports’ claims of improvement and adherence to the school’s guiding statements. The timing of the school’s strategic improvement cycle is synchronized with the ISA accreditation cycle because GIBS was able to use recommendations from the first two stages of ISA’s (2017) new accreditation protocol (membership and preparatory) to guide it in its first three-year improvement cycle (2016–2019). After completing the third stage of self-study and achieving accreditation, GIBS has started its second strategic improvement cycle, using ISA self-study recommendations and commendations to revise its guiding statements, develop a new three-year strategic improvement plan (2019–2022), and create an annual school action plan and school divisions action plans for each academic year. The school’s senior leadership team has actively been seeking feedback from staff, parents, and students during the planning, implementation, and reflection stages of the strategic improvement plan.

The school improvement plan templates (strategic improvement plan, annual school improvement plan, and annual senior and middle manager action plans) reference ISA (2017) standards that relate to a given goal. GIBS senior managers continue to submit quarterly
monitoring performance reports to the school’s director and deputy director to ensure systematic and effective implementation of the senior management team’s action plans. As part of the school’s monitoring to ensure the effectiveness of all guiding statements, the school asks that middle managers submit the middle management monitoring report every six weeks to the principals. At the end of each strategic improvement cycle, GIBS updates its guidelines and procedures, where necessary, to adhere to the school’s revised guidelines while fulfilling accreditation recommendations.

The school’s next strategic improvement cycle starts in the academic year 2022–2023, which gives leaders ample time to plan for embedding school-wide CRL during the academic year 2021–2022 as GIBS transitions smoothly to the next improvement cycle (2022–2025). The sections that follow unpacks the three dimensions of CRL (culturally responsive care community, culturally responsive instruction, and indigenization and decolonization of curriculum) into strategies that are embedded in the change implementation plan, shown in Appendix A. To bridge the OIP’s theoretical underpinnings with accessible practice to GIBS’s community, the change implementation plan is formatted in a manner similar to GIBS’s strategic improvement planning. As a result, the OIP’s change implementation plan becomes synonymous with GIBS’s strategic improvement plan.

**Dimension 1: Building a Learning Community of Culturally Responsive Care**

Social imaginaries are the value perceptions that come from positive and negative neurological somatic markers that people experience as emotions (Allan, 2013; Andreotti, 2011) resulting from others’ reactions to their correct/good and incorrect/bad behaviour in a particular setting. A series of such interactions with individuals within one’s social group leads to the development of a “local identity in which that phoneme is part of the characteristic accent”
In cases where expatriate teachers and students hold incongruent social imaginaries, the link between neurology and cultural identity is evidence of the importance of cultural differentiation during instruction (Allan, 2013; Andreotti, 2011).

A prerequisite to successful culturally responsive instruction and curriculum indigenization and decolonization in a transformative and socially just OIP, “[culturally responsive] caring is a moral imperative, a social responsibility, and a pedagogical necessity” (Gay, 2002, p. 109). Host national students will experience an epistemological shift that challenges current social, political, and economic world constructs (Marshall, 2011) when GIBS expatriate teachers and school leaders increase their culturally responsive care as they develop new ways of learning (Andreotti & Souza, 2008) and thinking (Rizvi, 2009). Andreotti and Souza’s (2008) learning types and Rizvi’s (2009) epistemic virtues are similar pathways that, together, provide individual stakeholders with a framework for challenging and changing their biased worldviews. In her critique of postcolonial GC education, Andreotti and Souza (2008) recommended that educators adopt four types of learning:

- *learn to unlearn* by recognizing that their identities and knowledge have been shaped by their contexts;
- *learning to listen* by evaluating their perceptions of what they hear, see, or say;
- *learning to learn* by accepting that conflict is part of the learning process; and
- *learning to reach out* by navigating and interacting in a complex intercultural space.

(2008, p. 29)

As seen in Table 13, the process Andreotti and Souza (2008) presented is one of internal transformation that, at the micro individual level, parallels Cawsey et al.’s (2016) change path model and Schein’s (2017) model of change management that form the integrated macro
organizational change process framework presented in Chapter 2. By learning to unlearn (Andreotti & Souza, 2008), stakeholders experience awakening (Cawsey et al., 2016) that ethically critiques (Starratt, 2017) educational practices and experience an unfreezing (Schein, 2017) that motivates them to participate in transformative change aimed at addressing the school’s unjust practices. By learning to listen and learning to unlearn (Andreotti & Souza, 2008), members of GIBS’s community practice an ethic of justice (Starratt, 2017) as they actively mobilize and accelerate efforts to implement organizational change (Cawsey et al., 2016) while simultaneously learning new concepts and new judgement standards that are necessary for successful implementation of that change (Schein, 2017). Finally, GIBS’s community members will learn to reach out (Andreotti & Souza, 2008) once the school has institutionalized (Cawsey et al., 2016) and internalized (Schein, 2017) the change in a way that improves fit between its organizational arrangements, teachers, students, and tasks (Nadler & Tushman, 1980).

Table 13

A Comparison Between Andreotti and Souza’s (2008) Types of Learning and the Change Frameworks of Cawsey et al. (2016) and Schein (2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Micro individual</td>
<td>Macro organizational</td>
<td>Macro organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>• Learn to unlearn</td>
<td>1. Awakening</td>
<td>Stage 1: Creation of change motivation (unfreezing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>• Learning to listen</td>
<td>2. Mobilization</td>
<td>Stage 2: Learning new concepts and new judgement standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Learning to learn</td>
<td>3. Acceleration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage 3</td>
<td>• Learning to reach out</td>
<td>4. Institutionalization</td>
<td>Stage 3: Internalizing new concepts and new judgement standards</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Andreotti and Souza’s (2008) four types of learning help me connect the OIP’s proposed organizational level-change (macro) process framework with individual-level (micro) implementation of the change plan. Rizvi’s (2009) epistemic virtues are the ways of thinking that GIBS’s stakeholders will likely adopt to implement change within the organization in a manner parallel to Starratt’s (2017) process of ethical inquiry, as seen in Table 14. Rizvi’s (2009) focus on cultural relations led him to recommend that educators adopt the four epistemic virtues of:

- **criticality** by challenging current social constructs;
- **reflexivity** by being critical of our own presuppositions;
- **relationality** by recognizing that cultural systems do not develop in static isolation, but that cultures form in relation to other cultures, and
- **historicity** by learning students’ history to understand their culture.

When viewed through the lens of Rizvi’s (2009) recommended epistemic virtues, Starratt’s (2017) leader ethical inquiry processes of critique, justice, and care are accessible to all GIBS stakeholders (see Table 14). Students, teachers, and parents can adopt an ethic of critique (Starratt, 2017) by challenging current social constructs (criticality) and by questioning their own presuppositions of the social imaginaries that they inhabit (reflexivity; Rizvi, 2009). GIBS community members can also demonstrate an ethic of justice by recognizing the dynamic and relational nature of cultural constructs (Rizvi, 2009), with unequitable power dynamics between expatriate staff members and GCC host national students being central to the OIP’s PoP. Finally, every GIBS stakeholder can work toward an ethic of care (Starratt, 2017) by learning to value and appreciate GCC host national students’ culture in a way that aligns with Rizvi’s (2009) virtue of historicity.
Table 14

*A Comparison Between Rizvi’s (2009) Epistemic Virtues and Starratt’s (2017) Ethical Inquiry Process*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process 1</td>
<td>• Criticality</td>
<td>Ethic of critique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Reflexivity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process 2</td>
<td>• Rationality</td>
<td>Ethic of justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process 3</td>
<td>• Historicity</td>
<td>Ethic of care</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison between Rizvi’s (2009) epistemic virtues and Starratt’s (2017) process of ethical inquiry makes it clear that, although guided by school leaders, ethical action in GIBS is a collective responsibility upon all members of the organization. Heeding Marshall’s (2011) call for using Andreotti and Souza’s (2008) and Rizvi’s (2009) epistemological shifts to challenge the current practice of GCE highlights the need to change individuals’ hearts and minds in order to change an entire organization. However, though necessary to the epistemological shift required to expand expatriate GIBS staff members’ social imaginaries, the process of critiquing one’s social construct and practices (Andreotti, 2011; Rizvi, 2009) may demoralize enthusiastic, idealistic teachers (Marshall, 2011). Similarly, the relativist, anti-universalist approach proposed by Andreotti and Souza (2008) and Rizvi (2009) could be frustrating for teachers who must work with absolute concepts of right, wrong, and truth (Marshall, 2011).

Staff demoralization and frustration is not an outcome any ethical, transformative leader would want when trying to inspire and motivate all stakeholders to enact organizational change. By fostering a climate of culturally responsive care that honours both expatriate and GCC cultures and scaffolds global experiences into local learning, school leaders can create positive...
learning communities (Gay, 2002). Members of such communities can then collaborate to develop a shared vision of cross-cultural learning and, together, they can create an organizational strategic improvement plan that will develop culturally responsive instruction as well as indigenize and decolonize curriculum.

**Dimension 2: Developing Culturally Responsive Instruction**

Culturally responsive instruction takes place when teachers are prepared with a clear understanding of their students’ culture, how that culture impacts student learning, and how changes in classroom instruction can be made to support culturally specific learning styles (Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016). Though much of the literature on culturally responsive instruction is largely contextualized in American schools that address learning needs of African American, Latino, Asian, and Indigenous students (Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016), the literature on culturally responsive instruction provides valuable insight into how GIBS school leaders can support GCC students in Type C international schools. Vonderlind (2015) and Alban (2013) found culturally responsive instruction to be a successful adaptation strategy for Western-trained teachers in national Emirati and international Asian school settings, respectively, which is a promising indication that a similar approach would also be successful in GIBS.

The teacher behaviours considered to be critical to developing CRL within racially diverse classrooms are the same teacher behaviours that this OIP’s change plan aims to develop in classrooms where most students are GCC Arab Muslims who are indigenous to the Arabian Peninsula but are taught by Western-trained expatriate teachers:

- Making an effort to pronounce students’ names accurately as they welcome them to the classroom and as they address them during class (Ladson-Billings, 1995);
• Showing awareness of student cultural norms of eye contact, communication styles, body gestures, and proximity (Cooper, 1979; Gay, 2002);

• Using classroom visuals (e.g., bulletin boards, displays, and instructional materials) and visual aids (e.g., colour, spatial arrangement, lightning, and sound) that reflect the students’ culture (Gay, 2002);

• Using and displaying keywords and phrases in the students’ language to encourage cross-cultural literacy awareness (Schwarzer et al., 2003);

• Connecting learned material to students’ lives (Gay, 2002; Landsman, 2006); and

• Planning lessons that take into account cultural communication style. (Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016)

Ideally, culturally responsive instructional preparation for teachers should take place during a preservice program (Gay, 2002). In lieu of preservice teacher education, an international school with teachers coming from various educational backgrounds and experiences would need to provide faculty with internal professional development training prior to the school year’s commencement. To ensure that expectations of culturally responsive instruction are clear to all teachers, GIBS would need to add professional standards to the school’s Teacher Appraisal and Development Policy. Examples of culturally responsive instruction standards can be found in the 

Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (AITSL, 2014), which outlines expectations for teachers at the different stages of their career, including the following expectations from preservice teaching graduates:

• Standard 1.4: Strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students.
  Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of the impact of
culture, cultural identity and linguistic background on the education of students from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander backgrounds. (p. 11)

- Standard 2.4: Understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to promote reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.
  Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge of, understanding of and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages. (p. 13)

GIBS’s GCC host national students do not live in nations that implement government-led reconciliation initiatives aimed at restoring justice to Indigenous people who have been colonially dispossessed and dispersed from their traditional lands (Short, 2014, Smith, 2009). However, given that GIBS’s students are at high risk of experiencing a form of colonial dispossession due to the school’s unfiltered adoption of international accreditation and curriculum standards, GIBS could easily adapt the above standards into the school’s Teacher Appraisal and Development policy by replacing “Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander” with “Gulf Cooperation Council” while omitting any mention of reconciliation:

- CRI Standard 1: Strategies for teaching Gulf Cooperation Council students.
  Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of the impact of culture, cultural identity, and linguistic background on the education of students from Gulf Cooperation Council countries.

- CRI Standard 2: Understand and respect Gulf Cooperation Council students.
  Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge of, understanding of, and respect for Gulf Cooperation Council histories, cultures, and languages.

However, if GIBS senior leaders indiscriminately adopt a foreign policy document with little consideration to the school’s unique cultural context, then they would mirror the school’s
problematic adoption of international accreditation and curriculum standards while undermining the first prerequisite to successful CRL: building a caring community that collaborates toward a shared vision of what best practice should entail. Adoption of revised AITSL (2014) guidelines would also cause GIBS leaders to encounter the same concerns faced by Australian educational researchers because “these policy documents provide few practical strategies to indicate how [preservice teachers] and early career teachers should integrate these key priorities into their teaching practices” (O’Keeffe et al., 2019, p. 153). Echoing Andreotti and Souza (2008), Gay (2002), Marshall (2011), and Rizvi’s (2009) recommendations, O’Keeffe et al. (2019) cautioned that culturally responsive instruction is more than a list of specific classroom teaching practices to engage and motivate students of specific cultural backgrounds. Culturally responsive instruction also requires Western-trained teachers to recognize that there are different ways of knowing, that there is a power dynamic involved in Western-based schooling that places Indigenous students at a disadvantage, and that Indigenous students should be given opportunities to learn in ways that align with the students’ knowledge frameworks.

**Dimension 3: Indigenizing and Decolonizing Curriculum**

The literature on curriculum indigenization and decolonization referenced herein focuses on a Canadian context (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018; Pete, 2016), but the power dynamic of settler instructors who teach a Eurocentric curriculum to Indigenous students using Western best practices is similar to the power dynamic of expatriate instructors who also teach a Eurocentric curriculum to GCC students—also using Western best practices. Curriculum decolonization is the removing, taking away, and undoing of colonial elements of the syllabus that present Eurocentric norms of knowing, doing, and being as aspirational standards while presenting, explicitly or implicitly, Indigenous ways of being as less worthy (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018).
Curriculum indigenization, on the other hand, is the act of embedding, adding, and redoing Indigenous ways of knowing, doing, and being, while presenting those ways as equally worthy to Western ways (Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018). Decolonization requires educators to use a critical lens to evaluate the question the appropriateness of taught curriculum and its accompanying resources, and indigenization necessitates that educators increase their knowledge of the history and realities of Indigenous people. In the context of school improvement planning, curriculum decolonization and indigenization should be viewed as long-term processes that continue beyond this OIP to strategically move GIBS toward becoming a CRL entity.

To ensure successful building of a learning community of culturally responsive care, impactful culturally responsive instruction, and effective decolonization and indigenization of the curriculum, GIBS’s expatriate school leaders must actively engage GCC host nationals as participants and advisors in the change process, including GCC teachers, students, parents, alumni, scholars, and community members (Attas, n.d.; Pete, 2016). Although all stakeholders’ participation is necessary to enact transformative organizational change, it is important to emphasize the role of GIBS’s GCC host national community members because, historically, the school’s current organizational arrangements give host national community members a minimal role in influencing the school’s teaching and learning processes. With the three CRL dimensions and the power imbalance between locals and expatriates in mind, the OIP’s change implementation plan, presented to GIBS stakeholders as a strategic improvement plan, includes the following key organizational goals for me to lead in the school’s next strategic improvement cycle (see Appendix A):

- Strategic Goal 1: increase student participation in locally centred learning experiences;
• Strategic Goal 2: indigenize and decolonize English language arts, math, and science curricula;
• Strategic Goal 3: improve teachers’ culturally responsive instruction; and
• Strategic Goal 4: ensure continuity of CRL.

Given that the OIP’s change implementation plan will be embedded in GIBS’s upcoming (2022-2025) strategic improvement plan, the strategies for achieving the four aforementioned goals must synchronize with both the OIP’s integrated change framework stages and the school’s strategic improvement timeline, as seen in Table 15. The first stage of the OIP’s integrated change framework will take place near the end of the academic year 2021–2022, prior to the initiation of the school’s upcoming strategic improvement cycle. During the first stage of organizational change, I will work with other senior leaders to assess the school’s change readiness, provide staff with orientation and training while motivating and inspiring them to transform GIBS, develop a shared school vision of CRL, embed CRL’s three dimensions into school policies, and create a strategic improvement plan that details how change will be implemented at the school.

The second stage of organizational change takes place from 2022–2025, during the implementation phase of GIBS’s strategic improvement plan. During the second stage, my role as accreditation and curriculum coordinator empowers me to develop and enact culturally responsive care, culturally responsive instruction, and curriculum indigenization and decolonization across all grade levels and all subjects. Through my agency as GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator, I will continue leveraging the school’s pre-existing teaching and learning improvement systems that I have used in previous strategic cycles to lead and support GIBS as it adopts CRL practices.
In the last stage of organizational change, which takes place at the end of the school’s strategic improvement cycle in 2024–2025, GIBS stakeholders will reflect on the school’s degree of success in implementing new improvements. I will work with other school leaders to collect summative feedback from all stakeholders, analyze the feedback data and present to stakeholders, and use data to develop a new evidence-informed strategic plan that ensures internalization and institutionalization of successful new practices.

**Table 15**

**Strategic Improvement Outline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OIP integrated change framework</th>
<th>Stage 1</th>
<th>Stage 2</th>
<th>Stage 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategies</td>
<td>• Assess change readiness.</td>
<td>• Implement, monitor, and evaluate strategic improvement plan by developing and enacting culturally responsive care, culturally responsive instruction, and curriculum indigenization and decolonization.</td>
<td>• Collect summative feedback from all stakeholders regarding the degree to which aspirational goals were achieved and the areas for future improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Motivate, awaken, and mobilize (training, orientation).</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Analyze feedback data and present to stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Develop shared school vision of CRL.</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Develop new, evidence-informed strategic plan and share with stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Embed CRL dimensions (caring, instruction, curriculum) into school policies.</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Review school’s vision of CRL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Create strategic improvement plan.</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Develop new strategic improvement plan that ensures internalization and institutionalization of successful practices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Change Process Monitoring and Evaluation

The OIP’s section on change process monitoring and evaluation hinges on the strategic use of both a single loop and a double loop (Argyris, 1993) for managing organizational change, see Figure 4. Using a sports analogy, a single loop is the monitoring and evaluation that takes place during a single basketball game (Netflix, 2020), during which the basketball coach and players continuously assess their performance and adapt their game play to win a game. In the same analogy, a double loop would be the team management’s assessment of the team’s performance throughout the season, with major organizational decisions made at the end of each season to ensure that the basketball team’s overall performance improves in the next season (Netflix, 2020).

In GIBS, a single loop would be monitoring and evaluation during an academic school year (game) when teachers and heads of department, with senior leader support, adapt their strategies in response to student feedback. A double loop would be monitoring and evaluation of the organizational improvement plan at the end of a three year improvement cycle (season), as a whole, with senior leaders using data from each year to spearhead the decision making process for the next improvement cycle.

**Figure 4**

*Single and Double Loops*
Organizational Change Management Model

The model for improvement put forth by Associates in Process Improvement (API) can trace its origins to the scientific method, the plan-do-check-act (PDCA) cycle, and the plan-do-study-act (PDSA) cycle (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009). Presented as an earlier model of process improvement, the PDCA cycle’s first step is to plan by defining a problem and hypothesizing solutions, followed by the do step of implementing solutions to the given problem, then checking by evaluating results of the implemented plan, with the final step of acting by adjusting plans if targets are not met or institutionalizing changes when targets do meet planned expectations (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009). On the other hand, the more evolved API model for improvement starts with identifying strategic objectives, improvement indicators, and improvement targets before delving into the PDSA cycle (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009). The PDSA and PDCA cycles are similar in many respects, as noted in Table 16, with the major difference presented in the third step: The PDCA cycle checks by evaluating results whereas the PDSA cycle studies data more thoroughly by analyzing findings, comparing them to targets, and summarizing what was learned throughout the improvement cycle (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009).

Viewed through a comparison between micro and macro change management lens (Kang, 2015), the PDCA cycle aligns with a micro change management model with tactical objectives, short-term targets and indicators of change, and middle management locus of responsibility, as shown in Table 16. Alternatively, the API model (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009) for improvement aligns with a macro change management model that has strategic objectives, long-term targets and indicators of change, and senior management locus of responsibility, also shown in Table 16.
### Table 16

*A Comparison Between the PDCA Cycle and API Model for Improvement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>PDCA cycle</th>
<th>API model for improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answer questions</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>1. What are the strategic objectives?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. What are the indicators of improvement?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. What are the improvement targets?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan</td>
<td>• Define a problem and hypothesize solutions</td>
<td>• Identify objectives and improvement targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Implement solution</td>
<td>• Identify who, what, where, when, and how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do</td>
<td>• Implement solution</td>
<td>• Implement plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Evaluate the results</td>
<td>• Document problems and unforeseen events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check or study</td>
<td>Check</td>
<td>Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Evaluate the results</td>
<td>• Analyze data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Compare findings to predictions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Present summary of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Act</td>
<td>• If results do not meet target, plan adjustments in the following quarter</td>
<td>• If results continue not to need target by the end of the school academic year, then implement major changes in the next cycle by either re-examining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• If results meet target, institutionalize</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another point of difference between the two models is evident when formulating evaluation questions for each monitoring and evaluation plan (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016): A micro change management PDCA cycle investigates the effectiveness and impact of the proposed change, whereas the API model for improvement examines long-term sustainability of the effectiveness and impact of the proposed change (Moen & Norman, 2009). School leaders who decide to select between micro and macro change management approaches could be choosing between the risk of making superficial and unsustainable short-term gains and the risk of committing to rigid and unrealistic long-term improvement plans. By focusing only on immediate problems and tactical solutions, a school leader who opts to utilize micro change
management may lose perspective of the overall vision that awakened and mobilized organization stakeholders to undertake a large-scale improvement initiative; there is little to prevent improvement efforts from being derailed when school leaders lose track of the key vision for change. Alternatively, if school leaders favour macro change management by only monitoring and evaluating long-term, large-scale initiatives, those leaders will face the challenge of not being able to explain why an improvement effort succeeded or failed, nor will they likely be able to confidently replicate or institutionalize such successful organizational change. A framework that incorporates both micro and macro change management processes, as visualized in Figure 4, will promote success and sustainability, and will help school leaders see the forest and appreciate the trees.

Figure 5

Organizational Change Management Model
Although the PDCA cycle (Moen & Norman, 2009) was initially developed for enacting organizational performance improvement, it can also be used as a part of a framework for organizational strategic learning that allows for the refinement of the original version of the strategic plan in response to unforeseen changes (Pietrzak & Paliszkiewics, 2015). When partnered with the use of the API model for improvement for macro change management (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009), the PDCA cycle (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009) plays dual value as (a) a quality control mechanism to support micro change management of evaluation and monitoring of organizational improvement and (b) a mechanism that propels strategic organizational learning, as illustrated in Figure 5. A combination of the PDCA cycle with the API model for improvement, as shown in Figures 4 and 5, can be used to enable single loop organizational learning simultaneously with double loop organizational learning that “corrects errors by examining the underlying values and policies of an organization” (Argyris, 1993, p. 5). The micro change single loop PDCA cycle takes place during the do and study stages of the macro change management double loop of the API model for improvement (see Table 17) thus allowing both strategic and tactical objectives to be met.

**Table 17**

*Distinction Between Micro Change Management and Macro Change Management*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Micro change management</th>
<th>Macro change management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement model</td>
<td>PDCA cycle</td>
<td>API model (+PDSA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loop</td>
<td>Single loop</td>
<td>Double loop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Tactical</td>
<td>Strategic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation question</td>
<td>Effectiveness, impact</td>
<td>Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Short-term findings</td>
<td>Long-term trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
<td>Meeting target once</td>
<td>Consistently meeting targets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data source</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Process, perceptual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational level</td>
<td>Department</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timeline</td>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>Annually</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Monitoring and Evaluation Plan

Monitoring and evaluation processes of measuring organizational change are similar in their planned and systematic methodology that requires the identification of evaluation questions, indicators, and targets (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Monitoring is the continuous measurement of an organization’s degree of progress in implementing change against performance objectives and standards; evaluation is the periodic assessment of a program’s quality and value in relation to an organization’s strategic goals, as seen in Table 18 (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Analogous to the way in which this chapter’s organizational change model’s macro change management double loop builds on the micro change management single loop’s findings to reach strategic goals, “The process of evaluation builds on monitoring information to identify the degree to which outcomes and longer-term impacts have resulted and objectives have been achieved” (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016, pp. 12–13).

Table 18

Comparison Between Monitoring and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements</th>
<th>Monitoring</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Planned and systematic</td>
<td>Planned and systematic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timeframe</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Periodic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Measure degree of implementation of progress</td>
<td>Determine program’s quality and value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Meeting performance objectives and expectations</td>
<td>Achieving program strategic goals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Through integrative complementarity, monitoring and evaluation approaches are unified to answer a shared set of evaluation questions, use the same data for evidence, and draw from a common pool of resources and expertise (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Appendix B outlines a monitoring and evaluation plan that details the perspectives, objectives, evaluation questions, indicators, targets, evidence, persons responsible, and timelines involved in achieving this OIP’s strategic improvement goals using the proposed organizational change management framework (see Figure 6).

**Figure 6**

*Comparing the Organizational Change Management Framework with the Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Framework*

![Organizational Change Management Framework](image)

- **Balanced Scorecard Perspective**

  In their proposal that the PDCA cycle be used for both organizational improvement and strategic organizational learning, Pietrzak and Paliszkiewics (2015) heavily referenced Kaplan
and Norton’s (1996) development of the balanced scorecard methodology as an example of how organizations can adapt the PDCA cycle for simultaneous single and double loop learning. A balanced scorecard is used to monitor and evaluate organizational improvement through the following four perspectives (Kaplan & Norton, 1996):

1. The financial perspective is the starting point for building a balanced scorecard for most businesses because it focuses on increasing revenue and reducing costs.
2. The customer perspective emphasizes meeting clients’ needs and increasing their satisfaction.
3. The internal perspective aims to improve an organization’s processes and products,
4. The learning perspective facilitates strategic and sustainable system improvements.

Although worthy of consideration, the financial perspective is excluded from this OIP’s monitoring and evaluation plan because increasing revenue and reducing cost fall outside the PoP’s scope and outside my agency.

When incorporated into an integrated monitoring and evaluation plan, the perspectives presented in Kaplan and Norton’s (1996) balanced scorecard form the foundation on which the plan is built. Appendix B combines elements of Kaplan and Norton’s balanced scorecard (perspective, objectives, indicator types, and measures) with Markiewicz and Patrick’s (2016) framework (evaluation question, indicators, targets, data sources, person responsible, timeline) to create a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation plan.

Evaluation Questions

Organizational change can be evaluated through five domains: appropriateness, effectiveness, efficiency, impact, or sustainability (Larson, 2018; Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016; OECD, n.d.). Appropriateness domain evaluation questions assess a program’s suitability to
enact change that meets stakeholders’ needs (Larson, 2018; Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016; OECD, n.d.). Effectiveness domain evaluation questions require measurement of the degree of a change program’s success in meeting its objectives, and efficiency domain evaluation questions require measurement of the economic and cost-effective use of resources toward meeting organizational objectives (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). Impact domain evaluation questions uncover all positive and negative outcomes of enacted change, and sustainability domain evaluation questions examine the continuity of a change initiative’s benefits (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016). The monitoring and evaluation plan in Appendix B uses effectiveness and impact evaluation domains to ask the following questions for monitoring via the micro change management PDCA cycle:

1. To what extent did students increase their knowledge of the connection between their heritage and concepts learned in class? (effectiveness)

2. To what extent does the curriculum embed students’ local culture, history, and heritage? (effectiveness)

3. To what extent was there an increase in culturally responsive pedagogy? (impact)

The fourth evaluation question posed in Appendix B’s monitoring and evaluation plan is strategic as it examines the sustainability of long-term outcomes of implementing the organizational improvement plan through a macro change management API model for improvement (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009): To what extent are the implemented changes institutionalized?

Direct correspondence between the change implementation plan’s strategic goals and the change management model’s evaluation questions (see Table 19) increases validity of data used to monitor and evaluate GIBS’s progress at both micro and macro change management levels.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increase student participation in locally centred learning experiences.</td>
<td>1. To what extent did students increase their knowledge of the connection between their heritage and concepts learned in class? (effectiveness)</td>
<td>PDCA Cycle Micro Change Management Single Loop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Indigenize and decolonialize English language arts, math, and science curricula.</td>
<td>2. To what extent does the curriculum embed students’ local culture, history, and heritage? (effectiveness)</td>
<td>PDCA Cycle Micro Change Management Single Loop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Improve teachers’ culturally responsive instruction.</td>
<td>3. To what extent was there an increase in culturally responsive pedagogy? (impact)</td>
<td>PDCA Cycle Micro Change Management Single Loop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ensure continuity of CRL</td>
<td>4. To what extent are the implemented changes institutionalized? (sustainability)</td>
<td>API Model (PDSA) Micro Change Management Double Loop</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicators, Targets, and Data**

Indicators, targets, and data intertwine to provide the organization with clarity as to what outputs are expected at the end of an improvement cycle. Indicators give a general description of the expected change, targets specify outcome quantities and qualities that are necessary for achieving change, and data is the evidence required to substantiate the occurrence of change (Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016).
Data can be classified into four dimensions: outcome, demographic, process, and perceptual data, as shown in Table 20 (Ontario Principals’ Council, 2009). Outcome data are usually quantitative, observable, and measurable, such as results of testing, course means, and academic progress. Benefits of using outcome data include the ease with which they highlight successes and failures, but relying solely on this type of data does not provide organizational leaders with a full explanation of how the result was achieved.

**Table 20**

**Data Dimensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Demographic</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Perceptual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Mostly quantitative</td>
<td>Quantitative and qualitative</td>
<td>Qualitative information based on school plans, policies, narratives, and observations</td>
<td>Description of people’s beliefs and values, almost always qualitative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>● Test results</td>
<td>● Social services available to community</td>
<td>● Emergency evacuation policy</td>
<td>● Opinion surveys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Course averages</td>
<td>● Percentage of stakeholders by gender and ethnicity</td>
<td>● Classroom observation of participation</td>
<td>● Complaints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>● Academic progress</td>
<td></td>
<td>● Opinion surveys</td>
<td>● Editorials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Highlights successes and failures; easily expressed</td>
<td>Helps leaders tailor solutions based on specific groups’ needs (cultural, socioeconomic, etc.)</td>
<td>Engages stakeholders in thinking deeply about the school’s needs</td>
<td>Provides evidence that explains why people act the way they do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risks</td>
<td>Does not explain how results are achieved</td>
<td>Correlation does not necessarily mean causation</td>
<td>Data collection is time-consuming</td>
<td>Issues with validity and reliability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from *The Principal as Data-Driven Leader*, by Ontario Principals’ Council, 2009.

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Demographic data tends to be quantitative information about people’s profiles, but it can also include qualitative demographic observations of a specific community. Examples of demographic data include social services available to the local community, percentage of English
language learners, ethnicity percentages, and gender ratios. Demographic data help leaders tailor solutions based on specific stakeholder groups’ needs, but analysis of such data can be risky because the correlation between demographic data and factors does not necessitate a causal relationship between factors and a particular population.

Process data is qualitative information based on organizational plans, policies, narratives, and observations of activities and stakeholder participation. Although time-consuming, process data engages stakeholders in thinking deeply about organizational needs.

Perceptual data describes people’s beliefs and values, and such data can be qualitative through case studies and discussion groups or quantitative through opinion surveys. Perceptual data provide evidence that explains why people act the way they do. However, organizational leaders are tasked with ensuring the validity and reliability of perceptual data because of types of questions may be open to interpretation and because of missing data from the “silent majority” (Ontario Principals’ Council, 2009, p. 13).

The monitoring and evaluation plan proposed herein uses process data and perceptual data while opting out of outcome and demographic data. Outcome data, although valuable, would be more appropriate for quantifying the level of academic achievement rather than qualifying the kind of learning that occurs in the classroom through curriculum indigenization and culturally responsive pedagogy. Demographic data are excluded from the monitoring and evaluation plan due to the low variance in ethnicity to which the target student group belongs. The only kind of evidence used during the micro change management PDCA cycle of organizational improvement is process data, as seen in Appendix B. Process data that are collected quarterly and used as evidence to answer questions of effectiveness and impact include student summative assessments, unit plans, lesson plans, classroom observations, and teacher
appraisals. These single loop findings, which can be monitored by heads of department, will indicate to school leaders whether the improvement plan is meeting its targets.

In the macro change management API model for improvement double loop cycle (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009), process and perceptual data dimensions are aggregated annually to determine the degree of sustainability of proposed organizational improvement plans. Findings from the triangulation of process and perceptual data will help the school’s senior leaders, such as me and the principal, gauge the degree to which changes are being institutionalized within the organization.

Translating a theoretical organizational change management model to a monitoring and evaluation plan requires attention to both tactical and strategic improvement goals. School-wide change initiatives are not successful when targets are just met, but when improvement targets are met consistently (Lambert, 2007). Given that GIBs aligns its organizational improvement efforts with ISA’ (2017) Accreditation Protocol three stage change framework, institutionalization of the planned changes at GIBS will require at least one strategic improvement cycle lasting a minimum of three years of operation before improvement can be deemed sustainable. In the meantime, shorter-term, quarterly monitoring of plan implementation will give school leaders and stakeholders the tools to continue working toward a shared organizational vision.

**Strategic Communication Plan**

The OIP’s strategic plan for communicating improvement described in this section (see Table 21) incorporates the previous section’s API model for improvement (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Moen & Norman, 2009) with Chapter 2’s integrated change process framework and leadership approaches. By synthesizing the integrated change framework, API macro change PDCA cycle micro change management models (Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Markiewicz & Patrick,
and improvement strategies with stage correlated leadership approaches, the change leader is able to develop a communication plan that starts in the early stages of awakening and motivating change constituents and ends with the development of a new plan and shared vision. As a change leader, I have opted to implement transformative (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003), instructional (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012), and servant (Lynch 2012; Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007) leadership while sustaining ethical (Starratt, 2017) and cultural responsiveness throughout the entire process. I will leverage the three leadership approaches respectively to guide how I communicate the following: a shared organizational vision in the first stage, the school’s progress in change implementation in the second stage, and overall evaluation of organizational policies and practices in the last stage of organizational improvement (see Table 20).

**Communication During Stage 1**

The first stage of the communication plan will take place in the academic year 2021–2022 as GIBS completes one strategic improvement cycle and transitions to another. This is an opportune time for me, as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator, to apply transformative leadership approaches (Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010; Weiner, 2003) to challenge current organizational systems (Creswell, 2014) and inspire and motivate individuals in the organization to reach a common, aspirational goal (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Geijsel et al., 2003; Lynch, 2012; Northouse, 2016; Robinson et al., 2008).

At this stage, I can introduce the importance of CRL as part of the senior management team’s discussion of upcoming strategic priorities while keeping in mind that GIBS’s guiding statements aim to develop students who are rooted in their heritage (GIBS, n.d..), similar to other
schools in the region (e.g., Al Ru’ya Bilingual School, n.d.; Ghars Bilingual School, n.d.; Hayat Universal Bilingual School, n.d.). To motivate and unfreeze (Schein, 2017) and awaken and mobilize (Cawsey et al., 2016) other school leaders to the dangers of our current adoption of GCE practices, I can ask other members of the senior leadership team for areas in which GIBS can further integrate students’ local culture and heritage into the school’s curriculum. Senior leaders who are not committed to the social justice underpinning of CRL (Gay, 2002; Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016) may be motivated by the ample evidence that CRL also improves student achievement (Cooper, 1979; Gay, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Landsman, 2006; Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016; Schwarzer et al., 2003). Once the senior leadership team, which also acts as the school’s strategic improvement steering committee, agrees on undertaking CRL as priority in the upcoming improvement cycle, team members must first critique their assumptions of the relationship between GCE, GCC culture, and learning (Andreotti & Souza, 2008; Rizvi, 2009; Starratt, 2017) so they can experience awakening (Cawsey et al., 2016) and unfreezing (Schein, 2017) in relation to the inequities existing at GIBS. Together, the school’s leaders can engage all stakeholders in developing a scholar-practitioner’s understanding of CRL. When transformative leaders communicate from a confident and expert level of knowledge, they will invoke trust necessary to inspire in organization individuals to commit to change (Lynch, 2012).

I will work with other senior leaders to awaken other constituents (board, parents, students, staff) to present concerns arising with current practices by assessing the constituents’ change readiness. Findings from the change readiness survey can help the school’s steering committee determine the best strategy for articulating organizational, group, and individual needs into a single aspirational goal for improving CRL at the school, such as the collaboration
of different constituents to develop a policy for CRL (see Appendix C) and through whole-group
workshops, constituent surveys, and middle-manager-led meetings. Though different
communication methods may be used for different groups, the leaders’ transformative approach
at this stage focuses on organizational-level changes.

**Communication During Stage 2**

Taking place in the three academic years between 2022 and 2025, the second stage of the
communication plan occurs at the intersection of the do and study steps of the API model’s
macro change management double loop and the PDCA cycle micro change management single
loop ((Donnelly & Kirk, 2015; Markiewicz & Patrick, 2016; Moen & Norman, 2009; Pietrzak &
Paliszkiewics, 2015). As an instructional leader who monitors and supports implementation of the
school’s strategic improvement plan (Hallinger, 2005; Lynch, 2012), my communications will
focus on guiding teachers through the logistics of how culturally responsive care, culturally
responsive instruction (O’Keeffe et al., 2019), and curriculum indigenization and decolonization
(Attas, n.d.; Cull et al., 2018; Pete, 2016) should take place in the school. As they collaborate
with different stakeholders to embed CRL in the school’s formal and informal structures, change
leaders will become increasingly aware of the two contrasting power dynamics revealed in
Chapter 1’s change readiness analysis and confirmed by Chapter 2’s gap analysis: expatriate
teachers’ influence on curriculum and instruction, and host national students’ and parents’
knowledge of and access to culture and heritage information that is valuable to development of
CRL in the school. Expatriate teachers who do not have buy-in to the school’s vision of CRL or
who have not received proper training may not provide effective culturally responsive
instruction. Alternatively, students and parents who are not provided with a clear and formal
communication pathway (e.g., online form, CRL drop-in hours, teacher meetings) to participate
in the change process might opt to disengage from the process altogether or communicate their frustration at the school’s lack of follow-through on its promises. It is therefore important for school leaders to monitor staff morale and seek regular formative feedback from different groups within the organization such as teachers, students, and parents.

**Communication During Stage 3**

The third, and last, stage of the school’s communication plan takes place at the end of GIBS’s CRL strategic improvement cycle in the academic year 2024–2025. As the school moves toward institutionalization and internalization of successful practices, I will apply a servant leadership approach to reflect and evaluate with individual members of the organization on the successes and improvement opportunities resulting from the previous three years’ change efforts. Both Stage 1 (transformative leadership approach) and Stage 3 (servant leadership approach) require a leader to demonstrate qualities of integrity, trust, respect, delegation, vision, and influence. Stage 3’s servant leader (Lynch 2012; Northouse, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Wong & Davey, 2007) will communicate through summative meetings as she listens carefully to individual experiences as case studies that will inform future decision-making, whereas Stage 1’s transformative leader had communicated through presentations with the intent of inspiring organizational level of change (Lynch, 2012). When coupled with other monitoring and evaluation data, the feedback emerging from individual narratives will give the school’s steering committee nuanced and rich insight for the upcoming strategic improvement cycle (2025–2028).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integrated change framework</td>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>Stage 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>API model macro change management</td>
<td>Evaluate questions and plan</td>
<td>Do and study</td>
<td>Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(double loop)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDCA cycle</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>PDCA</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>micro change management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>(single loop)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication goal</td>
<td>Communicate a shared organizational</td>
<td>Communicate progress in</td>
<td>Communicate evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vision</td>
<td>change implementation</td>
<td>of organizational</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>policies and practices</td>
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<tr>
<td>Leadership approach</td>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>Servant</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Inspire</td>
<td>Monitor</td>
<td>Evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lead</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Reflect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication strategy</td>
<td>Awaken stakeholders to concerns</td>
<td>Collaborate with</td>
<td>Reflect on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>arising with current practices;</td>
<td>different stakeholders,</td>
<td>improvement cycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unify organizational, group, and</td>
<td>while taking into</td>
<td>through summative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>individual needs into a single</td>
<td>account power dynamics;</td>
<td>meetings; work with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirational goal; welcome cultural</td>
<td>address immediate</td>
<td>constituents to develop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>advisors committed to aspirational</td>
<td>practical limitations;</td>
<td>a new shared vision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>goals; increase stakeholder confidence</td>
<td>celebrate successes;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in leaders by engaging as a scholar</td>
<td>monitor staff morale by</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>practitioner.</td>
<td>seeking regular formative</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>feedback from teachers,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>students, and parents.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Ethical and Culturally Responsive Communication

Taking a cue from research conducted with Canada’s First Nations populations, school leaders can learn from past mistakes: “Research questions and projects have often been developed and implemented by outside researchers who have failed to account for community perspectives and needs with respect to what needs researching” (Assembly of First Nations Environmental Stewardship Unit, 2009, p. 4). As expatriates leading a school for a GCC indigenous population, change leaders should self-reflect and critique their assumptions and worldview biases (Merriam, 2009) as they work toward a shared vision for CRL at GIBS. A change leader’s successful ethical communication depends on her ability to demonstrate culturally responsive school leadership that takes into account GCC students’ and parents’ unique way of knowing, communicating, learning, and viewing the world (Khalifa et al., 2016) while celebrating expatriate teachers’ efforts to embrace new ways of teaching and viewing the world.

Chapter 3 Conclusion

When presented as shown in Table 22, the summary of this OIPs change implementation planning, change process management, and change process communication gives a quick overview of the proposed timeline, improvement strategies, and effective communication for this plan—the when, what, and how of solving the identified PoP. The three stages of GIBS’s organizational improvement summarized as organizational awakening, action, and reflection (see Table 19) parallels my OIP journey of awakening to my role in marginalizing my students’ heritage, action through dedicating my doctoral efforts to rectifying my errors, and reflection through the Future Considerations section of this OIP.
The bottom-line “why” of this OIP is to enact social justice at GIBS by ensuring that host national GCC students receive a balanced international education that equips them with global citizenship and intercultural competencies (Bray, 2007; ISA, 2017; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013) while empowering them through CRL strategies (AITSL, 2014; Alban, 2013; Gay, 2002; O’Keeffe et al., 2019; Region X Equity Assistance Center, 2016; Vonderlind, 2015) that are rooted in their heritage (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Hallinger, 2003; Stringer & Hourani, 2016).

With the knowledge of when, what, how, and why in mind, a crucial element of this OIP is “who”: who will be impacted by this change, and who should be able to influence future change? The question of who is of utmost important to this OIP because an underlying cause for the PoP being addressed is the unequitable power dynamic between expatriate staff and host national students. To answer this question, senior leaders must closely examine constituents’ responses throughout all stages of the organizational change, which synchronize with the planning, implementation, and reflection phases of GIBS’s strategic improvement cycle.
## Table 22

### Summary of OIP Change Planning, Management, and Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Prior to initiating cycle (2021-2022)</th>
<th>Three years (2022-2025)</th>
<th>End of cycle (2024-2025)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change implementation planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change framework Improvement strategy</td>
<td>Stage 1</td>
<td>Stage 2</td>
<td>Stage 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>- Assess change readiness</td>
<td>- Implement, monitor, and evaluate strategic improvement plan by developing and enacting culturally responsive care, culturally responsive instruction, and curriculum indigenization and decolonization</td>
<td>Collect summative feedback from all stakeholders regarding the degree to which aspirational goals were achieved and the areas for future improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Motivate, awaken, and mobilize (training, orientation)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Analyze feedback data and present to stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Develop shared school vision of CRL</td>
<td></td>
<td>Develop evidence-informed strategic plan and share with stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Embed CRL dimensions (caring, instruction, curriculum) into school policies</td>
<td></td>
<td>Review school’s vision of CRL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Create strategic improvement plan</td>
<td></td>
<td>Develop new strategic improvement plan that internalizes and institutionalizes successful practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change process management: Monitoring and evaluation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>API model PDCA cycle</td>
<td>Evaluation questions and plan</td>
<td>Do and study</td>
<td>Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>PDCA</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Change process communication</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level Communication goal Leadership approach</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication strategy</td>
<td>Transformative</td>
<td>Communicate progress in change implementation</td>
<td>Communicate evaluation of organizational policies and practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Inspire</td>
<td>Instructional</td>
<td>Servant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lead</td>
<td>- Monitor</td>
<td>- Evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Awaken organization to concerns arising with current practices</td>
<td>- Support</td>
<td>- Reflect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Unify organizational, group, and individual needs into a single aspirational goal</td>
<td>- Collaborate with stakeholders</td>
<td>- Reflect on improvement cycle through summative meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Welcome cultural advisors committed to aspirational goals</td>
<td>- Mitigate power dynamics</td>
<td>- Work with constituents to develop a new shared vision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Increase stakeholder confidence in leaders by engaging as a scholar practitioner</td>
<td>- Address immediate practical limitations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Future Considerations

If social justice is the goal of this OIP, then future considerations should extend beyond organizational improvement at GIBS, and beyond school leaders’ three dilemmas. The proposed improvement plan is based on a unique cultural context, but the challenges faced by Type C host national students due to unrestrained adoption of Eurocentric instruction and curriculum are not unique to the GCC (Abdi, 2015; Allan, 2013; Andreotti, 2011; Bunnell, 2014; Marshall, 2011; Rizvi, 2009, Zajda, 2005); host national students attending international schools in other nations may be facing similar challenges. In this OIP I have used deductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016), integrative thinking (Martin, 2009), and strategic planning (Bryson, 2011; Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Lambert, 2007; Leu et al., 2005; Sheppard et al., 2009) to identify and offer a solution to a PoP. Perhaps future scholarship could use inductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Imenda, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016) to examine whether the change strategies and processes proposed in this OIP would apply in other cultural contexts, and if so, in what ways and to what degree.

By making generalization based on a limited number of observations (Mills & Gay, 2016), scholars can use their inductive interpretations to infer from the specific to the more general and build from data to broad themes (Creswell, 2014). I use inductive reasoning in the following sections to offer GIBS future possibilities that extend beyond the three dilemmas of clashing leader aims, competing stakeholder needs, and gaps between theory and practice. Although the dilemmas were vital to framing the scope, agency, and limitations of my organizational influence as GIBS’s accreditation and curriculum coordinator, ethically critiquing the underlying assumptions of each dilemma will shed light into additional opportunities for enacting ethical justice and care at the school (Starratt, 2017) while continuing the transformative
Beyond Dilemma 1: Overcoming Practical School Limitations

As a single organizational entity, GIBS faces practical limitations of school budget, recruitment pool, and adherence to performance standards (Grogan & Fullan, 2013; Machin, 2014) that it shoulders alone. Type C private international schools, like GIBS, do not have the benefit of working for a nonprofit education system, like Ontario’s public school system that provides them with the infrastructural and professional support and guidance to carry out their responsibilities (Gidney, 1999). Instead, it is often the case that international school leaders are directly accountable to private school owners with a financial bottom line (Machin, 2014).

Armed with the findings of this OIP, GIBS would be in a position to unfreeze (Schein, 2017), awaken, and mobilize (Cawsey et al., 2016) other Type C school leaders against the negative impact of GCE, through unfiltered adoption of accreditation and curriculum standards, on host national students. In a larger scale application of this OIP, perhaps GIBS could inspire other GCC Type C schools to collaboratively transform their organizations into a CRL multi-school community that reduces the impact of cost on a single school. To mitigate the risk that economic competition between schools could play in obstructing such an initiative, GIBS could alternatively present the OIP’s findings as preliminary data to local ministries of education while proposing to lead and support such an initiative on a national scale similar to the efforts made in Australia (Education Council, 2015) and Canada (National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation, n.d.).

Beyond Dilemma 2: Transforming Organizational Goals

The OIP’s second dilemma focused on the tension experienced by school leaders as they negotiate between competing organizational and individual needs (Grogan & Fullan, 2013;
Rafferty et al., 2013; Stringer & Hourani, 2016), while serving organizational stakeholder groups, such as parents, students, teachers, and school owners, who may have differing needs (Rafferty et al., 2013). The PoP is a direct result of the impasse between GIBS’s organizational need to achieve international accreditation with ISA (2017) and GCC host national students’ need to retain knowledge of and pride in their heritage. More specifically, GCC host national students’ heritage is at risk due to the instrumentalist approach to GCE (Andreotti, 2011; Bray, 2007; Marshall, 2011; Tarc, 2013) that ISA (2017) has espoused. If the problem is caused by GIBS’s organizational goals aligning with ISA’s approach to global citizenship, then, as an accredited member of the association, GIBS is in the position to help ISA redefine GCE in a way that takes into consideration the accreditation organization’s admitted role in perpetuating systemic racism (Engel, 2020; Larsson, 2020; Nyomi, 2020). As demonstrated by the evolution of the terms transformative and transformational (Burns, 1978/2012; Quantz et al., 1991; Shields, 2010), the meaning and connotation of words can change and adapt to serve new contexts and challenges. Similarly, GIBS can support ISA’s current self-critique by engaging the association in developing a new, more nuanced, definition for global citizenship (Engel, 2020; Larsson, 2020; Nyomi, 2020) that takes into consideration host national students and encompasses CRL as defined in this OIP.

**Beyond Dilemma 3: Expanding Theoretical Framework**

For me, one of the most personally rewarding aspects of this journey has been the exposure to a wealth of educational theory literature that I could use in a way that aligns with my transformative worldview’s critique of my organization’s unequitable power structure (Creswell, 2014; Mertens, 2009). The act of bridging the gap between theory and practice (Northouse, 2016; Senge, 1994) necessitated that this OIP be grounded in the language of peer-reviewed
theory and, at the same time, be accessible to my colleagues at GIBS. However, I must acknowledge that, though the PoP is aimed at serving Arab and Muslim GCC students, the OIP does not incorporate Arab or Muslim epistemology or ontology as part of the solution. As a Muslim African Arab, this revelation leads me on a journey of learning more about the wealth of theoretical literature found in my own ethnic heritage. Perhaps I could even incorporate indigenous Arab and Muslim theories to future school improvement efforts.

**Conclusion**

In addition to proposing a solution to an organizational problem, this OIP was an exercise in different ways of thinking. The OIP’s three chapters and Future Considerations section demonstrate the benefits of progressive use of deductive, integrative, strategic, and inductive ways of thinking which, viewed together, form an hourglass model for the process I followed to solve my PoP (see Figure 7). The hourglass model shown in Figure 7 presents a visual of the funneling that takes place when a doctoral candidate uses deductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016) to specify her worldview and PoP. The middle section of the hourglass shows the two-part synthesis of integrating theoretical frameworks (Martin, 2009) and developing strategies (Davies & Davies, 2006; Grogan & Fullan, 2013) that a school leader can use solve her PoP and transform her organization. The last process of inductive reasoning (Creswell, 2014; Imenda, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Western University, 2016) shown in Figure 7’s hourglass model expresses my hopefulness that my OIP’s findings can have positive impact extending beyond my unique organizational context.

In addition to ways of thinking, the three leader dilemmas helped ground my organizational change plan within the limits of my scope and agency as an accreditation and curriculum coordinator. Finally, the synchronization between GIBS’s strategic improvement
cycle and the OIP’s change implementation plan streamlined the change implementation and monitoring process. Across all the various layers of thinking and theory, the commitment to transformative social justice remains a constant fixture that resonates throughout this OIP.

Figure 7

*OIP Hourglass Model*
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# Appendix A: Sample Strategic Improvement Plan for Culturally Responsive Learning at GIBS

Table A1

## Sample Strategic Improvement Plan for Culturally Responsive Learning at GIBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISA</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Risk mitigation</th>
<th>Success criteria</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C, D</td>
<td>Develop a shared vision for CRL at the school; ensure that all school documentation and handbooks are aligned in their use of the terminology and essential concepts are referred to the school's guiding statements for clarity and consistency.</td>
<td>Inconsistent interpretation and use of keywords among divisions or stakeholder groups.</td>
<td>Providing staff with PD on use of the glossary.</td>
<td>Consistent use of glossary terms by all school constituents in all documents and communications.</td>
<td>2022–2023</td>
<td>SMT; curriculum coordinator; principals; HODs.</td>
<td>Assessment tools; data-analysis applications; GIBS updated policies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Strategic Goal 1. Increase student participation in locally centred learning experiences

**C** Schedule meetings with teachers, HODs, and coordinators; schedule meeting with curriculum programmers to implement the curriculum changes; use curriculum indigenization and decolonization to develop lesson plans and assessments that are relevant and meaningful to students.

**D** Review unit plans, standards, scope and sequence documents, and instructional resources; identify biased curriculum content and opportunities for embedding indigenous content.

**Who** Curriculum coordinator with principal, teachers, and parent advisors.

**Resources** Curriculum standards; teachers’ suggestions; approval from SMT.

**Timeline** 2022–2025

**Success criteria** Consistent documentation of the annual reviews of curricular content.

**Risk mitigation** Schedule meetings; curriculum coordinators provide guidance to understand curriculum requirements.

**Risk** Lack of common time when the teachers, leaders, and parents can meet; teachers finding difficulty making changes to curriculum.

**Who** Curriculum coordinator; teachers; local experts (parents, staff).

**Resources** Curriculum resource documents

**Timeline** 2022–2025

**Success criteria** In-class adoption of curriculum change.

**Risk mitigation** Scheduled meetings

**Risk** Lack of time to follow through the entire process.

**Who** School director; principal; curriculum coordinator; instructional coordinator; staff members.

**Resources** PD budget

**Timeline** 2022–2025

**Success criteria** 1. Request subsidizing staff PD. 2. Facilitate more in-house training.


**Risk** Lack of PD budget.

**Who** SMT and staff seek the latest in pedagogy and in the field of special needs.

1. Schedule in-house training twice per month.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISA</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Risk</th>
<th>Risk mitigation</th>
<th>Success criteria</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Provide high-quality professional development is available to all teachers on a regular basis.</td>
<td>Appraisals do not provide required information; school unable to provide time or access to school resources; insufficient time to conduct in-house PD.</td>
<td>Meetings conducted in a manner to get required information.</td>
<td>Documents that articulate awareness of PD programs available in the country and elsewhere; support related to time and school resources as required; financial support if possible.</td>
<td>2022–2025</td>
<td>Director; school principal</td>
<td>Formative and summative appraisals; classroom observations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Strategic Goal 3. Improve teachers' culturally responsive instruction

#### Goal 3. Improve teachers' culturally responsive instruction

**D**

- **Provide high-quality professional development** is available to all teachers on a regular basis.

  - Appraisals do not provide required information; school unable to provide time or access to school resources; insufficient time to conduct in-house PD.
  - Meetings conducted in a manner to get required information.
  - Documents that articulate awareness of PD programs available in the country and elsewhere; support related to time and school resources as required; financial support if possible.

**Who**

Director; school principal

**Resources**

Formative and summative appraisals; classroom observations.

### Strategic Goal 4. Ensure continuity of CRL

#### Strategic Goal 4. Ensure continuity of CRL

**A**

- **Promote a culture of culturally responsive care; schedule regular interschool meetings to enhance CRL; plan activities that promote the cultural heritage of the school.**

  - Schools may not want to participate; teachers not meeting expected goals; unexpected change in school’s activities.
  - Explain to parents the need to meet students from different cultures; oversee monthly and weekly plans; classroom observations.
  - CRL embedded in the cocurricular activities.

**Who**

Curriculum coordinator; principal

**Resources**

Monthly plans, weekly plans; school activity schedule.

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**Note.** CRL = culturally responsive learning; PD = professional development; SMT = senior management team; HOD = heads of department; PC = parent conferences; PTA = Parent Teacher Association. Edunation is a learning management system used at GIBS.
# Appendix B: Monitoring and Evaluation Plan

## Table B 1

### Monitoring and Evaluation Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perspective</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Evaluation question</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Data</th>
<th>Persons responsible</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer perspective: student</td>
<td>G1C: Increase student participation in locally centred learning experiences (tactical, micro).</td>
<td>Effectiveness: To what extent did students increase their knowledge of the connection between their heritage and concepts learned in class?</td>
<td>Difference between student knowledge before and after units of study.</td>
<td>Target 70% of students can identify ways in which topics studied relate to their culture, heritage, history, or geography.</td>
<td>Student summative assessments: sample performance tasks, quizzes, tests, major assignments.</td>
<td>Head of department; curriculum coordinator.</td>
<td>Quarterly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal perspective: Curriculum development process</td>
<td>G2I: Indigenize and decolonialize English language arts, math, and science curricula (tactical, micro).</td>
<td>Effectiveness: To what extent does the curriculum embed students’ local culture, history, and heritage?</td>
<td>Number of updates in written curriculum plan.</td>
<td>Embed one locally relevant activity each quarter in English, math, and science.</td>
<td>Unit plans; lesson plans.</td>
<td>Head of department; curriculum coordinator.</td>
<td>Quarterly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and growth perspective: Teacher professional development</td>
<td>G3L1: Improve teachers’ culturally responsive instruction (tactical, micro).</td>
<td>Impact: To what extent was there an increase in culturally responsive instruction?</td>
<td>Changes in teacher instructional practices.</td>
<td>Teachers engage in culturally responsive pedagogy at least once each quarter.</td>
<td>Lesson plans; classroom observations; teacher appraisal.</td>
<td>Head of department; curriculum coordinator; principal.</td>
<td>Quarterly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning and growth perspective: Sustainability of change</td>
<td>G3L2: Ensure continuity of CRL (strategic, macro).</td>
<td>Sustainability: To what extent are the implemented changes institutionalized?</td>
<td>Trends of targets met for G1C, G2I, and G3L1 annually and over a three-year period.</td>
<td>Three years of school data indicating that the targets for strategic objectives G1C, G2I, and G3L1 have been achieved.</td>
<td>Student assessments; student feedback; unit plans; lesson plans; classroom observations; teacher feedback; teacher appraisal.</td>
<td>Accreditation and curriculum coordinator; principal; heads of department.</td>
<td>Annually</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Evaluation: Macro change management—API model for improvement
Appendix C: GIBS Culturally Responsive Learning Policy

Gulf International Bilingual School Culturally Responsive Learning Policy

This policy outlines the school’s shared vision of how we intend to support and encourage CRL at GIBS. This document provides a framework of expectations to inform and reflect planning, provision, and evaluation of teaching, learning, and assessment that honor and celebrate GCC cultural, heritage, and local context.

School Definition of Culturally Responsive Learning

At Gulf International Bilingual School, culturally responsive learning takes place when students are continually aware of the connection between the material learned and their local culture. Students engage with the world they inhabit both locally, and as global citizens. Students take ownership of their learning and can apply what they learned to benefit their community.

Related Definitions
- High quality learning
- Service learning
- Lifelong learning
- Blended learning
- Global citizenship
- Digital citizenship
- Authentic assessment

Related Policies
- Student Assessment Policy
- Staff Appraisal and Development Policy
- Curriculum Policy
- IT Integration Policy

Student Behaviors That Demonstrate Culturally Responsive Learning

What does culturally responsive learning look like for GIBS students?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In class</th>
<th>On campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Students are engaged, motivated, and enthused by what they are learning.</td>
<td>• Students actively learn through curricular, cocurricular, and extracurricular activities designed to enhance their CRL experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students are eager to demonstrate the connection between topics learned and their local heritage and environment.</td>
<td>• High school students support the school in developing meaningful activities that embed local culture in English, math, and science.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students are curious, interested learners who seek out opportunities to apply what they learned in school to serve their local community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students inform the school of any resources that are factually inaccurate or misrepresentative of GCC culture.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Online</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Students check appropriate online platforms for information on their local context.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Students inform the school of online resources that are factually inaccurate or misrepresentative of GCC culture.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At home</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Students apply strategies they have learned in their classroom and transfer their learning to other situations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Parent Involvement That Supports Culturally Responsive Learning

**What does culturally responsive learning look like for GIBS parents?**

| On campus | • Parents communicate concerns directly to teachers as the first line of involvement.  
• Parents participate in school events and activities.  
• Parents, when possible, engage school leaders and teachers in enhancing staff’s appreciation and understanding for local school culture.  
• Parents inform the school of any resources that are factually inaccurate or misrepresentative of GCC culture. |
| --- | --- |
| Online  | • Parents communicate concerns and learn about their children’s educational journeys through an online platform.  
• Parents provide an environment conducive to learning (access to technology, safe and quiet space during daytime).  
• Parents engage in conversations that connect family history and cultural heritage to posted materials and assignments.  
• Parents support the school in developing meaningful activities that embed local culture in English, math, and science. |
| At home | • Parents support and encourage homework that connects students to their local cultural context.  
• Parents support students in engaging further in the use of digital tools that support CRL.  
• Parents are involved in the learning process by advising teachers and school leaders of CRL opportunities by providing recommendations for future learning, expressing concerns with culturally incongruent curricula, and sharing feedback on past learning experiences. |

### Teacher Practices That Promote Culturally Responsive Learning

**What does culturally responsive learning look like for GIBS teachers?**

| In class | • Teachers build positive relationships with students, expressing interest and concern for their social, emotional, and physical well-being.  
• Teachers develop standards-based lesson plans and assessment activities that connect learned material to students’ lives.  
• Teachers make an effort to pronounce students’ names accurately as they welcome them to the classroom and as they address them during class.  
• Teachers demonstrate awareness of GCC cultural norms of eye contact, communication styles, body gestures, and proximity.  
• Teachers use classroom visuals (e.g., bulletin boards, displays, and instructional materials) and visual aids (e.g., color, spatial arrangement, lightning, and sound) that reflect the students’ Arab and Muslim culture.  
• Teachers use and display key Arabic words and phrases to encourage cross-cultural literacy awareness. |
| --- | --- |
| On campus | • Teachers show concern for all students’ social, emotional, and physical well-being.  
• Teachers participate in school committees for celebrating local heritage.  
• Teachers are quick to address and follow up on behavioral concerns with any student around the school. |
| Online | • Teachers provide educational resources to challenge critical thinking.  
• Teachers provide guidance and support.  
• Teachers offer opportunities for blended learning.  
• Teachers design online lessons and activities that align with curriculum standards.  
• Teachers develop high-quality student learning experiences. |
| With home | • Teachers welcome parents’ feedback on CRL experiences and share feedback with school leaders to improve CRL at the school. |
**Senior Leader Actions That Promote Culturally Responsive Learning**

What does culturally responsive learning look like for GIBS leaders?

| Curriculum coordinator | • Senior leaders guide the review, development, implementation, and revision of the school’s K–12 curriculum toward indigenization and decolonization of the written curriculum.  
• Senior leaders work with faculty to identify, develop, and implement culturally responsive instructional strategies.  
• Senior leaders assist faculty in securing resource room materials to support CRL.  
• Senior leaders coordinate the development of authentic learning assessments for engaging students in culturally centred learning opportunities.  
• Senior leaders communicate the approved curriculum to professional staff including teachers, deputy principals, principals, deputy director, and director.  
• Senior leaders study, evaluate, and recommend adoption of new instructional materials, methods, and programs. |
| --- | --- |
| Principal | • Drive improvements to teaching and learning.  
• Monitor the effectiveness of teaching and learning strategies in raising student attainment.  
• Ensure that staff development and appraisal policies and practices promote CRL; support the use of appropriate teaching strategies by allocating resources effectively.  
• Monitor teaching strategies in the light of new strategic goals.  
• Ensure that the school buildings and premises are best used to support successful CRL. |

**School Evidence That Supports Culturally Responsive Learning at GIBS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom set-up</th>
<th>Small group, cooperative learning, centers, resources, challenging activities, reading area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student assessments</td>
<td>Measure of Academic Progress, semester finals, differentiated assessments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-curricular activities</td>
<td>National Day, Grandmothers’ Day, Local Hero Day, living museum of historical figures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson plans</td>
<td>Differentiated lesson plans that include an interactive and collaborative learning process providing students with challenging activities to promote independent and critical thinking while embedding local culture and engaging through indigenous communication styles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>Books, manipulatives, technology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Staff appraisal and PD | CR Standard 1: Strategies for teaching Gulf Cooperation Council students.  
Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of the impact of culture, cultural identity, and linguistic background on the education of students from Gulf Cooperation Council.  
Descriptor: Demonstrate broad knowledge of, understanding of, and respect for Gulf Cooperation Council histories, cultures, and languages. |
| Monitoring progress report | Comparing results and recording data. |
| Curriculum | A revised curriculum that meets students’ needs. |
| School communication | Online platform, meetings, phone calls |