



Rural Education in Saudi Arabia: Secondary School Leaders' and Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions

Thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Reading

Institute of Education

Emad Matar Alotaibi

Declaration

I confirm that this thesis has not been previously submitted for any degree and that all materials from other sources have been appropriately cited and acknowledged.

Emad Alotaibi

Abstract

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia is undergoing fundamental reforms in all areas, including public education, to keep pace with the critical changes brought about by globalisation. There is a growing corpus of literature investigating these systemic shifts in urban settings, while a small amount of research has been conducted in rural educational settings. Compared to their urban and semi-rural counterparts, rural schools are still neglected on a global scale regarding different reform proposals. There are around 3200 schools situated in 1128 rural locations in Saudi Arabia. Rural schools have numerous challenges, particularly in terms of leadership practice, culture, and opportunities for school leaders' and teachers' professional development. Even so, there is a lack of ground-level research investigating these concerns in detail. Therefore, this study aims to fill this knowledge gap by exploring and understanding the experiences and perceptions of school leaders and teachers working in rural Saudi schools. Although there is a growing corpus of literature on topics like school leadership, school culture, and CPD, few published studies focus on rural schools. Adopting an in-depth multiple case study approach within a theoretical framework based on the interconnected notions of leadership practice, culture, and CPD, this study makes an original and substantial contribution to the body of knowledge in this field.

This research entails multiple qualitative case studies (three girls' secondary schools and three boys' secondary schools), employing one-to-one semi-structured interviews with 12 school leaders (six school principals and six deputies), 12 teachers, two school leadership supervisors (one female and one male), and two training supervisors (one female and one male), six semi-structured focus group interviews (five teachers each), and documentary reviews. The findings reveal that leadership in rural schools is unique in terms of challenges and opportunities and suggest that an understanding of these issues is essential for successful school leadership. The cultural aspect also revealed the extent of its impact on these schools, both at the macro level (global, national, and local) and the micro level (within the walls of schools), and suggests that these issues need to be fully understood by school leaders for successful community integration. Finally, high-quality continuing professional development is perceived as essential for rural school staff, although more specifically tailored training programmes are needed. This study is considered essential for practitioners, policymakers, and researchers and has provided the first clear picture of the nature of rural Saudi schools within the country.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to my first supervisor, Professor Alan Floyd, who was with me from the beginning, step by step. I am incredibly grateful for his continuous and excellent support, enthusiasm, guidance, encouragement in many situations, patience, quick responses to my inquiries and accurate and detailed comments and feedback. Thank you, Professor Alan, for pushing me beyond my limits and making me a different person, as without your support, it would have been challenging to get to this point.

I also would like to express my gratitude to my second supervisor, Dr Karen Jones, for her kindness, support, guidance, and valuable comments. Thank you, Dr Karen, for what you have given me over the past years.

In addition, I would like to extend my sincere thanks and appreciation to the sponsor of this research, the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. I thank the Ministry for its support over the past years, and I hope that this study will contribute to the service of my dear country, Saudi Arabia.

I also extend my sincere thanks and great gratitude to my mother, Jamila, and my father, Matar, who were with me with their encouragement, feelings, and prayers. Also, my two sisters, Amal, Asmaa, and my dear and only brother, Omar, for standing by my side, encouraging me, and praying for me.

My deepest thanks and gratitude to my wife, Dr Nada, for supporting, tolerancing, and encouraging me in many of the difficult times we endured. Thank you, Nada, for being by my side. I also thank my sons Omar and Elias, who always made me smile in the most challenging times, and I look forward to seeing them better than me one day.

I would also like to extend my gratitude and sincere thanks to all the participants in this study and the Education Department, which made it much easier for me to obtain the data. I thank them for their trust in me, for sharing many stories and challenges with me, and for making me believe that creativity never stops, no matter the circumstances. Additionally, I would like to acknowledge the valuable input that previous teachers and lecturers gave me leading up to this point. They have collectively allowed me to develop the skillsets and academic standards required to enable me to conduct this PhD study successfully. Finally, I extend my sincere thanks and gratitude to my relatives and friends for their continuous support and encouragement.

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Table of Contents.....	v
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	ix
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Context of the study	2
1.2.1 Saudi Arabia	2
1.2.2 Rural Saudi	2
1.3 Personal interest and Motivation	3
1.4 Significance and Outcome	4
1.5 Research aim and questions	5
1.6 Conceptual Framework:.....	6
1.7 Methodology.....	6
1.8 Overview of the thesis chapters	7
1.9 Conclusion.....	9
Chapter Two: international Educational Context	10
2.1 Introduction:	10
2.2 Globalisation	10
2.2.1 Underlying Theories.....	13
2.2.1.1 Neoliberalism	14
2.2.1.2 World Systems Analysis	16
2.2.1.3 World Culture Theory	17
2.2.2 Culture versus Economics	18
2.2.3 Decentralisation and Education.....	21
2.2.4 Globalisation and Education	22
2.3 Saudi Arabia	26
2.3.1 The Geographic Nature and population information	26
2.3.2 The Economy.....	28
2.3.3 The Culture.....	29
2.3.4 Saudi Vision 2030.....	31

2.3.5 Education in Saudi Arabia	33
2.3.5.1 The Education System in Saudi Arabia.....	34
2.3.5.2 The Ministry of Education: System and roles	36
2.3.5.3 Education Levels in Saudi Arabia	37
2.4 Conclusion.....	38
Chapter Three: Literature Review.....	39
3.1 Introduction	39
3.2 Conceptual Framework.....	39
3.2.1 Leadership practice.....	41
3.2.1.1 School leadership practice	42
3.2.1.2 Distributed leadership	47
3.2.2 Culture.....	48
3.2.3 Continuing Professional Development	55
3.2.3.1 Professional knowledge and practice	58
3.2.3.2 Professional learning communities and communities of practice.....	60
3.3 Conclusion.....	63
Chapter Four: Methodology	66
4.1 Introduction	66
4.2 Research Paradigms.....	66
4.2.1 Ontology.....	67
4.2.2 Epistemology.....	68
4.2.3 Methodology.....	70
4.3 Approach.....	74
4.3.1 Context and Site.....	76
4.3.2 Sampling & Participants	77
4.4 Data Collection.....	79
4.4.1 Documentary data	79
4.4.2 Interview Data.....	80
4.4.2.1 One-to-one interviews	80
4.4.2.2 Focus groups	82
4.4.3 Data collection Process	83
4.5 Pilot study:	84
4.6 Data Analysis.....	85
4.5.1 Documentary reviewing.....	85
4.5.2 Interview analysis.....	86
4.7 Quality of Research	91

4.7.1 Trustworthiness	92
4.7.1.1 Credibility	92
4.7.1.2 Transferability	95
4.7.1.3 Dependability	95
4.7.1.4 Confirmability.....	96
4.8 Ethical consideration.....	96
4.9 Conclusion	97
Data analysis and discussion: Introductory Page.....	99
Chapter Five: Leadership Practice.....	105
5.1 Introduction	105
5.2 Recruiting and retention	106
5.3 School strategic planning:	116
5.4 Communication:.....	119
5.5 Leadership Influence.....	127
5.6 Distributed Leadership.....	133
5.7 Conclusion:.....	138
Chapter Six: Culture	140
6.1 Introduction:	140
6.2 Globalisation	141
6.2.1 International accountability.....	142
6.2.2 Digital transformation.....	145
6.3 The national culture	151
6.3.1 Gender Equality	151
6.3.2 Educational reform	154
6.3.3 Schools as part of the community	158
6.3.4 Tribalism and traditional values.....	162
6.4 Organisational culture.....	165
School Culture	165
6.4.1 Collaborative school culture	165
6.4.2 Collegiality.....	167
6.5 Conclusion.....	169
Chapter Seven: Continuing Professional Development.....	170
7.1 Introduction	170
7.2 The importance of CPD	170
7.3 The challenges of CPD.....	177
7.4 Professional learning communities.....	184

7.5 Future development needs.....	190
7.6 Conclusion.....	198
Conclusion: Analysis and Discussion.....	200
Chapter eight: Conclusion.....	203
8.1 Introduction	203
8.2 Summary of the study.....	203
8.3 The original contribution to knowledge	220
8.4 Limitations.....	222
8.5 Implications and Recommendations.....	222
8.6 Recommendations for future research.....	225
8.7 Researcher reflections	225
References	227
Appendices.....	264
Appendix 1: Ethical approval	264
Appendix 2: Data Protection.....	265
Appendix 3: Participant information sheet.....	267
Appendix 4: Consent form	271
Appendix 5: Initial Interview Schedule for School Leaders, Deputies and Teachers.....	273
Appendix 6: Revised Interview Schedule for School Leaders, Deputies and Teachers	275
Appendix 7: Revised Interview Schedule for Focus Group Teachers.....	277
Appendix 8: Initial Interview Schedule for School leadership supervisors.....	279
Appendix 9: Revised Interview Schedule for School leadership supervisors	280
Appendix 10: Initial Interview Schedule for Training supervisors	282
Appendix 11: Revised Interview Schedule for Training supervisors.....	283
Appendix 12: Focus Group Interview Table.....	285
Appendix 13: Teachers’ information.....	286
Appendix 14: School leaders’ information.....	292
Appendix 15: Example of original quotations.....	295

List of Figures

Figure 2:1 “Four tensions are holding back education in MENA”.....	23
Figure 2:2 “Push, Pull, and Pact”.....	24
Figure 2:3 Map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.....	27
Figure 3:1 the three interconnected concepts.....	39
Figure 3:1 study Methodology	72

Figure 4:2 the multiple case study	75
Figure 4:3 Data collection process.....	84
Figure 4:4 example of notes.....	87
Figure 4:5 Map of participants.....	88
Figure 4:6 Three Cs Data Analysis: Codes, Categories, Concepts	89
Figure 4:6 Themes and Sub-themes.....	91
Figure 5:1 Internal and external communication	120
Figure 6:1 The two main levels of culture.....	140
Figure 7:1 The study framework.....	200

List of Tables

Table 2:1 Statistical Information of general Education in Saudi Arabia.	35
Table 2:1 Levels of Education in Saudi Arabia	38
Table 4:1 The differences between quantitative and qualitative research.	71
Table 4:1 The meaning of participant symbols.....	89
Table 5:1 The schools' information.....	102

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Saudi Arabia, as part of the worldwide economy, published its “Vision 2030”, which requires major reforms within the country with regard to various fields in order to achieve its stated objectives (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). These reforms include the education sector, which accounted for about 17.4% of the expenditures in 2019, at about 192.82 billion Riyals (44 billion pounds), to become the most important of the nine sectors to which the state distributes its expenditures in 2020 (MoF, 2019). As such, there are around 31 thousand schools spread throughout Saudi Arabia, attended by about 6 million students (MoE, 2015). According to the Ministry of Civil Service (MCS, 2009), there are 1718 areas classified as remote/rural areas which have a large number of schools within them. Therefore, rural education is considered as one of the key aspects of Saudis’ life, with more than 10% (out of 31 thousand) of schools located in rural areas. However, the current educational policy in Saudi Arabia appears to regard all urban and rural schools as the same (Alenezi, 2019; Elyas & Picard, 2013).

Additionally, school staff are recruited and distributed to schools by the Ministry of Education and its branches (Alghamdi, 2014), so that there would be a number of teachers with different backgrounds working together in the same school in a rural context. Many studies suggest that working in rural education is very different and presents unique challenges such as geographic isolation (Hammer et al., 2005), technological issues (Li, 2007), understanding local rural culture, poverty (Harmon & Schafft, 2009), poor community involvement (Prew, 2009), lack of resources (Gallo & Beckman, 2016), continuing professional development (Salazar, 2007) and teachers’ knowledge and experiences to work in such a context (Drummond & Halsey, 2013). Also, school staff who do not live in that rural community (due to the difficulty of living there or finding accommodation) are forced to travel long distances every day, and that may prevent them from interacting with members of that community. Furthermore, such isolation may lead to misunderstanding the local culture of that particular rural community. As a result, the above-mentioned factors may influence the rate of teacher retention and force them to request a transfer to an urban area.

Although there is a growing knowledge of leadership, professional development issues and school culture in the Saudi urban context (see, for example, Abu-Nasser, 2011; Al-Fozan, 1997; Alameen et al., 2015; Alyami & Floyd, 2019), very little is known about the rural context.

Therefore, this study aims to fill that knowledge gap by exploring school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural education in Saudi Arabia.

The following section will provide a brief summary of:

- The context of the study
- Personal interest and motivation
- Significance and outcomes of the study
- Research aim and questions
- Conceptual framework
- Methodology
- An overview of the thesis chapters

1.2 Context of the study

1.2.1 Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is situated in the southwestern corner of Asia, between the Arabian Gulf and the Red Sea (Alajmi, 2016). It is 868,730 square miles (or about four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula) making it the largest country in the Middle East and 14th largest state worldwide (Alajmi, 2016; IC, 2019). The land of Saudi is split into thirteen different regions, each of which is further subdivided into multiple governorates (Alajmi, 2016). There are more than 33 million people living in the Arabian, according to the General Authority for Statistics in KSA; of that number, about 12.6 million are not Saudi citizens (GAS, 2019). More than half of Saudi citizens are under the age of 26, and the percentage of those 65 and older makes up less than 4% of the entire population (GAS, 2019). At least 78% of the population resides in urban areas (Algahtani et al., 2017).

1.2.2 Rural Saudi

There are many rural areas in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which are classified according to certain criteria. For example, a rural area may be an agricultural area, a region suitable for grazing livestock or located in the desert. Some of the basic services sometimes are not available in these areas, either due to the difficulty in reaching them or because they are far from developed areas. People in Saudi rural areas often rely on agriculture or herding of livestock, and a small percentage of them are poor. A number of them move to cities for many reasons, including education, health services and job opportunities. However, a large number still live in these areas, or at the very least, they visit them at certain times and on some

occasions during the year, because they feel a sense of belonging. The majority of the inhabitants of rural areas are Bedouins (Nahedh, 1989). They also constitute a part of Saudi culture which has been defined by three key dimensions that are “its Islamic heritage, its historical role as an ancient trade centre, its Bedouin traditions” (SACM, 2019). Thus, in this study, the chosen schools are located in rural areas (which have been classified as rural or remote schools by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Civil Service) that are characterised by a low population, far from civilization (in a remote area) and having a different geographical nature.

Within this vast area of Saudi Arabia, many rural areas which contain a large number of schools, either girls or boys, which makes them more than 10% of the total number of schools in Saudi. Despite the fact that rural areas have been researched in terms of technology and healthcare sciences (AlBar & Hoque, 2019; Khan et al., 2010), rural education itself still lacks published research. Therefore, this study examines education in rural areas of the Golden Governorate, to explore those areas especially in terms of school leadership practice, culture, and CPD.

1.3 Personal interest and Motivation

I began my career as a mathematics teacher working in a rural school about 70 kilometres away from my home. I still remember my first day and the many questions that came to my mind while I was commuting to school. I was thinking about what I would find in front of me and the feeling of anxiety regarding the long distance, the hazards of the road, the geographical isolation of the area, and the disconnection from mobile networks. When I arrived at the school, I met the principal, who had little experience in the field of education and in managing and leading the school in general. He welcomed me and asked me to begin giving classes to the students without prior preparation about the nature of the school and the rural students. At that moment, I felt an intense desire to request moving from this rural area to an urban school, which unfortunately haunted me often during the year I spent there. It was obvious from the first working day in rural area that there were large differences from the urban school where I had trained. Most of the school staff were young with five years experiences or less and they were diverse from different regions of Saudi Arabia. Based on my personal experiences, it came to my attention that communication with my colleagues could be unique as I introduced myself to them, especially in making friendships, not only within the school’s boundaries, but also in our social life. Although the Ministry of Education did supply some recent induction programmes for some new teachers (in spite of that I did not have a chance to get involved in

one of these programmes), other school colleagues and I did not always understand educational policies, rules, and regulations, as a consequence there was a lack of professional development. On the other hand, one of the main things that grabbed my attention was that my students were not influenced by the pressures and complexities of life in the urban areas, as their situation was characterised by the simplicity of daily life (working only in agriculture and cattle grazing). They have a small population compared to cities and know each other since they were from one tribe. Additionally, there were no mobile phone networks or internet services, which in turn assisted in preventing the spread of technology and kept them isolated not only from Saudi society but also from the outside world. All these factors made me wonder if there is a way to make this school become more interesting and motivational to staff, offer different leadership practice and appropriate professional development.

After a period of time, I obtained a scholarship from the Ministry of Education to Australia where I got my master's degree. The focus was on educational leadership in rural context for which I visited an Australian rural school. I realised that there could be some differences between the Australian rural schools and the Saudi rural schools in respect to cultural differences. The school was characterised by motivated teachers and strong community involvement so that the school was effective and productive within the community. For example, there was carpentry inside the school where students were working at the end of the school day. This was helping the students to improve their monthly income and to prepare them to be independent in the future.

I believe that education is very important for making future generations more aware and providing the skills they need. The school is an essential part of the education process in order to get deeper into communities, through which next generations can be built, to improve and develop their local situation. These experiences have made me aware that there may be ways which rural schools in Saudi Arabia could be worked effectively by the participation of all the stakeholders. Therefore, from the beginning, Saudi rural schools need to be studied in order to understand the opportunities, challenges and school leaders' and teachers' experiences of working in this context.

1.4 Significance and Outcome

Rural schools are numerous in Saudi Arabia which makes them worthy of attention. More than ten percent of Saudi schools are located in rural areas with a large number of students. This means that a large segment of Saudi society is influenced in one way or another by these

schools. A lack of interest in rural schools may not only negatively affect the local community, but also the general educational level in the Kingdom. The school is the gateway where the next generations are prepared for the future so that they are able to join universities or obtain jobs either in the private or public sectors. Furthermore, there are currently many reforms in Saudi Arabia, including the education sector. However, these reforms should not be devoted solely to urban schools, given the importance of rural education within the country.

This study hopes to contribute to these reform aspects. It will aim to contribute to filling the gap of knowledge about rural schools through the lens of three inter-related concepts: school leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. Exploring and understanding current leadership practice and discussing problems and solutions in those schools could contribute to the development of school leadership. Continuing professional development also is one of the most important factors that enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of schools especially in a rural context (Kennedy, 2014). This study, thus, seeks to explore the obstacles and opportunities facing school leaders and teachers to provide some of the possible solutions that will be presented to the Ministry of Education. Finally, when school leaders seek to create a collaborative and positive school culture, rural schools are not only beneficial to teachers and students, but also to the global national and local communities (Harmon & Schafft, 2009). The sampling of this study is purposive, and the data was collected from different levels including the Ministry of Education, supervisors, school leaders and teachers. The researcher also believes that the role of engaging women is very important because they constitute half of Saudi society, and they must have their right to participate in this study. Therefore, the sampling will be included both male and female schools to provide a clearer picture of rural education in Saudi Arabia.

1.5 Research aim and questions

The aim of this study is to explore secondary school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural education in Saudi Arabia. The framework of this study is based on three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. For this reason, the following questions are proposed:

Main research question

- What are secondary school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

Sub-questions

- How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?
- How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?
- What are the continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?

1.6 Conceptual Framework:

This study adopts a conceptual framework based on the interconnections between three essential concepts: leadership practice, culture, and CPD in order to provide unique theoretical insights into Saudi rural schools. First, Bush et al. (2019) assumed that leadership is based on three dimensions: influence, values, and vision. These influences and values create a culture that leadership and school staff help develop and improve (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2019). On the other hand, there is a vision with goals that include continuity in professional development (Bush et al., 2019; Leithwood et al., 2019; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Second, the notion of culture is utilised at both the macro and micro levels in this study. It comprises values and beliefs acquired via global, national, and local experiences and practices while promoting school effectiveness, mutual trust and cooperation in which leadership plays an essential role in (Barnett & O'Mahony, 2006; Crane et al., 2016; Fullan, 2011). Therefore, it contributes effectively to creating an atmosphere in which CPD is one of its most important pillars (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Third, continuing professional development involves all employees that occur formally and informally in a collaborative culture (Bubb & Earley, 2007; Ng & Chan, 2014). Thus, it contributes to the professional development of school leaders and teachers, which in turn benefits students (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Kochan et al., 2002).

The framework of this study is developed and discussed in more detail in chapter three.

1.7 Methodology

This study seeks to explore and understand in depth the nature of secondary school leaders' and teachers' perceptions and experiences working in rural education in Saudi Arabia. Thus, it utilises the ontological notion of constructionism assumptions since it views participants as social actors capable of creating and constructing their social reality. This research epistemological stance is interpretivism, which fits firmly with constructionism's underlying principles. Therefore, the qualitative research approach is employed in line with

constructionism and interpretivism assumptions to gain a comprehensive understanding of Saudi rural schools.

Six secondary rural schools (three girls' schools and three boys' schools) were selected for this study to follow the approach of multiple case studies to demonstrate different perspectives on this issue. Since schools in Saudi Arabia can be classified into three categories: urban, semi-rural, and rural, schools classified as rural have been selected as they meet the specifications and conditions that this study aspires to.

This thesis uses purposive sampling that chooses participants from different levels, including supervisors, school leaders, and teachers. Seven teachers and two school leaders represent each school, so there are 42 teachers and 12 school leaders (six school principals and six school deputies). Also, it includes two school leadership supervisors (one female and one male) and two training supervisors (one female and one male). As a result, the sample is representative of a wide range of rural areas in Saudi Arabia.

In addition, data was collected from documents representing systems, rules, regulations, and decisions, either from the Ministry of Education or the schools themselves. The interviews were from the data collected, as it relied on one-to-one semi-structured interviews with supervisors, school leaders, and teachers from each school and semi-structured interviews with six focus groups (one from each school including five teachers). In order to analyse the data, this research followed the six steps broken down by Lichtman (2013): initial coding, revisiting initial coding, initial listing categories, modifying the initial list, revisiting categories, and from categories to concepts. This thesis also used some strategies to ensure the trustworthiness that include (a) prolonged engagement; (b) use of peer debriefing; triangulation; (d) member checks; and (e) audit trail.

1.8 Overview of the thesis chapters

This study is divided into eight chapters: introduction, context, literature review, methodology, analysis and discussion 1, analysis and discussion 2, analysis and discussion 3, and conclusion. These chapters are as follows:

Chapter One: this chapter presents a brief summary of the study, as it includes a simple presentation of the context in which the study is carried out, an explanation of the researcher's personal interests and motivation, and the significance and outcome of the study. It also specified the aim of the research and the questions, which include the main question, and to

answer it, the three sub-questions were identified. Finally, a brief summary of the conceptual framework and methodology used in this study is presented.

Chapter Two: this chapter begins with an introduction and then was launched broadly to simulate globalisation and its underlying theories, which are neoliberalism, world-systems analysis, and world culture theory. After that, it discussed the global economic impacts on culture, decentralisation and education, and globalisation and education. Then it finally moved on to describe the context of the study in deeper detail, as it included the geographical nature and demographic information, economy, culture, vision 2030, and the education systems in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter Three: this chapter is concerned with reviewing the literature and previous studies. It began with an introduction and theoretical framework on which this study is based. Then, it discussed the three concepts: leadership practice (which includes school leadership practice and distributed leadership), culture (includes global, national, and organisational culture), and continuing professional development (which comprise professional knowledge and practice, professional learning communities and communities of practice).

Chapter Four: this chapter is concerned with the methodology of this study, as it started by clarifying the orientation of the philosophical research from the ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives. After that, the adopted approach, context and site, sampling and participants, data collection and analysis, pilot study, research quality, ethical consideration, and finally, the conclusion.

Chapters Five, Six, and Seven: These chapters begin with an introductory page that provides much information about the participating schools. First, the fifth chapter is concerned with leadership practice. It concludes with five topics obtained from the data: recruitment and retention, school strategic planning, communication, leadership influence, and distributed leadership. Second, the sixth chapter analyses and discusses culture, where culture has been divided into three levels: globalisation (themes include: international accountability and the spread of technology), national (themes include: gender equality, educational reform, the school as part of the community, and tribalism and traditional values) and organisational (themes include: Collaborative school culture and collegiality). Third, the sixth chapter, concerned with continuing professional development, includes four themes, namely the importance of CPD, the challenges of CPD, professional learning communities, and future

development needs). Finally, the conclusion page, which includes a theoretical framework extracted from the findings of this study.

Chapter Eight: this chapter provides a summary of the study, the original contribution of knowledge, implications and recommendations, including reflections.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter provides a brief discussion regarding the research problem, Saudi context, personal interests and motivation, significance and outcomes, research aims and questions, research theoretical framework, methodology, and overview of the thesis chapters. The next chapter discusses the context of this study in more detail.

Chapter Two: international Educational Context

2.1 Introduction:

Saudi Arabia, as part of the worldwide economy, published its “Vision 2030”, which requires significant reform within the country with regard to various fields in order to achieve its stated objectives (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). This reformation will be comprehensive, in accord (or will interact) with global changes, and will comply with the requirements of the new era (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). Previously, The Kingdom was a conservative and closed society (Hamdan, 2005); however, this reality has been changing in recent years with the introduction of new reforms and indeed with further reforms still currently being enacted (Al-Dossary, 2018). As a result, this interaction with global change covers many areas, such as culture, economics, education and the neoliberalist ideology. However, Schafft and Jackson (2010) argued that reformers around the world may believe that schools in rural areas are ineffective for the demands of rapid change occurring in an urbanised and globalised society. For decades, education in rural areas has been nearly invisible, overlooked, overgeneralised, underfunded, underestimated, under-researched, and a source of irritation for some governments (Solstad & Karlberg-Granlund, 2020). While globalisation may create new challenges for schools in rural areas (Miller, 2015), it has dramatically facilitated sharing of knowledge, experiences and technologies (Davis, 2020; Killingsworth et al., 2016).

The aim of this section is to define globalisation and discuss the fact that it is a contested theme, as well as to consider the main theories of globalisation, particularly neoliberalism, world-systems analysis and world culture theory. Furthermore, culture versus economics, in terms of globalisation, has been debated from various perspectives in order to render the Saudi context more understandable. Also, this section will attempt to illustrate the Saudi context by conceptualising its many aspects.

2.2 Globalisation

In spite of the fact that the term globalisation first appeared in the early 1930s, the notion only ostensibly emerged half a century later to take the “world by storm” (Steger, 2017, p. 1). The concept captures the extent of the globally interconnected nature of social interactions, as interceded through the technological revolution and the combination of markets (Steger, 2017). This had made globalisation the “buzzword” by the beginning of the 1990s (Steger, 2017, p. 1). It has been used excessively, both in academic circles and the media, and by profit and non-profit organisations, even though its definition is deemed to be controversial due to the various

interpretations of the term (Shields, 2013). However, globalisation has proved to be particularly significant and continues to influence numerous aspects of social life (Shields, 2013). As a consequence, it has become a core topic to numerous researchers and in various disciplines, and is a key underlying concept within the field of social research (Shields, 2013). The term covers different perspectives and has been debated across a diverse range of cultural, social, political, economic, and educational dimensions (Berger, 2000; Chang, 2003; Dimmock & Walker, 2000). Globalisation can also be considered to be the influence behind, and the move towards, a neoliberalism ideology that derives from economic thought (Litonjua, 2008). In this sense, it is necessary to define globalisation in order to determine what its actual effects are, whether in general, that is, 'globally', or in particular, such as education, which will be discussed in the following section.

Defining globalisation:

Van Der Bly (2005, p. 880) defined globalisation as "...complex connectivity, an empirical condition of the modern world", while Robertson and White (as cited in Ritzer, 2016, p. 64) attempted to describe globalisation through a number of points: firstly, the two main directional tendencies that globalisation primarily consists of are those of a growing global consciousness and a rising global connectivity. Consciousness does not mean agreement, simply a shared feeling of the world as an entity; secondly, globalisation has a specific composition, one that has been, to all intents and purposes, accomplished by "the founding of the United Nations organisation". This implies that globalisation, as seen in the processes of the UN, concentrates on four stages of reference, namely world politics, nation states, humanity, and individuals; and thirdly, globalisation encompasses four main aspects of human life, namely the political, the economic, the social, and the cultural. In reality, these dimensions are significantly interconnected, with one or two facets being of particular emphasis for any particular time or place.

Moreover, McKibbin (2000) asserts that, across national boundaries, globalisation can be defined as a growing interdependence of social, political and economic actions. Altbach (2004); Ariely (2012) also articulated the fact that globalisation is growing in terms of "cross-border flows" of merchandise, information, people, technology culture, currency, and scientific trends, which accordingly influence education. At the same time, Little and Green (2009, p. 166) further remarked that globalisation can merely be seen as an "accelerated movement" of new capital and ideas which cross borders, albeit with some obstacles. It is not a completely

modern phenomenon since the internationalisation of trade and cultures, for example, and the spread of different religions globally, has been ongoing for thousands of years. However, the most recent form of globalisation is qualitatively distinguished (Little & Green, 2009).

The contemporary procedure of globalisation is being formed in complicated ways in, and by, the transformations of geopolitics and the world economy, and encompasses a number of social life activities (Paasi, 2005). For example, it is involved in communication, e.g., technological innovations, in capitalist production, e.g., transformations; it is also involved in the expansion of rationalism as a dominant knowledge frame and varied shapes of governance, allowing for new regulatory frames (Scholte, 2005). In this process, one vital component is the dynamics of science, whereby knowledge is essential in the forces of production, and in progressively considerable portions of the competition, internationalisation and regulation and governance of globalisation in many countries (Paasi, 2005).

Globalisation is a term used to describe political, social and economic procedures which have gathered and generated the distinctive cases of contemporary entity (Rizvi, 2007). Additionally, Oke (2009) pointed out that globalisation indicates the ways in which distant portions of the world have been able to link in a historically unparalleled pattern, in which the events taking place on one side of the world are now fully able to influence events on the other. Nowadays, one can easily visualise how the world has become a single global space connected by diverse social, cultural and technological forces (Karakas, 2009; Rizvi, 2007); indeed, a number of globalisation theorists share this general perception (Rizvi, 2007). Giddens (1990) (as cited in Cronin, 2010, p. 134) defines globalisation as “*the intensification of the worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa*”. (Harvey, 1989, p. 240) Harvey (1989, p. 240) quite nicely framed it as a “*time/space compression*”, while Robertson (1992) (as cited in Robertson & Inglis, 2006, p. 30) described globalization as “*the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole*”. However, Stromquist and Monkman (2014) referred to the idea that globalisation can be seen as a rhetorical tool for the retransformation of dependency, as it conceals the influences of economic policies which are responsible for causing a considerable number of social issues in numerous developing countries.

There are many varied and contested definitions of globalization in the literature. They tend to group around the concept of world connectivity, where the key areas are those of crossing

national boundaries, internationalization, and a single global space. Firstly, globalization negates the boundaries between one nation state and another within the bounds of the accelerated movement of cultural, economic, and political activities through the flows of trade exchange, culture, and people. For instance, Krook and True (2012) argued that the United Nation has often set the agenda for women's rights. One of the fundamental goals that the UN seeks to promote among the world's countries to ensure sustainable development is gender equality. In contrast, Saudi Arabia has been a member of the UN since 1945 and has significantly contributed to United Nations development assistance since the 1950s (UN, 2019b). Recently, it also launched Vision 2030 (which will be discussed later), and one of its main goals is empowering women in all fields (UNP, 2022). Thus, it allowed those over the age of 21 to travel independently without obtaining the guardian's permission, to drive a car, and others, which aligns with the UN's sustainable development goals (UN, 2019a).

This, secondly, led to internationalization in which the transformations of social life and geopolitics, communication through innovation, and the expansion of knowledge frameworks are the vital drivers of globalization itself. This internationalization also refers to the growing interdependence and interconnectedness of humans and institutions throughout the globe. Consequently, the world can be considered a single space within which information transfer between nations has become considerably easier. One of the Saudi Ministry of Education's (MoE) objectives is to build religious and cultural values amongst students, which can conflict with some international ideologies in certain areas (MoE, 2018b). However, other objectives such as "Granting overseas scholarships to talented students and enhancing local and international partnerships" may influence the ways in which Saudi Arabia is globalized and puts these side by side with global changes and connectivity (MoE, 2018b).

2.2.1 Underlying Theories

Globalisation is an ongoing field of interest, and indeed concern, for many scholars such as anthropologists, sociologists and philosophers (Brooks & Normore, 2010). This phenomenon has been increasingly reported in the associated literature, as have particular studies of the influences of globalisation on specific regions and countries, not to mention the popular coverage of the topic (Robinson, 2007). Therefore, there are some who are attracted by the notion globalisation, i.e., "globalists", and others who are anti-globalisation, i.e., "sceptics" (Held & McGrew, 2007). Shields (2013), on the other hand, debates several theoretical perspectives on globalisation such as neoliberalism, world systems analysis and world culture

theory. This section will be centred on these theoretical perspectives in order to realise the influences of globalisation in different contexts, namely from the perspectives of economic, cultural and social forces.

2.2.1.1 Neoliberalism

Neoliberalism appeared in the mid-twentieth century with the aim of modernising classical liberalism to better reflect modern society (Chapman, 2013). Neoliberalism can refer to several concepts such as economic and cultural structure, economics policy, competition, particular attitudes or tendencies towards entrepreneurship, responsibility, and self-development (Kipnis, 2009). Grady and Harvie (2011) indicated that neoliberalism is both a political or practical and ideological project through which social good and human welfare will be increased by increasing property and market relations within every field of human interaction.

Kotz and McDonough (2010); Smith (2006) indicated that neoliberalism has an influence in households, the free market and free trade in one way or another. Firstly, the autonomy of the individual is granted by neoliberal ideology, which is considered of central importance (Smith, 2006). Patriarchal opinions about gender in which women's activities are completely restricted to the domestic sphere are sharply rejected by neoliberal theorists (Smith, 2006). Instead, they embrace the "liberal-feminist" opinion where women are conferred equal rights in terms of employment opportunities, education, involvement in political procedures, etc. (Smith, 2006, p. 47). However, feminist experts argue that neoliberal ideology perpetuates the myth that equality for women has been achieved but is still a long way off (Scharff, 2014). Of course, it is acknowledged that just conferring equal rights does not necessarily mean equity is reached. Indeed, other authors have argued that much more needs to be done to achieve gender equality in KSA (Alsubaie & Jones, 2017).

In many countries around the world, the role of the market has increased significantly (Backhouse, 2005). While the market is considered the best means by which to allocate opportunities and resources (Olssen* & Peters, 2005), markets that have been established by governments need constant development which may result in a heavy financial burden (Backhouse, 2005). Olssen* and Peters (2005) stated that the market can be considered both a morally distinguished mechanism, and indeed a more effective mechanism where opportunities and resources can be allocated. Some governments rely on the privatisation of national industries where they deliver to private contractors, and reduce regulation and taxes which, consequently, reduce levels of governmental spending (Backhouse, 2005).

Another advantage of neoliberalism is that of free trade, where Ricardo (as cited in Steger & Roy, 2010, p. 3), “the gospel of the modern free trades”, saw it as a “comparative advantage”. It is involved in any form of support and protection that is imposed by states, the annulment of aid or tariffs, and the preservation of opening economies and floating currency exchange rates (Olssen* & Peters, 2005). Open trade is not only a “win-win situation” for all the commerce partners concerned, but it also allows each country to particularise in the production of goods so that they can gain a “comparative advantage” (Steger & Roy, 2010, p. 3). Additionally, the combination of national markets and free trade assists in the effective assignment of production elements and encourages the welfare of states and, indeed, the world as a whole (Mansfield & Mutz, 2009). It may be noted that, for instance, the transfer of innovation from one market to another, and in many different fields, has obvious positive consequences (Smith, 2006). Typically, the external trade from successful and prosperous investment in development or research have considerable positive spill over effects such as investment in education, training or infrastructure (Smith, 2006).

Neoliberal governments commodify health care, education and social programmes by reducing spending (Ferguson, 2010; Labonté & Stuckler, 2016). Harvey (2005, p. 165) noted that neoliberalism has several downsides and a “commodification of everything” where the markets determine the best for all preferential decisions and deem that everything, at least in principle, can be dealt with as a commodity. Commodification assumes the presence of social relations, things, and that property rights over procedures can be merchandised subject to legal contract, and that a price can be set on them (Harvey, 2005). Therefore, the market is assumed to operate as a suitable pattern - an ethic - for people’s general activities (ibid). Lawson et al. (2015) argued the progressive process of commodification complicates access to information in modern society. They consider the context of neoliberalism prevents access to information and education as a result of the hegemonic assumptions regarding “information-as-commodity”, which is problematic in terms of literacy and education and results in social injustice (Lawson et al., 2015, p. 19). In Australia, for example, the abolition of governmental fee deregulation and funding is considered an essential matter within higher education (Rea, 2016). However, Shields (2013, p. 67) asserted that “despite these downsides, neoliberalism argues that globalization is largely inevitable, and individual nations that attempt to resist it would face isolation”.

Recently, there have been vigorous efforts in Saudi Arabia to adopt the ideology of neoliberalism especially in the social life, economy and educational sectors (Elyas & Picard,

2013; Tayan, 2017). “*The Saudi Tatweer Education Reforms*”, for instance, is a project created to develop the quality of public education, particularly in teaching and learning (Tayan, 2017). This project relies on neoliberal principles as a guide to a new educational context distribution in Saudi Arabia (ibid). Neoliberal thought is viewed as a benchmark for an effective and a successful education system within a dynamic knowledge-based and globally competitive society (Shields, 2013). In an effort to support economic prosperity and place itself within the global market, The Kingdom has strived to reform its educational system to enhance curriculum standards in school to: 1- produce a more efficient and educated workforce than in prior generations; 2- to meet the needs of the global labour market; and 3- to create economic prosperity within the populace (Tayan, 2017). Thus, the goal of *Tatweer* is, apparently, a market-driven reform which clearly emphasises the ideology of neoliberalism, where it is stated on the official website of Tatweer that:

“The primary objective of this programme will be to focus on the quality of education to ensure that students of public education in the Saudi Kingdom are equipped with the necessary skills to participate in an increasingly globalised society and engage with the complex and myriad problems that globalization brings” (Elyas & Picard, 2013, p. 36).

2.2.1.2 World Systems Analysis

Globalisation is viewed from different angle by world-systems analysis, which argues that globalisation is the tendency to actively offer further advantages to those who are already powerful (Shields, 2013). World systems analysis argues that although the world economic system has come to be so closely knit, it can be categorised as having an unequal core, semi-peripheral and peripheral relationship (Rice, 2007; Shields, 2013). Wallerstein (as cited in Strikwerda, 2000, p. 337) argues that the more powerful countries determine market growth, or in other words strong countries command how cultural globalization actually proceeds. World systems analysis also argues that the significant growth of transnational corporations has simultaneously driven the parallel growth of transnational capitalism (Appelbaum & Robinson, 2005).

When a state conflicts with the interests of powerful countries, they exert their force to a great extent through transnational governing bodies, for example, “The World Trade Organization” (Appelbaum & Robinson, 2005, p. xvi). With regards to this point, the growth of such transnational foundations and performers indicates a shift away from “nation-state-centric thinking” to that of a more global frame (ibid). Political, economic and national foundations

are seen as being converted by globalization, which have begun to be increasingly expressed as being the emergent transnational foundations of the world economy (Appelbaum & Robinson, 2005).

2.2.1.3 World Culture Theory

World culture theory is a comparatively new perspective in the attempt to comprehend the key influences and dimensions of globalisation (Mak et al., 2012). It interprets globalisation as a procedure in which its members are appointed as being conscious of, and make sense of, living in the world as one entity under a “hybrid” global culture (Mak et al., 2012). Also, globalisation is fundamentally viewed by world culture theory as a dissemination of cultural values (Shields, 2013). These values entail respect for human rights, democratic citizenship, rational decision making and self-determination, and freedom of speech (ibid). Shields (2013) asserted that as globalisation spreads, such values are considered as being less related to any particular culture (e.g., European and American societies) and more as universal, worldwide truths.

Shields (2013) argues that world culture theory has three essential aspects. Firstly, it considers that international organisations are fundamental to spreading the values of world culture through their commitments and declarations via international committees. Secondly, the theory argues that international organisations have become stronger because they have nation states as members, e.g., the United Nations, as a result of globalisation. Thirdly, world culture theory deems that the changes to underlying cultural values cause most of the shifts linked with globalisation, not the economic agents or other considerations which are given usually as justifications for such in the literature.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia holds memberships with many different international organisations. The Kingdom not only integrates actively with organisations that are directly engaged in the spread of the values of global culture but is also involved with a range of global economic organisations. For example, the United Nations is an international organisation, of which Saudi Arabia is a member, that supports human rights, economies and other issues (UNITED NATIONS, 2018). The Kingdom is additionally a member of several economic organisations such as the World Trade Organization and the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC, 2018; WTO, 2018). This integration between world culture and the global economy has its influences in every country including, of course, Saudi Arabia

(Hoffmann, 2002). The following section will discuss these influences, or impacts, from several perspectives and then link these to the Saudi context.

2.2.2 Culture versus Economics

The various cultures and state economies in the world are inevitably influenced by globalisation (Kraidy, 2017). Undoubtedly, globalisation, in recent decades, has accelerated considerably in terms of the intensity and degree of connections between different cultures and various regions of the world due to the rapid rise in financial and economic interdependence, and the considerable advances that have occurred in telecommunications (Arnett, 2002). For instance, exports of goods and services as a percentage of total world product increased from 11.88% in 1960 to 28.52% in 2016 (The World Bank, 2018a), and the number of international tourists has increased by 138% since 1996 (UNWTO, 2018). Consequently, both cultures and economies across the globe have been influenced in one way or another by globalisation, which has resulted in various advantages and disadvantages being so conferred (Raikhan et al., 2014).

Cultural globalisation alone has both positive and negative aspects (Raikhan et al., 2014). Indeed, it assists people in communicating more, and in understanding and learning about each other, expanding cultural contacts to bridge the gaps between nations in the modern world (ibid). The impact of this cultural homogenization is one of the more positive aspects that the world can gain, where public awareness of issues emerges within such phenomena as democracy, human rights and gender equality (Martens et al., 2010). This cultural homogeneity helps also to increase career opportunities, which is reflected positively in state economics (Tams & Arthur, 2007).

However, Dimmock and Walker (2000) argued the importance of understanding the similarities and differences across cultures, whereas globalisation considers such issues to be of lesser importance. In the shadow of world culture theory, the issue of ‘globality’ is a significant consideration from the perspective of how to live together under one global system in any meaningful manner (Mak et al., 2012, p. 174). Giddens (as cited in Stohl, 2005, p. 248) illustrated the fact that globalisation is a phenomenon that is not only “out-there”, but it is also an “in-here phenomenon” which impacts even the most personal and emotional aspects of human lives. Individuals and communities gradually recognise their global presence, but they are forced to identify themselves in terms of modern paths (Mak et al., 2012). Therefore, globalisation can be seen as comprehensive and multidimensional phenomenon that includes a complicated combination of heterogeneity and homogeneity (Robertson, 2001). Appadurai

(1996) confirms that while power of globalisation homogenizes the globe to some extent, its incoherencies also provide for a certain heterogeneity. Similarly, the main characteristic of global culture is the one of the policies of the reciprocal efforts of symmetry and variation to dismantle each other (Mak et al., 2012). Appadurai (1996, p. 43) also mentioned that *“both sides of the coin of global cultural process today are products of the infinitely varied mutual contest of sameness and difference on a stage characterised by radical disjuncture between different sorts of global flows and the uncertain landscapes created in and through these disjunctures”*.

The economic dimensions of globalisation have particular influences on national cultures (Martens et al., 2010). International trade ought to create considerable gains in consumption and production and allow access to a diversity of services and goods (Olivier et al., 2008). Consequently, national policies are impacted, which fundamentally alter the political, economic and cultural fabrics of the societies in question (Martens et al., 2010). Such procedures may erode individual identity and national culture, where the enormous consumption of integrated goods as imparted by direct oversea investment or global trade in cultural and other spheres is understood as being passive in nature (Olivier et al., 2008). This is due to the influences on traditional and locally made produce or the seeming tendency towards “pure market value” and which, over time, encourages the loss of personal identity and national culture (ibid).

One of the more remarked-upon pieces of evidence that reinforces this view comes from France where individuals feel that globalisation is threatening their identity and culture. For example, in a 1999 poll in L’Expansion, 60% of those surveyed concurred that globalisation represented a significant threat to the French way of life (Meunier, 2000). Also, in 2005, French voters rejected the proposal made by the European constitution which some saw as a “cultural threat” (Binzer Hobolt & Brouard, 2011). The French fear of cultural corrosion is not unique in a global sense, as India has also protested globalisation, who, due to their concentration on vegetarianism and abstinence from beef products, objected when American fast food chains such as McDonald’s began to spread across different countries (Olivier et al., 2008).

Although language is principally associated with the substantial value of cultural identity, the accelerating and continuous development of the global economy inevitably requires diverse languages, particularly in countries that promote the advancement of their economies (Tsai, 2009). Such diversity is a double-edged sword, however; on the one hand, it simulates the

global market through understanding and communicating the requirements of others (Tenzer et al., 2017). English, for instance, is considered the world's *lingua franca* for businesses, where many major global corporations have made it their language of choice, regardless of whether this is for internal or external transactions (ibid). Chew (as cited in Tsai, 2009, p. 312) asserted that English is merely an instrument with which to assist Singapore's participation in the global economy and is not a threat to Singaporean identity. On the other hand, some countries (e.g., Malaysia, Korea and Japan) deem that teaching English as a second language is a significant means by which they can face the domination of Western culture through sensitizing their nations to the preservation of national pride (Tsai, 2009). Japan, for example, after the economic collapse of the 1990s, had its sense of "Japaneseness" renewed which consequently triggered the desire for a certain independence from the West (Tsai, 2009, p. 311). This is reflected in the state's language policy, where learning English is emphasised only in order to support Japanese culture (ibid).

Saudi Arabia, in the last few decades, has been faced with rapid socio-cultural alternations due to the accelerating impacts of globalisation on the Arabian Gulf region's economy (Al-Rethaiaa et al., 2010). The Kingdom is currently striving to diversify its economy, which mainly relies on petroleum products, through allowing free trade and opening its markets globally (Yamada, 2018). These efforts have given several international companies the opportunity to establish themselves within, and enter into, the Saudi market and bring some of their new transactions and cultural identities (ibid). For example, the English language is considered an important necessity and priority within these global corporations in order to have a career (Aben Ahmed, 2013). Moreover, there has been a proliferation of foreign restaurant chains, such as McDonald's, which have had a passive impact on eating habits and food choices (Al-Rethaiaa et al., 2010). Most of them are influenced in their values and attitudes, whether directly or indirectly, by global changes through a number of mechanisms such as economic, political and technological factors (Zamil, 2013). Zamil (2013) suggested that parents should attempt to understand the considerable changes and rapid transformations that are occurring in Saudi society, which might otherwise increase the cultural gap between the two generations.

Throughout the year, Saudi Arabia receives a large number of religious tourists from many different countries who come to visit the two holy cities (Henderson, 2011). According to the Minister of Hajj and Umrah (2018), for example, during the period of pilgrimage called the "*Hajj*", which occurs in the last month of the Islamic calendar, the Kingdom hosts around 2 million people to make *Hajj* and practice their faith. Saudi, as a result, strives to provide for

the safety and comfort of Saudi pilgrims by providing services for them, such as health and guidance services (ibid). The number of governmental employees who participate in this event comes to more than 40,000, and in various disciplines including translation and other service functions (ibid). The private sector also assists in this process, which promotes economic development (Jin et al., 2018). Both rural and urban people are gaining the jobs so offered, which are influenced in one way or another by cultural exchanges (Taibah et al., 2018).

However, the Minister of Education and non-profit organisations strive to preserve the culture of the Saudi nation through pursuing certain activities (ABEGS, 2010; UNESCO, 2018). There are several programmes directed at Saudi students and other cultural aspects such as celebrating Arabic Language Day on the 18th of December each year (ibid). The main objective of these programmes is to support and maintain the culture and the language of the country, which are linked to various values, e.g., religion and art (ABEGS, 2010).

2.2.3 Decentralisation and Education

One of the key impacts of globalisation on education systems worldwide has been the shift towards decentralisation (Astiz et al., 2002). Shields (2013) argued that decentralisation is supported by three interconnected arguments: firstly, in order to increase school efficiency, decentralisation requires the school to be released from the bureaucracy of central government and commitment to regulations from schools which might be not related to the domestic context; secondly, empowering teachers, parents and domestic communities by involving them in school governance and management through decentralisation allows stakeholders to effectively contribute to delivering education, where consequently the schools begin to be more accountable to their local communities (Carney & Bista, 2009; Shields, 2013); thirdly, decentralisation can also promote school finances by opening new paths for investment from domestic businesses and the participation of charitable organisations (Shields, 2013). However, Carnoy and Rhoten (2002) have debated the idea that reducing management responsibility and central government financial support for, in particular, primary and secondary education rather than increasing school productivity are the original desires for decentralisation reform. In several schooling systems worldwide, decentralisation reforms have been powerful factors in financial decentralisation for the reason that central governments intended to see that municipalities and provinces participate in assuming certain costs. Therefore, numerous schools and municipalities have resisted decentralisation reforms because they perceived that the costs of education would be much greater than in the past (Carnoy et al., 1999).

2.2.4 Globalisation and Education

It is important to assess the influences of globalisation on education in order to gain a better comprehension of the education system, especially in Saudi Arabia, which is part of the global context. Saudi is not isolated from the world, thus, it interacts with, impacts and is influenced by other states and tendencies, such as the economic, in the global system.

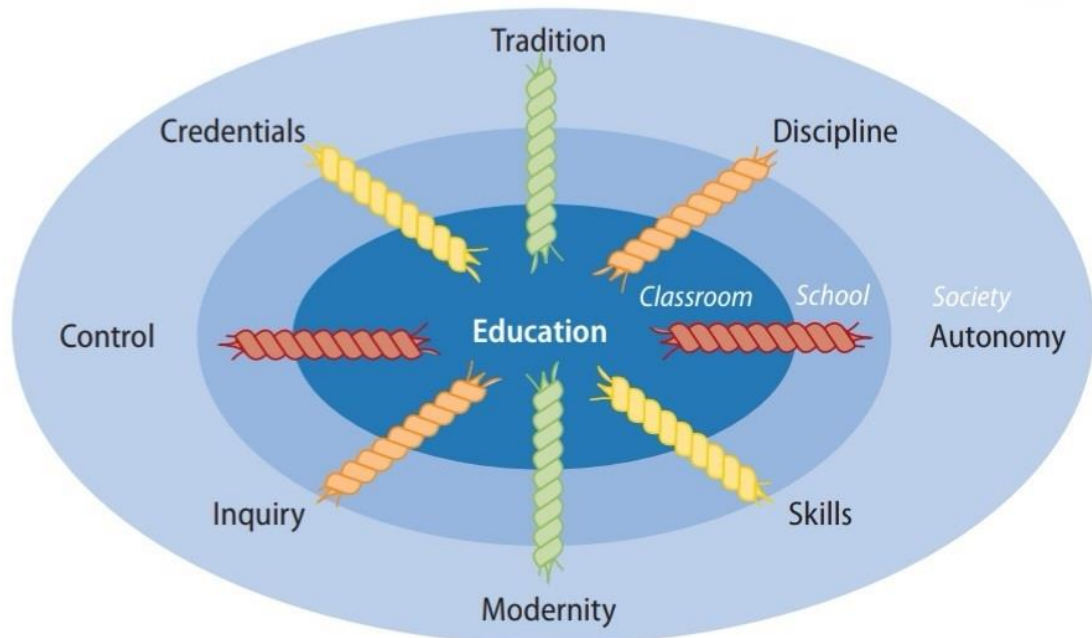
Many countries around the world are economically influenced by globalisation where they interact with it either individually or collectively (Dale, 2007). Dale (2007, p. 50) argues that countries respond to globalisation individually and have embraced the framework which they refer to as “competition state”. Neoliberalism also asserts that the nature of globalisation promotes competition between, and within, states, where it become more beneficial to the global market by generating superior outputs, considerable efficiency, and greater standards of innovation (Shields, 2013). This competition is not only beneficial to the global market, but it may also create opportunities for nations, as some presume, to fulfil their potential economic and political prosperity (Lane & Kinser, 2011).

With regards to involving certain states in such competition, these states would have to adjust certain educational policies (Dale, 2007). Creating workforces that have the capability to be more competitive and skilful is one of the motivational factors for such shifts. The significance of higher education for the economy has been recognised in a large number of states. Thus, some states have allowed international universities and colleges to work within them, rather than gradually developing their own educational sectors with respect to local institutions. This is seen as a rapid means by which to improve the state economy by empowering domestic students to benefit from institutions and universities that are both recognised and respected worldwide (Lane & Kinser, 2011).

On the other hand, countries have become more concerned with establishing a collective frame of international organisations that is referred to as “governance without government” (Dale, 2007, p. 50); for instance, there are many international organisations such as the World Trade Organisation (WTO), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank (Dale, 2007) that meet this description.

One of the international organisation that invests in education, particularly basic education, is the World Bank, which aims to help the most needful people (The World Bank, 2018b). A report provided by the World Bank indicates that the education in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is being held back because of four fundamental sets of tensions “1. Credentials

and skills; 2. discipline and inquiry; 3. control and autonomy; 4. tradition and modernity” (El-Kogali & Tayeb, 2018, p. 5). (Please see figure 2: 1 below).



Source: World Bank.

Figure 2:1 “Four tensions are holding back education in MENA” by The World Bank (El-Kogali & Tayeb, 2018, p. 5).

Also, the report outlines a framework with which to improve education called the “push, pull, and pact framework” (El-Kogali & Tayeb, 2018, p. 12). Firstly, “push” refers to beginning early learning for all children, as given by motivated and qualified educators who know how to monitor learning and how to utilise technology and modern approaches. Secondly, “pull” indicates the development of skills for all stakeholders in the relevant society and the labour market, which includes organised multi-system reforms beyond and within the education system. Thirdly, at the national level “a new pact for education” emerges with an integrated vision where accountabilities and responsibilities are shared (Please see figure 2: 2 below).



Figure 2:2 “Push, Pull, and Pact” provided by the World Bank, which refers to the new framework for education in MENA (El-Kogali & Tayeb, 2018, p. 12).

However, Lima Filho (2009) analysed the role of World Bank in Latin America, where he found that it only aims to achieve fundamentally lower standards of education and does not provide people with sufficiently advanced skills, which leads to them having to work in low-paid employment or to otherwise become unemployed. Despite the fact that the World Bank granted loan to support education in a number of developing countries, it has been indicated for using this as a platform for pushing certain ideologies such as neoliberalism, privatisation and marketisation (Alshehri, 2015; Arshad-Ayaz, 2008).

Moreover, globalisation has a deep influence on schooling reform policies, especially neoliberal economic globalisation. Thus, effectiveness, efficiency and the quality of education have recently gained increasing attention where the education sector, with regards to the development of the public management system, has adopted a number of private sector management approaches (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002). These approaches are accountability of outcomes and privatisation, amongst others (ibid).

One of the observed approaches that results in globalisation impacting the education system is accountability movement (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002; Dale, 2005). The effects of making

teachers and schools more accountable in their function have driven the introduction of new benchmarks and indicators for learning and teaching, new educational standards, new assessment for learning outcomes and curricula amendments. Hence, diverse shapes of consequential accountability have arisen where increasing the quality of education and school performance are intimately related to the procedure of promotion, financing and accreditation (Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002). However, Dale (2005) argued that rising pressure on students, teachers and school leaders has not produced the development so anticipated; rather, it has placed pressure on schools to perform in line with the trends or standards imposed in a top-down manner, creating a culture of anxiety and disappointment, and resulting in a lack of focus on student learning.

In addition to the assertion of the importance of productivity, quality and efficiency in education, further educational reform policy has emerged in the form of privatisation (Carnoy et al., 1999; Carnoy & Rhoten, 2002). In general, the process of privatisation relies on the shift in financial support provided by the public sector to that from private corporations. School choice and educational delivery are clear examples of privatisation. The essential case for privatisation, especially in education, is its positive influence on inter-school competition and the extension of school accountability in order to achieve high-quality schooling (ibid). Carnoy and Rhoten (2002) argued that school choice is just one element in motivating school leaders and teachers to develop the quality of their schools. Alternatively, the expansion of private education, as some see it, is to reduce public expenses due to education rather than improving school quality (Dale, 2005). Ball (2003); Dale (2005) argued that the expertise of privatising education, along with cost-effectiveness, has been an important, whilst passive influence on the human right to education, where affordability and accessibility are an obstacle for some people, and thus negatively affects the quality of education. In several parts of the world, the Right to Education (2018) organisation reports that inequality in education has been aggravated by the increase of unregulated private suppliers of education, with economics or wealth becoming the most significant standard of access to educational quality.

Moreover, education has become a prominent subject because the expanding global adoption of competitiveness has left education to become intimately related to the development of the economy and technology (Stromquist & Monkman, 2014). Currently, education acts, in the global imagination, as an element in the economic competitiveness of states and is considered an incontrovertible pathway to enhanced social mobility (ibid). Such thinking can be seen in developed countries where the difference in income between someone with a university

education and a high school education is increasing (OECD, 2012; Stromquist & Monkman, 2014). In the most cases, the increase in higher education has been the result of individual desire (Carnoy, 2011). Accordingly, this increase has driven considerable distinction, and thus that those who are incapable of qualifying for the more established universities are able to join the rising number of second-tier private or minimally selective colleges (ibid). on the other hand, there is a considerable trend among Saudi students to enrol in higher education. Although studying in Saudi public universities is free for Saudi citizens, the number of applicants is unaffordable. Therefore, the Ministry of Education provided an opportunity to enrol in international universities, as the King Abdullah Scholarship Programme for External Scholarships worldwide was launched in 2005, allowing students to study for Bachelor's, Master's and PhD degrees (Alamri, 2011; Razeq & Coyner, 2013).

This section has addressed globalisation, its theories, culture versus economy and globalisation and education from many perspectives. The following section will introduce the Saudi Arabian context to the reader, where its educational reforms and practices and its attempts to form a comprehensive picture for its context will be discussed.

2.3 Saudi Arabia

The aim of this part is to highlight educational policies and practices particularly in Saudi Arabia in order to assess the context of this study. This section is divided into two main parts: first, it indicates briefly the Saudi's geographic nature, culture in both urban and rural context and Saudi's economy; while, second, it discusses the current educational system in the Arabia including public education schools, education reform and Saudi Arabia's vision 2030 particularly that is related to education system.

2.3.1 The Geographic Nature and population information

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is located in the south-west of Asia among the Arabian Gulf and the Red Sea (Alajmi, 2016). It also considers the largest country in the Middle East and 14th largest state in the world where it occupies 868,730 square miles and roughly four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula (Alajmi, 2016; Industrial Clusters, 2019). The Kingdom borders United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain and the Arabian Gulf, Kuwait to the east, Iraq and Jordan to the north, the Red Sea Coastline to the west and Yemen and Oman to south (Alajmi, 2016). Saudi Arabia is divided additionally into thirteen regions in which each region is divided into several governorates, including its capital city Riyadh. According to the General Authority for Statistics in KSA (2018), the total population of the Arabia is over 33 Million as of 2018,

including approximately 12.6 Million non-Saudi Arabian citizens. The population is comparatively young, more than half of Saudi nationals is under the age of 26 while only 4% of the total population is in 65 and over age group. The population resides in urban areas at least is 78% (Algahtani et al., 2017) (Please see figure 2: 3 below)



Figure 2:3 Map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, from (General Commission for Survey, 2018), translated by the researcher.

The history of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was divided into three main stages or historical periods. During the period of (1745-1818) the First Saudi state was founded by Prince Mohammed bin Saud after several wars with the Ottoman Empire. Some of the reasons for emergence of the state were cultural influences, which were rejected by people, and the neglect of developing the Arabian Peninsula by the Ottoman Empire as well as its preoccupation with the wars in Europe. In 1818, after many wars with the Ottomans, the first Saudi state was fallen. After that, in 1822, the Second Saudi State was re-founded by Prince Turki bin Abdullah bin

Saud, however, the state did not last long until it fell again by internal conflicts in 1891 (Bowen, 2014). Finally, the current Kingdom was divided into five main regions namely Najd, the central region, Hail, the northern region, Hijaz, the western region, Al Hasa, the eastern region, Asir, the southern region, which were formed by King Abdul Aziz Ibn Saud in 1932 (Wynbrandt, 2010).

2.3.2 The Economy

After the unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia by King Abdul Aziz ibn Saud, the state was suffering from severe poverty and lack of industrial development. Most of the population in country at that time was farmers and nomadic herders (Bedouins: people who drive their goats, camels and sheep across the desert expanses in order to find a water) (Simmons, 2006). However, in March 1938, oil was discovered at a depth of 1.440 metres in the Saudi's western region (OPEC, 2017). This discovery has completely boomed the economy in the Arabia to begin new era in pursuit of development. By the beginning of 1970s, Saudi has become one of the most influential countries around the world and has played an essential role globally in political events and economic activities (Simmons, 2006). Noteworthy, the Kingdom is considered one of the countries with largest reserves of oil in the world (25% of the world's reserves), making it an attractive environment for foreign investment (Saudi National Portal, 2017). Therefore, the internal migration of villagers and nomadic herders from rural and deserted areas to more urbanised regions has increased which provide many career opportunities whether in the governmental sector or private sector, leading to a decline in the field of breeding stock and agriculture (Al-Fozan, 1997; Simmons, 2006).

Oil is not only source that Saudi Arabia is relied on for its economy, but its geology and size make it also rich in other different natural sources (Saudi National Portal, 2017). The east region contains a comprehensive sedimentary formations that produce industrial minerals, for instance, mica, salt, gypsum, feldspar and sulphur (Industrial Clusters, 2019). A main source of basic and precious minerals, such as iron, chromium, silver, gold, copper, lead, tungsten, zinc, aluminium, manganese, and tin, are contained in the Arabian Shield which is in the west of the country (ibid). It has additionally 25% of the world's reserves in highly prized rare earth elements e.g. niobium and tantalum (Industrial Clusters, 2019).

Oil is still the fundamental product for Saudi Arabia and the global price of oil might affect directly the economic growth in the Arabian (Thompson, 2018). Belloumi and Alshehry (2018) argue that in order to support the economy in Saudi Arabia, the nature of foreign and domestic

investments should be given more attention by the Saudi government. Diversifying the economic activities also must be taken into account by the Arabian to be more free from the oil rents (Belloumi & Alshehry, 2018). Recently, the Kingdom attempt to create an attractive investment environment which reflects traditions of liberal through opening its market, making free trade and reducing regulation (Industrial Clusters, 2019; Saudi National Portal, 2017).

2.3.3 The Culture

This section discusses the Saudi Arabia culture in general which can be shared in both urban and rural context. It will focus on the present contemporary cultural norms have not been documented and it will be discussed by the researcher. The study also will refer to several sources for drawing a clear picture for the Saudi culture and making the context more understandable.

The culture of Saudi Arabia is considered as a rich one because it has been formed by its Islamic legacy, the tribal system (the traditions of Bedouin), its modernisation and its historical character as an ancient trade centre (Abdullah et al., 2006; The Embassy of Saudi Arabia in USA, 2019). In the Islamic world, the Kingdom occupied a distinctive place where the two Holy cities are located (Abdullah et al., 2006). The religious system acts as an essential force in determining traditions, privileges, obligations, practices of society and social norms (ibid). Simultaneously, tribal system is apparent clearly and has its special tribal traditions which might be contravene occasionally with the religious system. Therefore, both systems have influenced and played a central role in defining the Saudi's culture (ibid).

However, the Saudi Arabian government attempts to promote modernisation through importing expertise from all over the world in order to transform the country to modernity (Abdullah et al., 2006). Although the Saudi has adopted traditions of liberal in its economy, its technology, its healthcare and education system and other public sector services, the Arabian has tried to preserve the values of Islamic and Arabic civilization (ibid). Also, in 2005, the Saudi King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud has launched King Abdullah Scholarship Program that is opened for a huge number of Saudi' students from different academic levels and diverse areas in the Kingdom (Taylor & Albasri, 2014). One of this programme objective is to understand other cultures and define the Saudi's culture to the other world (ibid). After a decade, the number of returned students has become considerable, and they are distributed to universities and other public and private sectors. Thus, this process has created another force that influence significantly the Saudi's society where some values and norms of the western and eastern

cultures and other ideologies, such as neoliberalism, have integrated with the Saudi's culture in several people (Taylor & Albasri, 2014).

Arabic is the official language that is used in all public sectors and the language that is spoken in all regions in Saudi Arabia (ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). It is considered important in Saudi society because it is the language of the Holy Quran. The Arabic language is not only of religious significance, but it is also used in poetry, literature and narrating historical events. However, in recent years, English language has become important and considering the second language (ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Hospitality and generosity are of the values of the Saudi society, which is deemed one of the most important inherited (Alhammedi, 2018). Where the society in general urges generosity and hospitality and rejects the idea of stinginess and not to provide assistance to other when possible (ibid). These values are engaged by all classes in the Saudi society even many poets are making poems about them. Hence, there are many poets who praise a decent and hospitable people, and they have a special status by their actions.

Family is also a significant valued portion of Saudi society and its importance can be realised from non-educated to high educated people in all kind of living whether urban and rural (Aldraehim et al., 2012). Interestingly, family in Saudi can be divided into two parts, the small family which contain mother, father and sibling, the large family refers to relatives and clan. The Arabian culture and the Islamic religion converge into the importance of family. Individuals are anticipated to provide assistance when needed and have good relations with their relatives. Therefore, several people may feel more secure through commitment and attachment to their families particularly when such an interdependence in a network of relationships is provided (Aldraehim et al., 2012).

Recently, social media has become one of the most important means used which has greatly influenced Saudi's culture (Al-Saggaf & Simmons, 2015). Saudi Arabia as part of the world is heavily affected by the revolution of modern technology that has led to the spread of smart devices and to the significant of internet in urban areas (ibid). There are many traditions of Saudi society have broken, and some behaviours and values have been introduced from other cultures. The circulation of events whether at internal or external level in the society has become very accelerated, where the traditions of the past may collide with society or events might correspond with the majority to become the subject of the state. Both Saudi internal and the global might be impacted by those events. Noteworthy, after government turned to e-

government, all public and private sectors utilise social media to provide e-services and to communicate directly with all segments of society (Abdullah et al., 2006).

2.3.4 Saudi Vision 2030

“Our vision: Saudi Arabia...the heart of the Arab and Islamic worlds, the investment powerhouse, and the hub connecting three continents” (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018)

In April 2016, the kingdom of Saudi Arabia announce its vision 2030 which was placed to enter a new transformation phase (Alyamani, 2016). In terms of strong thriving and stable Saudi, the vision 2030 is looking forward to provide opportunities for all (Alyamani, 2016). This vision is also relied on three main themes namely vibrant society, thriving economy and ambitious nation (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). Firstly, to promote the concept of a vibrant society, the vision considers the family as the vital building block. It acts as a sanctuary for children and the primary provider of their needs by protecting them from social collapse across generations. The vision seeks to modernise the social welfare systems to make it more efficient, empowering, and fair by supporting the provision of fuel, water, electricity, and the internet services to all urban and rural areas and providing subsidies to those in need. Also, the Saudi vision 2030 has several contributions in education sector that is considered an important factor to achieve successful future generation. One of those programmes is “Irtiqaa”, the Saudi school inspection programme that was established in 2020 in order to develop the engagement of parents in their children’s education (ibid). This programme also trains teachers to increase their awareness of the significance of communicating with parents and prepare them with efficient approaches to do so successfully. Secondly, one of the objectives under the theme of a thriving economy is learning for working as it seeks to invest in education and training to equip young women and men for future jobs. The vision strives to ensure Saudi children, wherever they are, enjoy a high-quality and multi-faceted education. The country will invest particularly in developing early childhood education, improving the national curricula and training educational leaders and teachers. Moreover, the vision 2030 will be highly interrelated with both economic growth and education by closing the gap among the outcomes of higher education and job market requirement, developing the education system, helping students to make the appropriate decisions and requalifying and facilitating transitions among different educational pathways (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). Thus, the National Labour Gateway (TAQAT) was launched, and sectoral councils were established to accurately define the knowledge and skills demanded by each socio-economic sector (ibid). Thirdly, a set of objectives falls under the theme of an ambitious nation that seeks to improve government

performance and services, diversify sources of revenue away from oil, and empower non-profit organisations. For example, one of the goals aligned with education is effective e-government which is concerned with supporting and developing e-learning all around the Kingdom (ibid). The vision urges expanding existing online services to include such as geographic information on rural and urban areas, healthcare, and education. Another objective is being responsible to society as it believes that the values of giving, empathy, cooperation, and compassion are firmly entrenched in Saudi culture. The Saudi government will directly support programmes with the highest social impact and help employees' and students' training to enhance volunteering and careers in the non-profit sector (ibid). This will ensure the non-profit industry is promoted and more efficient in vital sectors such as healthcare, education, housing, and social and cultural programmes (ibid).

Through these three themes, it can be said that Vision 2030 is comprehensive for all regions in Saudi Arabia, whether rural or urban and it urges state institutions and ministries, including the Ministry of Education, to comply with Vision 2030 by improving education, knowing the obstacles, challenges and problems facing schools wherever they are, and exploiting opportunities and strengths to improve the educational process and system. Also, oil is the country's primary revenue source, which depends on supply and demand in light of the global trend of renewable energy. Building long-term strategic plans with massive investment projects is complicated by an unstable income (Bryson, 2018). Undoubtedly, Saudi Arabia seeks to diversify sources of revenue, support and enhance internal and external investments, and adopt a liberal market policy, which in turn requires the Ministry of Education to bridge the gap between the labour market and its outcomes. Therefore, the ministry must pay attention to all its outputs, whether in rural or urban areas, because they are one of the most critical factors for success of this vision.

One of the issues with implementing the vision successfully is that there is very little research evidence on rural education in the country, so it is not known what the key issues are that need to be addressed. This is why the research described here is so important as it will be the first main study to explore issues related to leading and managing schools in rural locations in KSA. Thus, it will provide key implications for policy makers to take into consideration when attempting to meet the aims of the vision statement.

In relation to gender, Vision 2030 believes that Saudi women are a great asset, as they constitute more than 50% of the graduates of Saudi universities (Saudi Vision 2030, 2018). The

government will continue to invest in their productive capabilities, develop their talent, and enable them to enhance their future and contribute to the development of Saudi society and economy (ibid). Therefore, the Saudi government has made many reforms related to women in laws and regulations to keep pace with the directions of its vision. For instance, a number of rights and responsibilities have been established on an equal footing between women and men by the labour law in order to stop discrimination within the framework of work (UNP, 2022). These include full equality in the search for work aid and in training programmes in order to obtain work, and equal pay in the event of equal value and quality of work (ibid). Additionally, it is essential to point out that the educational system in Saudi Arabia is fundamentally based on equality between women and men in all of its aspects, including enrolment mechanisms and admission, exams, curricula, and the qualifications of lecturers and teachers, as well as the quality of study facilities and equipment (ibid). In fact, women have received more attention in this regard, such as positive discrimination, particularly with the continued establishment of several university cities of girls, such as King Saud University, Imam Muhammad bin Saud University, and Princess Noura bint Abdulrahman University (ibid). Although the equality in grants and subsidies provides educational and training opportunities for both genders on an equal footing and by the exact legal requirements related to admission procedures, the percentage of scholarships targeting females has increased significantly, whether concerning the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques foreign scholarships or with regard to internal scholarships in Saudi universities (ibid). These reforms also included equality in health care and the amendment of many regulations and laws to guarantee women's rights, such as complete freedom in covering the face, the abolition of travelling with approval from their guardians, childcare, marriage, etc (ibid).

2.3.5 Education in Saudi Arabia

The education in Saudi Arabia is a recent relatively established where it has gone through an astonishing transformation. The Saudi government established the Directorate of Education in 1925, in order to manage the public system (Alghamdi, 2018). Therefore, education was available to certain people who were living in the major cities as well as the children of wealth families had more chances to be educated than others. In 1953, the Ministry of Education was instituted which has been tasked to supervise both public and private education sectors (Assiri, 2015). Since then, the Ministry of Education has exerted efforts to eliminate illiteracy among citizens. More than 90% of the Arabian population in 1950 were estimated as illiterates, while, by the end of 2011, this proportion was considerably diminished to attain less than 14%

(Alghamdi, 2018). Another accomplishment can be noted in terms of the total percentage of student enrolment. The ratio of enrolment in primary education, for instance, has increased dramatically from 82% in 1990s to reach to 99% by 2009 (Alghamdi, 2018).

This section will discuss the education system in Saudi Arabia, including reference to the decentralisation of the Saudi school system. Rural, semi-rural and urban context have the same education system: thus, the next few paragraphs will introduce education in the Saudi context in general.

2.3.5.1 The Education System in Saudi Arabia

Since the Ministry of Education has been established in the mid-twentieth century, the government of Saudi Arabia has prioritised development of the education sector. While the government has strived to support the education sector infrastructure by spreading schools in all regions of the Kingdom whether in urban areas or in semi-rural and rural areas, the Ministry of Education established teacher colleges and universities around Saudi in order to prepare qualified teachers (MoE, 2018a). This sort of development has not been exclusively confined by the government sector, but the private sector has also participated in supporting education sector (SaudiAramco, 2014). Saudi Aramco, for example, is a Saudi natural gas and national petroleum company, was signed an agreement between representatives of the government and Saudi Aramco in order to build schools which has reached to around 139 by 2005 (SagSchools, 2019).

The discovery of oil plays a major role in the prosperity of economy in Saudi Arabia which help greatly investing in the education sector. Recently, Khatib (2011) argues the relationship among oil revenue and government expenditures on education in Saudi Arabia. The study illustrates that the growth in oil revenue among 1975 and 2007 had resulted to a relatively strong growth in investing in education and human resource development (ibid). Also, the budget for education has climbed since 2000, which indicate the importance of education within the state to develop outputs to match the needs of the labour market and attempting to obtain a space in the global competition for development (Aljughaiman & Grigorenko, 2013; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Thus, in 2012 and 2013, the amount allocated for education was 25 per cent of the total Saudi budget (Ramady, 2013), while free education from kindergarten to tertiary school is offered by the government of Saudi Arabia (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). During years, the allocated budgets have spent in several needs for developing education such as providing technological equipment, books for public schools and professional development for

teachers and staff (Alsharif, 2011). Moreover, the outcomes of such expenditures can be realised in the ratio of teacher to students, 1: 11.5, and school to students 1: 165.2 (Please see Table 2: 1 below).

	Gender/Total	Primary School	Secondary School	High School	Total
Schools	Female	7,805	4,336	3,059	15,200
	Male	7,958	4,734	3,264	15,956
	Total	15,763	9,070	6,323	31,156
Students	Female	1,410,975	587,041	562,140	2,560,156
	Male	1,388,628	612,887	587,141	2,588,656
	Total	2,799,603	1,199,928	1,149,281	5,148,812
Teachers	Female	122,730	56,576	55,398	234,704
	Male	111,604	53,668	49,612	214,884
	Total	234,334	110,244	105,010	449,588
Teacher: Students= 1: 11.5		School: Students= 1: 165.2			

Table 2:1 Statistical Information of general Education in Saudi Arabia (MoE, 2015).

The number of rural schools constitutes about 10% of the total number of 31 thousand. The Ministry of Education also provides financial support as an allowance for the employees of those schools, as it is estimated according to the geographical isolation of the school and its distance from the nearest city (MOE, 2020b). On the other hand, the Saudi government provides financial support to students and their families to encourage them to complete their education and help meet some of their needs (MoE, 2020a).

Additionally, the government of Saudi Arabia understood that investment in education with the connected infrastructure is crucial for any developing country in order to thrive in a knowledgeable economy (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2014). Therefore, this extensive investment particularly in education is significant where the Arabian prepare the next generation to cover the needs of the labour market (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2014).

However, with all of these expenditures and numbers, there is still a mismatch among outcomes from the educational system in Saudi and labour force needs (Baqadir et al., 2011). Alsarhani (2005) demonstrates that the fundamental cause for the demand-supply mismatch in the state is because of a lack of advancement in training and education before the oil's discovery, and a resultant consideration of education as unconnected to labour demands. The capability for

training and education within the Arabian education system has been increased, even though the amount of unemployment between Saudi nationals has climbed rather than reduced and the problem of recognised skills mismatch continues (ibid). Therefore, the Saudi vision 2030 is targeting to cover the gap among private sector and the education system by establishing several programmes to construct the skills of unemployed youth to access to the labour market and to lower the rate of unemployment from 11.6 to 7% by 2030 (Alshuwaikhat & Mohammed, 2017).

The education system in Saudi Arabia is influenced by the revolution of technology. According to Communications and Information Technology Commission, internet prevalence has increased at a high rate over the past years, rising from 64% in 2014 to 82% at the end of 2017. This reflects the number of internet users in the Kingdom which is estimated at over 26 million (CITC, 2017). Thus, the Ministry of Education has transformed all its internal and external transactions into e-system (MoE, 2017a). Also, they provides websites for e-books with many exercises for students and e-services for stakeholders to communicate directly with the Ministry (MoEebook, 2019; Tawasul, 2019). However, all of these services require more time to be comprehensively recognised with taking into account individuals who do not utilise the internet services.

2.3.5.2 The Ministry of Education: System and roles

The ministry of education was divided into two ministries namely, the Ministry of higher education and the Ministry of education (MoE, 2018a). In 2015, both ministries were merged into one entity in order to boost educational standards, bridge the gap among the two ministries and improve educational outcomes (Tago, 2015). Therefore, this merger has created a comprehensive organizational structure that includes the whole educational system (MoE, 2019). The organisational structure of the Ministry of Education shows the decision-making distribution in which minister, deputy minister, minister assistant and agencies participate in issuing an important decision (MoE, 2019). Also, each agency comprises specialised departments in certain tasks that communicates with other outside departments in all around the Saudi.

All public and private schools are managed and led by education departments throughout Saudi. According to Education Departments' Secretariat, there are 46 education departments around the Kingdom which are considered the link between the Ministry of Education and schools (Amanah, 2018). The organisational structure of all departments is similar so that there

is a director of the department, assistants, administrative staff and educational staff (supervisors). Also, certain departments of education include a number of education offices because of the size of the region and the number of schools affiliated to that department (Amanah, 2018).

Previously, the Ministry of Education had highly centralised system where decision was created from the top level and then passed down to schools (Alzaidi, 2008). In fact, it is not only responsible for setting curriculum, printing and distributing books and recruiting teachers and staff, but it was also responsible for governing schools, establishing roles and responsibilities and assigning school principals (Alhammadi, 2018; Almutairi, 2017). The centralised system was an obstacle for school leaders and the education departments. Therefore, the Ministry of Education has made several changes in which both the education departments and schools' leaders have been provided with more authorities and responsibilities (Almutairi, 2017). In 2016, the Ministry of Education has decided empowering school leaders in decision-making and giving them more flexibility in taking appropriate action in order to raise the efficiency of schools (MoE, 2016). For example, school leaders are able to cooperate with private sector to run school programmes that are consistent with educational goals (ibid). These efforts have not only been connected to facilitating and alleviating the work of the Ministry, but also to improving the system and its outputs to adjust with globalisation and its competitive nature (Alhammadi, 2018). However, Almutairi (2017) argues that such efforts to empower and decentralise school leaders and education departments might be confronted by the broadly structural bureaucratic policy and procedure which leave both of them to face administrative quagmires.

2.3.5.3 Education Levels in Saudi Arabia

The education in Saudi Arabia can be divided into three levels that are in line with education all over the global. (Please see Table 2: 2 below)

Levels	Stages	Grades	Ages
Level One	Preschool	Kindergarten	3-6
Level Two	Primary	Six years of study (1-6)	6-12
	Intermediate	Three years of study (7-9)	12-15
	Secondary	Three years of study	15-18

		(10-12)	
Level Three	Postsecondary- University	Bachelor's degree, Master's degree and Doctoral degree	

Table 2:1 Levels of Education in Saudi Arabia (Alshaqiti, 2018; MoE, 2017b)

The first level is preschool, which is named Kindergarten (KG), and it is for children between three-six years old (Alshaqiti, 2018). Although preschool education is considered not compulsory, the Ministry of Education deems it as a preparatory level with separate stage in its structure and curricula (ibid). The second level is general education, which is compulsory and free. It is divided into three stages: the primary stage consists of six years of study and the students begin at this stage for six-year-old (MoE, 2017b). Intermediate stage consists of three years of study. The secondary stage consists of three stages of study, supervised by the Ministry of Education. The third levels is higher education including Bachelor's degree, Master's degree and Doctoral degree (MoE, 2017b). The Ministry of Education oversees the stages of university education where Saudi Arabia has a number of public and private universities and is estimated at more than 50 universities (MoE, 2017b).

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter discusses globalisation and the controversy over its concept and definition. Then, it touched on the underlying theories of globalisation namely, neoliberalism, world-systems analysis, world culture theory, and the role of Saudi Arabia in them. After that, it argued between the global economy and privatisation and their effects on the culture of countries and societies. In addition, this chapter discusses the influences of globalisation on education by urging decentralisation and the participation of international organisations. Finally, this chapter describes the context of this study, which is the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, in terms of its geographical location, economic situation, culture, Vision 2030, and education system.

The next chapter deals with reviewing the literature and an explanation of the theoretical framework for this study, as it is based on three interrelated concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. The next chapter will also discuss each concept separately to paint a clear picture for the reader.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In recent decades, there have been a few studies of rural schools in the Western context and in some developing countries (Cleveland et al., 2011; Harmon & Schafft, 2009; Mestry & Singh, 2007). However, it seems that rural schools are suffering globally from the lack of published research in compared with their urban and suburban counterparts over a range of reform dimensions (Barrett et al., 2015).

This study aims to provide an insight into the experiences and perceptions of school leaders and teachers in Saudi rural schools from different research perspectives. In order to develop new theoretical insights into Saudi rural schools, this study adopts a conceptual framework based on the interrelationships between three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. Thus, the purpose of this chapter is to discuss the key concepts that provide the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The chapter critically reviews the literature linked to each of the key concepts in turn and concludes by highlighting the study's key research questions that emanate from the review.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study has been developed based on three key concepts. While these concepts individually can provide a sound understanding of the nature of rural schools, there are interconnections which occur between them (Figure 2:1) which provide an original analytical framework to explore the research problem.

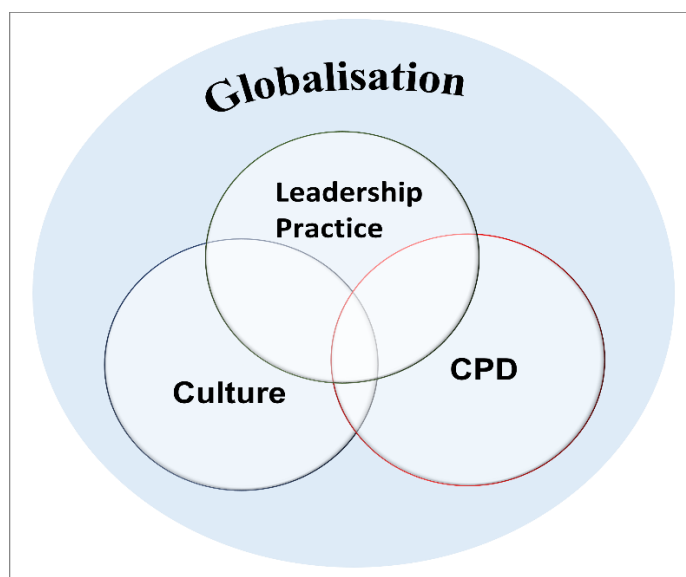


Figure 3:1 The three interconnected concepts

Firstly, it has been assumed that school leadership is based on three dimensions: influence, values and vision (Bush et al., 2019). The influence occurs between the school leadership and staff in mutual way (Lussier & Achua, 2015), consequently, school leadership can be considered as the second only to classroom teaching (Leithwood et al., 2019). In other words, school leadership has influences on the entire school, including teachers, the administrative team and students. These influences also generate values through a particular culture that is created by leadership practice (Hallinger, 2005; Leithwood et al., 2019). In addition, school leadership practice comprises communication, maintaining a healthy and safe environment, monitoring amongst others. However, one of the most important leadership practices is to create a clear and shared vision for the school that is obtained through the achievement of several goals. These goals include building a collaborative culture and stimulating professional development for school staff (Bush et al., 2019; Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2019).

Secondly, this study draws on the concept of culture at both a macro and micro level of analysis. Culture consists of values and beliefs gained from global, national and local experiences and practices (Crane et al., 2016). The school especially has its own culture which can be positive and create an atmosphere of cooperation among school members (Deal & Peterson, 2016). School culture promotes school effectiveness, productivity, effort, innovation, improvement, communication, and problem solving (Barnett & O'Mahony, 2006; Fullan, 2011; Jerald, 2006; Leithwood et al., 2004; Tytler, 2009). It also improves collaboration, commitment, motivation, energy, trust and vitality (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Thus, school culture is considered as one of the key functions in order to develop CPD and leadership practice (bidi). However, in order to understand the organisational culture of the school, we have to understand how local, national and even global culture impacts and contributes to this either positively or negatively.

Continuing professional development is the third concept which embrace all school staff (Ng & Chan, 2014). It helps to create a collaborative environment that develops the staff personally, professionally and socially that occur formally or informally (Bubb & Earley, 2007). School leaders and teachers can be developed professionally through practising professional knowledge and developing professional learning communities (Grossman & McDonald, 2008; Vescio et al., 2008). Therefore, good professional development programmes do not only help in improving school leaders, teachers and consequently students, but it also enhances a supportive school culture (Kochan et al., 2002).

3.2.1 Leadership practice

The concept of leadership is controversial and has multiple definitions, yet there is no agreed-upon definition (Bush & Glover, 2003). Yukl (2010, p. 8) argues that 'the definition of leadership is arbitrary and subjective, and some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no single correct definition'. However, Cuban (1988) previously links leadership with influencing actions of others in order to initiate change to achieve a desirable ends, as such, the leader is able to shape motivations, others' actions and goals. Hence, leadership is seen as an influence relationship and the ability to encourage support and confidence between individuals in an organisation to achieve real changes and outputs which reflect their shared purposes (Daft, 2014; DuBrin, 2015), while others describe leadership by indication to two essential functions namely providing direction function and exercising influence function (Louis, Dretzke, et al., 2010). However, three dimensions of school leadership are identified as a basis to develop a useful definition according to Bush and Middlewood (2013) which will be adopted by this study. These are:

Leadership as influence:

A social influence process is reflected in many definitions of leadership in which intentional influence is 'exerted over other people to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization' (Bush & Glover, 2014; Yukl, 2010, p. 3). Bush and Glover (2014) assert that there are key aspects of the definitions of leadership whereby they consider remarkably influence is the central concept rather than authority. Consequently, the process is intentional, and influence can be exercised mutually among individuals or groups that support the concept of distributed leadership (Bush & Glover, 2014). This is also in line with Daft's view of leadership so that influence occurs among people in multidirectional and non-coercive ways, but it is not also passive (Daft, 2014). Thus, Lussier and Achua (2015, p. 6) emphasise that the influencing process between individuals or groups in an organisation is not just 'a leader influencing followers', it also must be as 'a two-way street' in which leadership is shared.

Leadership and values:

Leadership is usually based on steadfast professional and personal values (Bush & Glover, 2014). For instance, Wasserberg (1999) believes that the key role of a leader is the ability to unify people around fundamental values. While there are a wide range of diverse values and a world of changing values, Gerhard Huber (2004) stresses the importance of the development

for educational leadership which must be relied on as a values-centred paradigm that reflects moral dimensions of leadership in a democratic society (values e.g. fairness, reflective and careful use of power and equality). Another study conducted by Intxausti et al. (2016) asserts that the common element in most of highly effective schools is when the school has a clear idea of values, mission and principles. However, Bush (2008) argues that the dominant policies and values can be influenced by government, as a consequence, this could centralise and control unfavourably the education system.

Leadership and vision:

For more than a decade, vision has been considered as vital element of effective leadership (Bush & Glover, 2014). Leadership encompasses embedding, articulating and developing a vision for an organisation (Bush & Middlewood, 2013). Fullan (1988, p. 35) asserts that to ensure a school operates effectively, it needs to have a shared vision which is about ‘the content of the school as it might become, and the nature of the change process that will get us there’. Recently, Leithwood and Sun (2012) considered the shared vision is one of the most powerful leadership practices that influence the school culture. Thus, leadership is able to be successful, when the vision is particular to the school and embedded in the organisation (Bush & Middlewood, 2013).

Through definitions and dimensions of school leadership, the process of improving schools is enhanced directly and indirectly by leadership practice and its distribution (shared/distributed leadership) (Day & Sammons, 2013). The next section discusses the school leadership practice from different perspectives in order to understand how these practices occur and why they are significant.

3.2.1.1 School leadership practice:

Schools and their leaders must adapt to, react to, or support social, cultural, and economic developments and changes since schools are embedded in their communities and the specific national educational system embedded in a specific society (Huber & Pashiardis, 2009). Thus, selecting and developing appropriate people for a school leadership position is essential (Huber & Pashiardis, 2009). Huber and Hiltmann (2010) reviewed the literature for the selection and recruitment of school leaders on an international scale, as they presented a summary from five countries: England, Germany, Singapore, Australia, and United States. They highlighted some similarities and differences, namely, firstly, the general approach to selecting school a leader ranges from a decentralised approach (as England and United States, where the responsibility

rests with the school) to centralised approach (as in Singapore and most German states, where the Ministry is responsible). Secondly, numerous countries use framework conceptualisations or job profiles from standards, or some are only shaped by school regulations and laws in which the role of the school leader is described. Thirdly, the sine qua non-prerequisite in most countries for applying to be a school leader is having some teaching experience and a teaching qualification. Fourthly, the selection methods used to vary widely as Singapore, England, and United States rely almost on interviews, while in most German states, the emphasis is on formal criteria indicating abilities (Huber & Hiltmann, 2010). However, Doyle and Locke (2014) studied the challenges in recruiting school principals in United states urban areas. This study found that the position of school leader is a stressful job and that they do not receive good salaries, which in turn reduces the desire for this position (Doyle & Locke, 2014). Also, there is not a lot of strategic thought involved in identifying talent, and hiring rubrics do not collect much information that shows a candidate's past effectiveness in improving student achievements (Doyle & Locke, 2014). In addition, Loeb et al. (2010) investigated the distribution of principals across schools by using longitudinal data from a large school district. They found that principals in schools with large populations of low-achieving pupils and low-income have lower education, experience levels, and college selectivity (Loeb et al., 2010). On the other hand, despite the scarcity of studies on recruiting school leaders in rural areas, Wood et al. (2013) conducted a study on problems in recruiting and retaining rural principals. The study concluded that rural schools face challenges regarding the lack of recruitment and retention due to distance from professional growth, geographical isolation, and salary limitations (Wood et al., 2013). the research described in this thesis targets rural schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia from three perspectives: leadership practice, culture, and CPD. Since little is known about Saudi rural schools study seeks to understand the challenges facing rural schools in terms of recruiting and retaining leaders and the experiences of the leaders who are recruited.

Additionally, there are several practices of school leadership that can be found since it is considered as the second to classroom teaching as an impact on student learning (Bush et al., 2019; Leithwood et al., 2019). Although school leadership has many competing and alternative models (Bush et al., 2019), Day and Sammons (2013) assert that instructional and transformational leadership styles are considered as the best fit with concepts of the types of collective leadership which are unavoidable in schools of the twenty-first century. However, one of the perspectives of this study is based on understanding the practice of school leadership

in rural schools in Saudi Arabia. This study takes into account the significant of understanding how school leadership is practised among these styles, while there are debates among instructional and transformational leadership styles and what may work better (Stewart, 2006). Therefore, such practices will be identified and discussed in order to develop a clear picture of the effective practice of school leadership.

Hallinger (2005, p. 225) suggests three dimensions: ‘defining the school’s mission, managing the instructions programme and promoting a positive school learning climate’, that school leaders can use to improve teaching and learning as the core actions of educational institutions (Bush et al., 2019; Hallinger & Lee, 2014). Firstly, in defining the school’s mission processes: the school leader needs to frame clear goals and communicate those goals with school staff in order to guarantee that the school has measurable and obvious goals and a mission which concentrate on the learning progress of pupils (Hallinger & Lee, 2014). Secondly, managing the teaching programme: the focuses in this stage is on controlling and coordinating teaching, which comprises three functions of school leadership: evaluating and supervising instruction, coordinating the curricula and monitoring the progress of the pupils (Alsaleh, 2019; Hallinger, 2005). Thirdly, promoting a positive learning climate is broader than the previous dimensions in which the school leadership has many functions: specifically, “protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers and providing incentives for learning” (Ng et al., 2015, p. 391). A school leader needs to model values and practices which generate a positive culture and enhance the continuous development of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2005). Therefore, this study addresses the values in rural schools that intertwine with their culture through the experiences of school leaders and teachers.

Alternatively, Leithwood et al. (2008) believe that the central task for school leadership is to assist in developing the performance of employees, which is the activity of employees’ skills and knowledge, working conditions, values, motivations and beliefs. Leithwood et al. (2008); Leithwood et al. (2019); Leithwood and Riehl (2003); Louis, Leithwood, et al. (2010) review a range of literature and conclude with a set of important core leadership practice. They particularly list setting directions; the development of people; redesigning and developing the organisation; and managing the teaching and learning programme. Although these practices are not in any particular order, they symbolise a logical progression of practices where school leaders are able to translate ideas and values into meaningful actions (Jacobson, 2011). Direction setting requires building a shared vision, identifying shared, particular and sort-term

goals and to communicate the goals and vision (Leithwood et al., 2019). Qadach et al. (2020) argued that a shared vision among teachers would reduce their propensity to leave. Therefore, teachers will feel like they are a part of the school when they are involved in forming the school's vision and participate in the school process (Qadach et al., 2020). In order to meet these expectations, developing people is achieved by providing individualised consideration and support, stimulating growth in the professional capabilities of employees, establishing productive working relationship with teachers, modelling the values and practices of schools and building trusting relationships with all stakeholders (Leithwood et al., 2008; Leithwood et al., 2019).

The practice of developing people is to build the collective and personal ability needed to sustain and develop the communities of practice (Jacobson, 2011). It is significant for an educational organisation additionally to be developed and redesigned constantly in order to strengthen and enhance its working conditions which consequently confront challenges and obstacles to success (Jacobson, 2011; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Developing and redesigning the organisation to support desired practice includes building a collaborative culture, distributing leadership, structuring the school to facilitate collaboration, maintaining a healthy and safe school environment, linking the school with its broader environment and allocating resources in a way that can enhance the school's goals and vision (Leithwood et al., 2019). Thus, this practice allows the teacher to give the greater of her/his capacities, commitments and motivations (Leithwood et al., 2008). Finally, managing the instructional programme generates productive working conditions for teachers which includes staffing the curriculum, providing professional support, monitoring pupils' learning and school improvement, (Leithwood et al., 2019). Monitoring in this stage is considered as the essential part of successful leaders according to Leithwood et al. (2008); Leithwood et al. (2019). It is another way to increase employee motivation and obtain high productivity levels. The mentor may be recognised as a role model, mainly when followers more readily identify with the school culture, which enhances the development of trust (Yukl et al., 2002). The mentor provides moral support to employees to promote a feeling of belonging and confidence, a safe and secure environment and self-esteem (Koç, 2011). When leaders construct a mentoring relationship with employees to serve job needs, they develop leadership capacity by understanding the school context and promoting positive relationships with teachers (Peters, 2010).

It is clear from looking at the school leadership practice (Hallinger & Lee, 2014; Leithwood et al., 2019) that there is some agreed practice, such as frames and identifies shared goals.

Leithwood et al. (2019) further added that these goals are directed towards a shared vision. Thus, in order to achieve those goals, school leader and staff must communicate goals which consequently lead to communicate the school's vision. Kurland et al. (2010) conducted a study of the mediate effect of school vision and they collected the data from 1.474 teachers. They found that a vision of the school which is shaped by a school leader and staff is considered an influential motivator for organisational learning (ibid). In Canada, study to determine the degree to which vision influences a student's learning experience (Mombourquette, 2017) found that high-performing schools are led by principals who clearly articulate the vision, mission, and goals that emerge around student learning (Mombourquette, 2017). Additionally, it is clear that Hallinger and Lee (2014); Leithwood et al. (2019) emphasis the vital role of the school leader in motivating teachers. Yalçınkaya et al. (2021) conducted a study investigating the impact of leadership style on teachers' motivation, as it found school leaders play a considerable role in teachers' motivation.

Also, Day et al. (2020) stress the importance of solid organisational trust and communication in order for school leadership to positively influence learning and teaching. Improving daily conversations between principals and teachers support long-term work towards positive school outcomes (Ärlestig, 2008). In the absence of trust and communication between school leaders and their teachers, improvement efforts will be less fruitful (Day et al., 2020). Tyler (2016) investigated the importance of communication in schools and concluded that communication skills are necessary to build trust between school principals and teachers. Effective communication in the school develops relationships with each other and their students, as school unit staff are strengthened (Koula, 2015). It provides school staff with a better view of their responsibilities, and precise arrangements are made regarding the responsibilities of working group or committees (Van Gasse et al., 2016). In contrast, school leaders play an essential role in enhancing parent-school engagement through effective communication (Barr & Saltmarsh, 2014). The involvement of parents in the school is critical, primarily since principals can determine the level of quality of communication between them and teachers and the school administration and encourage them to engage by following the open-door approach, which in turn facilitate their participation (Anastasiou & Papagianni, 2020). In rural areas of the United States, Lin et al. (2014) found that the challenge for parents to involve in school and their children's education is their work schedule. However, rural schools in Saudi Arabia remain little known, which is why this study seeks to investigate leadership practices in those areas.

In addition, distributing leadership in school is a key element, which will be discussed in the next section.

3.2.1.2 Distributed leadership:

In the 21st century, distributed leadership has not only become the popular leadership model, but it has also received empirical support and significant attention among a range of policymakers, practice-based social science disciplines and scholars (Bush & Middlewood, 2013; Klar et al., 2016; Thorpe et al., 2011). On one hand, Robinson (2009) argues that distributed leadership is considered as a descriptive or as a normative concept. In the sense of descriptive, Robinson (2009, p. 237) suggests that it is ‘inevitably distributed across fluid and task-contingent configurations of leaders, followers and aspects of situation’, whereas in the sense of the normative perspective, it can be argued that “distributed leadership is a desirable form of organisational leadership’. On the other hand, Klar et al. (2016, p. 115) end up with defining distributed leadership as a ‘purposeful approach to increasing school effectiveness through the involvement of other formal and informal school leaders in leadership activities’. Day and Sammons (2013); Spillane et al. (2004) point out that the concept of distributed leadership has been obtained from social and cognitive psychology which derive essentially from the theory of distributed cognition and activity. In this sense, distributed leadership is deemed to be as ‘human cognition and experience as integrally bound up with the physical, social and cultural context’ according to Bolden (2011, p. 253). It can be seen as a framework of interactions that is found among school leaders, teachers and situations through sociocultural context, while school leadership is situated in the actions of identifying, acquiring, allocating and coordinating conditions for the probability of learning and teaching using social material and cultural resources (Spillane et al., 2004). Regardless of condition and rank, the shared and collected leadership practice is illustrated by distributed leadership that stresses the interactional social impact which may be exercised or understood by each individual of a specific organisation (Wan et al., 2018). According to Robinson (2008), the nature of distributed leadership includes two basic concepts, the first of which is that distributed leadership is the distribution of tasks that are rooted in theorising leadership as performing specific tasks (Harris, 2013a; Spillane et al., 2004). Secondly, distributed leadership is like the distributed influence operations that emanate from that leadership is ‘an influence process that changes how others think or act with respect to the content of the influence’ (Robinson, 2008, p. 246).

Distributed leadership advocates leadership as the interaction and co-performance of people who may be in formal and informal positions (Harris, 2013b), rather than being accumulated only on a single individual (Storey, 2004). In such practice, the informal leaders can be identified (Mehra et al., 2006), so that the formal leaders play a fundamental role in supporting the informal leadership (Tian et al., 2016). Teachers also are provided with supportive structures to work effectively through professional networking when leadership is distributed (Wan et al., 2018). Thus, this model of leadership also focuses on professional development of the school staff in order to build their capacity to participate in decision making and cultivate a culture of collaboration and continuous improvement. It additionally includes setting directions, providing support and monitoring, building reciprocal approachability among school leaders and teachers, participating in the process of decision-making (Hulpia & Devos, 2010). Also, Tashi (2015) argued that the traditional concept of leadership is one person in charge who is responsible for the entire organisation and who is directly responsible for the success or failure of the school has faded. School leaders who focus on distributed leadership can tap into all the experts in their organisation rather than focusing on formal roles and positions (Harris, 2004).

Through the literature review, several questions have emerged that are linked to this study:

1. How is the school leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA and why?
2. How are the school leaders recruited and retained?
3. How is leadership influenced and influence in those schools?
4. How are the school's vision and values built and why?
5. What are the challenges and the opportunities of leading in rural schools in KSA and why?
6. How does communication occur in rural schools?
7. Which school leadership model is in place (e.g. distributed)?
8. What are the roles of school leadership in developing staff and how?

3.2.2 Culture

There are extensive arguments and debates about defining the notion of culture. Indeed, Alvesson (2012) argues that the concept of culture has not had a fixed or widely agreed meaning, while it can be used by many disciplines in terms of collectively shared forms. This is, for instance, including 'ideas and cognition, as symbols and meanings, as values and

ideologies, as rules and norms, as emotions and expressiveness, as the collective unconscious, as behaviour patterns, structures and practices, etc.’ (Alvesson, 2012, p. 3). Schein and Schein (2017) have classified culture into two categories: macro (global, national, and local cultures), and micro (organisational culture) levels of cultures. On one hand, macro-cultures are nations, ethnic groups, and global occupations that have existed for long time and, as result, have developed very stable elements, or ‘skeletons’, in the form of fundamental languages, concepts, and values (Schein & Schein, 2017). They have also evolved and will continue to grow, primarily due to contact with other cultures (ibid). Nerad (2010) argues that globalisation plays a significant role in contact with other cultures at the macro level due to governments’ efforts to obtain a competitive advantage in the emerging knowledge-based industry. Although globalisation is deemed to be as the diffusion or transmission across national borders, it has its impacts on national and local culture (Crane et al., 2016). The impacts of globalisation on education include accelerated advances in communications and technology, which are anticipated to produce changes in learning systems across the globe as knowledge, values, and ideas alter the roles of teachers and students and cause a shift from an industrialised to an information-based society (Chinnammai, 2005). However, in the case of stagnation of national culture, this is negatively related, as alienation from the national identity may take place (Ergashev & Farxodjonova, 2020). Therefore, national culture must be able to respond to intrusive changes and updates from globalisation, as well as care for self-enrichment and even avert negative consequences (ibid).

These cultures can be reflected through nations (macro level) and organisations (micro level), in which national and organisational cultures may intersect or differ to reflect similarities and differences in some aspects (Schein, 2010). The national culture is seen as a set of shared commonalities of ideology, identity, values, religion, language and /or history among group of individuals (Keillor, 2011). It includes, but not all, the shared meanings of specific nations, unconditional national relationships, immersion in national cultural identity and born into national identity and culture (ibid). Hofstede (2011) introduced a model containing six dimensions of national culture: (1) power distance, linking to the various approaches to the fundamental problem of human inequality; (2) individualism versus collectivism, concerning the incorporation of individuals into fundamental groups; (3) masculinity versus femininity, in relation to the divide between women’s and men’s emotional roles; (4) uncertainty avoidance, linked to a society’s stress level in light of its uncertain future; (5) long-term versus short-term orientation, linked to the option of where to concentrate society’s efforts: the past, the present,

the future; (6) indulgence versus restraint, linked to the gratification of fundamental human desires associated with enjoying life versus control of gratification of needs by strict social norms (Hofstede, 2011; HofstedeInsights, 2022). Lok and Crawford (2004) found out that the national culture can create important moderating influences on leadership and organisational culture particularly in terms of job satisfaction and commitment. An external (exogenous) determining role is played in organisational culture by national culture particularly in the adoption of certain practices (Black, 1999), while Abdullah et al. (2006) point out the importance of taking into account the issues that may occur when the organisation is affected by national culture. In a study conducted by Kim and McLean (2014), the aim was to determine how different national cultural factors influence informal learning in the workplace. This study concluded that professionals in adult education and workplace learning must pay attention to cultural impacts and indigenisation initiatives whenever novel concepts or methods are introduced from outside the nation (Kim & McLean, 2014). Another study examined the links between national culture and student achievement by Fang et al. (2013). This study found that the most important predictors of student achievement are the culture's focus on promoting a long-term orientation to comprise a focus on persistence to achieve future-oriented outcomes and the emphasis on 'secular-rational versus traditional values' (Fang et al., 2013, p. 159). Despite the lack of studies on rural areas, Theobald (1991) studied the national cultural impacts of educational reform movements and how they influenced rural school. The study indicated that national education reforms have been indifferent to the continued presence of rural communities and have therefore failed to meet many of their unique and pressing educational demands (Theobald, 1991).

At the micro level, the organisational culture reflects the significance for individuals of "symbolism of rituals, myths, stories and legends and about the interpretation of events, ideas and experiences", which are shaped and impacted by a group who work in an organisation (Alvesson, 2012, p. 3). While workers take their societal culture to their organisation such as language and customs, the organisational culture impacts their attitudes, expectations, assumptions, values and ethics (Pauleen, 2007). The organisational culture can influence how individuals in an organisation make their personal and professional goals, and how they could practise leadership, perform tasks and manage resources in order to achieve those goals (Lok & Crawford, 2004). In other words, it can impact the way individuals perceive, act, feel, create decisions and think consciously and subconsciously (ibid). Although there are several researchers on organisational culture propose types, forms or models of cultures (Denison,

1990; Hofstede, 1980; Martin & Siehl, 1983; Martins & Terblanche, 2003). Schein (2010) classifies comprehensively the culture in an organisation into three levels which initiate from the very visible to the more tacit and invisible. First of all, artifacts create the surface and visible signs of an organisation that can be seen and felt e.g. language, technology, style of clothing, the visible behaviours and the felt processes and structures in the organisation (Horsford, 2010; Schein, 2010). This level of culture is easy to observe, but it is also complicated to decipher (Schein, 2010). Secondly, the next level is espoused beliefs and values, for instance, the goals, values, conscious strategies, ideals, aspirations, rationalisations, ideologies (Schein, 2010). In this level, beliefs and values are seen as a key piece of the organisational philosophy (Horsford, 2010), as such, leadership can play a major role in identifying and making solutions of issues, tasks or problems and additionally during the process of transforming and adopting values and beliefs which may become ultimately as shared assumptions (Schein, 2010). Thirdly, the core or essence of organisational culture is addressed by the basic underlying assumptions such as determine feelings, thoughts, behaviours and perception (Schein, 2010). Values and beliefs are unconsciously taken for granted and are neither debated, or confronted which make them so difficult to change (Horsford, 2010). Thus, these three levels can explain and produce the status to understanding the manner of why individuals in organisation do things and why those things happen (Schein, 2010). Moreover, organisational culture impacts and is impacted by the organisation's staff, in which a significant role in managing and shaping organisational culture is played by leaders (Walker & Haiyan, 2019). Tuan (2010) asserts that organisational culture must be seen in a more dynamic steps where leadership is involved in each one of them. These stages include (a) defining the dominant culture type; (b) consolidating the current dominant culture type with taking into consideration its alignment to the organisational vision and strategy; (c) defining new organisational culture type with addressing each changing issues of adaptation to the internal integration and external environment; (d) managing and leading the old and new culture type simultaneously; (e) making gradually a transition while the old culture begins to provide barriers to the new organisational strategy and vision; and (f) at this point, the cycle should be resumed again (Tuan, 2010). However, educational organisations have been obtained more attention and well-intended efforts for decades in order to make schools more technically and rationally advanced and emulating successful businesses (Deal & Peterson, 2016).

The concept of a school culture (as an organisational culture) has been noted since 1932 when Waller indicated that school has a culture which is certainly its own (Schoen & Teddlie, 2008).

In schools, there are ‘complex rituals of personal relationships, a set of folkways, mores, and irrational sanctions, a moral code based upon them’ (Waller, 1932, as cited in Maslowski, 2006, p. 6). School culture is composed of the shared values and beliefs, the lens where students, parents, teachers and administrators see the world and themselves and unwritten norms, rules, expectations and traditions which permeate everything (Schoen & Teddlie, 2008). Thus, cultural patterns are persistent, have a powerful influence on the school development and performance and shape individuals’ thinking, feeling and acting (Deal & Peterson, 2016).

Culture has several impacts and functions that influence all aspects of a school (Deal & Peterson, 2016). Culture fosters and promotes school effectiveness (Leithwood et al., 2004), productivity, effort (Jerald, 2006), innovation (Tytler, 2009), improvement (Barnett & O’Mahony, 2006), communication and problem solving (Fullan, 2011). It also improves collegial and collaborative activities, building commitment and kindles motivation, amplifying energy, vitality and trust and focusing attention on daily work and what is valued and important (Deal & Peterson, 2016; Jerald, 2006). Despite all of these aspects, Gruenert and Whitaker (2015); Peterson and Deal (1998) assert the important of avoiding the toxic culture in a school. The common characteristics of toxic cultures are concentrating on parochial self-interests and negative beliefs and values, becoming fragmented school culture and deriving from subculture membership, life outside school or anti-student sentiments (Deal & Peterson, 2016). However, Gruenert and Whitaker (2015) emphasise that schools must strive for collaborative culture in which teachers are able to share robust educational values and beliefs, work together and commit to develop their school. Qualitative research was undertaken at three secondary schools in the Midwest of the United States, aiming to explore distributed and supportive leadership structures in schools as a function of school culture proceedings and policies (Carpenter, 2015). This study found that it was the culture of one of the participating schools of a highly toxic nature in which teachers were consigned to an accountability system that required them to fill out forms indicating their relative degree of effort in professional learning communities (Carpenter, 2015). The requirements for this approach were offered by top-down management structure that fostered a lack of trust and worsened the dominance of a single leader in the vision, mission, and values of professional learning communities as a process (Carpenter, 2015). While the administrators of the other two schools recognised and approved the need for shared, supportive, and distributive leadership, even in one of these schools, shared, supportive, and distributed leadership was a daily practice, and the results are evident in how teachers

perform their work both inside and outside of professional learning communities (Carpenter, 2015).

Also, Ohlson et al. (2016) recommend that encouraging collaboration among administrators and teachers and providing opportunities throughout the school community provides the basis for school improvement. They also assert, there are many various strategies that can raise significantly collaboration in school such as shared data-driven decision-making and job-embedded professional development (Ohlson et al., 2016). When the collaborative school culture is enhanced by teachers and school leadership within the intention of improving student learning and teaching practice, it can be considered as a promising school reform strategy (Ohlson et al., 2016; Vescio et al., 2008). In order to establish a collaborative school culture, Waldron and McLeskey (2010) indicate that the school leaders must, not all, (a) understand what collaborative culture means and why it is significant; (b) model collaboration in working with others in the school to achieve the school improvement's goals which are determined by working collaboratively with the school personnel; (c) empower the school staff to engage in decision-making; (d) make sure that their active support for collaborative culture obvious to all; (e) ensure that goals are continue and explicit to be apparent to all; (f) address issues such as developing trust within the school and ensuring that school staff feel supported; (g) address dysfunctions in the collaborative culture; (h) provide direction; (i) ensure coherence as decision-making happens (j) ensure that the connection of the innovations with the established goals.

School leaders have an essential role particularly when the collaborative school culture can be limited. Fullan (2007, p. 67) emphasises that 'Collaborative cultures, which by definition have close relationships, are indeed powerful, but unless they are focusing on the right things, they may end up being powerfully wrong'. Collaborative school culture is limited when the school personnel feel pressured, coerced or not compatible or have unrealistic expectations, conflict or disagreeing in their beliefs, philosophies and perspectives which might increase division and minimise the effectiveness of the learning community (Dickerson, 2011; Hargreaves, 2000; Kelchtermans, 2006). Thus, school leaders need to ensure flexibility, promote teacher feedback and encourage teachers to gather information about students' learning and problems (Datnow, 2011). A qualitative case study was conducted by Bhengu and Mthembu (2014) on two schools located in a community suffering from poverty, aiming to explore how they took different directions with regard to students' achievement. The research sample consisted of school principals, teachers, parents, and department heads, as they had semi-structured interviews

(Bhengu & Mthembu, 2014). They found that conditions within the school could account for differences in student achievement (Bhengu & Mthembu, 2014). The findings corroborate the widespread belief that leadership significantly contributes to creating and maintaining productive learning and teaching cultures in schools (Bhengu & Mthembu, 2014).

In addition, healthy collegial relationships between teachers are considered an essential component to enhance school culture's effectiveness (Shah, 2012). When teachers work together to address curricular and teaching issues, they foster collegiality, transparency, and trust (Khourey-Bowers et al., 2005). This opportunity to collaborate, plan, and be with one another enables teachers to improve their classroom goals while pursuing the school's common goals (Khourey-Bowers et al., 2005). Patrick et al. (2010) discuss the characteristics that enhance the induction experiences of beginning teachers and summarises the findings of case studies that investigate the influence of newcomers to the teaching profession in Scotland. Their data indicate that most effective induction techniques combine formal and informal components, but informal components, such as collegiality, should be considered (Patrick et al., 2010). Experienced teachers and newcomers had various experiences to offer each other, resulting in a more unified professional work that encouraging reflection on practice among more experienced professionals and supporting instructors at the beginning of their careers (Patrick et al., 2010). Also, a school culture that promotes collegiality contributes significantly to professional and organisational commitment, job satisfaction, professional growth and development of teachers as well as student performance and school quality (Owen, 2014; Shah, 2012). On the other hand, school leaders should enhance teacher learning by reorganising meeting and time arrangements to enable additional collegial work opportunities during the school day (Owen, 2005). Thomas et al. (2020) assert that professional collegial support by the school leaders is positively associated with beginning teachers' job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation to teach, and affective organisational commitment. A study was conducted to investigate the impact of school leaders' perceived emotional intelligence and leadership strategies on teachers' job satisfaction in a collegial atmosphere (Singh & Manser, 2008). The findings indicate that teachers anticipate greater job satisfaction due to enhancing their empowerment and collaboration (Singh & Manser, 2008). When their school leaders provide opportunities to improve their skills and abilities in a collegial environment that fosters empathy, healthy relationships, trust, and effective communication, they firmly believe they will feel satisfied at their schools (Singh & Manser, 2008). In a small school in remote northern Australia, a study investigates the realities of teachers working and living together

(Jarzabkowski, 2003). It highlighted the conditions of the rural environment that might be challenging for teachers, both newcomers and experienced professionals (Jarzabkowski, 2003). This study concluded that building a culture of collegiality in geographically isolated areas, especially developing means of emotional and material support, is a way that contributes to overcoming some challenges (Jarzabkowski, 2003). However, it seems that rural schools also suffer from a lack of published research related to culture, whether at the level of globalisation, national culture, or school culture. Hence, this study aims to understand and explore the perceptions and experiences of rural school leaders and teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, as its framework on which it relies is composed of three interrelated concepts that include culture. therefore, this study seeks to understand and explore the culture and its effects on Saudi rural schools from three primary levels: globalisation, national culture, and organisational school culture. All these factors develop some further questions that this study looks to answer:

1. How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?
2. How is school culture perceived by school staff?
3. What are the roles of leadership in developing school culture in a rural context?
4. What are the challenges and the opportunities of developing a school culture?

3.2.3 Continuing Professional Development:

The nature of school staff development is crucial and active school staff development includes supporting school teachers and leaders address their leadership and teaching problems (Ng & Chan, 2014). de Vries et al. (2013); Mathibe (2007) emphasise that both teachers and leaders must learn in an effective teaching and learning environment by reflecting and solving issues and by linking previous knowledge to contemporary information. In fact, Bubb and Earley (2007, p. 4) come up with a more detailed view:

“... an on-going process encompassing all formal and informal learning experiences that enable all staff in schools, individually and with others, to think about what they are doing, enhance their knowledge and skills and improve ways of working so that pupils learning and wellbeing are improved as a result, it should achieve a balance between individual, group, school and national needs; encourage a commitment to professional and personal growth; and increase resilience, self-confidence, job satisfaction and enthusiasm for working with children and colleagues” (p. 4).

Regarding the definition of CPD, there are two main ways of learning experiences in CPD which are formal and informal. These experiences are provided to all school staff, which include school leaders, teachers, and the administrative staff. CPD aims to enhance knowledge and skills and improve working processes that consequently are reflected, whether directly or indirectly, to students' learning. Also, it must obtain a balance among schools' needs, promotes commitment to professional development and raises flexibility, self-confidence, job enthusiasm, and satisfaction from working in schools.

Continuing professional development is a central element in order to make any school more successful and productive (Earley & Porritt, 2009). In this sense, school staff are considered the prime resource and better outcomes (whether realised in terms of employee retention, productivity, examination scores, parental and staff satisfaction or other performance indicators) are more probably fulfilled by development and leading individuals better (Earley & Porritt, 2009). In education reforms, the rapid altering needs of students could be achieved through applying different CPD approaches at various educational levels (Ng & Chan, 2014). Thus, in order to enhance school performance, both teachers and school leaders should be positioned at the centre of school reform (Laine, 2000). In addition, schools are affected not only by internal reform but also by those reforms of educational systems that, in turn, interact with global changes (Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2016). Global education reform efforts are increasingly concentrated on developing new standards to improve schools, striving to find more effective strategies to give all students high-quality teaching and learning, bringing more frequent examinations and assessments to test teachers and students, making investments in technology for learning and education, and assigning resources to the professional development of teachers and school leaders (Sahlberg, 2016). Occasionally, some of these reforms are modelled after those implemented in other states (like new curricula in some countries in the Middle East), while sometimes others are implemented on a broader scale in accordance with the ideas of foreign education policy as outlined in journals and books (like system reforms in some states in South Eastern Europe) (Sahlberg, 2016). In an article aimed at discussing the reforms that have taken place in the educational system in Qatar and their future implications for the development of teachers (Nasser, 2017) concluded that the education system was previously rigid and lacked international standards and norms. However, after striving to develop the educational system through the implementation of many reforms, it still needs to focus on the professional development of teachers in line with such reforms. Another study in Oman aims to present school principals' core professional development needs in the context of

educational reform (Hussin & Al Abri, 2015). The participants in this study were from the capital of Oman, Muscat, where the survey method was used, and the participants consisted of 80 school leaders. The findings indicated fifteen salient factors for the needs or domains necessary for principals' professional development. The factors were grouped into two types of leadership needs: transformational leadership and instructional leadership (Hussin & Al Abri, 2015). It also called for the need for new leadership competencies to implement the new changes and policies in order to align with global and national educational reforms. Oman is located southwest of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and many Arab customs, traditions, and cultures are similar between the two countries (Ghubash, 2014). Numerous rural schools are spread in the Sultanate; however, it seems that these schools also suffer from a lack of published studies (Wyatt, 2013).

The professional development of school leaders, including teachers, is concerned with how they actualise and conceptualise school effectiveness and teaching (Ng & Chan, 2014). It offers the incentive to converting theories into current leadership and teaching practice which can introduce school improvement and student achievement (Kent, 2004). Therefore, continuing a professional development programme can appeal to school staff as they believe that it will enhance their teaching and leadership effectiveness and extend their skills, competence, and knowledge (Guskey, 2002). Research conducted by Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) aimed to discover the advantages of effective teacher professional development. This study reviewed thirty-five methodologically rigorous studies, which showed that there is a positive connection between teacher PD, teaching practices, and student achievements (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Also, in a study to explore school leaders' engagement in CPD, a case study method was used (Nooruddin & Bhamani, 2019). The study sample was based on elite schools that recognise continuing professional development models and their constructive implications on learning. According to the findings, CPD is pursued by school leaders with a strong emphasis on a systematic and process-oriented approach. The approach begins with identifying each teacher's needs, and the method then provides them with opportunities to enhance their teaching through timely monitoring and support (Nooruddin & Bhamani, 2019). In contrast, despite the lack of published research concerning rural schools, they differ in their continuing professional development; Geldenhuys and Oosthuizen (2015) conducted a study to understand the challenges affecting teachers' participation in professional development in rural South African schools. The results revealed that there are few opportunities for them in their professional development, and the reluctance of some teachers to commit to CPD, which in

turn leads to an insufficient update of teachers' professional knowledge through continuing professional development (Geldenhuys & Oosthuizen, 2015).

The next sections will discuss how continuing professional development can be worked formally and informally for teachers, school leaders, and administrative staff in schools.

3.2.3.1 Professional knowledge and practice

Teachers' professional knowledge (PK) adds to student learning and effective teaching, and it is also broadly accepted (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2007; Grossman & McDonald, 2008; König et al., 2016). Studies on teacher expertise emphasise the significance of teachers' professional knowledge for the successful controlling of tasks which are distinctive of teachers' profession (Berliner, 2004). Shulman (1987) classifies three domains of teachers' professional knowledge: (a) content knowledge (CK); (b) pedagogical content knowledge (PCK); and (c) general pedagogical knowledge (GPK), while Mishra and Koehler (2006) add (d) technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK).

Academic disciplines are underlying the subject forms of content knowledge. CK refers to the knowledge of a particular subject that is required to teach by the same content teachers (König et al., 2016). For instance, mathematical content knowledge includes some content areas: data, geometry, number, and algebra (Ball et al., 2008a). However, Großschedl et al. (2015) argue that CK alone is not adequate to ameliorate both the learning progress of students or effective teaching. The second type of content-related is PCK which has been defined as 'that domain of teachers' knowledge that combines subject-matter knowledge and knowledge pedagogy' (Vail Lowery, 2002, p. 69) or as 'the intersection of knowledge of the subject with knowledge of teaching and learning' (Niess, 2005, p. 510). Magnusson, Krajcik and Borko (as cited in Ball et al., 2008a, p. 394) define PCK in more detail 'Pedagogical content knowledge is a teacher's understanding of how to help students understand specific subject matter topics, problems and issues can be organized, represented and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners and then presented for instruction...'. The defining characteristic of PCK is its conceptualization as a consequence of a transformation of knowledge from other areas (Ball et al., 2008b). Bukova-Güzel (2010) also provides a framework of PCK that includes knowledge of learners and learning, knowledge of teaching strategies and representations to teach a specific subject, and teachers' knowledge of the subject. An Australian study whose context and finding were derived from schools in low socio-economic suburban, regional, and remote communities (Gaffney & Faragher, 2010) examines the nature and relationship between the

practice of educational leadership by teacher leaders and principals (as member of school teams), and the development of pedagogical content knowledge in mathematics for teachers, and the outcomes of this interaction on student learning achievement in maths. Results demonstrate that a strategic and concerted concentration on identifying, supporting, and developing influential teacher leaders to cultivate authoritative pedagogical principles in school-wide mathematics teaching contributes to the continuous improvement of students' numeracy. Successful school leadership also, comprised of principals, teacher leaders and other school executives, can keep this priority front-and-centre by expanding their pedagogical content knowledge, all the while continuing to foster teaching and learning, building community, and instilling a sense of shared vision, according to the findings of this study.

In contrast to CK and PCK, general pedagogical knowledge is deemed as the knowledge that is not related to the subject matter. GPK refers to "those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter," according to Shulman (1987, p. 8). Although GPK is considered a scientific term, it requires exploration because it seems to be affected by cultural perspectives. Nevertheless, the OECD has conducted recently systematic review regarding teachers' GPK empirically where they found its content related to three broader areas: student learning (e.g., students' learning processes and their dispositions), assessment (e.g., evaluation processes and identifying principles) and instructional procedures (e.g., managing classroom and teaching approaches) (Ball et al., 2008b).

Moreover, Mishra and Koehler (2006) describe a framework which integrates pedagogical content knowledge and teacher knowledge for a technology known as technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK). This framework is based on Shulman (1987), which describe how PCK interact with each other and teachers' understanding of educational technology in order to support efficient teaching with technology. In Gauteng, South Africa, a study was conducted aiming to inform mathematics teachers' continuing professional development needs by assessing the current state of their technological pedagogical content knowledge and identifying potential barriers to information and communication technology integration (ICT) (Spangenberg & De Freitas, 2019). This research utilised both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Ninety-three mathematics teachers responded to the quantitative survey and found that they had above-average levels of pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, and PCK but below-average levels in the areas of technology, technological content knowledge, and technological pedagogical knowledge (Spangenberg &

De Freitas, 2019). Also, a semi-structured interview with ten teachers indicated six main barriers to implementing ICT in the classroom: lack of technical infrastructure, poor leadership, time constraints related to the curriculum, the influence of ICT exercise on the learning process, pedagogical beliefs of teachers, and ineffective professional development (Spangenberg & De Freitas, 2019). It concluded that continuing professional development that addresses ICT integration barriers could bring about considerable changes in teachers' TPACK, which might enhance better mathematics teaching and learning (Spangenberg & De Freitas, 2019).

Understanding the four domains of teachers' professional knowledge (CK, PCK, GPK and TPACK) enables both school leaders and teachers to run the school effectively and to ensure competence in students' learning, assessment, and instructional processes (Ball et al., 2008b; Bukova-Güzel, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2008; Shulman, 1987). In Saudi Arabia, Mansour et al. (2013) conducted a study regarding professional development needs in urban cities, and they assert that there is no significant difference between primary, middle and secondary teachers. All of the teachers experience a lack of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge, and there is a strong need for professional development.

The next section will discuss professional learning communities and communities of practice in order to understand how they may be developed in rural and remote schools.

3.2.3.2 Professional learning communities and communities of practice

In the last decades, the notion of professional learning communities (PLC) has gained momentum in the research literature about teachers' learning, since schools are increasingly perceived as suitable and eligible contexts for teachers' and school leaders' professional learning (Stoll & Louis, 2007; Vescio et al., 2008). In fact, Danielson and McGreal (2000) assert that professional learning is informed by many factors embracing reflection on practice.

Reflection on Practice:

Reflection has become recognised as a crucial component in the professional development of school teachers and leaders (Calderhead & Gates, 2003; Dotger, 2011). Schön (2017) argues that reflection on practitioner's experience can serve to question the tacit concepts which might exist. The multidimensional developmental role of the approach to development of practitioners is emphasised by diverse models and conceptualisations of reflection in order (1) to build their political and personal awareness of educational outputs, practices and values, (2) to construct changes and their understanding in practice based on thoughtful inquiry and (3) to

evaluate, integrate and apply particular knowledge, information from theory and experiences to practices (Etscheidt et al., 2012). Reflection also refers to the analysis of feelings of efficiency, problems, obstacles, needs, challenges, change procedures and beliefs which improve practices and enhance cognitions (Avalos, 2011). Practice has an impact on belief change, while reflection before practice produces unstable change of practice and does not have an influence in belief change (Opfer et al., 2011). Therefore, both school leaders and teachers are able to develop their professionalism through considering the importance of reflection (Avalos, 2011; Wilson & Xue, 2013).

PCL can be seen as a group of individuals examining and sharing their practice critically in reflective, learning-oriented, inclusive, continuing, growth-enhancing and collaborative manner and working as a collective organization (King & Newmann, 2001; Stoll et al., 2006; Toole & Louis, 2002). Stoll et al. (2006) refer to PCL as the prospect that several individuals based outside and inside a school can alternately promote students' as well as each other's learning and school development. Also, the collaborative working culture for teachers is seen as a core of schools functioning as professional learning communities, in which supportive interactions and systematic collaboration are held among teachers. The participating teachers in PLC focus on the enhancement of their effectiveness and their own learning (Lomos et al., 2011; Vanblaere & Devos, 2016). Thus, the most crucial aim for those is to teach all pupils in the best possible manner (DuFour, 2004; Louis, Dretzke, et al., 2010). These collaborative environments have been seen as promising for improving professional development and the quality of teaching as well as increasing student achievement. Therefore, such schools move towards a system of joint performance (Harris & Muijs, 2004; Supovitz et al., 2010; Vescio et al., 2008). Participation in PLC, for instance, has been associated with an enhanced sense of work effectiveness which consequently increase teachers' motivation and satisfaction (Mitchell & Sackney, 2011), and also to an improvement in teachers' learning and classroom practices (Goddard et al., 2007; Vanblaere & Devos, 2016).

Professional learning communities share six key characteristics highlighted in literature which work together and appear to be intertwined. These are 1. Shared vision, values, and mission; 2. Collective responsibility and inquiry; 3. Collaborative teams; 4. Reflection professional inquiry; 5. Continuous improvement; 6. Results orientation (DuFour & Eaker, 2009; Stoll et al., 2006), while Mitchell (2001); Mitchell and Sackney (2011) provide a model for PLC in an attempt to address the issue of its various definitions and the essential distinctions in their operation. Slegers et al. (2013) rely on this model and describe the notion of PLC as

multidimensional comprising interpersonal, personal, and organizational capacities: Firstly, interpersonal capacity refers to individuals' capability to work together on shared aims. It includes behavioural components such as consultation among teachers, shared values, vision, and beliefs, shared the responsibility to the learning of others, shared practices, and operated in collaborative and spirit of mutual respect. Secondly, it indicates to people capability to reflectively and actively build knowledge regarding student learning and teaching methods. Teachers always reflect on critiquing, assessing rebuilding their knowledge through utilising available sources of knowledge and information which exist in their environment. Thirdly, organizational capacity indicates the organizational structures which generate and preserve sustainable organizational procedures for school improvement and collective and individual learning. It includes relationships and climate, resources, stimulating and participative leadership, and systems and structures. The professional learning community is not only crucial for creating a collaborative culture, but it is also essential to sustain the development of schools (Eaker & DuFour, 2009). A study by Sargent and Hannum (2009) conducted in rural Gansu, one of the poorest provinces of China, in northwest China, investigates the nature and different form of professional learning communities. The data was collected through a survey of seventy-three schools, as well as 30 in-depth interviews with. Results shows the professional learning communities are present even in the poorest schools in China; however, their development and nature are influenced by teachers' initiative, principal leadership, and organisational support. Another study aims to present the primary roles of school leaders in creating professional learning communities in the current system in an Istanbul province, Turkey (Balyer et al., 2015). The data was collected through qualitative research by conducting fifteen interviews with school principals (Balyer et al., 2015). According to the findings, school principals play a crucial role in developing professional learning communities but do not implement this role effectively because they have too much administrative work (Balyer et al., 2015). However, rural schools in Saudi Arabia are different from their counterparts in urban areas and in other countries in many respects. Although few studies have explored the continuing professional development of rural school staff, this particular study seeks to understand the experiences and perceptions of school leaders and teachers in rural Saudi schools. Therefore, continuing professional development is the third concept in the framework of this research, which in turn not only explores CPD in rural schools but also hopes to identify the needs of their staff. This leads to some further questions:

1. What are continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?
2. What are the challenges and the opportunities for CPD?
3. What are the ways of supporting CPD?
4. What are the ways that school leaders and teachers enhance professional learning communities?
5. What are the needs of school leaders and teachers for continuing professional development programmes?

3.3 Conclusion:

This chapter summarises the literature review of the conceptual framework that this study adopts to provide new theoretical insights into Saudi rural schools based on the interrelationships between three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. School leadership is second only to classroom teaching and has many essential roles and practices both in dealing with and improving culture and as an active contributor to continuing professional development. Culture includes what is outside the school's walls, such as globalisation, and the national and local rural culture and within school, such as the school culture, which is therefore reflected in leadership practice and the nature of continuing professional development. Continuing professional development contributes to improving school outcomes and increasing the effectiveness of both leaders and teachers under a unique cultural cover.

Several questions related to this study have been identified throughout this chapter, in turn, all contribute to the main research questions. Table 3:1 below shows the questions raised and the research questions which directly contribute to constructing the main study inquiry that aims to understand and explore the nature of rural school in Saudi Arabia through the three key concepts.

Literature review section	Questions raised from literature review	Research sub-questions	Main research question
Leadership Practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is the school leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA and why? 	How is leadership being practised and	What are school leaders' and teachers' experiences and

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How are the school leaders recruited and retained? • How is leadership influenced and influence in those schools? • How are the school's vision and values built and why? • What are the challenges and the opportunities of leading in rural schools in KSA and why? • How does communication occur in rural schools? • Which school leadership model is in place (e.g. distributed)? • What are the roles of school leadership in developing staff and how? 	experienced in rural schools in KSA?	perceptions of working in rural secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia? • How is school culture perceived by school staff? • What are the roles of leadership in developing school culture in a rural context? • What are the challenges and the opportunities of developing a school culture? 	How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?	
CPD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are continuing professional development experiences and needs of people 	What are the continuing professional development	

	<p>working in rural schools in KSA?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the challenges and the opportunities for CPD? • What are the ways of supporting CPD? • What are the ways that school leaders and teachers enhance professional learning communities? • What are the needs of school leaders and teachers for continuing professional development programmes? 	<p>experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?</p>	
--	--	---	--

Table 3:1 Main and sub research questions and questions raised from LR.

The next chapter discusses the methodology on which this study was based.

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to understand and explore in depth the nature of school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural education in Saudi Arabia. This study will explore three main concepts: leadership practice, continuing professional development and culture. It comprises multiple case studies containing interviews with the department of education officials and six rural case studies in schools in rural Saudi Arabia. Official documents will also be reviewed in order to have a clear understanding regarding rural education leadership and exploring the regulations, systems and the differences between rural schools and their urban counterparts. From these perspectives, the following questions have arisen:

- What are school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

Sub-questions

- How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?
- How does global, national and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?
- What are continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?

This chapter consists of sections which discuss the research paradigm including ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. Methods include case study, sampling, data collection and data analysis and the ethical considerations of the study.

4.2 Research Paradigms

A Research paradigm is a framework of traditions, beliefs, worldviews or assumptions which sets the context for the researchers' studies (Morrison, 2012; Ponterotto, 2005). It also guides researchers to adopt certain philosophical positions in order to make sense about how the research evidence may be comprehended, justified, patterned, demonstrated and compiled (Morrison, 2012; Pring, 2015). Coe (2012) argues that the paradigms chosen by the researchers influence their selection of research questions, the focus of their research, how their research is framed and how the research process. Therefore, the selected paradigm will determine to a considerable extent the importance of the research and the significance of its findings.

A paradigm can be defined as a set of basic beliefs which leads people's action towards "the nature of the world" (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). Creswell and Poth (2018); Punch and Oancea (2014) also defined paradigms as certain philosophical assumptions regarding the nature of research and ways of looking at the world. It is usually used to explain different practices adopted by the researcher (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, the researcher brings these beliefs to the process of research and they might be called worldviews (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Worldviews are assumptions built upon previous research experiences and discipline orientations. Therefore, based on these factors, the types of the researchers' beliefs usually will guide them to conduct a quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods approach in their studies (Creswell, 2014b).

On the other hand, different patterns can be brought or used by the researcher to solve the inquiry in the research based on philosophical assumptions (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Patterns of inquiry relay on assumptions that reflect various ways of looking at reality; assumptions related to the nature of the reality being researched: ontological, assumptions relate to what shapes the knowledge of that reality, whereas epistemological and assumptions relate to what could be considered as a suitable method/s of building knowledge about the above-mentioned reality are methodological (Cohen et al., 2018; Punch, 2009). Consequently, the reality can be examined through implicit or explicit assumptions supporting that reality which will define the direction of the research (Cohen et al., 2018; Morrison, 2012). Thus, in order to develop the research paradigm of this study, the next sections discuss the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions.

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology refers to the study of being (Scotland, 2012), in which ontological assumptions are concerned with the nature of reality and social entities (Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018). An ontological perspective addresses the questions, "what is the form and the nature of reality" (Punch & Oancea, 2014, p. 17), thus, researchers can consider it as a singular objective reality that has a social reality external to individuals (objectivism), or they can deem that there are multiple realities constructed from the actions and perceptions of individuals (Constructionism) (Waring, 2012).

Objectivism is an ontological position that considers the social phenomena as external facts which are independently separate from individuals (Bryman, 2016). However, the reality in this position is single and produces the same meanings for all individuals. Objectivists believe

that truth and reality are “out there” and exist objectively where they can be sufficiently measured and discovered (Sarantakos, 2012).

At the opposite extreme, constructionism is considered as an alternative position that social phenomena are not only in a persistent status of revision and being fulfilled by social actors, but also are generated through socio-cultural contexts and interactions (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et al., 2018). This position implies that the world has a system which is impacted by external factors, objects, and multiple realities (Cohen et al., 2018; Scotland, 2012). It is a pre-existed and a pre-given system that consists of unanimities regarding knowledge which have already been acquired and are still being accomplished (Bryman, 2016; Scotland, 2012). Constructionists do not believe on absolute truths and they concentrate on the construction of meanings (Sarantakos, 2012). Therefore, constructionists are able to actively come upon, adopt and construct their worlds, own views and learning (Cohen et al., 2018).

Objectivism is related with the concept of social structure as essential reason of social reality in which objectivists tend to believe in macro-patterns. In contrast, constructionism positions a considerable emphasis on micro-interactions which are viewed as the source to obtain information regarding the social reality (David & Sutton, 2011). Moreover, rural schools are still being examined compared to their urban counterparts which demonstrate how important to study these regions (Barrett et al., 2015). This study needs to go deeper to explore many facts, objects and understand multiple realities within interacting with school leaders, teachers, school leadership supervisors, and training supervisors. This allows both researchers and those interested particularly in school leadership, culture, and CPD to identify and address problems, constraints, opportunities, and challenges in those areas. Thus, the constructionism assumptions are adopted in this thesis in order to explore and understand those three main concepts in the Saudi rural schools. It is also significant to consider the school leaders, teachers, school leadership supervisors, and training supervisors as social actors who can generate and construct their social reality.

4.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology originates from the Greek word “episteme” as term that indicates knowledge (Krauss, 2005). It is the philosophy of knowledge or “how can what is assumed to exist be known?” (Krauss, 2005; Waring, 2012, p. 16). Epistemological perspective addresses the questions, “How do we know what we know?”, therefore, it is looking for the relationship among the knower and “what can be known?” (Klenke, 2016, p. 15; Punch & Oancea, 2014,

p. 17). Additionally, there are various epistemological paradigms of research that researcher can apply when conducting research (Bryman, 2016; Denscombe, 2017). In general, although there are many paradigms have been discussed in the literature, the most known epistemological positions are namely positivism and interpretivism (Coleman & Briggs, 2002; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denscombe, 2017; Klenke, 2016; Punch & Oancea, 2014). However, these terms are defined to a certain extent differently (Punch, 2009), they are brought in order to include their usual main ideas as following.

- Positivism:

The positivist paradigm refers to the traditional form of study and it tends to be associated with quantitative research more than qualitative research (Creswell, 2014b; Denscombe, 2017). This approach sometimes is called science research, scientific method or post positivism which is “based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, Auguste Comte and Immanuel Kant” (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Mertens, 2014, p. 58). Post/positivism is based on a single objective reality that can be measured and observed, therefore, this reality exists in the world ‘out there’ (Creswell, 2014b), while knowledge is the control and comprehending over nature (Lincoln et al., 2011). Thus, positivism epistemological paradigm often takes objectivism in the ontological assumptions as the basis of understating the social reality (Sutrisna, 2009).

- Interpretivism:

The interpretivist paradigm is usually combined with constructionism and ontological assumptions, and emerges from the philosophy of Edmund Husserl and Wilhelm Dilthey and others (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). This approach brings people to understand their world in which they develop insights into individuals’ experiences and beliefs (Denscombe, 2017). Subjective meanings are developed in an interpretivist paradigm, by the people’s experiences which are directed toward particular things or objects (Creswell, 2014b). Interpretivism refuses to adopt any permanent levels by that reality or truth that can be universally known (Lincoln et al., 2011). This approach emphasise that (a) there are multiple realities that can be embraced and need to be understood in context whereas human beings are not mechanistic; (b) in order to construct social practice, the social world can be described with examining how human use meanings, symbols and language; (c) a comprehensive description of the vital role of the meanings in human actions can be considered as the main key for complete social explanation (Klenke, 2016).

This study concentrates on constructing social practices through emphasising the micro-interactions. It is concerned with producing descriptive analyses (Klenke, 2016), in which school leaders, teachers, school leadership supervisors, and training supervisors in Golden governorate can provide significant information about the three key concepts of this study. The researcher attempts to get as close as possible to the participants in order to assemble the information and data based on their views (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This leads the researcher to interpret, describe and analyse the meanings, factors, objects, and realities of this study from the micro level that consequently provides several insights. Therefore, an interpretivist position which aligns considerably with the constructionist assumptions of this thesis is adopted.

4.2.3 Methodology

Methodology reflects the ontological and epistemological assumptions in which it refers to the processes or logic that should be followed (Waring, 2012). It is “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and methods to the desired outcomes” (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). The methodological assumptions address the question “how can the inquirer go about finding out what can be known? What methods can be used for studying reality?” (Punch & Oancea, 2014, p. 17).

This study focuses on school leaders’ and teachers’ experiences and perceptions in working in Saudi rural context. As mentioned previously, it consequently adopts an interpretive orientation where its main features are its capacity to reveal the sophisticated details of various inner phenomena, for instance, individuals’ experiences and perceptions (Delamont, 2012; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Interacting with leaders and teachers can provide sights and clarify understanding, misunderstanding or perceptions which could reduce the current knowledge gaps of school leadership, school culture and CPD in the Arabian rural context. Although causal relationships between two or more variables or testing and applying theories are common in research, this study is concerned with describing and interpreting social world experiences. Creswell (2014b); Denscombe (2017); Newby (2014); Punch and Oancea (2014) and others, associate positivism with the use of quantitative research and interpretivism with the use of qualitative research in which they distinguish the two designs according to the ontological and epistemological assumptions.

See the differences between quantitative and qualitative research in table 4:1 below.

Quantitative	Qualitative
Problem section: directing the types of questions or hypotheses	Problem section: establishing the importance of the central idea
Data collection: closed-ended approaches, hard, reliable data	Data collection: open-ended approaches, rich, deep data
Data analysis: statistical analysis (mathematical analysis) of the data (numeric)	Data analysis: analysing words or images
Point of view of researcher	Points of view of participants
Inquirer distant	Inquirer close
Theory testing	Theory emergent
Structured	Unstructured
Generalisation	Contextual understanding
Macro	Micro
Behaviour	Meaning
Artificial settings	Natural settings

Table 4:1 The differences between quantitative and qualitative research adopted from (Bryman, 2016, p. 401; Creswell, 2014a).

This study emphasises on exploring and understanding phenomena, therefore, it adopts a qualitative methodology that is consisted with its interpretive inductive orientation (Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018) (Please see Figure 3:1).

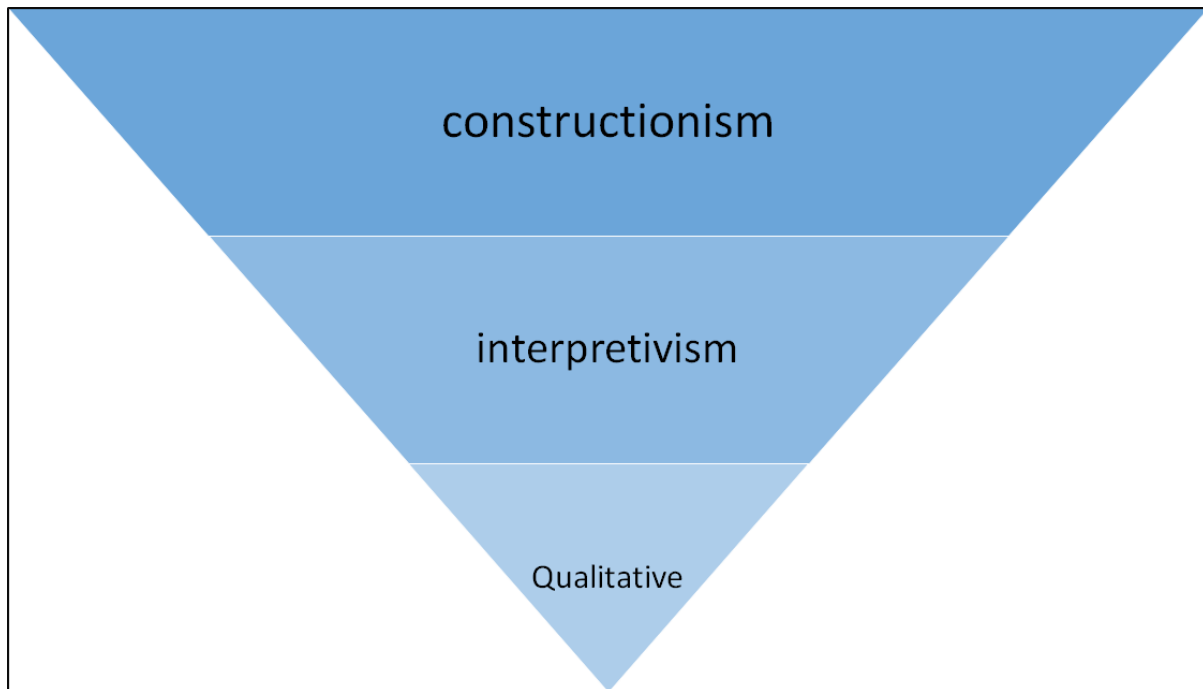


Figure 3:1 Study Methodology

Denzin and Lincoln (2011, p. 11) as cited in Creswell and Poth (2018, p. 7) define qualitative research as

Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. Qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recording and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

Qualitative also identifies unexpected phenomena through taking into account the new context which might generate new theory or concepts associated with those phenomena (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Namely, during or after the data collection, the researcher can initiate with general questions and then narrow them down in such a manner that theory or concepts can be developed (Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2014a). Therefore, qualitative research allows subsequent researchers to take up the new theory or concept, after revised and narrowed it, and then employ

or test it in relation to various research questions or in connection with various social contexts (Bryman, 2016; Punch & Oancea, 2014).

The qualitative methodology is appropriate in order to have in-depth understanding of the actions and perspectives of the participants. It also helps tremendously in finding out those common described issues which are associated with the participants' practical experiences and perceptions of school leadership, culture, and CPD in rural Saudi context. Therefore, a wealth of detailed information is produced by qualitative methodology when it studies a small number of individuals or unique cases. This raises the in-depth understanding of individuals, cases and situations studied but it reduces the possibility of generalising research findings (Yilmaz, 2013).

Nevertheless, qualitative research has been criticised by the quantitative researchers in which some considered it as being too subjective and impressionistic (Bryman, 2016). They think that qualitative findings are based too much on the researchers' interpretations; the close personal relationship with the participants can influence such interpretations; and this approach is not structured but relies on the researcher's clarity of design which consequently can create a restricted generalisability (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et al., 2018). By contrast, it can be suggested that, to some extent, all research is subjective. Quantitative research (positivist), for example, determines what to study, what information to gain from participants, how to do operational definitions that define constructs and how to be measured and what might be excluded from the relevant information (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Yilmaz, 2013). The strengths of interpretive, qualitative research lies in allowing researchers to explore the views of homogenous and various groups of people which might introduce information to the social world that is more nuanced. It has also the strength of being able to probe for underlying beliefs, experiences, values, opinions, and assumptions for cultural assessments. Qualitative research additionally allows issues to be raised that mostly matter to participants where the inquiry is open-ended and broad as well, bearing in mind that a qualitative researchers often do not have a preconceived, limited set of issues to investigate (Atieno, 2009; Choy, 2014). Regarding generalisation, the aim of this study is concerned with context (Saudi rural context) and not for generalisation. However, there may be applicable qualitative alternative standards that can be transferred. This is the informed judgment of the readers as to whether the conclusions of the research or the extent of its application might be applicable in their surroundings which is relied on an estimate of the level of similarity or variation of the research context. The role of the researcher is to provide detailed information and evidence regarding the research context and

the process that was reached to the research conclusions in order to facilitate such judgment. In general, the perceptions provided by the qualitative approach are anticipated to make a balance against the downsides.

4.3 Approach

The philosophical assumptions in the research paradigm amalgamated with the aims and questions of a research determine, to a great extent, the approach, methods and focus of inquiry that, in turn, decide the structural portions of a research design (Kumar, 2019). Case study research is defined by Creswell and Poth (2018, p. 96-97) as a qualitative approach where the researcher “explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case themes”. Indeed, case study approach comprise single-case studies and multiple-case studies encompassing few cases that are usually associated in some manner (Day Ashley, 2012; Yin, 2014). Creswell and Poth (2018); Punch and Oancea (2014) also argue that the aims of the case study are to obtain in-depth understanding of a case(s) in its natural setting and to recognise its context and its complexity. It aims additionally to understand and maintain the unity and entirety of a case which refer to the holistic focus of the case (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Moreover, Case studies provide in-depth account of experiences, procedures, relationships, or events which occur in specific instance. Thus, one of the aims of case study is to enlighten the general through seeking at the specific (Denscombe, 2017). Therefore, this thesis seeks to explore in-depth understanding school leaders’ and teachers’ experiences and perceptions of working in rural education in Saudi Arabia by using a case study approach. The natural setting of this research also exists before conducting the research and continues to exist until the study was finished (Denscombe, 2017). This study additionally recognises the complexity of working in a Saudi rural context through understating and exploring leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development and the opportunities and challenges for both school leaders and teachers in relation to these concepts. In-depth account of experiences and processes are given; thus, it provides a holistic focus in order to understand and preserve the wholeness and unity of school leaders’ and teachers’ perceptions and experiences in Saudi rural context.

There are several types of case studies approach which are differentiated by the focus of the intent of the case analysis and the concerning on the issues and issue questions (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2017). Stake (1995) listed three types of case studies namely

intrinsic case study, a single instrument case study and collective (or multiple) case study (Creswell & Poth, 2018; David & Sutton, 2011; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Hancock & Algozzine, 2017). In an intrinsic case study, the researcher focuses on the case itself and want to learn more about a particular case (e.g., studying a particular organisation, event, group or individual, or evaluating a particular programme) (Hancock & Algozzine, 2017; Stake, 1995). A single instrument case study additionally concentrates on a concern or issue and then choose a particular case to illuminate this issue (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Stake, 1995). Finally, a collective (or multiple) case study focuses on one issue or concern, however, the researchers choose multiple case studies to explain this concern or issue (e.g., choosing several schools instead of one) (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Among the three types of case study, this study attempts to illustrate school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions in rural Saudi context through selecting multiple case studies (six different rural schools) in order to show various perspectives on this issue (Please see Figure 4:2).

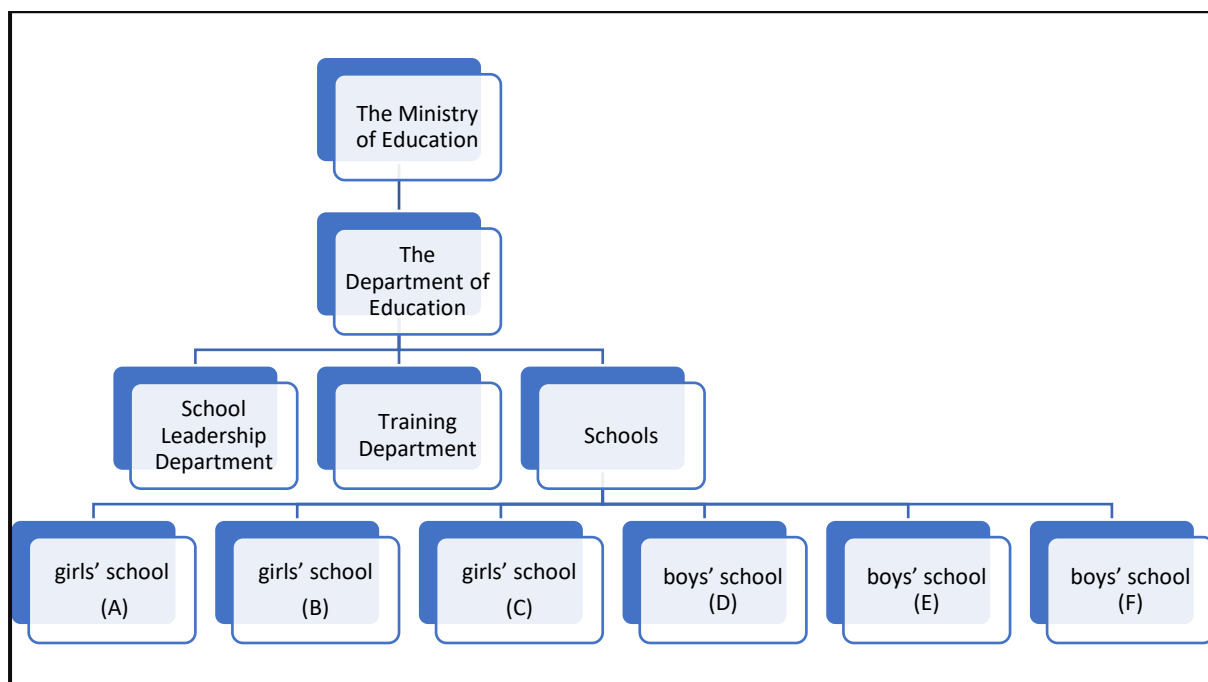


Figure 4:2 The multiple case study

The six schools were selected as multiple case studies, located in rural areas far from urban places. In the past, schools did not have a telecommunications network, internet services, and they suffered from weak electricity that was sometimes cut off during summer. These caused a lack of interest in the use of technology, as the devices available in schools were old, although computer curricula require students to acquire basic skills and continuous updating in the use of technology, for example. In the present time, disconnection from the internet means not only

isolation from the world but also from the surroundings (Saudi Arabia). However, with the launch of Vision 2030 and the Covid-19 pandemic, there has been a significant change in those areas, which has immensely helped the digital transformation in many places, as will be discussed in chapters 5, 6, and 7.

On the other hand, the powers the Ministry of Education granted to the principals of these schools significantly distinguish them from their deputies. However, these systems and regulations collide with a wall of challenges and obstacles that rural school staff go through, which makes school management, leadership, and decision-making not exclusive to the principals. For instance, principals may be exposed to a particular event that makes them unable to reach their schools, which leads to assigning deputies entirely to manage and lead the schools and make all decisions. Also, the principals in those schools lack the required experience to exercise principalship positions, so they tend to share the leadership significantly with their deputies. Finally, it is challenging to lead these schools individually, especially with the great shortage of administrative staff and often their non-existence; therefore, principals and their deputies must work collaboratively to ensure workflow.

4.3.1 Context and Site

The context and site of this study is based on the classification of the Ministry of Civil Service which it has the final decision to consider a town as a rural area, that imply salary privileges for its employees, or not. The Ministry make the decision under some standards such as does not having a health care centre, having unpaved roads...etc. They classify 1718 as a rural areas which meets those standards (MCS, 2009). Those areas are distributed all over Saudi Arabia in which each (or groups) of them is under a governorate (a city) that is under a region (GAS, 2016). Employees who work in some rural areas receive salary privileges at different rates according to the standards stipulated by the Ministry of Civil Service (MCS, 2009). There is a classification of cities and areas in Saudi Arabia; therefore, it can be a small town does not meet those standards (due to having a health care centre or others) and also there can be a remote rural area which certainly meets the criteria (SE, 1993).

The Golden governorate is a pseudonym to ensure the anonymity of the participants and the area where the schools were selected for the present study. This city is in the western part of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, where it contains numerous villages, which can be classified as semi-rural and rural. The semi-rural areas are characterised by having some services that serve the local population and residents of remote rural villages. In contrast, rural areas lack many

benefits in addition to geographical isolation. The inhabitants of these areas are also distinguished by Bedouin customs, tradition, and culture, as the local population differs in dealing with each other from the residents of cities (Al Dossry, 2012). Agriculture is not only a concern of the locals, but also breeding of sheep, camels, and horses is considered as one of the critical pillars of Bedouin economy, in addition to the material assistance provided to them by the government (Al Dossry, 2012; Steinberg, 2004). The Bedouins often share many traditions and values spread in Saudi Arabia and throughout the Arabian Peninsula (Al Dossry, 2012). This study seeks to understand the perceptions and experiences of school leaders and teachers in rural Saudi Arabia; therefore, the context of this research is inevitably located in isolated rural areas.

4.3.2 Sampling & Participants

There are several strategies of sampling which are influenced by the aim of the research inquiry. These strategies have a significant impact on the processes of data collection and analysis which makes it possible to provide accurate findings (Denscombe, 2017). The different kinds of sampling strategies are usually classified into two approaches namely probability sampling “where the probability of the selection of each respondent is known” and non-probability sampling “where it is not known” (Newby, 2014; Robson & McCartan, 2016, p. 276). The probability samples are mostly for quantitative researchers that require large number of participants in which its size is statistically determined, so consequently they involve complex processes. On the other hand, the non-probability sampling is employed in qualitative research that focuses on a small number of participants that cannot produce statistical influences (Sarantakos, 2012). This research is qualitative so is not based on statistical results, it addresses in-depth understanding of leadership practice, culture and CPD in rural Saudi context. Thus, it adopts the non-probability sampling that focuses deeper on a small number of participants.

There are several non-probability sampling examples in the literatures so that researchers can select in order to address their qualitative research inquiry. Indeed, these samplings provide the investigators with in-depth information and involving to achieve a particular purpose (Denscombe, 2017; Robson & McCartan, 2016). This type of sampling includes a wide range of approaches such as, convenience sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling (Flick, 2017; Robson & McCartan, 2016; Sarantakos, 2012). Convenience sampling involves researchers to select the closest and most convenient individuals to represent as respondents. This procedure is repeated until it reaches the demanded sample size (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Although convenience sampling has some advantages such as saving effort, time and

money, it has been criticized for inadequately taking the aim of the research and standard of information richness into consideration that influences the credibility of the study (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Flick, 2017; Punch & Oancea, 2014). Alternatively, snowball sampling is a process where the investigator firstly interviews a small group of people that are relevant to the research inquiry, and then these individuals introduce new participants to be interviewed until the required sample size reached (Bryman, 2016). This sample, in other words, is used when it is impossible for the investigator to reach the demanded size of the sample, for an unknown population or when it proves complex to advance towards the respondents in any other manner (Sarantakos, 2012). Finally, purposive sampling is to sample participants in a technical way in which a researcher is able to select the location and the respondents that are related to the research inquiry and questions (Bryman, 2016). It seeks to provide privileged knowledge, information, and experiences about a particular topic while the investigator can use it to ensure that a varied cross-section of settings, individuals, or items are comprised in the sample (Denscombe, 2017).

The Golden governorate is chosen since it is characterised by the remoteness of its areas and its magnitude. As such, it also embraces many rural or remote girls' and boys' schools from different levels. Similarly, Clarke and Wildy (2011, p. 24) selected their rural schools based on one education district in Western Australia that comprise a sizeable percentage of rural schools when they studied "improving the small or remote school: The role of the district". The governorate additionally contains environments which assist to have an impact in the participants intrinsically. This not only enhances the study to gain an in-depth understanding of their working contexts, but also it contributes to the research to draw a clear picture of their experiences regarding leadership practice, culture and CPD. This study selects six rural secondary schools from six different rural areas that are classified by the Ministry of Civil Service and the Ministry of Education and located in the Golden governorate. For example, Ngcobo and Tikly (2010, p. 202) conducted their case study in South African Rural schools regarding "key dimensions of effective leadership for change" in which the schools were identified by adopting the perceptions of regional officials. The selected schools in this study are divided into three schools for girls and three boys' schools as multiple case study. Miles et al. (2020) recommend conducting 5 or 6 in-depth studied cases at least in order to obtain multiple case study sampling adequacy. Hence, using a multiple case study approach also allows the research to consider additional characteristics of the situation through the use of comparison and juxtaposition for cross cases analysis (Thomas, 2011).

This study aims to understand and explore Saudi rural schools through three concepts: leadership practice, CPD and culture. Purposive sampling of this thesis is chosen from different levels including the Ministry of Education, supervisors, school leaders and teachers. Seven teachers and two school leaders represent each school, so that there are 42 teachers and 12 school leaders (six school principals and 6 school deputies) in total. Also, this research additionally includes two school leadership supervisors (one female and one male) and two training supervisors (one female and one male). Therefore, the sample is varied, which allows a clear picture of rural education in Saudi Arabia.

4.4 Data Collection

The methods in which qualitative data is collected vary depending on the research questions and purposes (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Data can be collected from various sources such as participants, documents, images and media (Flick, 2017). Additionally, each of those sources require a particular method for collecting data in order to inform the research questions and inquiry (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Particularly, qualitative multiple case study design usually is conducted within its context where the activity takes place and focusing on gaining in-depth information. This design helps not only to describe and explore the data in real-life, but also it facilitates an explanation of the complexities of its context that might not be captured by survey or experimental research (Zainal, 2007). Multiple case study design also allows the researcher to use many sources and different methods to collect the data, such as documentations and interviews (Yin, 2017). Therefore, this study is designed as a multiple case study to approach the inquiry so that it utilises documentary data and interviews in order to explore, describe and explain the complexities of working in Saudi rural contexts through leadership practice, culture and CPD.

4.4.1 Documentary data

Documentary data seems is essential to every case study topic (Yin, 2017). It is considered that the use of documents is the basic source of data and, thus, it treats them as primary data (Denscombe, 2017). They can be collected from written text, official documents, formal study and administrative documents (Denscombe, 2017). In case studies, documentary data might be collected in conjunction with interviews, in turn, it will ensure triangulation (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Thus, to provide more in-depth detail for the case study presented here a week before conducting interviews, the researcher collected any official authentic documents that were produced by the education department, the department of training, and the six rural schools in

Golden governorate between the periods of time 2017-2020. The investigator asked about any official documents that specialise rural schools more than its counterpart in urban area or vice versa in order to see the differences. After collecting the data, the researcher went to the Ministry of Education and obtained some documents that include some regulations, rural school numbers, and financial allocations that are spent as incentives for students in rural areas. Also, while analysing the data, the researcher got some documents from the leaders of the six schools and supervisors related to regulations and systems. All the collected documents were related to school leaders and teachers and were concerned with leadership practice, culture, and CPD.

4.4.2 Interview Data

In qualitative research, the interviews are considered as the most distinctive data collection instrument (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) (as cited in Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 163) indicate that “an interview is where knowledge is constructed in the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee”. The interviews are classified into several important categories in which all share three characteristics: (a) the interviews are not attempted for agree-or-disagree, yes-or-no responses, but the investigators are looking for detailed, rich and in-depth information, (b) interviews are concerned with open-ended questions where the interviewees are able to respond in any manner they select, raising new issues, disagree with the question or clarifying their answers, instead of giving them particular answer categories, and (c) there can be more flexibility during the interview so that a research does not have to ask interviewees in a provided order or to stick to a presented group of questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Therefore, all interviews avoided getting answers with yes and no, or agree and disagree. On other hand, all questions were open-ended to obtain the most considerable amount of information. Still, the researcher was also keen to ask the respondents for clarification on some of their answers in order to get a rich and in-depth understanding of the three concepts. Additionally, there was flexibility in asking questions to allow the participants to express their opinions comfortably.

4.4.2.1 One-to-one interviews:

There are two forms of in-depth qualitative interviews that are the most common in education research namely semi-structured and unstructured interviews (Punch & Oancea, 2014; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Although semi-structured and unstructured are one-to-one interviews, semi-structured interview is where the interviewer has a predetermined list of questions, has

particular topic to learn about and has plan to ask follow-up questions (Denscombe, 2017; Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Unstructured interview is open-ended, in-depth interviews, non-standardised (Punch & Oancea, 2014). The investigator may set only one question to be answered freely by the interviewee and then the researcher follows-up the points that seem worthy (Bryman, 2016).

This study adopted one-to-one semi-structured interview methods because it assists the researcher in obtaining an in-depth understanding (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Semi-structured interview also had in-built flexibility to adjust to specific participants and situation (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Consequently, this allowed the communication process between interviewer and interviewee to become more sufficient and more flexible in answering questions. The interviewee additionally was able to develop new ideas and converse more extensively on the issues introduced by the interviewer (Denscombe, 2017). However, the interviewees had great freedom in answering questions or abstaining; in the sequencing questions, attention was granted to various topics, the amount of time and their exact wording in order also to ensure the authenticity of data (Robson & McCartan, 2016).

The initial interview schedule of the study was generated through discussion in the literature review as it seeks to understand the Saudi rural context. There were three models for the interview questions: a model for school leaders, deputies, and teachers, a model for school leadership supervisors, and a model for training supervisors (Please see Appendix 5, 8, and 10). After obtaining the ethical approval and before collecting the data, the researcher conducted initial one-to-one semi-structured interviews with a supervisor from the School Development Department, a school leader, a school deputy, and three teachers to ensure the appropriateness of the questions, enrich his experience, and build his confidence. In addition, this study encountered the Covid-19 pandemic before collecting the data, contributing to adding some questions. Therefore, some modifications were made to the initial interview schedule, which included the following:

- Added questions: (including supervisors' interview schedules please see Appendix 9, and 11)
 - How is the school's operational plan built? How are teachers involved in making it?
 - How is the school led in light of the Covid-19 crisis? What are the challenges and opportunities?

- How is CPD going during the pandemic? What are the challenges and opportunities?
- Redrafted some questions:
 - In case of a problem occurring within the school, what steps are taken to solve this problem?
 - Are teachers involved in decision-making? How and why?
- Broke down some questions:
 - How does communication occur within the school? And with the local community?
 - How are trusted relationships built among school staff? What is the leader's role?
 - What motivates you to work in a rural school? What is the leader's role in motivating employees?
 - How is leadership distributed in the school?

(Please see Appendix 6 for the amended interview schedules for school leaders, deputies, and teachers). The total number of one-to-one semi-structured interviews was 28 (a leader, a deputy, two teachers from each school, two school leadership supervisors, and two training supervisors), and the duration of the interviews ranged from one hour to an hour and a half. The aim of these interviews was to obtain information about rural schools from the point of view of leaders, their deputies, and teachers.

4.4.2.2 Focus groups:

Focus group interviews are typically included as small as four individuals to as large as twelve individuals (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). They can be semi-structured or unstructured interviews that are used to interview a group of participants at the same time (Punch & Oancea, 2014; Sarantakos, 2012). According to Thomas (2015), the role of researcher in focus group interview is to moderate and facilitates conversation between the interviewees. The position of the investigator in the interviews will adopt 'a marginal role instead of being with side of a pivotal role' (Thomas, 2015, p. 192). The technique of focus group interview is efficient in collecting qualitative data because several individuals provide information at the same times (Robson & McCartan, 2016). It empowers interviewees to make freely their comments and ideas by their own words, whilst this process motivates others in the group to participate in the discussion (Robson & McCartan, 2016). Therefore, a semi-structured focus group interviews were adopted in this thesis in order to have as much as possible information from participants.

Before collecting the data, the researcher conducted two interviews with a focus group consisting of three teachers. The first interview was face-to-face, in which the researcher was able to ensure everyone's participation and move between questions. Still, some details of academic background were excluded (Please see Appendix 7). The second interview was online, in which the researcher found a way to ensure participation from all participants. The investigator was able to design a table consisting of twelve columns and five rows, which was used during the online interviews (Please see Appendix 12). For example, the researcher used to put a checkmark when one of the participants answered a question and proceeded to ask the other participants and listen to their answers. Due to the time of data collection, there were some restrictions because of the Covid-19 pandemic; most focus group participants preferred to conduct online interviews, as five out of six interviews were completed online (3 from girls' schools and two from boys' schools).

4.4.3 Data collection Process:

The researcher first translated the information sheet and the consent form and sent them to the Education Department in the Golden Governorate to obtain approval to conduct the study. After that, he travelled to Saudi Arabia and went to the Education Department, which in turn emailed a letter stating the researcher's name and the study's title to all its rural secondary schools. In the first week of the data collection, the investigator conducted a pilot study, which adjusted the interview questions and identified the appropriate technique for online interviews. Also, the Education Department provided the researcher with a list that includes the schools' names to which the conditions of this study apply, their locations, and the leaders' names and phone numbers. Six of the school leaders were contacted, who expressed their complete willingness to participate in the study after obtaining the information sheet and the consent form, which were provided to all participants before interviewing them.

The six case studies were in a rural context, including six different schools (three girls' schools and three boys' schools) that were distinguished by their geographical isolation. Five interviews were taken from each school, one was a focus group with five teachers, and four were one-to-one semi-structured interviews with the school leader, the deputy, and two teachers. Also, the researcher conducted four one-to-one semi-structured interviews with four supervisors, two from the school leadership Department and two from the Training Department of the Education Department of the Golden governorate. The interviews were in the places desired by the participants, as some were inside their schools, other were outside their schools, the Department of Education, the Training Department, and some were online. Thus, the

number of interviews conducted by the researcher was thirty-four, plus five interviews as pilot study (Please see Figure 4:3).

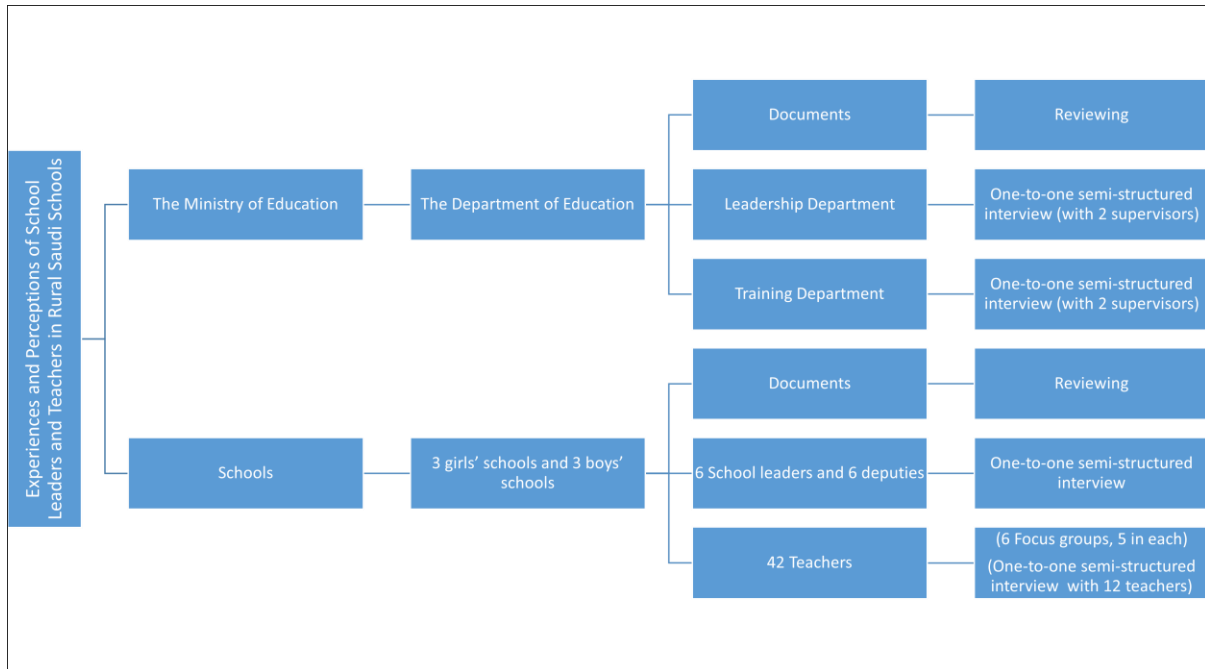


Figure 4:3 Data collection process

The researcher first conducted interviews with teachers and school leaders (principals and deputies), as it took around two and a half months to collect data from six schools. Also, vital documents were collected from the six schools which were in Arabic. After that, the researcher went to the Department of school leadership and conducted an interview with the boys' supervisor; then he contacted the girls' supervisor and interviewed her online. Next, the Training Department was contacted to coordinate with the training supervisors, and two interviews were conducted, one with the supervisor of the girls' school, and the other with the supervisor of boys' schools. All interviews were conducted in Arabic and were recorded with audio device. Afterwards, the researcher transferred them to his laptop, which was secured with a password to keep them safe. Finally, the investigator travelled to the Ministry of Education to collect essential documents in Arabic and English. The data collection took about three months, as the researcher returned to the United Kingdom to complete the data analysis.

4.5 Pilot study:

A pilot study is considered usually as a small study for identifying potential biases that might be encountered by the researcher and for examining the quality of interview protocol (Chenail,

2011). It seeks to test the proposed methods in research in order to see if the planned processes are performed as envisioned by the investigator or they require some modifications (ibid). Conducting a pilot study increases considerably the likelihood of success in the key study in which it becomes a crucial component of a good research design (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). On the other hand, a piloting interview scheme can help the researcher to obtain some experiences of using it and infuse a better sense of confidence (Bryman, 2016). Therefore, this study conducted a pilot study to ensure all interview questions were appropriate to be asked and provided adequate and meaningful answers. The researcher arranged a meeting at a different time with an expert school leader and with three teachers in order to interview them and to receive feedback. It became clear to the researcher that some concepts should be clarified more straightforwardly, such as globalisation and its effects on rural schools. Additionally, the investigator conducted an online interview with a small focus group of three teachers. This interview was essential as it became clear to the researcher that a table should be made for focus group interviews conducted via the internet. The table consisted of twelve columns and five rows. These tables enabled the researcher to ensure that all participants had the opportunity to participate. It also allowed the researcher to finalise the step of data collection after analysing the findings of the pilot study and then updating the research methodology.

4.6 Data Analysis

Qualitative research has numerous ways in order to analyse data that allow researchers to form answers to their research questions (Creswell, 2014a). It also utilises an inductive strategy because its purpose is to investigate, in a natural setting, the aim of which is to gain the feelings and thoughts of those being observed and interviewed (Lichtman, 2013). Indeed, data analysis in qualitative research seeks understanding how to make sense out of the data that involves interpreting, reducing, and combining what the investigator has read and observed and what participants have stated (Creswell, 2014a; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Thus, analysing qualitative data is ‘the process of making meaning’ that is fundamentally inductive, iterative, and comparative (Lichtman, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 202). This study combines interviews and documentary data so that there are two parts of data analysis.

4.5.1 Documentary reviewing

Documents can provide the researcher with further questions to ask, context and background information, a way to track development and change, supplementary data and substantiation of findings from other data sources according to Bowen (2009). They can be additionally

considered as a pattern to identify structures of an organisational culture and provide in-depth information about that culture (Jung et al., 2009). Therefore, reviewing documents enhances the researcher to gain ‘the detailed and meaningful examination of underlying values, beliefs and assumptions’ which can be utilised to capture the deep mythical underpinning of school culture (Deal & Peterson, 2016; Jung et al., 2009, p. 31).

The researcher in this study evaluated the collected documents to ascertain whether they were relevant to the research purpose (Bowen, 2009). The documents were also assessed by the investigator in order to ensure the four criteria of authenticity, credibility, representativeness, and meaning (Briggs et al., 2012; Bryman, 2016).

In the beginning, the researcher arranged the documents and made sure they were consistent with the three concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. Attempts were made to determine the differences between rural and urban schools through circulars issued by the Ministry of Education regarding regulations, systems, and policies related to the three concepts and the powers available to school leaders. Also, the documents were the operational plans of the six schools, which the researcher reviewed then in order to see the extent of their impact on what the participants indicated. The documents included internal work letters, circulars, and decisions in those schools to learn about communication, decision-making methods, distributed leadership, and the depth of understanding of school culture.

4.5.2 Interview analysis

Lichtman (2013) proposed a process that includes three levels in order to conduct an analysis of central themes, which is adopted by this study.

Firstly, preparing and organising the data:

In the beginning, the researcher created nine folders, which included the six schools, school leadership supervisory, training supervisory, documents, and the pilot study to ensure access to the information rapidly and precisely. On the other hand, the interviews were transcribed daily into words and texts during and after collecting the data. In fact, it took a lot of time to finish the transcription, as the duration of the interview ranged from one to two hours. While transcribing the interviews, the investigator recorded various possible thoughts, ideas, and notes (Please see figure 4:4 below).

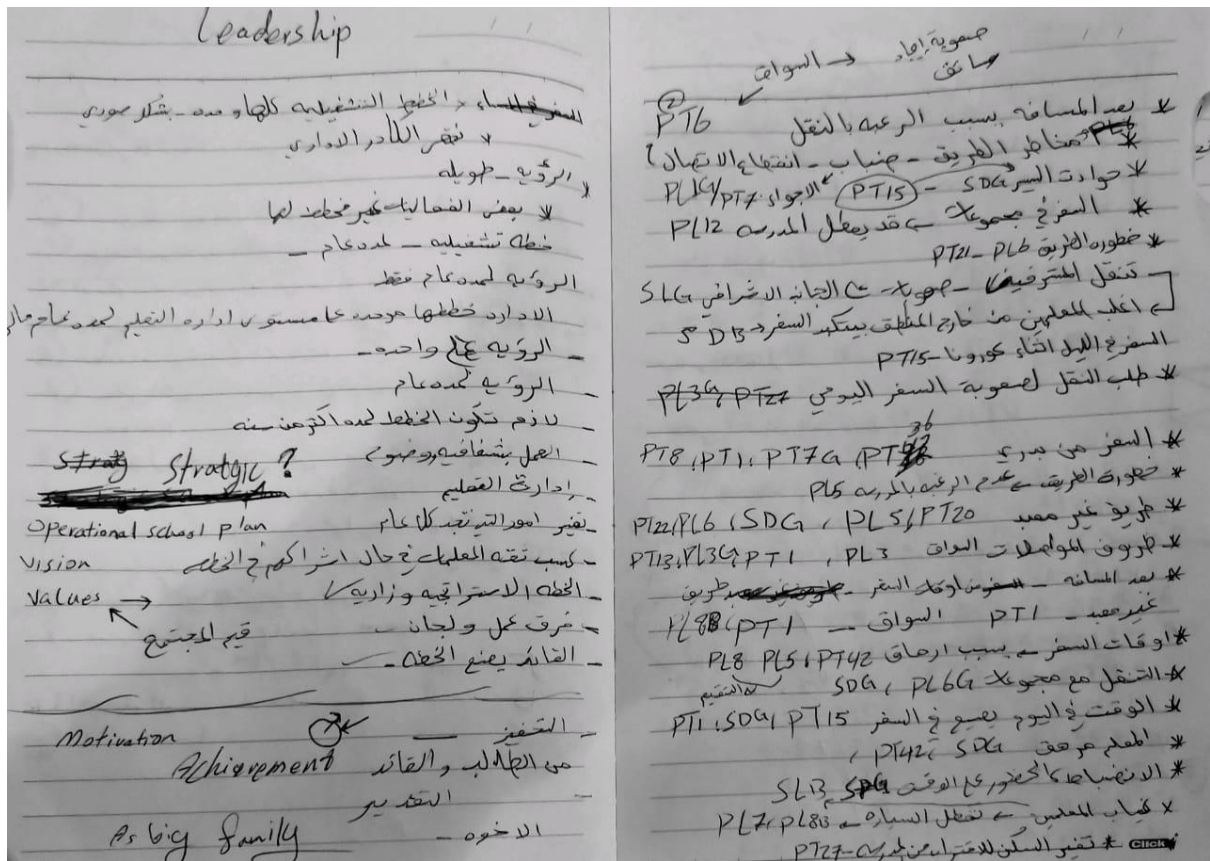


Figure 4:4 Example of notes

Secondly, reviewing and recording the researcher's thoughts:

After completing the transcription of all the interviews into texts and words, the researcher transferred all the Word files to the MAXQDA software. Then, the participants' files were arranged according to each school, symboling the schools, where the girls' schools were (A, B, and C) and the boys' schools (D, E, and F), and two folders were developed for school leadership and training supervisors. (Please see figure 4:5)

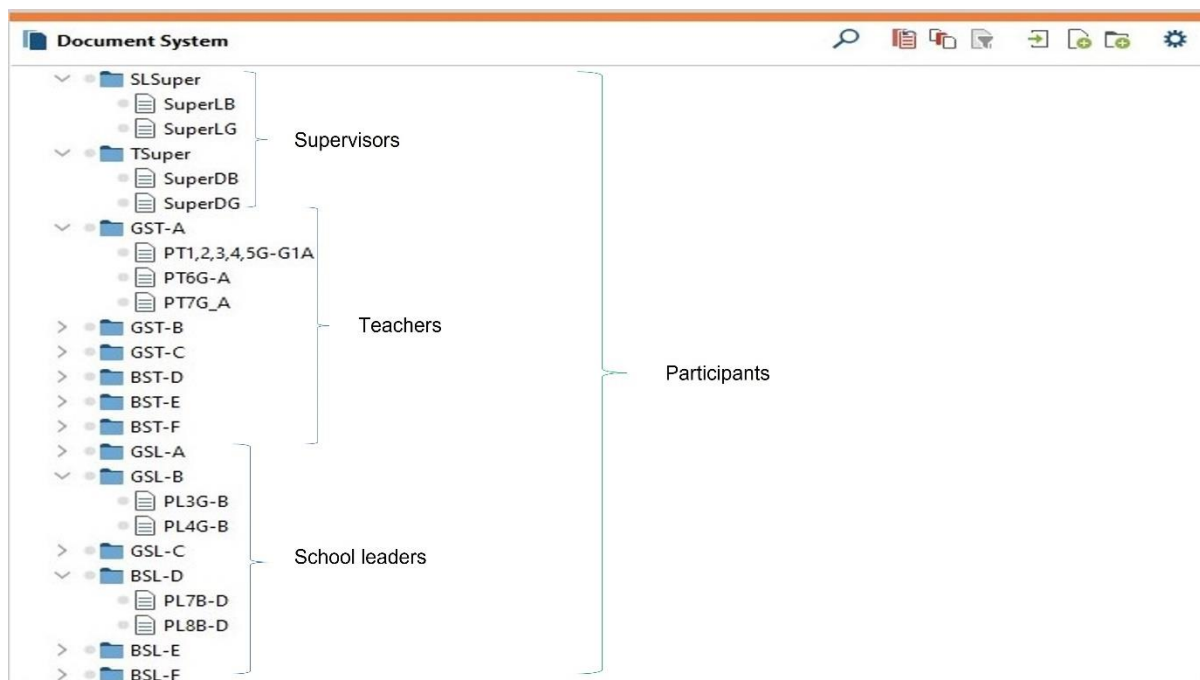


Figure 4:5 Map of participants

It is clear from the previous figure that the supervisors, schools, teachers, and school leaders were symbolised. The following table 4:2 explains what the symbols means.

Symbol	Meaning
SLSuper	School leadership supervisory
SuperLG	School leadership supervisors for girls' schools
SuperLB	School leadership supervisors for boys' schools
TSuper	Training supervisory
SuperDG	Training supervisor for girls' schools
SuperDB	Training supervisor for boys' schools
GST-A, GST-B, GST-C	Teachers in girls' schools (A, B, and C)
BST-D, BST-E, BST-F	Teachers in boys' schools (D, E, and F)
GSL-A, GSL-B, GSL-C	Schools' leaders (principals and deputies) (A, B, and C)
BSL-D, BSL-E, BSL-F	Schools' leaders (principals and deputies) (D, E, and F)
PT number G	The T means teacher, and G means from girls' schools

PT number B	The T means teacher, and B means from boys' schools
PL number G	PL means school leader; G means from girls' school
PL number B	PL means school leader; B means from boys' school

Table 4:1 The meaning of participant symbols

Thirdly, the three Cs: Coding, Categorising and Concepts

At this level, the researcher moved from raw data to more meaningful themes or concepts. Lichtman (2013) called this level the three Cs of analysis that begin from coding moving to categorising and then finally to concepts or themes (Figure 3:4).

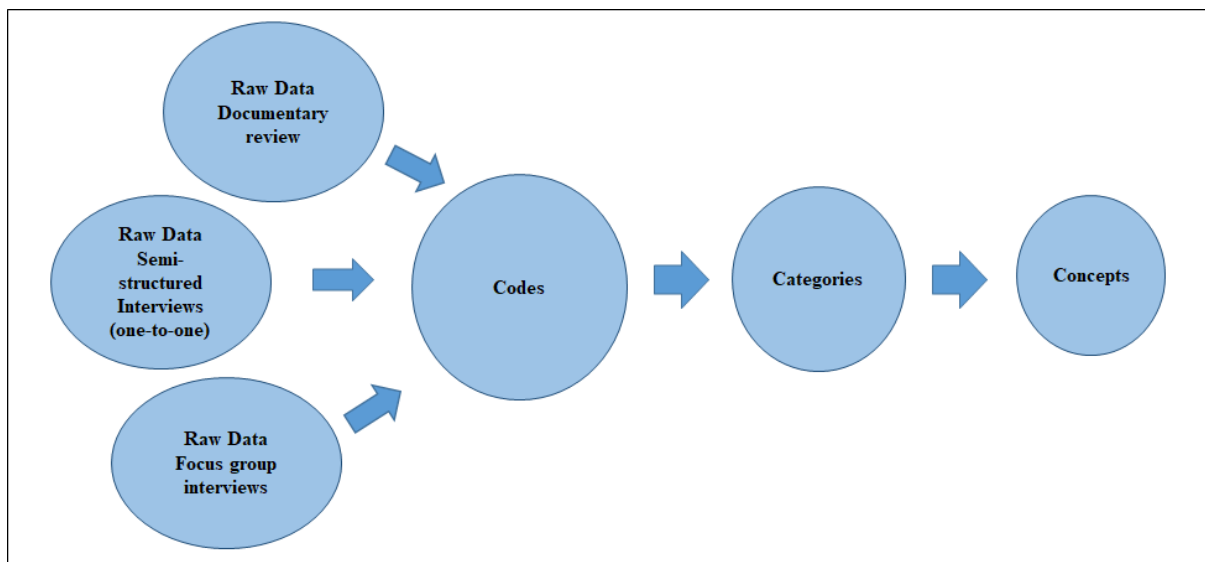


Figure 4:6 Three Cs Data Analysis: Codes, Categories, Concepts by (Lichtman, 2013)

The researcher followed orderly the six steps which are broken down by Lichtman (2013) as follows:

Step 1: Initial coding:

In this step, the investigator started reading the first transcript carefully in order to code a phrase, a word or the respondent's own words. After that, the process continued with the subsequent transcripts, as consequently, there were a vast range of words and phrases which can generated a considerable number of codes in this step. Moreover, the researcher used MAXQDA software to add codes through the (Code system) function.

Step 2: Revisiting initial coding:

There were many codes after finishing the previous step. As such, the researcher revisited the initial coding process and then rejected the redundancy. This step focused more on clarifying terms, renaming synonyms, modifying codes and removing redundancies. Thus, whatever works better was chosen, such as selecting one term to describe the attribute (Lichtman, 2013).

Step 3: initial listing categories:

After modifying the codes, the researcher arranged them into categories. There were some codes that became the main topics, whereas others could be listed under those topics and came to be subsets of them. This step related codes as subsets of categories by moving from one long list of codes into various lists of categories (Lichtman, 2013).

Step 4: Modifying the initial list:

This step persisted as the iterative process in which the categories were modified. There were more categories that were able to be combined, and certain categories were less significant than others (Lichtman, 2013). The aim of the investigator here was to ensure the coherence and the accuracy of the identification of categories.

Step 5: Revisiting Categories:

The list of categories was visited again in this step so that the researcher was able to identify critical elements and remove redundancies. Also, it was to ensure that all categories had the most needed information. The researcher attempted to check those categories appropriately so that one part might reveal more interesting thoughts and ideas than another.

Step 6: from categories to concepts:

This step reflects the meaning that attaches to the collected data by identifying the key concepts or themes (figure 4:6).

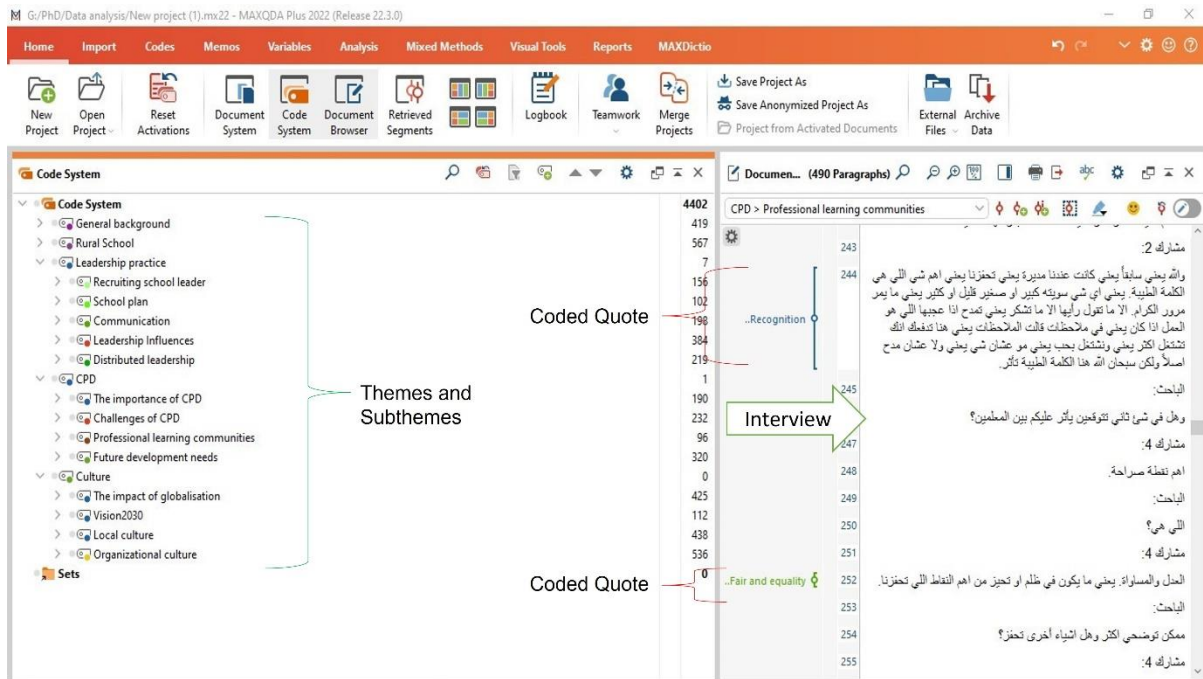


Figure 4:6 Themes and Sub-themes

The researcher at this step attempted to recognise certain ideas and thoughts that appeared to be more powerful and more productive than others. As a rule of thumb, Lichtman (2013) suggested five to seven concepts as the maximum number, and it might be fewer in conducting analyses where it becomes more sophisticated. Therefore, the researcher sought that the themes under each of the three concepts should be, at most, this number. In this step, the researcher tried to avoid superficial thoughts and think about the most logical and informative way of sorting. Rethinking, reorganising, and rewriting would usually lead the researcher to more robust ideas and thoughts according to Lichtman (2013). Finally, there was an attempt to weave the new ideas together with the information from the available literature.

4.7 Quality of Research

Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Guba and Lincoln (1994) (as cited in Bryman, 2016) indicate that it is important to allocate terms and ways of assessing and determining the quality of qualitative study which enhances validity and reliability (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2014). They suggest the main criteria for evaluating qualitative research is trustworthiness (Bryman, 2016). Trustworthiness is discussed in the next section.

4.7.1 Trustworthiness

The trustworthiness of qualitative research has caused some concerns that are raised by positivists or (the experimental and natural sciences) (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). This might be that their concepts of reliability and validity are not addressed, as in in constructivist work (Lincoln, 1995; Shenton, 2004). Thus, Stenbacka (2001) (as cited in Golafshani, 2003, p. 601) indicates that ‘the concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research. If a qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is no good’. However, a researcher should be concerned with ensuring reliability and validity in qualitative investigation which involves conducting the study in an ethical way while designing research, analysing findings, and judging the trustworthiness of the research (Golafshani, 2003; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

There are many strategies to evaluate and judge qualitative studies in which interpretivist researchers attempt to exclude themselves from positivist paradigm (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Shenton, 2004). Among all of them, Lincoln and Guba (1985) (as cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) propose four criteria established for trustworthiness so that each of them is equivalent standard to quantitative study (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). The four criteria are:

1. Credibility (in parallel to internal validity);
2. Transferability (in parallel to external validity, generalisability);
3. Dependability (in parallel to reliability);
4. Confirmability (in parallel to objectivity) (Anney, 2014; Bryman, 2016; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2014; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Shenton, 2004).

This research adopted the interpretivist paradigm and constructivist position. Therefore, it embraced the four criteria established by Lincoln and Guba which in line with this thesis and discussed individually in the following sections (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008).

4.7.1.1 Credibility

The importance of this emphasis on multiple realities is mostly obvious in the trustworthiness criteria of credibility (Bryman, 2016). Credibility is considered as the confidence that the research findings are true and credible (Anney, 2014). While credibility recognises that multiple accounts of social reality exist, it is attained by representing adequately those multiple realities (Dooley, 2007; Noble & Smith, 2015). Thus, it determines whether or not the findings of a research illustrate plausible information presented from the original data of the participants and interprets correctly their original views (Anney, 2014). There are some credibility

strategies whereby qualitative investigators establish rigour of the inquiry namely: (a) prolonged engagement; (b) use of peer debriefing; (c) triangulation; and (d) member checks (Anney, 2014; Dooley, 2007; Erlandson et al., 1993; Klenke, 2016; Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Morrow, 2005; Morse, 2015).

(a) Prolonged engagement occurs when the researchers immerse themselves in the world of participants (Anney, 2014). The researcher develops a trusting relationship with participants in order to gain a deep understanding of the inquiry and reduce the distortions of information which may appear because the existence of the investigator in the field (Anney, 2014; Klenke, 2016). The researcher of this study has experiences of working in a rural context and was able to engage with people who are currently working in that environment.

Also, understanding the Saudi rural culture can raise some challenges for an outsider, while the investigator of this study is considered as an insider. Greene (2014) indicates that considering a researcher as insider means, s/he holds values, beliefs, behaviours, knowledge and perspectives of her/his cultural community which is under research. Hence, according to Kanuha (as cited in Dwyer & Buckle, 2009, p. 57) 'for each of the ways that being an insider researcher enhances the depth and breadth of understanding a population that may not be accessible to a non-native scientist, questions about objectivity, reflexivity and authenticity of a research project are raised because perhaps one knows too much or is too close to the project and may be too similar to those being studied'. However, critics of being an insider debate, on the one hand, that considerable familiarity might generate a loss of objectivity and, consequently, the risk of making assumptions based on the investigator's prior experiences and knowledge would arise (Greene, 2014). On the other hand, insider researcher is considerably criticised for being biased inherently whereby the personal values, beliefs and experiences of the investigator may impact the research methodology, design or/and findings (Greene, 2014).

Therefore, ensuring the engagement with participants was consciously applied in this thesis as a way of providing confidence to obtain a substantive understanding of the research. The researcher was also very self-aware of being in the middle among insider and outsider which helped to mitigate any possible researcher bias (Breen, 2007). This study additionally adopted purposive sampling method which is essential to ensure the quality of collecting data (Tongco, 2007).

(b) Use of peer debriefing is intended to draw conceptual development of a research and prevent bias (Morse, 2015). The researchers have the chance to exam their growing insights through exposing themselves to searching questions about their findings, elements, or something else from their peers or colleagues (Anney, 2014; Greene, 2014). Hence, this study was supervised by highly professional supervisors and was assessed continuously during the study. Also, the researcher had participated in meeting groups with his colleagues to share experiences and discussing the faced issues. Participating in academic conferences additionally was one of the researcher targets in order to have useful feedback.

(c) Triangulation involves in utilising and comparing more than one source of data to determine the accuracy of information in a study (Bryman, 2016; Bush, 2012). It assists the researcher to decrease bias and it catechises the integrity of the responses of participants (Anney, 2014). This procedure enhances depth and scope of the research because it can use altered qualitative methods, different participants, or various sets of data in order to answer the research questions (Morse, 2015).

This study selected different levels of participants including school leaders, teachers, school leadership supervisors, training supervisors from the Department of Education in Golden governorate. Also, multiple methods of data collection were used which are semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and documentary data. Gathering different data from different levels of participants assisted the researcher to gain in-depth understanding about their experiences of working in Saudi rural context and answer the study's questions.

(d) Member checking is considered as a quality control process and the heart of credibility that allows the researcher to improve the quality of qualitative data (Anney, 2014; Harper & Cole, 2012). In constructionist epistemology, member checking use as a manner of providing opportunities to participants to reconstruct, delete or add information in order to ensure the nature of the research data (Birt et al., 2016).

This research espoused two different types of interviews namely on-to-one semi-structured interviews and semi-structured focus group interviews. Firstly, in the one-to-one interviews, the researcher sent the transcripts of interviews back to all the participants to make their changes (add or delete information) and then get them back. Although member checking with focus groups is criticised due to the time limitation (Birt et al., 2016), O. Nyumba et al. (2018) argue that it allows focus group discussion participants to verify resonance and accuracy with their experiences. Therefore, in focus

groups, participants received the transcribed interviews to make their changes and then returned them to the researcher.

4.7.1.2 Transferability

Transferability is concerned with transferring the findings to other participants, to other contexts or even to the same context at some other time; as such, they consider as generalizable results (Anney, 2014; Bryman, 2016). Generalisability in qualitative research may be seen to be a more complicated and controversial issue (Polit & Beck, 2010). The aim of nearly all qualitative studies is to yield a rich and in-depth contextualised understanding of respondents' experiences over the intensive research of specific cases (ibid). Although some argue that generalisability can be challenge in any types of research, some believe thick description may produce a database for making judgments regarding plausible transferability in qualitative studies (Bryman, 2016; Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Polit & Beck, 2010). However, this study aims to obtain an in-depth understanding about education leadership in a rural context through the three concepts: leadership practice, culture, and CPD. Regardless of adopting purposive sampling which can promote generalisation and transferability (Polit & Beck, 2010), this thesis is not interested in generalisability, but seeks to encourage further study of the Saudi rural context.

4.7.1.3 Dependability

Dependability is concerned with the main challenge in qualitative research: that 'the way in which a study is conducted should be consistent across time, researchers, and analysis' (Gasson, 2004, as cited in Morrow, 2005, p. 252). Therefore, the process of analysing findings should be repeatable, explicit and in line with accepted criteria for a specific design as much as possible (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Morrow, 2005). Dependability is accomplished through cautiously pursuing the emerging study design and through establishing an audit trail (Bryman, 2016; Morrow, 2005):

An audit trail describes in detail the research steps taken from the beginning to reporting the findings (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). The researcher characterises comprehensively the detailed chronology of the study's processes and activities (Morrow, 2005). Questions would be asked e.g. how the data are collected and analysed and how decisions are made throughout the inquiry (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). The audit trail

also might be tested by peers, advisor or colleagues who act as auditors (Bryman, 2016; Morrow, 2005).

In order to ensure dependability and confirmability the researcher was cautious when pursuing the study design through using the audit trail. The investigator kept the transcripts of interviews, recordings, and records memos on the process of conducting the study to construct this trail (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Additionally, supervisors, peers and colleagues were involved to act as auditors in order to ensure dependability and confirmability.

4.7.1.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to which degree the study's findings can be confirmed or enhanced by other investigator (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). It is concerned with making sure that, whilst a full objectivity may be unattainable, interpretations and data of the findings should not be impacted by the researcher's values, beliefs, theoretical tendencies or biases (Bryman, 2016; Morrow, 2005). Korstjens and Moser (2018) distinguish confirmability in its neutrality in the procedure of interpretation that is immersed in the analysis procedure. Although there are differences between confirmability and dependability, the audit trial can be used to achieve both (Anney, 2014; Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Morrow, 2005). Confirmability can also be achieved through triangulation in order to assist the researcher with the interpretation process (Anney, 2014). Thus, the two strategies were used in this study to confirm the findings of this thesis and to avoid bias as much as possible.

4.8 Ethical consideration

Ethical practices need to be engaged in all levels of the study process (Creswell, 2014a). Research ethics have emerged as a fundamental concern in educational research, and no study can indeed be undertaken without observing ethical standards (Ramrathan et al., 2017). Dooly et al. (2017) argued that researcher should be as ethical as possible when interpreting the study's findings. To do this, they suggest researchers employ triangulation strategies or verify their conclusions with informants themselves through interviews and other qualitative methodologies-based procedures (Dooly et al., 2017). Thus, this study used some strategies to ensure the trustworthiness that include (a) prolonged engagement; (b) use of peer debriefing; (c) triangulation; (d) member checks; and (e) audit trail.

Additionally, according to the British Educational Research Association (BERA), there are responsibilities towards the participants that the researcher must consider, the most important of which are as follows:

- Working with ethics and respecting anyone.
- Obtaining approval from the institutional ethics committee.
- Sharing the research findings with participants after it is published.
- Minimising any harm or risk to participants and avoiding works for which researchers are not competent.
- Obtaining the consent of the participants.
- All participants should understand what the study is about.
- Explaining to the participants that they have the right to withdraw from the study during the research period (BERA, 2018).

The name of the region and participants in this thesis is anonymous in order to not be identified. The researcher also gained ethical approval from the University of Reading before collecting the data (please see appendix 2). Also, there was an information sheet that translated and signed by all the participants in order to ensure confidentiality. This sheet comprises the purpose of the study, how participants have been selected, what they will be asked and information about allowing them to withdraw at any stage (please see appendix 3). Before each interview, the researcher provided opportunities for all participants to ask questions and clarify all their rights in participating in this study. The researcher also obtained the consent of all participants in the study, which includes their reading of the information sheet, their understanding of the study, their consent to participate, to record the interview, and to take quotes from their words (please see appendix 4). The participants in this research were entirely voluntary so that the researcher considered protecting all information. The interviews were recorded; however, they were saved in the researcher computer which has secure access with a password. These recorded interviews will be deleted from the researcher's computer after this study is completed.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the research methodology to help to understand the perceptions and experiences of school leaders and teachers in rural Saudi Arabia. It also touched on the research paradigms from their ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives. This study adopts the ontological concept of constructionism assumptions, as it considers the participants as social actors who can create and construct their social reality. The epistemological orientation of this research stands for the interpretivist position, which aligns significantly with constructionism assumptions. Therefore, it relies on its qualitative research methodology to understand Saudi rural schools in depth.

This study follows the approach of multiple case studies (six different rural schools) to show various perspectives on this issue. It also adopts purposive sampling, documentary reviewing, one-to-one semi-structured interviews, and semi-structured focus group interviews. Finally, this chapter presented the methods of collecting data from the participants, the process of analysing it, the pilot study, and the ethical consideration.

The coming chapters analyse and discuss the findings of this study by dividing them into three chapters: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. The findings will also be discussed, interpreted, and linked to the available literature.

Data analysis and discussion: Introductory Page

Introduction:

This study aims to explore and understand school leaders' and teachers' perceptions and experiences running rural schools in KSA. The framework of this thesis relies on three key concepts: leadership practice, culture and continuing professional development. The following questions are proposed:

Main research question

- What are school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

In order to answer this question, three sub-questions are addressed:

Sub-questions

- ❖ How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?
- ❖ How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?
- ❖ What are the continuing professional development experiences and needs of teachers working in rural schools in KSA?

The following three chapters discuss and analyse the findings, through which each sub-question will be addressed in a separate chapter. Data for this study were collected from six rural schools with some official documents related to the operation of those schools, the regulations, and the leaders' authorities. However, the context of rural schools, together with some information of participants is presented in the next sections to provide a clearer background.

The study context:

Schools in Saudi Arabia can be classified into three categories according to their geographical location. The first type is schools located within cities, whether large, medium, or small, called urban schools (Alqahtani et al., 2021). The second type is called semi-rural schools, which are in villages which are less populated and far from cities. They have some modest services, including a health centre and a police station. Finally, there is the third type of school, which is termed a rural school (ibid).

This research focuses on schools located in remote rural areas, where poor services constitute one of the challenges discussed in chapter 6. Six schools were selected, namely A, B, C (girls), D, F and G (boys).

School (A):

School (A) is a girls' school located in an area characterised by its mountainous landscape, as it is approximately 180 km away from the nearest city. Before the Covid-19 pandemic, there was no mobile network and internet in the region, but now these services are available but still need improvement. The inhabitants of this village and its surrounding depend heavily on agriculture and the care of livestock. They have a Sheikh who separates them in the event of any conflict between individuals or groups. The school also serves the village in which it is located and the nearby towns that do not have secondary schools, for example. Most of its 186 students are from tribes with customs and traditions that differ from those in urban areas and the school guard from the same place. The school contains twenty teachers, a principal and a deputy appointed by the Ministry of Education and distributed to the school by the Education department.

School (B):

School (B) is about 50 km away from the nearest city, and it is distinguished by its proximity to the motorway linking two major cities and designated for girls. The area's nature is flat and surrounded by valleys that flow with water during rains on nearby mountain range. The mobile and internet services before Covid-19 were very weak, but they have been improved recently. The population of this region depends mainly on agriculture and cattle breeding, and some residents have jobs in nearby cities. The school has 197 students from different tribes who share many customs and traditions, and the school guard is from the same village. The Ministry appointed the school staff, and the Education Department assigned them to work on this school. The school has 19 teachers and a principal, but the deputy has some teaching tasks in addition to administrative work, as the school leader assigned her.

School (C):

School (C) is for girls and is located in an area recognised by its flat land and is famous for cultivating a type of fruit in addition to raising livestock. The nearest city is about 74 km from the school, and it had no internet and mobile services before the Covid-19 pandemic, which is now available. The region is characterised by a tribal character with customs and traditions,

and it has a Sheikh that many residents return to in the event of conflicts. The school guard is also a resident of the area where there are 82 students. Additionally, the deputy is mainly a teacher, and the school principal assigned her to help her with many administrative tasks. The number of teachers affiliated with it is 15, and all its staff are appointed by the Ministry and directed to the school by the Education Department.

School (D):

School (D) is for boys and is about 50 km from the nearest urban area, as it suffered from a weak mobile network and internet outages before Covid-19, which is now available there. The nature of the land there is characterised by being flat, and its people depend on agriculture and livestock. The school serves several neighbouring villages and has a different group of tribes who share many customs and traditions. The school has 190 students and a school guard from the village in which the school is located. The school staff, consisting of a principal, a deputy, and 20 teachers, was appointed by the Ministry of Education and directed to this school by the Education Department.

School (E):

The boys' school (E) is around 70 km from the nearest city, as it is famous for raising livestock and has some agricultural areas. Previously, this area suffered from weak mobile and internet networks before the Covid-19 pandemic, which has significantly improved. The school serves a group of villages from different tribes, but they are very similar in their customs and cultural traditions. The school has 150 students, and the school guard is from the same village. The principal, his deputy, and 18 teachers were appointed by the Ministry and directed by the Education Department.

School (F)

The boys' school (F) is one of the most isolated because it is about 172 km from the nearest city. The village where the school is located is rugged and mountainous, yet its people are engaged in agriculture and cattle breeding. After Covid-19, there is a mobile and internet network in the area, as these services were not available in the past. The school serves many surrounding villages, although all their residents belong to one tribe. It contains 164 students, and the school guard is from the same village in which it is located. The school consists of 18 teachers, a principal and a deputy appointed by the Ministry of Education and directed to the school by the Education Department. Please see Table 5.1 on the following page.

Table 5.1

School	Type of school	Number of students	Number of teachers	Number of the management team	The distance between the school and the city (approximate)
A	Girls	186	20	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by DoE)	180 Km
B	Girls	197	19	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by the school leader)	50 Km
C	Girls	82	15	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by the school leader)	74 Km
D	Boys	190	20	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by DoE)	50 Km
E	Boys	150	18	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by DoE)	70 Km
F	Boys	164	18	School leader: 1 School deputy: 1 (Assigned by DoE)	172 Km

Table 5:1 the schools' information

In Table 5:1, every school has a leader and a deputy, but there are two types of deputies. The first type is those assigned by the department of education and are dedicated just to leadership work. As for the second type, those appointed by the school leader are charged with the tasks of leadership work and teaching some subjects. Additionally, it shows the distance to the nearest city where the Department of Education in the Golden Governorate is located. Although the nearest school is approximately 50 km away, the farthest school is around 180 km from the city. Undoubtedly, these distances and other problems pose challenges not only to the school staff but also to the school as a whole. The following three chapters will discuss these challenges in more detail. However, the next section provides some information regarding the schools' staff who participated in this study.

Participants:

The number of participants in this study is fifty-eight, and it is divided into three parts. First, twelve teachers were one-to-one interviewed, while six focus groups were conducted (in each group, five teachers). The second part was about rural school leaders, so one-to-one interviews were conducted with twelve leaders (6 principals and 6 deputies). Finally, four one-to-one semi-structure interviews were conducted with two supervisors from the School Leadership Department and two supervisors from the Training Department; however, their general information will be not presented because they do not deal with those schools daily.

Appendix 13 displays the ages of the teachers participating in the study, the number of years of their experience in education, and the positions in which they work or have exercised. It also shows their qualifications, the time they take to reach school, their educational background, whether in a city or a rural area and their experience working in urban schools.

The data indicate that teachers' ages range from 32 to 59 years, which makes their experiences vary between 6 to 35 years. All of them have a bachelor's degree and one has a master's degree and 64% of them have experience in various fields such as student advising, school leadership, educational supervision or student activities organising. The distance between the school and the teachers' residence may constitute a concern for some teachers, as 33 teachers, equivalent to 78%, take 40 minutes to two hours daily to reach their school. There are 12 teachers who not only graduated from urban schools, but also worked there. In contrast, those who grew up in a rural community and studied in rural schools are 16 teachers, while 4 of them have working experiences in urban schools.

Appendix 14 illustrates general information regarding school leaders including their ages, experiences in education or leadership, current and previous positions, and qualifications. It additionally refers to the time they take to reach school, their educational backgrounds, and their experiences of working in urban schools.

It is clear from appendix 14 that most of the leaders' ages are similar, up to between ten years (38-48), except the leader who is 52 years old. Despite the problem of retention of leaders in rural areas, there are only two leaders whose service in the schools exceeds four years, which is the regular stint of the leader according to the regulations (will be discussed in chapter 5). Also, all of them have been promoted from teachers to their current positions so that all six head principals experienced leadership as deputies and then became school leaders. Among the conditions for obtaining a leadership position are a bachelor's degree or higher, except two

them, and attending some training programmes (as discussed in chapter 5), which is evident in the table. Four out of twelve leaders are rural residents, whereas the remainder take 35 minutes to an hour and a half for the daily commute. The table also shows that five leaders learned and lived in rural areas before joining the university, and two of them had taught in urban schools. It is evident that seven leaders familiarised themselves with the rural community only after entering the field of education. Six of them, however, had taught in urban areas.

Conclusion

This section is an introductory page that provides general background on the context, particularly related to the six rural schools studied. Some information about the participants in this study also is presented in order to provide a deeper profile of the respondents. The three sub-questions of the research will be discussed separately in the following three chapters.

Chapter Five: Leadership Practice

5.1 Introduction:

This chapter focuses on the first sub-research question: how is leadership practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA? In all settings, school leaders require an appropriate combination of leadership knowledge and skills to react successfully to the numerous challenges that they face every day (Du Plessis, 2017). However, it is argued that school leaders in the rural context face distinctive and further challenges compared to their peers in urban schools (Du Plessis, 2017; Klar et al., 2020; Surface & Theobald, 2014). In the international context, rural schools in Saudi Arabia face challenges and opportunities that make them unique, as emphasised by PL9B-E:

‘Educational leadership in rural areas differs from educational leadership in cities, and the success factors of the process of leadership also are different’ (PL9B-E)

There are those who believe that the school leader is highly significant in rural schools (Duncan & Stock, 2010), as illustrated by the following participant:

‘The school leader is the foundation and the main component that drives the school.’ (PT7G-A)

It is also clear that leadership in a rural context is not only within the school but extends to include the surrounding community (Bauch, 2001).

‘I believe that leadership is critical in rural schools and has many different roles and can change many things for the better, whether for the teacher, the student or the local community’ (PT14G-B)

The first sub-question of this study is addressing several themes related to leadership practice in the Saudi rural context that emerge from the data analysis. These themes are integrated as follows:

- Recruitment and retention
- School strategic planning
- Communication
- Leadership influence
- Distributed leadership

5.2 Recruiting and retention:

School leaders have significant potential to promote students' achievement by creating learning atmospheres for teachers and students (Daniëls et al., 2019). Recruiting and retaining individuals for the principalship are considered a challenge in some countries such as USA, Germany, and Saudi Arabia, whereas the shortage is anticipated to grow (Eman & Al-Dhuwaihi, 2021; Hancock et al., 2019). In rural settings, the recruitment and retention of school leaders have become problematic recently (Hansen, 2018; Lee & Mao, 2020; Pendola & Fuller, 2022). Although rural schools arguably need a unique recruitment process (Brenner et al., 2015; Lee & Mao, 2020; Mullooly & Palmer, 2016), there is no difference between rural and urban areas in conditions for recruiting school leaders in Saudi Arabia. These conditions were referred to by the supervisors and the collected documents as follows:

The conditions for applying:

1. The candidate must have a bachelor's degree with a grade of no less than (good) in the speciality (MoE, 2008).
2. The school leader must have previously worked as a school deputy. (SuperLB).
3. Spending four years in education sector for school deputy before applying as indicated by supervisor (SuperLB).
4. According to Ministry of Education conditions, it requires two years as school deputy in order to become school leader.
5. These conditions by the Ministry of Education also require to that school leaders be assigned for four years, subject to renewal, after which they are transferred to another school (rotation process) to renew the work environment (MoE, 2008).
6. Candidates must pass the written test and the personal interview which the leadership supervisors hold (SuperLB).

Four sub-themes emerge from the above conditions:

Qualification and Experience:

In countries such as UK, USA, Canada, Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong, the aspiring school leaders should have formal qualifications, experience and training before taking the position (Betweli, 2020; Jones et al., 2015). However, these criteria may differ, especially in rural schools (Pendola & Fuller, 2022), while some studies conducted in rural areas argued the importance of qualified and experienced leaders (DeFeo & Tran, 2019; Du Plessis, 2017). When these conditions from the collected documents are matched to the study participants, it

turns out that some do not apply to them. For example, the leader and deputy in School 'A' do not have the qualifying degree (bachelor) but do have a diploma. At the beginning of the school leader's career, working as a mathematics teacher for eight years was her first duty. After that, she was promoted to be the school's deputy for three years due to the teachers' reluctance to take the position while the school vitally needed a deputy. Being a school leader was her second promotion because of the lack of an alternative. Nevertheless, during this time, she obtained a lot of short and long-term leadership training programmes as she (PL1G-A) explained:

I was appointed to a village far from this village, and I started to commute a long distance. In those days, rural areas needed teachers, and my village needed a teacher, so I transferred internally after two years to my current school...I was a teacher for eight years, and at that time, I took many leadership courses, some of which reached six months. Until now, I am still actually taking training courses and concentrating on developing myself. Then, I took three years as a deputy in this school with keenness on training courses, and then as a leader for ten years also in my current school because no one prefers to lead a school that is very far from her residence.

After the leader took the position, she needed someone to assist her in the administrative work. The teachers' unwillingness to become the deputy and the lack of an alternative led the leader to seek another option. Then, the leader appointed the current deputy for a three-year term with extra tasks. This is because she was from the same village and the Department of Education rejected her to be a full-time deputy due to her degree. However, after receiving several training courses, the deputy was able to obtain approval from the Education Department as she (PL2G-A) mentioned. This indicates that rural areas face challenges that make these conditions open to exceptions. Rural schools indeed require exceptions in selecting and recruiting school leaders (Pendola & Fuller, 2022). Some challenges in rural schools may allow conditions not to be applied to candidates in specific situations, as Versland (2013) indicates. There are some exceptions for candidates to lead rural schools because there is a reluctance to take the position, as the leadership supervisor (SuperLG) explained:

Sometimes, we must make some exceptions for candidates to lead remote schools in particular...this is due to the shortage of teachers to lead rural schools.

Simultaneously, it appears in school 'A' that the school leader's and deputy's experiences of working in the same school have exceeded the specified period as indicated in the reviewed documents (four years in the position), and they were not involved in the rotation process.

However, the supervisor (SuperLB) from the leadership department justified as following:

It is difficult to transfer some leaders from schools close to their residences to schools far from them in other areas.

This might be a reason for losing some leaders who prefer to work as teachers who live close to their homes instead of occupying any administrative positions, which applied to the leader (PL11B-F) of school 'F'. Thus, an increased level of losing school leaders' retention implies that rural areas should find more people to undertake administrative positions therefore, in any given year, it influences the demand for school leaders which was asserted by Gates et al. (2006); Wood et al. (2013).

Furthermore, the leader in school 'C' became assigned to the leadership work, while the period of her service in public schools was less than four years. She additionally worked as the deputy of another school for six months and did not complete the prescribed period as referred to in the reviewed documents as obtained from the documentary analysis (two years to become school leader). This, therefore, suggests that increasing demand for school leaders while losing their retention creates a challenge in selecting inexperienced principals (Lee & Mao, 2020; Snodgrass Rangel, 2018).

There are also several rural schools where the leaders do not have enough experiences in leadership and management work. The data shows that 43 participants out of 54 began their careers in schools located in remote and isolated rural areas. For instance, teacher (PT3G-A) from focus group (G1A) school A reports:

I was appointed in a remote rural school in my first year, all the school staff were new, from the administration to the teachers. Even the school leader was a newbie like us.
(PT3G-A)

Also, a teacher from school D (PT27B-D) confirmed the same challenge regarding inexperienced school leaders:

At the beginning of my career, when we went to the rural village, we were a group of teachers, each from a different area... we were all new...one of us was appointed as principal, and he was new to the education field and had no administration experience.

The school D leader (PL7B-D) said:

I was new in a very isolated rural school, and the school leader had served in the education sector for around a year.

Inexperience among school leaders and teachers pose challenges for rural schools that are particularly located in remote and isolated areas.

The Lack of administrative staff

School administrative staff have a significant part and function in implementing and supporting school services (Tj, 2021). These services comprise school management, learning, education, counselling and guidance services (Ningrum, 2020). Sizeable schools are likely to have a large number of administrative staff; however, rural leaders frequently look encounter challenges on their own despite being required to meet the same standards of accountability as their greater counterparts (Kooymans et al., 2013). In this study, the six schools agree on the dearth of administrative staff; in fact, school 'C' has no administrative staff at all. The leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C', for example, indicates that:

Our problem in the school is that we do not have a school deputy appointed by the Department of Education, nor is there any administrative staff.

In addition to administrative responsibilities, often school leaders in rural areas undertake a teaching assignment (Preston & Barnes, 2017). The school deputy (PL6G-C) was assigned by the school leader, and she has additional duties such as teaching and sharing in administrative work. When the school deputy was asked how she got the position, she explained:

Rural areas are often known to suffer from a lack of administrative staff. The selection of school deputy is often made from teachers with the fewest number of classes. I was the least in the number of classes...it is considered that I can help in the administration. I became the deputy but was not appointed by the Department of Education. So, I have other tasks to do...I have also experience; I was the school deputy with the former school leader who appointed me.

She then was asked why she did not continue to become a school principal, and her response was:

I did not formally apply to the Department of Education because I did not want to

A teacher (PT20G-C) from the same school also noted this challenge:

The leader does not have assistants, she does not have an administrative assistant, and she does not have a deputy appointed by the Department of Education

In like manner, the leader of school 'A' (PL1G-A) additionally believed that the weakness in the school is the lack of administrative staff, as she explained as follows:

We have weaknesses...we also have a lack of administrative staff. We do not have sufficient administrative staff; one administrator is considered very little.

In school 'D', the leader (PL7B-D) additionally described the school's situation when he was appointed as its leader:

My school has around two hundred students and I have twenty teachers...I do not have a school deputy.

The lack of administrative staff creates new challenges for leaders, including seeking and selecting staff. This leads to the need to develop these candidates professionally which may take an extended period. For example, the leader of school 'B' (PL3G-B) mentioned the challenges that they faced, including the lack of administrative staff:

The first challenge is that there is a shortage of administrative staff, and this is very, unfortunately, a primary problem in the school and rural villages in general.

However, she considered that selecting individuals to help in administrative work needs an understanding of their circumstances and that tasks do not constitute additional burdens. It also requires teachers' follow-up, training, and guidance as she pointed out:

The teacher is a human being, and she has her environment and circumstances, and everything must be considered. I look at her number of classes, work, and education level...Then, I assign her additional tasks...After that, I follow her up, train her and guide her...Here I feel that the thing that annoys me sometimes is selecting the right person for the right place.

From the documentary review, there are many administrative requirements made by the Department of Education that also constitute a burden on school leaders considering the shortage of administrative staff. The leader in school 'E', for instance, explained that the Education Department has many requirements which contribute to increasing the effort and not focusing on developing the work environment. He (PL9B-E) said:

The Education Department asks you to fill out these records, and that is it. You can add, develop and work on these records but they take a lot of effort from you, especially if there is no integrated administrative staff like my school suffers from a lack of secretary, correspondent and administrative assistant. This constitutes that we forced to perform some administrative tasks inaccurately. This reduces the desire of some to hold leadership positions or encourages leaders to request a release from leading the school.

As a result, the lack of an administrative team creates a challenge for rural schools, leading to a gradual rise in the loss of leader retention (Cieminski, 2018). The school 'F' Leader confirmed this when he touched upon his exasperation in his school's lack of sufficient administrative formations. He (PL11B-F) referred to that as:

...especially the remote rural schools, the obstacles and difficulties we face are the incomplete school formations. They do not give you a free school deputy, student advisor or administrator easily...if we ask why the school complement has not been completed? They said the numbers of students are inappropriate, and the policies do not apply to you. This manner in remote rural areas generates frustration and reluctance for us to retain as leaders...Some will say, how long I have served twenty-five, twenty-four, or twenty-three years? It is better for me to become a teacher without additional administrative responsibilities...As a leader, you are the first to enter the school and the last to leave. This is one of the difficulties we face in rural areas, frankly.

The Department of Education provides the administrative staff after getting approval from the Ministry of Education. It depends on the number of students, as shown by the documentary analysis and explained by the leadership supervisor (SuperLB):

Our rural schools have a defect because some administrative staff are not provided in these schools...Well, why are the administrative staff not provided in the villages? Because the schools in rural areas sometimes do not meet the conditions...because the quorum is not achieved so that the number of students was not met.

The dearth of administrative staff not only affects the retention of school leaders but also places more burdens on teachers as administrative work is shared (Rasheed et al., 2010). Simultaneously, this challenge creates an opportunity that reflects positively on communications, the relationships within the school, the sharing of tasks and the whole rural school culture (discussed in the following sections and chapters).

Geographic isolation

The geographic isolation of rural schools and their distance from urban areas pose challenges that decrease the rate of teacher and leader retention. In other words, the more isolated the rural school is, the more challenges and obstacles arise for school staff (Curran & Kitchin, 2021). The data in this study confirm that geographical isolation creates some challenges which might influence rural schools in several aspects: recruitment and retention, rural areas, staff accommodation shortages and commuting difficulties. As a result, it makes those schools have staffing problems vulnerable to not being chosen and to encourages current staff to request transfer to more urbanised schools. In this study, most of the staff of the six schools are living in cities or more urbanised areas. For example, school 'A' is considered one of the most remote and isolated participating schools, with an estimated distance of 180 km, as indicated by the documentary review. Yet, the data (please see appendix 13 and 14) shows that all teachers participating in the study from school A take 40 minutes to two hours to get to school. This was confirmed by the school deputy (PL2B-A) when she said:

Almost two teachers live near the village. The rest are all from the cities of.... The rest are from distant regions.

In the same line, teacher (PT10G-B) from focus group (G2B) school 'B' said that she was the only teacher who lives near the school. On the other hand, all school staff 'C' and 'E' live in the nearest city as reported by school leaders. Consequently, it is not easy to find accommodation, particularly in these geographically isolated areas. For example, 50% of the study participants mentioned the scarcity of accommodation in rural areas, which related to some reasons as follows:

There is no availability of rental accommodation in some rural areas, as the local community occupies all existing buildings as indicated by teacher (PT15G-C) from focus group (G3C):

In all the villages that I used to work in, and even the current one, I live far from them because it is difficult to find accommodation and rent it.

Despite the scarcity of accommodation, the teacher (PT33B-E) from focus group (G5E) explained his experience when he lived in a village close to his previous school where the house was in poor condition and had a high price:

When we appoint a teacher in isolated area... it is challenging for him to find accommodation...I lived in the village of..., which was close to my previous rural

school...we took an old two-bedroom flat which was in poor condition, and its price was very high...and we had to take it.

However, the deputy (PL8B-D) of school 'D' lives in a city where he takes about fifty minutes to get to his school. Also, he described the scarcity of accommodation as very problematic. He believed that housing availability helps significantly in not travelling every day for a long-distance. The lack of accommodation near the school makes commuting school staff long distances every day inevitable. In South Africa, Moletsane et al. (2015) conducted a study on schools located in geographically isolated rural areas. They found that those places suffer from scarcity of accommodation, making the schools staff travel long distances to and from. Yet, findings from this study suggest that long distances create challenges when the staff commute every day. Around 73% teachers who participated in this study take 40 minutes to about two hours to get to their schools, whereas 8 out of 12 leaders take from 35 minutes to an hour and a half. During these times they spend travelling, they face road hazards. Some said that weather fluctuations constituted an obstacle to their arrival at their schools on time.

Additionally, there is another challenge facing female staff who work in rural areas which is the availability of a driver. They travel to and from rural schools in groups or individually through a private driver or one of their relatives. Yet, most of the female participants in this study indicated an obstacle regarding the driver's commitment. The leader (PL3G-B) of school 'B' remarked:

Our commuting circumstances are not stable. Due to the driver's unavailability; a relative such as a husband or son may transport us to and from the school this term, but he may be not able next term. Commuting is one of the most common problems we encounter.

Empowering women is an essential goal that significantly assists in achieving Saudi Vision 2030. Women constitute half of Saudi society and their empowerment creates numerous valuable opportunities (UNP, 2022). In early 2018, the Saudi government allowed women to drive after obtaining a driver's license (UNP, 2018). Women working in those schools see driving as an obstacle. They believe that they must learn how to drive but there is a fear of the new experience that makes them hesitant. Teacher (PT14G-B) is 45 years old, and during this period, she did not learn to drive and had never driven a car before. Fischer et al. (2020) commented that fear of driving is ubiquitous among the general public, and it can cause significant limitations in daily life. However, this type of fear needs several positive approaches

that may take some time (Fischer et al., 2020). In the same manner, the school 'A' leader (PL1G-A) described school staff's challenges, such as finding a driver. Then, she was asked why they did not drive their cars after the government allowed it, and her response was:

They do not want because some are afraid to drive, some do not want to drive at all. Also, since the permission is new, and we are used to a certain system, so it is difficult in just one day to change the thoughts of all people; it must take time.

These challenges caused by long distances create some surprising obstacles on the school day, as exemplified by several responses. The documentary analysis shows that many rural schools are located in areas with mountainous and rugged geographical terrain, which constitutes a challenge to reach them easily. The arrival of staff to their rural schools depends on the weather conditions on the road, the exposure of a group of them to a traffic accident or any other road hazards. Therefore, it might cause either the absence of a large group or their late arrival at their schools, as suggested by the leadership supervisor:

Sometimes teachers come from distances of 200 km, as a result, there will be a delay or absence. So, it is always an obsession for the school leader every morning.
(SuperLB)

These concerns are not only confined to the school leader but also include all school staff. Some study participants opined that long distances make them consider a transfer from their schools to other nearby schools. As an illustration.

I do not face many difficulties in my current school, but the village is far away, which made us request a transfer to nearby schools. (PT4G-A)

The geographical isolation of rural schools is an uncontrollable environmental factor that influences leaders' and teachers' departure decisions (Hansen, 2018; Tran & Dou, 2019). Despite all these challenges, some positive aspects arise as a consequence of commuting. Positive communication and building trusted relationships become inevitable through the problematic situations they encounter during their journey as discussed in the following sections.

Retention improvement:

The Ministry of Education seeks to encourage leaders and teachers to stay in rural schools by providing financial incentives that distinguish them from their counterparts in semi-rural and

urban areas. There is an extra monthly sum of money (remote allowance) that varies from rural for all employees in those areas, as obtained from the documentary review and mentioned by educational leadership supervisor (SuperLB):

A remote allowance is paid to school staff because, in villages that do not have some government services such as a health centre and some government departments, a remote allowance is paid to teachers and leaders.

There are 45 education departments under the Ministry of Education spread over 13 regions of Saudi Arabia. Many teachers and principals wish to be transferred to schools in other education departments for various reasons, including being close to their families. The documentary analysis, therefore, suggests that there are preference points of comparison regarding teachers' and leaders' turnover, so that the higher the total points, the higher the possibility of transfer to a school in another education department. When the Ministry transfers teachers and principals from one education department to another, teachers stay with the same salary, except for principals who are transferred as teachers. However, to increase leaders' retention and encourage others to nominate, principals are given extra ten points in the transfer preference as presented by leadership supervisors:

In addition, the leader gets ten points in the transfer preference (SuperLG)

Moreover, the Ministry recently decided to disburse an additional monthly amount of approximately 200 pounds to all leaders and around 100 pounds to all school deputies who work in public schools. This decision distinguishes them and motivates leaders and deputies to retain in their schools and encourages candidacy for leadership positions. The two school leadership supervisors indicated this as follows:

Now there are some financial features that the Ministry has introduced. The school leader has an incentive of eight hundred riyals with the salary and the deputy has an incentive of five hundred riyals. Here, there is some acceptance. The leader was working and said I have a lot of responsibilities and my salary is the same as the teacher's salary. (SuperLB)

Some leaders say why my colleagues and I are equal in salary. Therefore, the Ministry provided an extra sum of money. It gave the leader eight hundred riyals and the deputy five hundred riyals as an incentive in addition to the remote allowance. (SuperLG)

5.3 School strategic planning:

A school plan is one of the critical elements for improving low-performing schools and overcoming challenges through setting goals and making strategic plans (Strunk et al., 2016). The significance of strategic planning is vital in developing school activities while the school strategic plan includes students, teachers, and leaders (Strunk et al., 2016; Yıkıcı & Altınay, 2018). Strategic planning is a comprehensive procedure that embraces aligning goals with vision, evaluating the organisation's external and internal environmental elements, analysing the collected data and information, and constructing and monitoring plans to address the influences and challenges that might be created by the external environment (Cheng, 2021). However, the documentary analysis in this study indicates that all six schools are based on operational plans. Some participants argued that operational plans are not only limited to rural schools but encompass all public schools. For example, the leader (PL9B-E) of school 'E' referred to that as:

Operational plans in schools are all the same. One template. They copy it and print it.

When the Leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' was asked about her strategic plan, she explained:

I only have a one-year operational plan, which is a template that we fill out.

This point was confirmed by the leadership supervisor (SuperLG) when she made it clear that:

We do not have strategic plans in schools, but we do have operational plans.

The above examples show that rural schools do not have specific strategic plans but are regarded the same as their counterparts in semi-rural and urban areas. In contrast, the Ministry creates, implements, reviews, and modifies the long-term strategic plans of public schools as it requires the Education Departments to request, assess and monitor the annual operational plans from all their affiliated schools. However, some participants demanded that rural schools' plans should be strategic and long-term. For instance, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' noted:

The plan must be strategic over the years. There are plans whose results appear only over a year. It is not reasonable to be only for one year. Some things take a long time, especially you build human capabilities and values; it takes a long time.

This centralised system may ensure that rural schools do not have the authority to develop and implement long-term strategic plans. The school staff can anticipate the challenges and obstacles they face by implementing long-term strategic plans. It makes schools more stable,

which in turn provides many opportunities that create an impenetrable wall against all external threats (Bryson, 2018). This is consistent with a study conducted on ‘Tatweer’ schools in Saudi Arabia, where the participants were 172 school leaders. These schools were located in urban areas, despite the fact that the study suggested that school principals should be given the right to make strategic plans rather than operational plans (Meemar, 2018). Chukwumah (2015) argued that schools operating without strategic plans indicate a lack of commitment to quality management, which could jeopardise them by providing low-quality educational services, and consequent lower student achievement.

Even so, it may require the retention of school staff and the completion of school formations and administrative staff. This was asserted by some of the participants in this study as follows:

If we make a long-term, over the years plan, one of the challenges we may face is that I cannot ensure that we would retain the same staff of the following year, and they may be transferred to other schools, and I may be not able to get an alternative, and this is because most of them are from outside the village. (PL1G-A)

Sometimes we face a problem in implementing the operational plan because of the lack of school formations and administrative staff. (PL11B-F)

The six schools in this study suffer from a lack of administrative staff and a high percentage of those who tend to transfer from their current schools to other schools (discussed in the previous theme). This may negatively impact the development and implementation of the long-term strategic planning of these schools. Still, this kind of planning allows the planners the opportunity to anticipate and act on the future proactively (Yaakob et al., 2019). The previous examples also indicate that the leaders are solely responsible for providing the Education Department with operational plans rather than strategic planning. As a result, there are more responsibilities and burdens on leaders in rural schools in terms of making, monitoring, evaluating, and adjusting school operational plans.

Additionally, from documentary review, after reviewing the operational plans of the six schools, it becomes clear that they are similar in terms of time (one year plan) and often the same requirements. Thus, they often include a vision, mission, values, goals, SWOT analysis, and information on the activities and programmes of those schools. As explained by the school leadership supervisor, the operational schools’ plans align with the vision, mission, and goals of the Ministry of Education.

Schools generally derive their vision and mission from the Ministry's vision and mission...Our vision and mission are derived from the Ministry's vision and mission. It is difficult that the Ministry has a vision and a mission, and I am one of its pillars and I have a different vision. But it is possible to derive a vision to achieve the grand vision, or, for example, a mission that fulfils the Ministry's mission. (PL12B-F)

There are around thirty-three thousand schools under the umbrella of the Ministry of Education, and the Ministry must create comprehensive strategic plans to develop and improve them. Deriving the schools' vision, mission and goals from the vision, mission and goals presented by the Ministry may make this development and improvement typical for all schools. However, the development of a short operational plan (one year) makes the schools' vision, mission and goals change annually. Consequently, this may expose the staff of these schools to disregard such plans or not remember them. When the participants in this study were asked about their schools' vision, mission, and goals, most answered that they did not know them. As an illustration, the focus group (G1A) from school 'A' was asked about the school's strategic plan and vision, and one of the teachers answered that she did not remember it:

We know there are a vision and goals, but among the many things we read, we do not memorise them. (PT2G-A)

Similarly, the same question was asked to the focus group (G4D) at school 'D' about their school's vision and plan, and their response was similar.

We have a vision and a plan, but I do not remember them (PT26B-D)

The prompt response came from his colleague to justify their lack of knowledge of the vision and plan of their school by stating:

The problem is the schools' visions and plans always change, so it is difficult for you to remember them every time. (PT22B)

It is clear from the previous examples that the lack of not knowing the schools' visions and plans is due to two reasons. First, the continuous annual change of schools' operational plans so that the plan is not a strategic plan for a long period. Second, school visions may have a lengthy statement that might be changed in the following year. Hence, the lack of long-term strategic plans may reduce the importance of adherence to the visions of those schools and make them likely to being forgotten by the school staff. The teachers' lack of knowledge of

their schools' vision, mission and goals make them vulnerable to not identifying their schools' future (Thoonen et al., 2011), while a clear vision has the capacity to develop their schools (Bush & Glover, 2014). The school's vision, mission and goals significantly assist in building commitment and trust among the school staff (Murphy & Torre, 2015).

Additionally, the agreed values in the school plan are essential for moving forward and creating teacher cohesion (Evans et al., 2014). The data in this study shows that the values prevalent in the six schools, as referred to by the documentary review and most participants, are collaboration and other values derived from the Islamic religion, such as honesty, fairness, tolerance, sincerity in work and morality. For instance, a teacher (PT41B-F) from school 'F' suggested that values be derived from Islam and that the most important values spread in his school are collaboration and morality as he explained:

We take our values from our religion...the new teachers from the first time encounter the morals of teachers and the morals of the villagers, and how collaboration and morality are mutual, so much so that any doubts they may have soon disappear.

Another teacher (PT17G) from the focus group (G3C) emphasized these values and even added others:

The values we have in the school are collaboration, tolerance, fairness, which is the most important thing, and sincerity and honesty at work because God will ask us about these values and our students.

Through the previous examples, the values found in the six rural schools were closely associated with the Islamic culture of the community.

5.4 Communication:

Rural schools differ significantly from their urban counterparts in terms of communication. School leadership in those areas communicates not only with teachers from diverse cultural backgrounds but also with the rural community based on specific customs and traditions. Understanding how to communicate effectively with a variety of stakeholders is critical for achieving successful relationship development (Lasater, 2016). Therefore, through the data obtained from this study, communication was divided into two levels. The first level revolves around the local rural community and students and how the school communicates with them. The second level relates to communication within the school, which includes leaders, and teachers (Please see Figure 5:1).

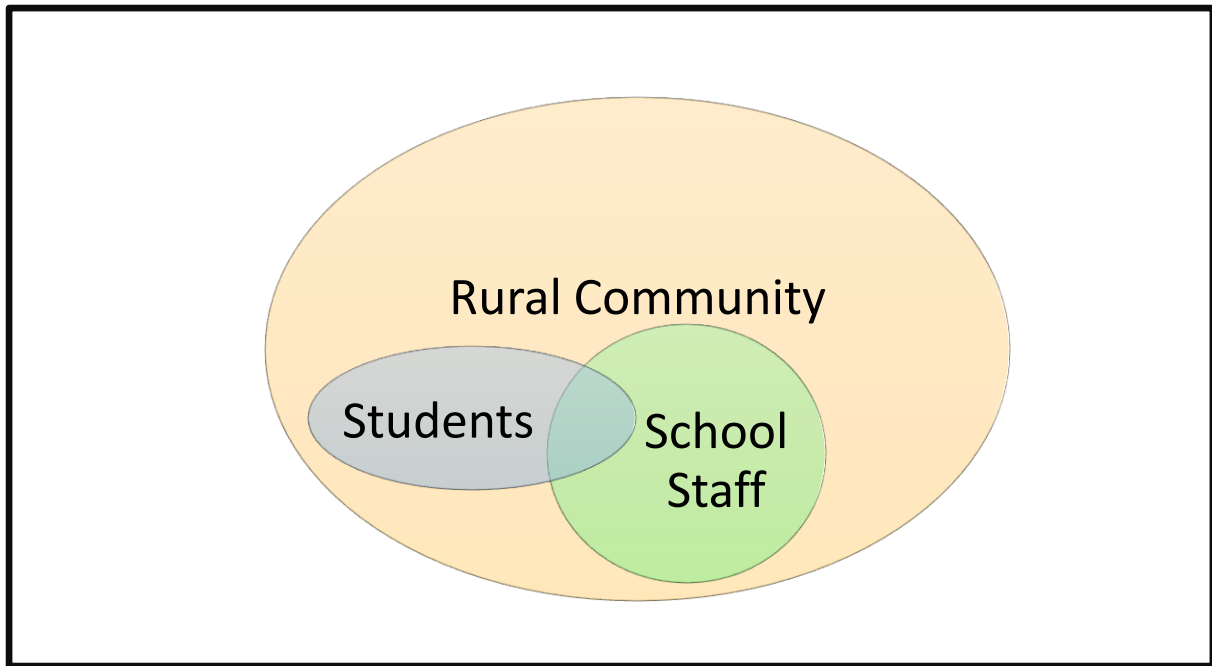


Figure 5:1 Internal and external communication

Communicating With Rural Community:

The rural community consists of Bedouins who are led by tribal customs and traditions that affect communication among them. They have different accents, a particular way of speaking, and boundaries that cannot be crossed within the circle of respect. The way of communicating with a rural community is quite different from that of urban areas. For instance, the leader (PL11B-F) of school ‘F’ described the rural community as being governed by tribal customs and traditions and the way he deals with them:

The Bedouin society here is not like the urban one. We have a different community, and its relations with each other are different. It is tribal, and sometimes it is governed by customs and traditions, and it is possible to obtain from them what you want via respect, good behaviour, and kind words. If we had any problems and contacted the parents, it is easy to solve these problems if you know how to talk to them and deal with them.

Communicating with the village community may be easy, especially for those who were raised in rural contexts, have tribal origins, or have relationships with the tribal communities. However, the listener must understand what the speaker is saying for successful communication (Levis, 2018). One of the challenges that rural school leaders or teachers, predominantly those who have grown up in urban areas, might face is the difference in accents.

Some of the participants indicated that the different accents constituted a challenge to them at the beginning of their interaction with the rural community. As an illustration, the school 'D' deputy (PL8B-D) referred to the accent challenges that confronted him when he first met the rural parents, as he stated:

Their accent was a bit incomprehensible, and it was a challenge for me initially.

This is in line with what Chu (2014) indicated that there are unique types of communication barriers, including accent, between parents and the school. The accent barrier is not only when the school communicates with parents, but it may also face teachers in the classroom. This is what a focus group (G5E) teacher (PT31B-E) faced when he mentioned that he had two experiences in two different rural areas, and the accent was a barrier to him as he explained:

In all the two experiences, whether in the north or the south, the accent barrier was difficult because we do not speak classical Arabic, neither I nor they, and each of us communicates with the accent of the region where he lives.

This is consistent with a study conducted by Collins and Reid (2012) on immigrant teachers in Australia. The study revealed that immigrant teachers who speak English with different accents than Australians had been mocked. From the documentary review, therefore, the Ministry of Education demanded that the Classical Arabic language prevails in all schools, but the rural community and rural school staff have still not adapted to this decision.

Also, among the challenges rural schools face in communication with the local community is rising illiteracy among parents. The illiteracy rate in Saudi Arabia is less than 5%, as the Ministry of Education strives to eradicate it (Alghamdi, 2018). However, despite attempts to eradicate illiteracy, it often spreads among rural communities. Many participants said that illiteracy is present in these areas in various proportions and is often observed in the elderly. For instance, a teacher (PT6G-A) from school 'A' explained, through her experience working in several rural schools, that illiteracy is spread among the elderly residents of rural areas:

Most of the rural people are old, and some of them are uneducated.

When a school communicates with illiterate parents in writing, they do not respond, which leads to inviting them to the school and explaining and simplifying what the school wants. This was clarified by the deputy (PL10B-E) of school 'E':

Difficulties in homes where most are illiterate, neither reading nor writing. This is not easy, for example, when we send him a letter or a consent form because his son must participate in a particular activity. No one at home can guide him to what is written in the letter. So, we must invite him to the school and explain the situation to him, or through the village Sheikh if we cannot communicate with him.

The previous example clearly shows that parents have significant roles in educating their children, including communication with the school. However, illiterate parents may apologise for not attending, or the school may not be able to communicate with them. As a result, the school communicates with the sheikh (chieftain) of the tribe, who urges them to communicate with the school or accept the invitation to attend the school. This is in line with Mohapi and Chombo (2021), who found that the illiteracy rate is higher in rural areas of South Africa. They also indicated that illiterate parents lose interest in participating in school activities and meetings.

Also, the previous example focussed on the tribal Sheikh (chieftain) as one of the means of communication between the school and the local community. As indicated by some participants' statements, the Sheikh of a tribe is always a man who heads a particular tribe and is chosen with the consent of most members of the tribe. The sheikh must also possess some characteristics such as wisdom, conflict resolution, integrity, and effective communication with all members of the tribe, other tribes, and government organisations. Although it is possible to communicate with the Sheikh, the leaders of girls' schools rarely communicate with him. For example, when the leader (PL3G-B) of School 'B' was asked about her communication with the tribal Sheikh, her response was clear:

We rarely communicate with the Sheikh of the tribe unless there is a social activity in the village because we do not have problems such as boys' schools, and there are other easier ways to communicate with parents.

The leaders of girls' schools do not see an urgent need to communicate with the Sheikh except through the activities that the school may carry out for the rural community. The previous example also shows that the problems that may occur in girls' schools may not reach difficult stages that require large-scale interventions as in boys' schools. This difference in rural areas of Saudi Arabia might be due to some cultural and religious beliefs affecting girls' behaviours (Kim & Hamdan Alghamdi, 2021).

There are other ways in which the school communicates with the local community. The six schools mentioned that the social relations in rural areas are highly interconnected so that the school could communicate with the students' relatives in the event of no response from the parents. As an illustration, the teacher (PT12G-B) from the focus group (G2B) explained that in case the students were late for the exams, they contact one of their relatives if their parents did not answer and get a response, as she indicated:

Communicating with the local community is easy. For example, a student may be late during exams. We know the phone number of her neighbour, sister, aunt, or one of her relatives, so we communicate with them and get a quick response.

There is social cohesion in rural communities that distinguishes them from urban communities. From the previous example, most rural residents are one cohesive family, so when communicating with one of them, it is possible to communicate with the entire village. Additionally, it may be that one of the school staff is mainly from people of the rural area in which the school is located, such as a teacher, school leader, administrative employee, or school guard. The documentary review suggests that all six schools have at least one of the school staff from the same rural area. In this study, the guards of the six schools are from the people of these villages, the leader of school 'A' and her deputy are from the same rural area, and the leaders of schools 'D' and 'F' are from the same villages. When a school staff member is from the same village as the school, that individual becomes the link between the school and the local community. By way of illustration, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' explained the methods she uses to communicate with the local community, she said:

We communicate with the parents by calling them, and if there is no response, through the school guard because he is from the village, he makes it very easy to communicate with them, or through the Parents' Council.

It is clear from the previous example that any member of the school staff may have an essential role in assisting the school leader in communicating with the rural community. When someone from the village is affiliated with the school, this individual can be used to facilitate communication between the school and local community. Moreover, there are meetings held at least twice a year at the rural school that bring together parents and teachers, as obtained from the documentary review. For instance, the school 'A' leader (PL1G-A) said that she is required by the Ministry of Education to organise two meetings for parents per year. In response to this requirement, parents meet with teachers and discuss matters related to the school and

their children. Therefore, they may learn more about parents and their circumstances and vice versa. However, it was pointed out by some participants that there is a reluctance on the part of some parents to attend and participate in these meetings. The collected data suggest that some reasons, besides illiteracy, might prevent parents from participating in such meetings. Firstly, the villagers often have daily work such as farming and herding livestock. Secondly, a lack of transportation, especially for mothers, in the villages.

However, from the documentary review, all six schools have official Twitter accounts, which allows them to communicate with students, their parents, teachers, the Department of Education and the Ministry of Education. The Twitter platform is one of the most used in Saudi Arabia as all governmental, profit, non-profit organisations have accounts on Twitter. Social media is essential in the 21st century and the school can communicate with everyone, engage the community, students and teachers and inform them of the events and activities that take place in the school (Krutka & Carpenter, 2016).

Communication within the school

There are differences in communication within rural schools and their urban counterparts. Communication between the rural school staff is more accessible, uncomplicated, and straightforward. Most study participants suggested that communication among the staff in rural areas is not difficult. For example, when the deputy (PL10B-E) of school 'E' was asked about the way of communication between the members of the school, he indicated through his experience that it is easier than in schools located within cities, as shown:

I tried it from two sides, from the side of the city and the side of the village. The family of the education in rural areas, through my twenty years of experience, is more united than the family of the city. You find that they communicate daily, there are WhatsApp groups and a fraternal atmosphere. Unlike the educational family in the city, because the schools are large, there is more than one room for teachers in one school. It is not like the village; you find them united, have one room, and commute to and from school together.

It is clear from the documentary review and the previous example that the number of school staff in rural areas per school is less than the number in urban schools. This results in rural schools not having many classrooms, so there is only one room for teachers in each school as found in the other participating schools, as obtained from the documentary review. Teachers are forced to unite and communicate with each other directly and daily by being in the room

that brings them together. Also, the geographical isolation of the rural school makes school leaders and teachers travel together to and from school daily. All of the above results in an atmosphere of fraternity that helps make communication among the school staff uncomplicated. This consists with what Ärlestig (2008) found in Swedish schools where communication between teachers and the school leaders is uncomplicated and straightforward. In addition, the documentary review shows that all six schools staff use WhatsApp to communicate with each other. Some participants believed that WhatsApp programme has dramatically helped communication between the school staff, as most leaders saw it as one of the best tools for disseminating circulars and daily decisions. To give an instance, school 'B' leader (PL3G-B) explained that the WhatsApp programme is a vital tool for communication between the school staff and makes them updated with all the decisions that are taken daily, as mentioned:

It is necessary to use WhatsApp, and we have the school's general group so that we can send essential and urgent circulars and notifications and coordinate between teachers, and everything related to the school.

WhatsApp is one of the most familiar communication programmes used in rural schools. With a group that includes all school staff, everyone can see the events and activities inside the school. They can participate and express their opinions on the decisions put forward in the school's WhatsApp group. Therefore, using the WhatsApp programme allows quick decision-making and implementation, time conservation, and direct communication with all school staff. Similarly, Doğan (2019) conducted a study on a school WhatsApp groups that comprised of 30 schools in the city of Sivas, Turkey. He found that WhatsApp groups provide features such as immediate communication, saving time, and rapid decision-making and implementation.

The WhatsApp programme is not only used to inform the school staff of development and participation in decision-making but also provides positive feedback. There are two ways of feedback, which are given by leaders or by colleagues. In the case of giving negative feedback, it should be in private. Many participants in this study indicated that feedback is vital and should be provided periodically with a commitment to confidentiality, especially for negative ones. For example, a teacher (PT18G) from a focus group (G3C) suggested that feedback is valuable and should be provided by the leader or her colleagues in private:

I accept the feedback from the leader or my colleagues cordially, and I see it necessary to have it, and I prefer it to be in private, and I directly will respond to it.

From the previous example, communication between teachers and leaders of rural schools is cordial and even tends more towards a fraternal atmosphere. Many participants agreed that feedback, whether provided by leaders or their colleagues, should be characterised by friendship and mutual respect among all parties. Some of them also insisted that rural school staff is regarded as one family, making them highly receptive to providing and getting effective feedback and correcting all mistakes that may affect one way or another on the students. This is consistent with the TALIS, where they found that the majority of teachers value the feedback they get from schools leaders and colleagues as helpful and fair, and they see it as making an actual outcome in their classroom practices (Schleicher, 2011).

Communication during Covid-19

The Covid-19 pandemic proved to be a global phenomenon which meant that distance communication proved to be the best way to prevent the spread of the disease. It also reinforced the need for technology and other alternative ways of communication between individuals and organisations at the global level and among teachers, students and parents. Devices like smartphones and laptops have spread to every home in rural areas because students must engage in distance learning. Parents and students in these areas are also becoming more familiar with using such technologies. As suggested by the documentary review and agreed by most of the participants in this study that communication between the school, the students, and parents improved very significantly. For instance, teacher (PT35B-E) from school ‘E’ indicated that technology spread in rural areas during the pandemic and that communication between the school and the local community had become better than before:

Technology has helped us with communication...because, considering the pandemic, technology has spread, and communication with teachers, students and parents has become effortless.

The use of technology in rural communities has helped schools to communicate more widely with all beneficiaries. Although illiterate parents avoid attending school, the availability of technology may have contributed to reaching them more. Digital communication, during Covid 19, has provided an opportunity that may be used to enhance communication between school, students, and parents (Bubb & Jones, 2020).

5.5 Leadership Influence

There are pathways by which school leaders can influence teachers in their rural schools. Several studies indicate that leadership may influence teacher practices in the classroom, encompassing building mutual trusting relationships and teacher motivation (Bellibaş et al., 2021; Demir, 2015; Thoonen et al., 2011). This study found that leadership in rural schools, due to geographical isolation, significantly influenced and was influenced by mutual trusting relationships among the school staff and their motivation. As a result, this section is divided into two subthemes. The first part discusses building trusted relationships between the school staff, and the second explains the motivation factors that the staff receive in rural areas.

Building trusted relationships

There are some principles found in rural schools that urge the building of trusted relationships among staff. While the newly appointed teachers are commuting to the rural school for the first time, they may be surprised by the long-distance and the geographical isolation of the school's area. School leaders should demonstrate positive attitudes to involve them in the work environment, whilst the first impression is the most crucial issue. More than 90% of the participants believed that first impressions are the first step to building trusted relationships. For example, the teacher (PT5G-A) from the focus group (G1A) insisted that the first impression from the leader in the rural school is essential for building teacher confidence in the school:

When the teacher enters the school for the first time, she asks, where is the administration? Where is the leader? If the leader made a good start and the first impression was good, the teacher would begin with confidence.

Newly appointed teachers in rural schools initially look for school leaders who are primarily responsible for them. Leaders represent the face of the school and the gateway to engaging with the school staff and the work environment. When the first impressions that the teachers receive from the school leaders are positive, this reflects on their personalities and becomes a starting point for acceptance of those challenges they faced on their way to their schools. While the first impression affects human behaviour, attitudes, and cognition (Swider et al., 2021), Fullan (2010) stresses the significance of leaders building relationships that start from the first impression to their facing unforeseen challenges.

During the first meeting between the leader and the newly arrived teacher, a discussion occurs, and they get to know each other more. The leader begins by reassuring the teacher and giving

her/him guidance on what is needed overcome some of the challenges that may be faced. The six schools' leaders agreed that mentoring the new teacher to start a career in those schools dramatically helps to conquer some challenges such as finding transportation, accommodation, etc. To give an instance, the leader (PL11B-F) of school 'F' suggested that trusted relationship is vital and might be built by mentoring new teachers:

A trusted relationship is essential. And if a person is confident about the area, comfortable with the person in front of him, and accepts the person in front of him, he will be creative. When the teacher comes to the school for the first time, you receive him by welcoming him, preparing him psychologically, and presenting kind words such as 'May God help you and grant you success. You search with him accommodation if he needs to live in the area and communicate with the people of the village to provide him with housing. If he does not want to live in the village, he has the choice of driving in or commuting with a group.

From the previous example, leaders have a vital role in building trusted relationships in rural schools. When the teachers, particularly those with urban backgrounds, commute long distances to reach their rural schools and see the villages' situations, they need to gain confidence and trust in everything around them. However, they meet the leaders for the first time and are welcomed and mentored by clarifying the challenges they may face and finding solutions that assist them. This may result in the formation of the first step toward building a trusted relationship between them and the school leaders. Additionally, when the leaders introduce them to the rest of the school staff, even in the school WhatsApp group, as obtained by the documentary review, they begin to involve and build relationships with other teachers. What rural school leaders do in mentoring newcomer teachers creates a kind of trust through which relationships are formed. Therefore, it is crucial to mentor newcomer teachers in order to prepare them to work effectively and deal with challenges. This is consistent with what Hallam et al. (2012) found, where they affirmed that in-school mentoring is more effective than coaching because it is able to enhance trust, friendship, and personal relationships with new teachers, which in turn positively affects their retention.

Building relationships of trust is essential in rural schools as it also depends on mutual respect between teachers and leaders. More than 80% of the participants supported that trust is obtained primarily through mutual respect. For example, the teacher (PT41B-F) insisted that respect is one of the most important principles that help strengthen trusted relationships, as he noted:

The most important thing to build trusted relationships between you and the leader or between you and your colleagues or students is to have respect, mutual respect at the school

As a case in point, the leaders (PL3G-B) of school 'B' saw that the relationships between teachers and the leader are human relations mainly based on mutual respect, as she explained:

I see that these human relations must be built on respect in the first place so that I can gain their trust. And we look at the humanity of the teacher herself, the teacher is a human being, and she has her environment, circumstances and everything that must be considered.

Through the previous examples, the relationships between rural school staff are possible, but to reach the stage of trust, it needs some enhancements. Mutual respect among the school staff is one of the most critical elements that enhances relationships to the stage of trust. Gaining the trust of the teachers or the leaders requires reinforcing the concept of respect in daily dealing. Therefore, Handford and Leithwood (2013) suggested a hierarchy of needs where school leaders establish trust with teachers, the most important of which is respect. Moreover, there was an empathic feeling from school leader 'B' when she referred to the teacher's circumstances and environment. Lumpkin and Achen (2018) argued that leadership effectiveness can arise when a leader reveals respect and trust and serve others with due consideration. The data revealed that 34 participants in this study indicated the importance of sensitivity for building trusted relationships. As an illustration, a teacher (PT42B-F) mentioned an instance that happened to him in which the leader was very understanding, which led to an increase in the trusted relationship between him and the leader:

His empathy for me and his feeling about the circumstance that passed me frankly made me trust him more, and my relationship with him is growing.

The geographical isolation of these areas may pose many challenges for the rural school staff. Doing so creates many human situations and circumstances that require leaders in these schools to adopt an empathetic approach in order to build trusted relationships. Trust is a central element in promoting workplaces ripe for enhancing learning (Henschke EdD, 2013). As a result, empathy assists the leaders in these schools in building trusted relationships through which they can achieve goals and better school outcomes. This is consistent with the demand by MacDonald (2015) that empathy is essential for a leader to enhance in order to reach goals and improve the bottom line.

Motivation

The rural school staff face many challenges that make motivation essential to maintain and improve their performance in those areas. Undoubtedly, school leaders must inspire others, whether they are teachers or students, and in order to do so, they must have personal motivation (Miller, 2018). The six school leaders in this study agreed that low autonomy does not help significantly in motivating them. For instance, the leader (PL9B-E) of school 'E' was asked about the things that motivate him the most:

I am just like everyone else. I like moral and material motivation. But on top of all these, my top motivator is that no one will stop my plans. I do not want the bureaucracy in education to stop me. I consider this motivation if I get more autonomy.

From the documentary review, the Ministry of Education disburses monthly amounts (about 100-200 pounds) to all rural school staff around the Kingdom as a material motivation. However, some of the ideas and plans created by the staff of these schools may need approval from the Department of Education. This may lead to delays in taking decisions and implementing them on the ground. Therefore, school leaders feel they are not getting the support they need, since providing the leaders with more autonomy makes them able to overcome their challenges they face. The success of schools and their leaders relies partly on the support provided by the Department of Education, in which it has been argued that collaboration between them should be improved (Bantwini & Moorosi, 2018). In recent decades, increased school autonomy has resulted in an increase in school leaders' decision-making (Neeleman, 2019). Also, giving the rural schools more autonomy creates a feeling of self-determination for school leaders. Deci and Ryan (2010) defined self-determination as acting with sense of volition, choice, and commitment, and it is based on intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation.

Despite the challenges that exist in rural areas, there are some opportunities that contribute considerably to motivating school staff. From the documentary review, low student numbers assist in these areas to create an environment in which changes are easier to achieve. Rural leaders and instructors can measure their accomplishments in short periods and enjoy the sense of achievement. More than 50% of the participants in this study believed one of their motivations came from a sense of achievement, which can be observed in rural schools. As an example, the deputy (PL4G-B) of school 'B' explained that when she sees the results of the work that she has undertaken, she feels motivated to give more:

When you like to offer something and see the result of the thing you presented, you love it more and stick to it more, and it motivates me to do more. It is easy to see your achievements in the village, unlike in the cities. Many people wanted me to move to the city of..., but I refused.

Another example from a teacher (PT37B-F) from the focus group (G6F) in which he confirmed what his colleague mentioned that the feeling of achievement is one of the biggest motivators for them as he explained:

The biggest motivator for the teacher is that he gives and strives and tries to be creative with them (rural students) so that he can see the fruit of achievement in the students, which is what we find in rural schools.

Rural schools suffer from the lack of awareness of their staff of the vision for their schools, which may negatively affect the feeling of achievement. However, this feeling can be realised in these schools in other ways where both leaders and teachers can see their achievements through the changes they seek to make. There are many changes that the staff of these schools are working on, including spreading education, raising the educational level of students, changing some behaviours of students positively, raising awareness of different aspects, and creating an effective environment in the school. According to McClelland (as cited in Lussier & Achua, 2015), needs are founded on personality and emerge as a result of our interactions with the environment. The rural school environment helps them to get a sense of achievement that provides them with some of their needs and thus assists to motivate them more. Therefore, individuals in achievement-motivated behaviour assess their actions and efficiency against a criterion of excellence (Brunstein & Heckhausen, 2018).

These achievements also need to be recognised, which in turn contributes to motivating the rural school staff. Recognition is a crucial element of employee motivation and performance development (Akafo & Boateng, 2015). The data revealed that most participants believed that recognition has a very significant impact on their motivation. As a case in point, a teacher (PT9G-B) from the focus group (G2B) described the way the school leader deals with them and how she notices everything, and the impact on them:

We have a principal who motivates us. The most important thing is the kind word. Anything you have done, big or small, a little or a lot, does not go unnoticed. She offers her opinion, thanks us and praises us if she likes the work,

and if she notes something, she repeats it verbally. Here, she pushes you to work more and work with love, meaning not for anything or praise at all.

It is clear from the previous example that recognition in rural schools is implied in actions that school leaders take to motivate their staff. Respecting teachers and communicating with them in kind words by providing positive feedback leads to their sense of recognition, which consequently increases their motivation. Many participants in this study indicated that positive feedback is influential in motivating them. The deputy (PL8B-D) school 'D' emphasised the effectiveness of positive feedback on motivating teachers particularly in rural areas, as mentioned:

The feedback if it is positive, motivates teachers in a significant way, especially in rural areas.

This coincides with the Ghenghesh (2016) argument that receiving adequate positive feedback on one's work is another crucial component of teachers' motivation and effectiveness. The positive feedback was not only confined between the teacher and the leader, but also the leaders agreed to refer to the achieved works by the teachers in a positive way on their schools' WhatsApp groups and twitter account, as obtained from the documentary review. In addition, the leaders of the six schools confirmed with a group of teachers that one of the ways of recognition is through a certificate of appreciation. As an illustration, when the focus group (G6F) was discussed the ways to motivate them, one (PT37B-F) of the teachers replied that recognition is in simple things such as a certificate of appreciation, which some teacher from the same group agreed with, as he explained:

The school administration recognises the teacher's efforts through honouring, sometimes simple symbolic things such as a certificate of appreciation, but it has a more significant impact on the teacher and his performance.

At the end of the school year, a ceremony is held in all six rural schools in which outstanding teachers and students are honoured. In this ceremony, certificates of appreciation are distributed to teachers for their efforts and achievements, as obtained from the documentary review. The certificates are symbolic and simultaneously have a significant influence on motivating them. It reinforces not only the importance of what has been achieved but also makes teachers feel that what they have done has been recognised. From the documentary review, these schools publish their honours on the official schools' Twitter accounts, which may make them recognised by the local community, the Department of Education, and the

Ministry of Education. As a result, positive recognition through providing a certificate of appreciation is one way to make teachers more motivated. This is similar to one of the findings of a study by Law (2016) aiming to discuss the suitable utilisation of bonuses and awards in recruiting and motivating project employees. According to Law (2016), employee motivation can be increased by providing non-financial certificates of appreciation as part of positive employee performance recognition.

5.6 Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership is widely recognised as a contributor to the development and success of organisations (Harris, 2012). Rural schools face many of the challenges that make distributed leadership problematic. One of these challenges is the lack of administrative staff in rural schools, which, ironically, may enforce opportunities for leadership to be distributed among the school staff. Unlike in urban areas, leaders in rural schools cannot accomplish all the tasks assigned to them alone as they must obtain the cooperation of all school staff. The evidence in this study reveals that distributed leadership is evident in rural schools. The leaders of the six schools agreed that the involvement of school staff is essential to ensure the effective functioning of the school day. For example, the deputy (PL6G-C) of the school 'C' indicated that the leader has no more options and must ensure cooperation within the school as she explained:

The leader has no choice in the village...everyone must help her because she cannot do all the work alone. Unlike the school leaders in the cities, the leader in the village must be cooperative and get cooperation from the teachers.

Cooperation between the leaders and teachers in these schools is essential, making leadership highly distributed. There are differences between rural and urban schools, which often leads to an urgent need for the leaders to focus on cooperation within the schools. Such cooperation within the leadership team is what Hulpia et al. (2011) categorised into three concepts: group cohesion, goal-oriented, and role clarity. When leaders build trusted relationships between them and teachers and among teachers themselves, in the presence of motivators and recognition of achievements, there is an excellent potential for cohesion among the school staff. In addition, the data showed that the six school leaders engaged their staff in decision-making. Participation in decision-making ensured that the different groups were committed to the changes (Chreim et al., 2010). Decision-making is not limited to the principals, but also teachers have the right to participate in these decisions. School leaders in rural areas often

involve teachers in creating the class schedules as obtained from the documentary review, considering their circumstances and challenges. For instance, a teacher (PT29G-C) from school 'C' explained that her school leader involves them in making decisions and making class schedules collectively and with the consent of all, as described:

The leader often involves us in decision-making, asking us what we think when do this or that. We also always gather at the beginning of each year and discuss the schedule of classes. It proceeds in coordination and with the consent of within the school.

As an illustration, if teachers' participation in making decisions about the schedule is ignored and their circumstances are not considered, teachers are negatively affected. This is what leader (PL7B-D) of school 'D' indicated when teachers' failure to participate in making the class schedule causes weakness in the teachers' commitment and their unwillingness to participate collaboratively, as he explained:

You must involve the teachers in making the schedule because every teacher has his circumstances, and their lack of participation will force them to do something that could lead to their lack of commitment, and they will not cooperate with you in anything you ask.

In like manner, from the documentary review, there are councils in each of the six schools, and they frequently consist of a school leader, a deputy, and a group of experienced teachers. Although leaders have the authority to make decisions on their own, not all decisions are made without the approval of these councils. For example, some leaders in these schools believed that decisions taken by a group are more potent in their commitment and implementation, as the leader (PL9B-E) of school 'E' indicated:

Sometimes I need to make my own decision about some things. And some of the things I see, I want to involve the group because they take responsibility with me, and the collective decision is more committed and implemented quickly.

The participation of teachers in decision-making in rural schools is critical to ensuring the effectiveness of their commitment. The rural school staff are exposed to many challenges, and the lack of considering their ideas, suggestions and opinions may make them unable to adhere to the decisions taken by the leaders. On the other hand, involving teachers in decision-making and taking into account their circumstances and the problems they face makes them committed

to those decisions, to the decision-making process and the school in general, which corroborates the findings of Hulpia and Devos (2010).

Also, the challenges experienced by rural schools make it essential to benefit from those with expertise. Instead of seeking expertise only through formal positions or roles, distributed leadership focuses on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organisation (Harris, 2004). One of the challenges that rural schools may face is that staff are not residents of those villages except for the school guard. As mentioned earlier, in schools' 'B', 'C', and 'E', all its staff are not residents of those villages except for the schools' guards. When conflicts arise within those schools, school guards' expertise may be sought. Still, school leaders may also ask them to communicate with local communities, resolve disputes, and occasionally represent the school's voice. For example, the leader (PL9B-E) of school 'E' viewed the school guard as an opportunity that any leader can use, as he indicated:

The school guard is one of the most critical opportunities you can take advantage of. The guard considers the key that you know what is happening in the village, and sometimes I assign him some tasks.

In addition, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'B' mentioned a conflict that happened to her with one of her student's parents and how she benefited from the school guard to solve this problem. The problem was that the parents of one of the students were not convinced of the idea of distance learning during the Covid period because they did not accept the technology. Still, they were persuaded after the leader and the school guard's attempts:

I commissioned the school guard to help solve the student's problem and convince her parents of the importance of distance learning, and he helped me.

Leaders in rural schools also use expert teachers to resolve conflicts between teachers and the administration, teachers themselves, or students. For example, a teacher (PT42B-F) from school 'F' was authorised by the school leader to deal with one of his colleagues who had a discipline problem as he may have the power to influence him. This teacher strived to communicate with his colleague and his relatives to convince him to commit to the work before the leader took any action against him. PT42B-F was surprised that his colleague had some reasons that prevented him from being disciplined, but after his insistence, he could persuade him. After that, the undisciplined teacher returned to his school, and the leader assisted him in overcoming the challenges he faced.

The leader authorised me to deal with him...The teacher came back after I persuaded him, thank God, even teachers thank me.

It is clear from the previous example that the participation of people with experience in rural schools, even if they do not have an official position, is very important. Rural schools are constantly and surprisingly exposed to new challenges, but with it also, some unexpected opportunities emerge, which leaders might not realise. When leadership is distributed with experts in rural areas, the possibilities for exploring and noticing opportunities bodes well for the future. Therefore, leaders in these schools must share leadership and take advantage of all opportunities to overcome their rural schools' challenges. In Malaysia, however, a study conducted by Bush and Ng (2019) on the relationship between leadership theory and policy reform suggested that the concentration on expertise, not positional authority, and the realisation that schools are professional organisations, and the knowledge and talent are widely diffused is normative perspective and a romantic view. Also, they argued that this model is more suitable for developed education systems, like those in England, the USA and Australia, than the clearly centralised systems in much of Asia (Bush & Ng, 2019). The educational system in Saudi Arabia is centralised, and bureaucracy might appear when dealing between the school and the Department of Education or the Ministry. It might be possible to see a principal sitting in her/his seat and giving orders in urban schools, even though the Ministry of Education is urging school leaders to share leadership with their teachers. However, the staff in schools located in geographically isolated rural areas face many challenges. Moreover, the expertise was not limited only to the leaders, administrators, and teachers in those areas but also to the guards of those schools and how they dealt with the local communities. Therefore, when looking with a wider view, with the realisation that opportunities in those areas must be exploited by leaders and take advantage of all available experiences and knowledge, the romantic view becomes more attractive and perhaps a reality.

Furthermore, distributed leadership in these rural schools tends to involve teachers in the tasks distributed by leaders. Robinson (2008) argued that the nature of distributed leadership includes distributed leadership as task distribution. Its origin is in the theorisation of leadership as the performance of specific tasks (Harris, 2013a; Spillane et al., 2004). The documentary review revealed that about 80% of the teachers participating in this study had other tasks besides teaching. Leaders in the six rural schools distribute tasks among teachers to ensure effective workflow. As a case in point, when the focus group 'G2B' was asked about the distributed

leadership and the distribution of tasks among them, the response from the teacher (PT10G-B):

Of course, there must be a distribution of tasks by the leader since the number of teachers is small compared to other schools in the city. Sometimes the tasks on the teacher would be more than one task at the same time. For example, she does extracurricular activities for students, has other jobs, and is considered a member of one of the programmes with the leader.

Additionally, the deputy (PL10B-E) of school 'E' considered a successful leader who can distribute tasks within the rural school professionally, as he explained:

For us, the rules of success for leadership mean that a person must be skilled in distributing tasks. As a school leader, it is difficult for me to do all the work on my own. I must assign tasks to the school deputy, student advisor if I have one, and teachers according to their number of classes...Involve them also in the administrative work. You must share tasks with them and benefit from their experiences and ideas, which can even be used to develop the school.

The previous examples show that most rural school employees have other tasks besides their primary duties. Rural schools suffer from incomplete school formations, which makes sharing tasks with leaders inevitable. In addition to the lack of administrative staff or without it in some schools, it is also clear that the number of teachers in these schools is few compared to urban schools. As a result, leaders find themselves unable to accomplish all tasks except with the cooperation of teachers while considering their main jobs. Undoubtedly, there are tasks that the leaders of these schools need to perform themselves, but the participation of teachers dramatically assists in the progress of work and the development of the instructional process. This was consistent with what Harris (2005) pointed out when she stated that those in formal leadership positions must retain specific tasks and functions. However, the key to successful distributed leadership is teachers' participation in collectively shaping and guiding institutional and instructional development (Harris, 2005). Finally, the low number of teachers in rural schools may be seen as a challenge, but in fact, it contributes to creating other opportunities such as facilitating trusted relationships and improving school culture (discussed in the next chapter).

Moreover, in rural schools, teachers are required to take the initiative in accomplishing tasks. Around 40% of the study participants indicated the importance of the initiative by teachers to

contribute effectively to their schools. For instance, the leader (PL11B-F) of school 'F' indicated that many teachers in rural schools tend to take the initiative:

Most teachers, especially in our area or other rural areas, take the initiative. And the teacher, who takes the initiative, helps to make no barriers between him and the leader.

The challenges surrounding these schools require teachers to work on increasing their initiatives. This may often help by preventing barriers between them and their leaders, which in turn builds trust and improves the work environment within the schools. However, the evidence revealed that there is a weakness in the parents' initiative to take responsibility for the leadership of the schools, the reasons for which have been discussed previously. Therefore, teachers and parents in these areas must share the responsibility for leadership from their initiative (Spillane (2012)).

5.7 Conclusion:

This chapter discusses how leadership is practised in rural areas and concludes with five themes: recruiting and retaining school leaders, strategic plans for rural schools, communication with the rural community and students and within the school, leadership influence that includes building trust relationships, motivation, and finally distributed leadership with its factors. Respondents believed that the Ministry of Education should provide administrative staff for these schools and that the deputies should have full-time jobs. Rural schools suffer from geographical isolation and long-distance, which requires enacting systems and regulations that consider flexibility and exceptions, different from those in urban areas.

In addition, long-term strategic plans with a clear vision and mission may help the staff of these schools to be committed, imagine the future, and define a clear direction for them, considering encouraging teachers to remain in their schools. In terms of communication, the Ministry urges its employees to speak the classical Arabic language in schools, which is what the staff of those schools must adhere to and encourage students to adhere to. Schools should also play a more significant role in integrating and encouraging parents to participate in schools, educating the illiterate on the importance of learning, and benefiting from all possible communication opportunities, such as the Sheikh, relatives, and the school guard. Communication within the school is critical to strengthening relationships, building trust, and spreading knowledge. Therefore, school leaders must support positive communication, mutual respect, empathy with circumstances, and appreciation that increases motivation and builds trusting relationships

between staff. In addition, leaders should encourage teachers to be cooperative and distribute tasks fairly. Their participation in decision-making and benefit from the expertise of the tasks through distributed leadership must be taken into account by the leaders of rural schools.

Chapter Six: Culture

6.1 Introduction:

Rural areas in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are distinguished from urban areas by their culture. The geographical isolation and the lack of some services, such as weak internet coverage and electricity, made it more isolated and contributed to the preservation of many customs and traditions. However, recently, Saudi Arabia launched its vision 2030, and some of its aims are to improve these services and highlight those customs and traditions globally for various purposes, including attracting tourism. Also, the COVID-19 crisis has indirectly contributed to the integration of these isolated communities and rural school staff at the national and global levels. Therefore, this chapter explores the impact of culture on rural schools, while it plays a significant role in that context. Drawing on the concept of culture at both the macro and micro levels, it is hoped that this chapter provides new theoretical insights into the experiences of leaders and teachers working in Saudi rural areas. The second sub-question addressed in this chapter is: how does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?

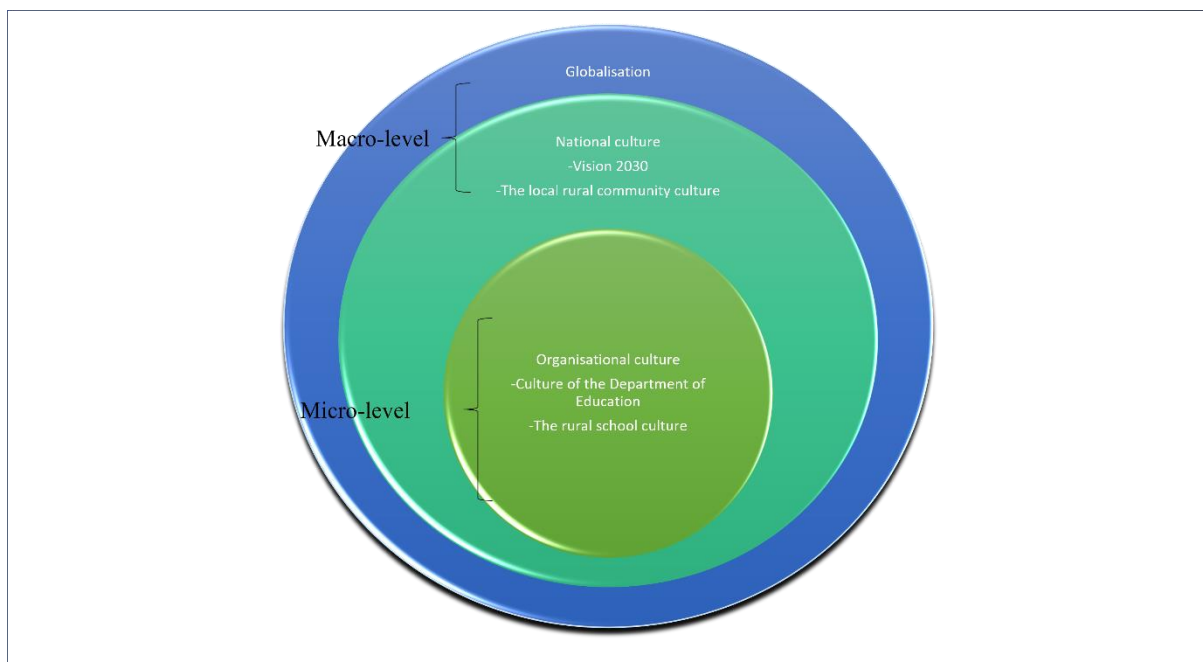


Figure 6:1: The two main levels of culture.

There are two main levels, as shown in figure 6:1:

- Macro-cultures:

Themes:

- International accountability
- The impact of Covid-19
 - The spread of technology
- Vision 2030
 - Themes:
 - Gender equality
 - Educational reform
 - The local rural community culture
 - School as part of the community
 - Tribalism and traditional values
- Micro-cultures:
 - Themes:
 - Collaborative school culture
 - Collegiality

- Macro-cultures

6.2 Globalisation

The kingdom of Saudi Arabia is one of the countries that seek to develop its educational system, as it is a member of the G20. Since its unification, it has sought to integrate with the international community and transfer expertise and knowledge to its territory (Nurunnabi, 2017). It is a member of many international organisations such as the World Bank, the World Trade Organization, and other global partnerships (Yi, 2022). On the other hand, globalisation has had many effects on the Saudi education system. Bakhtiari and Shajar (2006) argued that globalisation fosters changes at all levels, including individuals, organisations, communities, and societies across various countries and cultures. It also opens opportunities for exchanging skills, knowledge, advanced technologies, and education policies and system (Al'Abri, 2011; Ergashev & Farxodjonova, 2020; Gu, 2021). Some, otherwise, dispute that globalisation has adverse effects which may affect the environment and human health, such as environmental pollution and the transmission of diseases (Balsalobre-Lorente et al., 2020; Bickley et al., 2021; Burlacu et al., 2018). The data in this study revealed that globalisation has effects not only on rural schools but also on rural communities. Therefore, the data analysis in two themes that fall within the concept of globalisation, namely international accountability and digital transformation.

6.2.1 International accountability:

There are many partnerships link Saudi education with international organisations, as Saudi students participate in many international competitions. Since all Saudi schools are targeted by the Ministry of Education for those participating in these international tests (ETEC, 2021), the documentary review revealed that the six schools whose teachers contributed to training students on these tests and implementing them. Also, the Education Departments' training centres offer training programmes for teachers to ensure that rural students participate in these tests. The training supervisor (SuperDG) indicated that the training centre is providing some programmes to develop teachers' skills to deal with international tests:

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia seeks to have its place in global education and international tests. So, I worked on intensive training for rural teachers on the reading comprehension strategies for the students, and we conducted experimental tests that simulated international tests with them.

As the leader (PL7B-D) of school 'D' pointed out, one of the indications of the impact of globalisation on his school is the international tests:

The most significant evidence of the impact of globalisation is that we have international tests, which contributes to improving the educational level of students.

Different types of international assessments in various stages are also approved by the Education and Training Evaluation Commission, which are applied to rural schools as tests, namely TIMSS, TALIS, PIRLS, and PISA, as obtained from the documentary review. These tests aim to obtain data and compare it with international standards to improve the quality of education in Saudi Arabia (ETEC, 2021). For example, a teacher (PT6G-A) from school 'A' indicated that these tests helped improve the educational level of her rural school in science as she noted:

I am a science teacher in a school in a remote village, and they chose me to participate in training my students in one of the international tests. This test helped improve my school's level in science from low to good.

International assessments provide some opportunities that enable the Ministry of Education and its departments to obtain data that can be compared with leading and developed countries in the field of education. Also, through this data, weaknesses can be identified and addressed, which consequently assists in improving the educational environment. In contrast, rural areas

suffer from some challenges, such as illiteracy among parents, the poor follow-up of students by parents, students preoccupied with helping their families in farming or grazing, and geographical isolation. These challenges and others consequently may hinder rural students from achieving the desired results in these assessments, as is the case with rural students in USA and China (Grady et al., 2012; Lee, 2022). However, as shown from the previous examples, international assessments contributed slightly not only to improving the performance and achievement of rural students but also to the professional development of some teachers. Therefore, the data from the international assessments can be utilised significantly to support and enhance student achievement and educational improvement (Campbell & Levin, 2009; Caro & Kyriakides, 2019).

In addition, the transfer of experiences and knowledge across borders is one of the most important aspects of globalisation in terms of its impact on education. The Ministry of Education launched the Khebrat (Experiences) programme in 2016, which aims to improve the training of teachers and school leaders in the English language and to develop their leadership, teaching, and technical skills through school immersion (Althuwaybi, 2021). Khebrat is a specialised immersion programme for one-year run by chosen international universities, fundamentally from the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia (Al-Shehri, 2020). According to documentary review and the findings of this study, 16 teachers (seven from girls' schools and nine from boys' schools) and three school leaders (one from a girls' school and two from boys' schools) were interested in participating in the Khebrat programme. There was a female teacher (PT20G-C) who had completed the programme in the United States of America for one year:

During the past year, I studied for a year at the University of Delaware in America, the Khebrat programme. And now it is almost six months since I came back.

When she was asked about the programme and what experiences she gained, her response was:

It was six months of learning English and six months of doing a project. I got acquainted with a different culture during the programme and learned a second language. We saw the schools and how they work, and I gained experiences and skills in the teaching field that I tried to transfer some here to my school. I also shared this experience with my colleagues.

Although the Khebrat programme aims to improve the skills of school staff, it increases the participants' knowledge of different cultures and work environments. From the above example,

the teacher (PT20G-C) acquired new skills, experienced a different culture, and learned a new language. Some of the knowledge and skills gained by the teacher have been transferred and implemented in her school and shared with her colleagues. She might even describe what sparked her interest in that different culture from her own, not only with her school community but also with her social circle. Therefore, when graduates of the Khebrat programme return, they transfer these skills and knowledge to their schools and surrounding communities considering the cultural differences, whether in rural or urban areas. The impact of globalisation on the education system may not happen only through the Khebrat programme. Still, other programmes are sponsored by the Ministry of Education, such as the scholarship programme to study abroad for master's and doctoral degrees. Every year, the Ministry agrees to send a group of teachers, school leaders or educational supervisors to complete their studies abroad, as obtained from the documentary review. Evidence of this is that the Ministry of Education sponsors this study for future use. Misra (2012) argued that considering the global setting, every nation will need to design its own unique national path for modernising education. Global transformations necessitate the development of new knowledge, skills, and experiences, as schools play a vital role in this regard (Misra, 2012). While individuals are learning new approaches for unique purposes, the teachers' primary role is how they teach in this modern high-tech global economy. Teachers and schools must adjust to this new reality by rearranging their prior experiences, skills, and achievements to take advantage of new opportunities (Misra, 2012).

Also, knowledge, experiences and skills transfer across borders in various ways under globalisation. The documentary review in this study revealed that three school leaders (2 from girls' schools and one from boys' schools) attended an international conference organised by the Education and Training Evaluation Commission. This conference included workshops and speakers from different international backgrounds while the attendees were briefed on various international experiences (ETEC, 2020). As an illustration, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' referred to the international experiences that she witnessed through this conference:

It had training sessions and meetings. Each one started presenting their idea, and there were workshops in it. They brought us experts from all over the world, including those from Canada, Malaysian schools, Finland, and many others.

When was asked if rural schools were mentioned in this conference, her response was:

No, unfortunately, rural schools are something no one is interested in.

International conferences are one of the sources for transferring knowledge and experiences across borders. When rural school leaders and teachers participate in such international conferences and workshops, they would have a picture of other global experiences in the field of education. Transferring these experiences and knowledge to rural areas and adapting them to environment of these schools helps open the way for the staff of these schools to find some solutions to the challenges they face daily. As a result, these factors promote the upgrading and improvement of the quality of education in rural areas and create more opportunities to meet their challenges. Various international educational conferences and workshops are held to improve the quality of schools and educational institutions (Ramirez et al., 2016). However, rural education is not popular in the corridors of those international conferences and workshops, while it constitutes different high ratios at the global level. Many global claims still see the studies of rural areas from different perspectives, which might also be used in urban areas (Cuervo, 2020; Mueller et al., 2021; Renganathan, 2021; Soler et al., 2019; Zhao, 2021).

Covid-19:

The Covid-19 pandemic was declared at the end of 2019, causing widespread concern around the world (Ciravegna & Michailova, 2022). At the beginning of 2020, this disease began to spread across more than 200 countries, and vast numbers of confirmed cases and daily deaths appeared (Bickley et al., 2021). Even though humanity has gone through prior pandemics caused by infectious agents, Covid-19 is unparalleled in its capability to exploit modern globalisation, allowing for the sizeable transborder spread at an alarming rate (Mas-Coma et al., 2020). Many countries have begun to lockdown their schools and adopt distance learning in anticipation of the spread of the disease among members of communities and families such as the UK, USA, Australia, and Saudi Arabia (Ewing & Cooper, 2021; Kim & Asbury, 2020; Tanveer et al., 2020; Van Lancker & Parolin, 2020). This rapid shift to distance learning results in a wide spread of technology among students, parents and school staff (Ewing & Cooper, 2021; Vargo et al., 2021).

6.2.2 Digital transformation:

In the aftermath of the Covid-19 pandemic, which accelerated digital transformation among urban and rural populations, Saudi Arabia, like many countries, resorted to distance learning. The Kingdom has previous experiences, as it founded a national centre for e-learning and distance learning in 2005, which aims to establish a complementary educational system that utilises e-learning technologies (Yamani, 2014). However, rural schools were not highly

experienced in using and implementing distance learning due to the lack of internet services in those areas before the pandemic, as revealed by the data. Rural areas, especially those geographically isolated, suffer from a poor internet infrastructure, so the Internet is obtained through the mobile network. Prior to the pandemic, cell phone coverage was inferior, if not non-existent, inside rural schools. As a case in point, a teacher (PT39B-F) from the focus group (G6F) referred to the challenges they were facing before Covid-19, including the lack of a mobile network:

Previously, if we got there (Rural area), we felt almost isolated from the world, even the mobile network was unavailable in the area.

From the documentary review, the decision to suspend attendance came at the end of the school year and the beginning of the summer holiday for students, which lasted nearly three months. During the holiday, the Saudi government urged telecom companies to extend internet services to all isolated rural areas. This was pointed out by the supervisor of school leadership (SuperLB), as he described how the internet services were improved, but there are still some rural areas in need of improvement:

The problem facing remote rural villages was one of mobile coverage. The connection to the internet was low, so we found that when the leader in his school wanted to follow up with his teachers and his students on the platform of Madrasati, he was making an effort that was not easy. He transferred this problem to the Department of Education and the Director of Education escalated this matter to the Governor of the Province. Indeed, immediate action was taken to provide what could be offered, and the mobile coverage improved somewhat, but some villages still need more improvement.

Madrasati (My school) platform was created by the Ministry of Education so that students can complete their learning remotely as will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Schools and residents of those areas have access to the Internet, but it still requires improvement in its speed. Most of the staff of the six rural schools participating in this study see that the poor Internet speed in their areas poses a challenge, especially after relying on distance learning. For example, teacher (PT18G-C) from focus group (G3C) indicated that the speed of the Internet might hinder students from entering the classes that are via the Madrasati platform:

The challenges we face are the internet in the same village. The speed of their Internet is poor. It sometimes hinders students from entering classes.

Rural schools suffer from poor Internet services, which can benefit from the educational process in these areas. Improving the infrastructure and Internet services for rural areas allows its residents and rural schools staff to obtain the advantages and benefits that may be available at local and global levels. The Covid-19 pandemic revealed that rural areas face challenges in Internet services not only in Saudi Arabia but also in the United States, South Africa, Indonesia, Jordan, and others (Abuhammad, 2020; Dube, 2020; Lai & Widmar, 2021; Tadesse & Muluye, 2020). Looking from another angle, getting Internet services for the first time, regardless of the poor speed in some areas, for rural communities is a positive opportunity. The Internet service can integrate these rural people with the urban Saudi communities and inform them of global events and changes. Therefore, rural communities may experience digital transformation and improvement, as well as new opportunities of which they were previously unaware. Becker et al. (2010) emphasised that people who do not have access to computers and the Internet are barred from government services, many jobs, social networks, and educational opportunities.

The emphasis on distance learning during Covid-19 restrictions in rural areas was one of the reasons that aided the spread of technology. From the documentary review, at the beginning of the pandemic, the Ministry of Education broadcast high-quality 17 TV channels, ‘iEN Satellite TV educational channels’, in which several teachers and educational supervisors were selected to provide recorded lessons in various disciplines and stages. In the school year 2020-2021, the Madrasati platform (my school platform) was launched by the Ministry as a new portal aiming to enhance distance teaching and learning for primary, intermediate, and secondary schools (Almaiah et al., 2022). This platform has become one of the most critical programmes for distance learning in Saudi Arabia and is linked to various supplementary educational tools (Aldossry, 2021). However, the documentary review showed that most rural students did not have reliable access to devices such as smartphones and laptops to practice distance learning. Therefore, the government disbursed sums of money in addition to distributing many devices for free to students in these areas. Non-profit organisations also participated in the spread of many devices for free to students, as indicated by the documentary review and teachers (PT24B-D and PT26B-D) from the focus group (G4D):

The government gave needy students in the village one thousand riyals (around 200 pounds). (PT26B-D).

The Takaful organisation (non-profit organisation) also distributed smartphones and devices. (PT24B-D).

Distance learning cannot be applied by students who do not have access to devices such as smartphones, laptops, and computers. In the US, Dorn et al. (2020) indicated that states and districts mobilised to equip 12000 students for remote instruction with devices such as tablets and laptops. Many families and homeless students were provided with devices to enhance their academic development (Dorn et al., 2020).

One of the challenges facing digital transformation is the lack of knowledge of how to use technology. The devices the students received were considered new to them, so there was some frustration in how they used them. Some of the parents also had weak experience in using these modern devices, as they were seen as very complicated. The data showed that one of the challenges rural school staff faced was the pain of some students and their parents in using technology. For example, teacher (PT21G-C) referred to the challenges she faced at the beginning of dealing with technology:

Initially, the challenge was how the student activated her account. Sometimes her mother or father is illiterate, so she does not know how to deal with the issue of technology. I was sometimes, from morning to evening, activating the secret numbers and login passwords for them. Then, they started learning little by little. Now, students attend online classes without help.

The role of the rural school was not only to spread the knowledge of the use of technology to the students, but also it contributed to the transfer of experiences to the parents. The deputy (PL12B-F) of school 'F' confirmed that parents come to the school to understand the use of technology more:

Many parents come to the school to consult us about computers and smart devices in order to follow up on their children.

It is clear from the previous examples that the rural school plays an influential role in helping students and their parents to overcome technical problems. Some participants indicated trying to provide technical support to students and their parents, as distance learning and the use of technology are new to them. Therefore, one of the biggest challenges facing distance learning is technical issues. This consists of a study conducted in Jordan to determine the challenges

students faced in distance learning during Covid-19. Among the barriers was handling technical problems by students and their parents (Abuhammad, 2020).

This crisis indirectly contributed to digital transformation in the rural communities and knowledge transfer within their homes. Despite the prevalence of illiteracy among locals, many parents obtained knowledge while pursuing their children's distance learning at home. The data revealed that 23 teachers said that they passed the knowledge not only to the students but also to their families. When a family member sits next to the student and listens to the lessons presented remotely to them, they acquire knowledge as reported by teacher (PT17G-C) from focus group (G3C):

One of the things I noticed in distance learning is that the mother, the sister, the father, or the one who might not be educated in her family sitting next to the student began to understand the lessons and benefit from them.

Also, the leader (PL8B-D) of school 'D' explained that some parents are illiterate and seek to understand through remote learning, and he noticed this change in the parents as indicated:

The parents have learned, and I noticed it. Some of them are illiterate. And when I asked them, they said, 'I see him (the student) opening the mobile phone, and I am trying to learn with him'. Also, they are keen on the commitment of their children to enter the platform.

In another example, the school leadership supervisor (SuperLG) mentioned a situation she had with a teacher of Islamic education in a rural school, explaining the contributions of distance learning to families' education as pointed out:

Education has reached the students' families, even if they are illiterate. I remember, through what I found in the first semester, one of the Islamic education teachers told me that the mother of a student said to her: I want to read the Quran with my daughter, can you teach me? And she helped her.

Family involvement has played an influential role in light of the pandemic in their children's commitment during the Covid-19 lockdown (Lawrence & Fakuade, 2021). Although parents may be illiterate, they are keen on their children's commitment to online classes. Moreover, illiterate parents in rural areas might not significantly impact their children's learning and homework, as some of the participants indicated. This combines with some studies conducted in Malaysia, South Africa and Nepal on the challenges that illiterate parents faced in distance

learning during Covid-19. These studies denoted that these students did not have adequate help from their parents because were illiterate (Dawadi et al., 2020; Loganathan et al., 2021; Mukuna & Aloka, 2020). However, distance education contributes indirectly and informally to the transfer of knowledge to educated and illiterate parents, which may considerably help spread knowledge among society members. Parents sit with their children, follow them during the lesson, and attempt to understand the information to assist them; in turn, they may gain new knowledge and skills. They also might listen to what is presented through the platform and sometimes communicate with teachers and school leaders to clarify some issues. After the pandemic, the Ministry of Education obligates all teachers to continue using and working on the Madrasati platform, next to face-to-face education, in order to ensure the continuation and development of distance learning methods, as obtained from the documentary review.

Digital transformation and the use of technology were not only limited to students and their parents but also increased their services among rural schools' staff. After school was suspended during the pandemic, teachers and school leaders in rural areas turned to the use of technology daily. The documentary review indicated that all participants in the study use technology daily, which has increased their skills in dealing with it. For instance, the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' said that the situation had changed, as the use of technology before Covid-19 was low compared to the current situation, and that there are many Apps that are dealt with as indicated:

Before Covid, technology was almost thirty per cent used. Now the use of the technology can reach ninety per cent. Before, everything in the field was direct, so we did not use the technology too much except for sending email or some simple usages. But now, everything is technical; I have a report and numerous items that I cannot put together in one piece. I gather them in a barcode or link, which requires technology. If I want to have a meeting with my teachers or my students, I will do it by the Teams app, so I need to use technology. It is everything now.

There have been demands to encourage teachers to deal with and use technology in teaching and develop them professionally before the pandemic (Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al., 2010; Rehmat & Bailey, 2014; Tondeur et al., 2017). However, teacher (PT26B-D) from focus group (G4D) reported that he had problems using the technology skilfully before Covid-19:

The barrier was broken for us as teachers during the pandemic. I am one of the people who had problems using technology and lacked some skills, but now I am different.

Undoubtedly, the Covid-19 pandemic has significantly helped with digital transformation. It has broken many barriers for rural school leaders and teachers to adapt to the use of technology in the educational process. The staff of these schools can utilise smart devices in an ideal way that fits the requirements of distance learning. It also aided raise their skills by using the technology frequently. These findings combined with a study conducted in Ireland on teachers' use of technology and the impact of Covid-19 (Winter et al., 2021). Some of the findings of this study are that teachers' skills in using technology have increased and that their use of technology has become perfect and repeated (Winter et al., 2021). Therefore, all the aforementioned factors contribute to the widespread adoption of digital transformation among school leaders, teachers, students, and rural community members.

6.3 The national culture:

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has recently witnessed many changes in all fields. Since the launch of 'Vision 2030' in 2016, which seeks to open up to world trade and diversify sources of income, the vision has been reinforced by numerous cultural changes (Vision2030, 2022). In 2019, the Ministry of culture was established, which aims to support the vibrant Saudi culture, celebrate national identity, and build understanding among individuals (MOC, 2019). This vision also seeks education that contributes to economic growth by bridging the gap between education outcomes and the labour market (Allmnakrah & Evers, 2020). It focuses on empowering women in all fields to enhance equality between women and men (UNP, 2022). However, not only were urban areas affected by Saudi Vision 2030, but the data also revealed that these changes touched rural schools at some points. This section discusses themes that align with the national level and the changes that have occurred recently, namely gender equality and educational reform. Additionally, there are themes at the local rural level that the data shown will be discussed in this section, namely school as part of the community together with tribalism and traditional values.

6.3.1 Gender Equality:

Gender equality is not just a primary human right but also ensures long-term social and economic prosperity around the world (UN, 2016). Women in Saudi Arabia constitute about half of the population (GAS, 2019), and their empowerment is considered a priority for the government (UNP, 2022). The findings in this study demonstrated an increase in the awareness of women's rights and linked to Saudi Vision 2030. Some participants from boys' schools referred to it, while most rural girls' schools' employees linked Vision 2030 to women's rights.

For example, the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' explained that there is an intellectual change in society and that the Saudi Vision 2030, including its opportunities to empower women, has become known to all:

There is an intellectual change, and everyone talks about Vision 2030 and women's rights. No one does not know about it and how the opportunities in it to empower women. Even the illiterate who neither read nor write knows and hears about Vision 2030; everyone knows about it.

When a teacher (PT41B-F) from the boys' school 'F' was asked regarding the recent changes and the Saudi Vision 2030, his response was as follows:

There are changes due to Vision 2030 [..]. Lately, you feel that the situation has changed dramatically, and there has been intellectual growth in education and even in women's empowerment and their rights.

A teacher (PT15G-C) from focus group 'G3C' indicated that there is equity for women and that societal changes have occurred due to Vision 2030, as she responded:

There are many changes, and I am talking about the Vision (Vision 2030) and the situation as a whole community. Frankly, what happened to women and fairness to women is beautiful. This is really something for years that we have been asking for it.

Another example of the school's 'B' deputy (PL4G-B) saw that awareness of women's rights is not limited to teachers and the elderly but also among students, as she mentioned:

My mother at home has changed. I mean, she watches the news on TV, and so on, and knows all the changes taking place in the country. Nothing remains the same. So, even the teachers and students have begun to understand their rights. The students frankly now know the meaning of their rights.

Another teacher (PT21G-C) mentioned that she must link Vision 2030 to every lesson and clarify to students their rights and where they will reach:

Imagine, we are required that we must connect the vision (Vision 2030) to each lesson because the student should know and understand where we want to reach. Your ambitions as a student are supposed to have no limits with the vision, and the girl must know her rights.

There are many fundamental changes that Saudi government has implemented under Vision 2030 to ensure the rights and empowerment of women. Recently, there have been numerous media campaigns in support of empowering women in Saudi Arabia for commercial or awareness purposes on social media platforms or television channels (Al-Qahtani et al., 2020; Alharbi & Boling, 2022). Spreading awareness of women's rights is essential, as the media plays a crucial role in changing society's thoughts and cultures (Straubhaar et al., 2015). Also, all events related to women's rights in Saudi Arabia witnessed considerable media coverage locally and globally, as shown by the documentary review, such as when they were allowed to drive cars (Saud & Terry, 2021). In addition to significant government reforms to empower women (UNP, 2022), all these factors considerably contributed to the spread of the culture of women's rights in Saudi Arabia, which constitutes a societal and intellectual change. Also, from the documentary review, linking the school curricula to Vision 2030 and what teachers provide to students about their rights helped raise awareness of such rights. Finally, the rural community's recent access to technology and the internet may have impacted them, as they can browse websites and interact with social media.

Raising awareness of women's rights in Saudi helped female students to think about their future careers. In the last decade, many universities received female students, as some university specialisations were restricted to men (Kim & Hamdan Alghamdi, 2019). The documentary review revealed that awareness spread among female students to enrol in different university majors or obtain training from various colleges after graduating from the schools according to the needs of the labour market considering Vision 2030. As an illustration, a teacher (PT8G-B) from focus group 'G2B' explained how the students' viewpoint has changed and that awareness and ambition to attend different university majors have spread among them:

In our school, female students are now turning to majors such as law, media, economics, and interior design. We did not hear about these specialities five years ago. In the past, girls used to tell you the most important thing was go to university, and there were few choices. Now the girl can enrol in institutes and choose from many courses and training. Now we hear many female students studying law. Law for us is a new major. It was indeed present among men, but it is considered a unique speciality in women's education. My students' views have become more extensive and more aware. With Vision 2030, female students have become more inspired and knowledgeable.

Also, from the documentary review, the increased job opportunities announced by the government and private sectors for girls enhance their enthusiasm to join universities or develop themselves by obtaining long and short courses. A teacher (PT2G-A) from focus group ‘G1A’ indicated that the students’ ambitions changed because of the jobs available to women:

During the last five years, I noticed changes [...] As for female students, their thinking and ambitions have changed. Many female students have asked me because they see more job opportunities available.

Making all educational subjects available to rural female students helps to develop their communities, whether culturally, financially, or knowledgeably. It is essential to take advantage of their clear minds that have not been exposed to the life pressures of urban areas and school crowding. Allowing rural female students to enrol in the university specialisations they desire helps motivate them to complete their education. It opens the gates for them to get opportunities to compete with their female and male peers in their region or others. The process of choosing a major in university or college is an issue of justice because it has a significant impact on students’ life plans (Yazici & Yazici, 2010). It may also build their self-confidence and allow them to financially support their families, who might suffer from low income. Therefore, it is necessary for female students to develop self-confidence and get outside support (Lin, 2016). Additionally, Saudi women were allowed to work in many professional fields, as their participation in the labour force grew from only 11% in 2000 to 26% by the end of 2019 (González et al., 2022). These changes that have occurred in the last five years ignited ambition and planted hope among rural female students for a future full of hopes and opportunities.

6.3.2 Educational reform:

Policymakers all across the world are preoccupied with essential matter of developing schools and school systems (Harris et al., 2017). Recently, Saudi Arabia has implemented many reforms in its education systems in line with its tendency in Vision 2030 to develop its economic diversification (Al-Otaibi, 2020). Saudi rural schools were not far from or excluded from these changes that have occurred in recent years. One of the most critical aspects of the process of educational transformation is curriculum development (Rimal, 2018). The documentary review showed that there has been a development in the school curricula during the last five years. The school leadership supervisor (SuperLB) mentioned that Vision 2030 includes improving the school curricula:

The modification and some improvements to the curricula are within (Vision 2030).

Also, it is crucial that analysis, critical thinking, and inference be included in school curricula (Chukwuyenum, 2013; Harradine et al., 2011; Santos, 2017). Among the improvements in the Saudi school curricula is the focus on critical thinking, analysis, and scientific subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, and physics, as obtained from the documentary review. Similarly, the teacher (PT6G-A) pointed out to these improvements:

Critical thinking, analysis, and applications of inferences are among the requirements of the new curricula. There is also a focus on scientific subjects.

From the documentary review, it has also been possible to use technology in the new curricula, as some lessons have a barcode that transfers the students to a website with additional activities. As case in point, the teacher (PT20G-C) from school 'C' explained that students could practice different activities by scanning a barcode:

The student is now able to access links even through the same book, just by scanning the barcode and entering additional links containing many activities.

The use of technology in school curricula assists to diversify the knowledgeable resources of students and motivates them to learn especially students in villages. Many participating teachers in this study mentioned that technology helped to attract rural students' attention since it is considered new to them. Rikala (2014) conducted a study evaluating the feasibility of quick response (QR) codes and mobile devices in schools. This study found that the use of QR codes created curiosity in students and had stimulating effects on learning. As a result, developing school curricula constantly has considerable advantages for learners. However, these modern curricula may pose a challenge to teachers, particularly who are not sufficiently trained in the way of delivering and dealing with them, which will be discussed more extensively in the next chapter.

Also, among the reforms undertaken by the Ministry of Education recently is the addition of physical education topics for girls' schools. The implementation of PE was not restricted to urban girls' schools only, but it was requested it be applied to rural areas. The documentary review revealed that physical education classes had been introduced to rural girls' schools as part of the alignment with Saudi Vision 2030. To illustrate, the school leadership supervisor (SuperLG) mentioned the reforms introduced by the Ministry, including physical education classes:

In addition, the Ministry recently added physical education classes to girls' schools in order to align with Vision 2030.

When physical education and sport in school are delivered effectively, they can assist in developing self-esteem and pro-school attitudes, social behaviours and social skills and, in some instances, cognitive and academic growth (Bailey, 2006). Nevertheless, the leaders of girls' schools were asked to specify a teacher to be a specialist in physical education, as indicated by the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A':

They told me to choose a teacher for physical education. I chose a teacher, and she prepared her work file, formed a committee, and selected some students to be on her committee. But the challenge here is that we do not have playground area inside the school. I tried to prepare a place, but it is not suitable. We are not like urban schools that have spaces.

One of the challenges facing the implementation of physical education in rural girls' schools is the lack of places dedicated to the practice of sports activities. This matter was mentioned in the other two schools, where, for instance, the teacher (PT17G-C) from focus group 'G3C' referred to the same challenge:

After adopting the implementation of physical education in girls' schools, one of the challenges is that we do not have a playground.

Another example from the teacher (PT14G-B) in girls' school 'B' referred to the difficulty of implementing physical education due to the lack of a suitable place:

They added a physical education subject to us, but we cannot implement it correctly because we do not have a suitable place in the school, which is not prepared.

Physical education classes are new to girls' schools and have many health benefits. It is also vital to address the marginalisation of a critical topic for the health of young people who may suffer from obesity and other diseases in their childhood or might be exposed to them in the future (Laureano et al., 2014). However, the design of rural girls' schools does not include the facilities and teaching spaces for physical education as indicated by the participants, which significantly limits their ability to implement it. Therefore, this may lead to not being implemented thoughtfully, which causes students to be reluctant to participate in physical education and sports activities. In Australia, Jenkinson and Benson (2010) found that one of

the most critical issues facing physical education teachers and preventing students' participation in PE is a lack of equipment, facilities, and teaching places.

In addition, the Ministry of Education recently implemented the 'tracks' system to be applied to all public secondary schools, as obtained from the documentary review. Students in the secondary stage spend the last three years in their general education so that in the first year, they all learn general subjects such as mathematics, science, humanities, and religion (MoE, 2021). There are five tracks in the second and third years: general, computer science and engineering, health and life, business administration, and Sharia (concerning law). Students are able to select the track they prefer to join after achieving certain criteria and examination results. The data revealed that rural schools have already implemented the tracks system with one track (general track) availability. As a case in point, this was confirmed by the school leadership supervisor (SuperLB):

We have new system for secondary schools, which has begun to be applied to all schools, a tracks system. But the villages, so far, there are not all track in them, only the general track.

School 'E' leader (PL9B-E) justified the lack of implementation of multiple tracks in rural schools:

As for the multiple tracks, they often require equipment and capabilities in term of human capacity and the school building, which, unfortunately, is unavailable in the villages. In our school, we only have one track, which is the general track.

Secondary education is crucial since it prepares pupils for higher education as well as the workforce (Singh, 2017). Many countries seek to develop secondary school outcomes consistent with the labour market or higher education. For example, in England and Northern Ireland, students can obtain a GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education) and start a two-year programme specialising them in some subjects leading to A-level (Advanced) exams, which universities recognise, or they may seek to find a job (Abrahams, 2018; Rushton & Wilson, 2019). Students may have the opportunity to plan their futures using tracks system in secondary schools. This may include searching for jobs or enrolling in universities or colleges that provide the academic programmes which students are interested in studying. In return, this system also assists universities to identify students' educational tendencies early and determines the specialisations that suit them. However, as pointed out by leaders (PL9B-E) of school 'E', rural schools face challenges in school buildings that lack some of the facilities and

equipment needed to implement such a system. These schools do not have the administrative personnel or specialised teachers necessary to teach specific subjects appropriate for these tracks. As a result, implementing the general track is suitable since it provides general subjects that staff of these schools can teach. Still, at the same time, it deprives students in rural areas of the opportunity to enrol and try other tracks. It is additionally clear from the teacher's (PT6G-A) response that the tracks system is ambiguous for her because it is a new system and has been recently implemented. Therefore, it requires training rural school staff in the new system.

6.3.3 Schools as part of the community:

Schools in rural areas play an essential role in what they provide to their communities and their children. For various reasons, rural areas suffer from widespread poverty among members of their communities compared to the urban region (Halik & Webley, 2011; Masumoto & Brown-Welty, 2009). This is consistent with the findings in this study, as 34 participants indicated the prevalence of poverty among some members of the rural community. The deputy (PL8B-D) of school 'D' commented:

They have a poor financial situation. Their financial situation is complicated. Poverty is widespread, and we observe it in some of them.

Therefore, from the documentary review, the Ministry of Education provides monthly subsidies of around 65 million riyals (about 15 M pounds) to approximately 300,000 students (MoE, 2020a). A list of students eligible to receive the monthly stipend is provided annually to the Ministry by the school, which acts as conduit between the Ministry and the students in financial need. In rural areas, the local public school serves as a focal point for social services targeting low-income families and children, and its success is crucial to the local economy (Malhoit, 2005). The documentary review demonstrated that the six schools have many students who receive monthly subsidies in order to ensure their continued education. As an example, the response of the school 'A' leader (PL1G-A) was:

We have a subsidy programme for needy students, which is intended for students in rural areas. This aid helps and massively motivates them in several aspects, whether in their education, their lives, and others.

There are certain rural areas around the world, such as the USA, South Africa, Australia and China, that consider poverty as a challenge faced by their rural schools (Burnett & Lampert,

2016; Du Plessis & Mestry, 2019; Klar & Brewer, 2014; Li et al., 2020). However, from the previous example, such subsidies assist, entice and motivate rural students to continue their journey, since facing these financial difficulties may pose many challenges to them. Student in low-income rural areas are falling short of their potential, and the achievement gap between them and their urban counterparts is significant and persistent (Malhoit, 2005).

Additionally, as obtained from the documentary review, rural schools link students' and communities' needs with non-profit organisations and private sectors under school-community partnerships. Researchers in the field of rural education stress the importance of school-community partnerships in revitalising rural schools and communities (Zuckerman, 2020). The documentary review revealed that there are only one or two non-profit organisations that support needy students and their families in five schools. Still, it was found that school 'D' is supported by more than that. To illustrate, the leader (PL7B-D) of school 'D' pointed out:

We have community partnership between us and a Charity Foundation. After I contacted them, the Foundation adopted 30 students to provide for their needs until they complete their university studies.

Even more so, he reached out to a university located in the same region, as he stated:

The equipment in the school's computer lab was old. I asked the University to contribute to a community partnership by providing devices, and the university has equipped us with 20 computers. (PL7B-D)

The Takaful Charity Foundation is a non-profit organisation that assists needy students and their family throughout the Kingdom, including the six rural schools, as obtained from the documentary review. This organisation has a partnership with the Ministry of Education, providing some needs for students, such as study bags, tools, and others, and financial support for their families through schools (Al-Jarf, 2021). However, the leader of school 'D' not only relied on this Foundation but sought to connect with other non-profit organisations. Leaders who efficiently develop inter-agency and neighbourhood links beyond those located in traditional schools are successful partnerships (Valli et al., 2018). As a result, the role of leaders in rural schools to promote such contributions that benefit rural schools, consequently, students, and communities is vital (Bauch, 2001).

There are diverse ways in which school-community partnerships offer opportunities that contribute to raising awareness in rural communities about a particular topic. Schafft (2016)

argued that rural schools have a significant part in the development of rural communities. The documentary review showed that the six schools offer various awareness seminars, such as raising children, healthcare, and public services, for students and their families. For example, the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' mentioned a seminar for mothers was conducted in the school, as she indicated:

The student advisor held a seminar for mothers and explained to them their role as mothers. What is your role at home as mother? Following up on their daughters' learning, dealing with them, and correcting their bad habits.

However, one of the challenges for rural schools to run such seminars is the school's distance and geographic isolation. As referred by the leader (PL11B-F) of school 'F':

Sometimes you have the opportunity on the same day. For example, suppose a doctor from the health centre or the health supervisor visits us as a community partnership, which is considered voluntary work. In that case, we gather students and arrange a seminar for them. Still, because the school is far from the city, we face a challenge due to the lack of these opportunities.

The six schools agreed on the importance of providing such seminars to students and their families, as they would not take place in a previously arranged manner unless the school offers them. Casto (2016) asserted that the geographical isolation of rural areas negatively affects the external voluntary activities related to schools from which rural communities are entitled to benefit.

Also, there are claims for private sector participation in such partnerships that serve rural schools, students, and their family (Mkhize & Hungwe, 2022; Zuckerman, 2019). From the documentary review, this study found that private sector partnerships with rural schools are minimal, as there are three schools (C, E, and F) out of six that were supported in a small way by this sector. These participations offered discounts on purchases in school 'E' and provided ten bicycles to school 'F', but school 'C' was the most distinguished. Teacher (PT21G-C) from school 'C' indicated that:

I was responsible for the school-community partnerships in my school. We brought a doctor through a private health centre, and she did eye tests for the students, and glasses were provided to those with low vision for free.

Rural areas have some challenges, such as the spread of poverty among community members and the absence of the private sector. Furthermore, the farther the rural school is from urban areas and geographically isolated, the more challenging it becomes to provide partnerships with other partners and volunteers. Wieczorek and Manard (2018) found that the distance between rural schools and urban areas restricts them from obtaining sufficient support from private businesses. In rural areas in the Australian state of Victoria, a study examined the characteristics of effective school-community partnerships (Wheeler et al., 2018). This study found a shortage of volunteers and partners as a significant challenge in many of their sample sites, which is consistent with this study (Wheeler et al., 2018).

Also, students and their families in rural locations recognise the importance of their local schools and actively work to ensure their continued operation. According to Renzulli et al. (2021), the school must be an enjoyable site that pupils desire to attend instead of a place they endure as a sort of attempt to integrate into the workforce and adult responsibilities. The documentary review shows that the daily absenteeism for rural students in the six schools is low, as 30 respondents pointed out that students consider school as enjoyable. The leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C', for instance, stated:

The only breathing space for the villagers is the school because they do not have enjoyable venues. We do not have any absences, and students do not prefer absent themselves.

Often the rural school includes students who come from neighbouring villages, which makes the schools a meeting point, as referred by the teacher (PT42B-F) from school 'F':

The rural student comes to school excited and wants to see his friends. He wants to enjoy himself at school because some students come from surrounding villages, so it is more difficult for them to meet each other outside school. And most of them participate in the activities organised by the school, such as sports and others.

The parents of the students also see that the school offers something great for them and their children, as pointed out by the teacher (PT11G-B) from the focus group 'G2B':

We are facing a problem with some parents, mainly the illiterate, who do not follow up on their children's learning at home, and know the teacher has to make all the effort. We often get appreciation from parents for the effort the teacher and the school put in. The school has a significant place among parents and students.

From the above examples, the rural school is of great importance to the students and their parents; it is the only place for students in the village where they can make friends with peers from the surrounding areas (Simmons & Hay, 2010). They enjoy participating in extra-curricular activities that are held in the school, which make such activities an opportunity that the school may benefit from (Shamah, 2011). As a result, absenteeism rates among students in these schools decrease, significantly helping their academic attainment and achievement (Klein et al., 2022), considering parents' poor follow-up. The rural community also believes that the presence of schools assists in opening the way for their children to have opportunities to join either universities or the labour market, thus helping to increase the family's income (Malhoit, 2005).

6.3.4 Tribalism and traditional values:

The fabric of Saudi society is a mixture that consists of tribes and non-tribes, as most of the rural population is tribal. The term "tribalism" come from the word "tribe", which refers to a collection of people who share the same language, accent, and few significant social differences since they are all members of the same extended family (Moriba & Edwards, 2009). In the sample context, a tribe is considered one large family mainly belonging to a single lineage that goes back to a higher ancestor and consists of several clans. School 'F' leader (PL11B-F) mentioned:

A tribe is considered one large family and includes several clans, all of which belong to the same tribe, and I have at my school maybe about seven or eight clans.

They also have great social connections, as observed by the teacher (PT14G-B) from school 'B':

In the same village, you find families as one family. They are relatives. The students are relatives in one way or another. This one is her cousin, and another student also is her cousin. They have significant social bonding.

The social bonding among tribe members creates their customs and traditions, which are essential to them and consequently influence their behaviours differently. The tribes in rural areas are conservative societies that try to avoid everything that contradicts their beliefs built through their cultural backgrounds and beware of whatever is new and extraneous to them. For instance, teacher (PT20G-C) opined:

The local community is a conservative society; they care about their customs and traditions and try to preserve them, not change them.

However, even though the tribes continue to maintain their customs and traditions, changing some of their beliefs is uncomplicated. The teacher (PT23B-D) from the focus group ‘G4D’ responded:

The parents believed that modern technology and the internet would corrupt the morals of their children, and it was not easy to use, and they did not have devices in their houses. After the pandemic, their thinking changed, and devices and the internet were almost in every home.

Tribe members often avoid breaking those values and beliefs that affect their social standing. However, the cultures of these tribes have changed after the Covid-19 pandemic to adopt e-learning and technology, which is considered an external pressure. Sahab (2021) stresses that the covid pandemic has created many daily cultural modifications within societies, which in turn have contributed to changing their beliefs and values.

The social cohesion among the members of the tribe generates affiliation in the tribal identity. The tribe’s women and men are often keen on the reputation of their tribe, as the words of praise describing them, and their tribe are among the most important motivators. Twenty-nine out of 42 teachers indicated that praising rural students and their tribes has a significant role in motivating them and making them feel proud, much more than other material incentives. As an illustration, teacher (PT7G-A) from school ‘A’ remarked:

I motivate them with certificates, but most of all, I do with words and praise for her and her family in front of her peers. This is very important in the villages.

Another example by teacher (PT27B-D) from school ‘D’

We have more than one tribe in our school. When you praise the student or give him an award, he feels proud and happy because he feels that achievement is not only for him but for his tribe.

Pride in the tribal identity results from the prevailing culture among the members of those communities, where the tribe represents a lot to them. Those affiliated with these tribes are keen to add to their tribes’ achievements and praiseworthy things and to avoid what might harm them. Therefore, this exhibits the prevailing trend among those societies, which is collective,

as the concern is not with individuals but with the group. According to the Hofstede analysis, more than half of Saudis prioritise collectivism over individualism (HofstedeInsights, 2022). Almalki and Ganong (2018) justified this by indicating that Islamic traditions are an influential advocate of collectivism, as it is preferable to conduct daily prayers collectively. This study adds that tribalism also plays an essential role in the collective orientation of societies through their belonging to the tribe.

Additionally, the essential characteristics which tribal societies value are generosity and hospitality, as they believe that these norms come from their authentic Arab customs. As a case in point, the teacher (PT11G-B) from the focus group (G2B) observed:

The people of the villages, even some of them, have difficult financial conditions, but they are generous and hospitable, and they like these qualities to be in them.

One of the teachers explained situations that happened to them at the school, especially when preparing for a celebration or activity that will be held during the following days, which requires them to sit in the school for hours after the students leave. When the village people noticed they were in the school, their response is:

I have gone through many situations with the people of the tribes who here represent their generosity. Some students and their families, when they notice that we are late after the students leave, find the people of the village, from their generosity, bring us lunch to the school without us asking them or telling them that we are here. (PT34B-E)

The qualities of generosity and hospitality are among the essential values preferred by the members of the tribe, as they are derived from their customs and traditions. In contrast to the misers, the generous always have their place as numerous stories, legends, and poems, in both past and present, are circulated among those societies in glorifying such qualities (AlShurafa et al., 2021). Hospitality and generosity are part of tribes' beliefs, which in their view, demonstrate appreciation and respect for people. When individuals come from outside those villages and do not interact with their characteristics, the members of the tribe may not integrate with them quickly as they feel different from them. Therefore, it is vital for the rural schools' staff to know the values and customs of those tribes to contribute to the development of the educational process in these areas.

- Micro Cultures

6.4 Organisational culture:

School Culture:

School culture is the set of beliefs and attitudes that influence every element of how a school operates (Lewis et al., 2016). School leaders in rural areas play a crucial role in changing the culture of their schools as they can be considered as mediators between the existing culture and the desired culture (Wildy et al., 2014). Although rural schools face some challenges, such as geographical isolation, staff retention, and others (Hohner & Riveros, 2017), they have some opportunities that contribute to shaping the culture of these schools. The evidence revealed that the small number of school staff is one of the challenges that create opportunities, as referred to by the participants and contribute to the formation of the rural school culture (Fargas-Malet & Bagley, 2022). In this section, two themes derived from the data analysis on the culture of rural schools will be discussed, namely collaborative school culture and collegiality.

6.4.1 Collaborative school culture:

A collaborative school culture fosters employee behaviours that increase their effectiveness in the workplace (Wijaya et al., 2020). Teachers in a school with a robust collaborative culture share solid educational values, support one another in their pursuit of professional growth, and are dedicated to continuously enhancing the quality of their classroom instruction (Gruenert & Whitaker, 2015). However, efforts to build a collaborative school culture necessitate providing the appropriate conditions and environment (Waldron & McLeskey, 2010). The data revealed that school leaders' fairness and equality among employees are the most critical factors for creating a collaborative culture in rural schools. The leaders of six schools agreed on the significance of fairness and equality among teachers, such as distributing the schedules, classes, tasks, and others. For instance, the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' summed up:

The most important thing is fairness, fairness and equality between teachers, and by God, if there is no fairness, the school will be an unhealthy environment. There will be quarrels and internal intrigues. It will be a toxic culture.

When the school principal does not deal with teachers fairly and equally, this may result from what the teachers mentioned in focus group 'G4D':

If the leader is unfair, my performance may be decreased, and if he does not equal me with my colleagues, there might be no creativity or collaboration in the school. (PT22B-D)

Directly his colleague responded:

There will be divisions in the school. There will be groups, including the work manager's friends. But this is very rare in rural schools. (PT23B-D)

In collaborative cultures, school leaders and organisational structures prompt teachers to embrace their fair share of responsibility for fulfilling the school's purpose (Sergiovanni, 2015). Teacher desire to feel reassured that they will be treated equally, fairly and respectfully (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2017), especially in light of the challenges they face in rural areas. As shown in the previous examples, fairness and equality assist the fostering of a collaborative culture and creativity within rural schools. Khaola and Oni (2020) found that the leader's fair treatment positively affects the teachers' innovative work behaviour. Also, one of the personal qualities of successful school leaders is fairness and equality (Barnett et al., 2012), as teachers who get equal and fair treatment in schools could convey this expectation to pupils and the community (Blase & Blase, 2000, as cited in Aslanargun, 2015). Therefore, leaders must promote these values, which are reflected not only in the school's culture but also in the students and their parents.

Additionally, rural school staff sometimes face challenges in their daily commute and family obligations. These schools need significantly different organisational systems, structures, and culture than urban schools (Johnson & Howley, 2015). More than 80% of the study participants referred to the flexibility existing in their schools creates a collaborative culture, as illustrated by the deputy (PL10B-E) of school 'E':

You must be aware of the teachers' circumstances. The first circumstance or the first obstacle for the teacher, some come from long distances or two hours, and some up to three hours to drive from home to school. You must consider the distance circumstances and his other circumstances [...] While there is some pressure at work, there is flexibility. Sometimes the teacher coordinates with his colleague in the schedule in a day because he has some circumstances, and then he informs me. So, there must be flexibility in work to create a collaborative environment, especially in rural schools.

Despite rural school staff's challenges, flexibility in their work is essential to creating a collaborative culture. Engels et al. (2008) found that principals with a high accomplishment orientation who focus on building a flexible, supportive, participative, and motivating environment are found in schools with highly positive cultures. Applying coercive norms is not a strategy of a collaborative culture; instead, change and flexibility are effective techniques (Spicer, 2016). Also, Azanza et al. (2013) argued that organisational cultures oriented towards flexibility positively affect employee job satisfaction. While rural schools are less attractive to teachers (Gomba, 2015), Goodpaster et al. (2012) found that school-related factors affirmatively influencing rural teacher retention are a positive school environment and flexibility within the school. In contrast, flexibility in rural schools includes students as they are different from their peers in urban areas. Rural students have some challenges, such as the illiteracy of their parents and others, therefore, it requires teachers to treat their students with flexibility and consider their capabilities (Dockett et al., 2015; Podgursky, 2005).

In addition, this study found that other points serve to create a collaborative rural school culture. The trusted relationships including mutual respect that a leader must build, play a significant role in creating such culture (Seashore Louis & Lee, 2016). Equally, the distributed leadership that exists in these schools has an influential place in creating an attractive collaborative environment (Liu et al., 2021).

6.4.2 Collegiality:

Collegiality is more crucial in a geographically isolated setting as it provides the necessary foundation for the school staff to work in such an environment (Jarzabkowski, 2003). The essence of fraternity, unity, camaraderie, and togetherness are reflected in collegiality (Sufean, 2014). Shah (2012) emphasises that collegiality contributes among school staff to school quality and performance, teacher professional development and growth, as well as student achievement and behaviour. The data revealed that the six schools are characterised by successful collegial relationships, as most of the participants in this study stated that the atmosphere in their schools is fraternal. For example, teacher (PT8G-B) from the focus group 'G2B' responded:

One of the features that makes teachers prefer village schools is the fraternal atmosphere among teachers. You feel I am at school; I know my colleague and her life and circumstances [...] When we go to assignments in urban schools, we find that their relationships are official. If one of my colleagues has an issue or a problem or she, for

example, prepares an occasion, everyone cooperates with her, and everyone take care of her as if she were a sister, as if this would happen to me [...] some situations happened to me, and sometimes I went through circumstances; I felt everyone standing with me; everyone had her hand in my hand.

Our relations as teachers are more than the relations of relatives. There are ties between us in joys and sorrows. We share the feeling of joy and pain. (PT28B-D)

Many examples from the data reflect the extent of fraternity and friendship among rural employees, whether in girls' or boys' schools. From the previous examples, collegiality among school staff in those areas is considered necessary, especially in light of their challenges. Sharing each other's joys and sorrows strengthens their relationships, creating an attractive environment that helps increase their job satisfaction and retention (Bozeman et al., 2013). Also, such relationships facilitate the exchange of knowledge, which in turn contributes to developing them professionally (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015). Consequently, this is reflected in the school's culture, values and beliefs, which can extend to the students' achievement (Shah, 2012).

Additionally, most school members commute from variety of localities and cities to their schools, as obtained from the documentary review. This leads to the fact that rural schools contain teachers with various backgrounds (Sargent & Hannum, 2005). Leaders in rural schools should take an essential part in developing a culture of collegiality among their staff members. The data demonstrate that leaders of the six schools prioritise creating a collegial environment among teachers, while most teachers find it the leaders' responsibility. As a case in point, the leader (PL5G-C) from school 'C' suggested:

When a leader positively engages with her teachers and students there is a fraternal atmosphere in the school just like one family. If there is a problem between a teacher and another teacher, I must resolve it.

The leader plays a vital role in creating a collegial and fraternal culture, particular in rural schools. Despite rural school leaders' challenges, from overburdening to administrative staffing, they should encourage collegial conversations among teachers (Spanneut, 2010). The culture of collegiality and fraternity that leaders in these schools seek to consolidate makes teachers committed to creating a collaborative environment. Therefore, leaders should provide the chance to their teachers to improve their interpersonal relationships (Shah, 2012), which will support collegial bonds, foster collective responsibility for learning, and promote trust, all

of which are potentially ways to improve collegial decisions regarding their school (Printy, 2010).

6.5 Conclusion:

This chapter discussed culture from two perspectives, macro and micro, to include three concepts: globalisation, national culture, and organisational culture. The data reveals that two themes fall under globalisation, namely international accountability, which shows how rural schools are engaged with global commitments, and the spread of technology. This study urges more provision for those international programmes and conferences that contribute to the transfer of global knowledge and skills to these schools. The spread of technology and its uses were also evident, especially after the global Covid-19 pandemic, as distance learning has become an essential requirement. Nevertheless, this dissemination contributed to spreading knowledge and skills, whether technical or epistemological, from within schools to the homes of villagers, which in turn helped illiterate parents to acquire some knowledge. It is crucial to continue to take advantage of the opportunities provided by distance learning and to combine it with face-to-face education.

It also included the national culture on two levels, as the first is related to the general image of Saudi Arabia and includes two themes, namely, gender equality and educational reform. Women constitute half of Saudi society and must be granted opportunities on equal terms with men. On the other hand, reforms are essential, especially in developing curricula and systems, which teachers must train on with every update. The Ministry should also consider the status of girls' schools and provide facilities for participating in sports activities and physical education.

The second level was about the local community and the school, which included the role of the school as part of the community, which must urge the profit and non-profit organisations to promote school-community partnerships that benefit the rural community. On the other hand, leaders and teachers in rural areas must understand the customs, traditions and values driven by tribalism to work with rural communities effectively.

Concerning the organisational culture, it included that rural schools have a different type from urban areas, as the prevailing culture among its members is a collaborative culture driven by collegiality. Therefore, school leaders must support this culture and promote and maintain the concept of collegiality among the staff of those schools.

Chapter Seven: Continuing Professional Development

7.1 Introduction:

The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia places substantial significance on professionally developing teachers and school leaders. There is at least one training centre affiliated with each Education Department of the forty-five departments located around the country. Some of the Education Department covers large areas and includes education offices supervising several nearby schools. Nearly all of these offices have training centres, which may be located in semi-rural areas or on the outskirts of cities. Blandford (2000) emphasised that the learning and development of the school staff is essential to professional practice. In almost all contemporary proposals for better education, high-quality professional development for educators is a crucial component (Guskey, 2002). However, despite the importance of continuing professional development, rural workers face some challenges and obstacles that influence their CPD (Salazar, 2007). It is significant to consider the perceptions, opinions, and insights of school staff regarding the challenges and issues they face (Swann et al., 2010). Therefore, this chapter addresses the question of the continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA. It discusses the key themes that emerged from reviewing the documents and interviews conducted with supervisors, rural school leaders and teachers considering the reviewed literature.

7.2 The importance of CPD:

Globally, the most successful education systems are those that invest extensively in their school staff's continuing professional development and learning (Ravhuhali et al., 2015). Thus, improving training and development for school leaders and teachers is a top priority in educational agendas at national and local levels in Saudi Arabia. Most policy analysts, researchers and teachers argue that increasing professionalism is necessary for improving education (Bubb & Earley, 2007). According to ETEC (2017), in Saudi, one of the professional standards for teachers is continuing professional development. Also, from the documentary review, the Ministry of Education has recently developed a classification for teachers such as expert teachers, advanced teachers, practising teachers, and teacher assistants, as shown in the, where salaries vary for each category (HRSD, 2021). Moving from one rank to the next requires taking a range of training courses and further professional development (NIEPD, 2022). Leaders are usually expert teachers or advanced teachers; they get a bonus in their pay for running their schools, and the same rules that apply to teachers also apply to them when it

comes to their CPD in terms of increasing their salaries (HRSD, 2021; NIEPD, 2022). Most of the participants found that there has been a focus on the CPD of teachers and school leaders by the Ministry in recent years. For instance, the teacher (PT2G-A) from the focus group ‘G1A’ said:

During the five years, we noticed a change in the focus on the teacher and leader in terms of gaining many training courses and experiences. You try to take training courses constantly, even if you take them from outside centres (private centres). They have become very focused on professional development.

Additionally, the training supervisor (SuperDB) said:

There is a focus on professional development [...] Among the Ministry’s plan [...] the focus is on continuous improvement, development, and training [...] The Ministry played a significant role in improving training, as it prepared plans for the Education Departments and training programmes [...] Even teachers and school leaders are keen to continuously develop themselves professionally, as it becomes part of their annual job appraisal.

A study conducted in Saudi Arabia focused on practical applications and explored the perceptions of schoolteachers concerning the facilitators/ inhibitors and effectiveness of CPD (Sywelem & Witte, 2013). One of the study’s key findings was that participants did not recognise the significance and utility of CPD activities (Sywelem & Witte, 2013). This is inconsistent with what was found in this study, as most participants recognised the importance of continuous professional development. The measures recently by the Ministry linking professional development with professional teacher standards, promotions, and annual job appraisals may have changed these perceptions, as obtained from the documentary review. Also, the Ministry of Education established an online platform (Financial & Administration Resources Information System) called ‘Faris’, which is a system that provides many online services to the Ministry’s employees: to increase productivity, save time and effort for employees and services seekers, to enhance the construction of online transactions, improve development for the better, and achieve one of the goals of Vision 2030 (GAER, 2018). All the participants in this study, including teachers, school leaders, and supervisors increased their commitment and recognised the importance of CPD programmes when linked to promotions and salaries. This is consistent with a South African study showing that linking professional

development initiatives with financial rewards helps motivate school staff to commit to CPD (Ravhuhali et al., 2015).

Additionally, continuing professional development is vital for developing the skills and knowledge of teachers in rural areas. The growth of any professional in any field essentially needs to engage in continuous knowledge and skill improvement (Boyle et al., 2005). Teachers, like professionals in other fields, should regularly refresh their pedagogical knowledge (PK) and content knowledge (CK) (Sachs, 2007). The data demonstrated that there is a recognition of the impact of professional development on their pedagogical skills and the development of their knowledge of the content, as indicated by more than 70% of teachers. For example, teacher (PT41B-F) from school 'F' stated:

I am developing myself through various training programmes provided by the Department of Education in general teaching methods and the curriculum, which I consider very significant. As well as I search for the most appropriate ways to help students explore and understand, all of which contribute to students' learning.

Another example by teacher (PT17G-C) from the focus group 'G3C' reinforces this:

The Department of Education provides free training courses for teachers. More of them are really useful and developed my skills and knowledge, but we still need more focus on the curriculum and methods of teaching the subject we teach as it will help my students and me.

The pedagogical knowledge (PK) field links to the knowledge of teaching methods assists student comprehension, whereas the content knowledge (CK) area characterises the disciplinary knowledge a teacher imparts to students (Spangenberg & De Freitas, 2019). Although teachers still need more CPD programmes (which will be discussed later in this chapter), it is clear from the previous examples that they are aware of the importance of their professional development in terms of teaching methods and the content they provide for their students. The knowledge and skills acquired from the training programmes offered to them by the Education Department are reflected in raising performance in the classroom. Thus, this helps improve student learning, especially in rural areas where the teacher is considered one of the essential sources of obtaining knowledge. These results are in line with those found by Cochran-Smith (2005), who states that the rising paradigm of professional development seeks to improve student outcomes by enhancing teacher's content knowledge and pedagogical skills. It is also aligned with the literature (Odumosu & Fisayi, 2018; Ravhuhali et al., 2015; Smit et

al., 2017) demonstrating that teachers' PK and CK can be affected by professional development training programmes which influence their classroom instruction and student achievement.

Also, school leaders play an essential part in the professional development of their teachers, reacting to the challenges and requirements of their school communities while functioning within more comprehensive settings of pedagogical, curricular, and technological change (Stevenson et al., 2016). The importance of leadership for the effectiveness and improvement of the school has become paramount in light of the interest in ensuring continuing professional development (Leithwood, 2010; Nooruddin & Bhamani, 2019). According to the documentary review, teachers are required to obtain the approval of school leaders to attend the training programmes offered by the Department of Education, as indicated by the training supervisor (SuperDG):

We annually develop an operational plan for teachers' development training programmes according to the needs. And the teachers attend after consulting with their school leaders and obtaining their approval.

Since the six rural schools have a collaborative culture, (as discussed in Chapter 6), coordination among their staff often occurs to attend these programmes, as stated by teacher (PT24B-D) from the focus group 'G4D':

We work in the school as one team, and the leader must coordinate between us in the training courses because he cannot allow everyone at one time. For example, if my colleague has a training course, we try to cover his place, after coordinating with the leader.

The literature supports the findings of this study that one of the crucial roles of successful school leadership is that principals contribute significantly to facilitating the continuing professional development of teachers (Mitchell, 2013; Nooruddin & Bhamani, 2019; Stevenson et al., 2016). A study was conducted in South Africa on staff perceptions and the role of leadership in the professional development of school staff (Steyn, 2011). Steyn (2011, p. 43) concluded that the effective school leader's vital role in professional development is 'plant and plough' in teachers. When teachers receive training programmes, this leads to their learning growth, performance improvement, and sense of achievement. Thus, the CPD of teachers influences not only the improvement of the school and student achievement but also the motivation of the school staff (McMillan et al., 2016; Stevenson et al., 2016).

In addition, continuing professional development of school leaders should be given attention to successfully deal with the changes confronting them in the 21st century (Mestry, 2017). School leaders in rural areas have unique needs that can be addressed through effective professional development to build the essential leadership capabilities that support the success of their schools (Salazar, 2007). As the changing and dynamic educational culture becomes more complex, developing principals and equipping them with vital knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values turn increasingly crucial (Mestry & Singh, 2007). It is evident from the documentary review that all six school leaders (principals and deputies) have taken several training courses while they are continually eager to develop themselves professionally. For instance, the leader (PL3G-B) of school 'B' said:

I have received many training courses in leadership and others, and I am keen to develop myself, even if at my own expense, because first, we are in a remote area and secondly, because the world is changing and our country is developing, so we must keep pace with this.

Another example is from school's 'F' deputy (PL12B-F) who believed that his professional development is not limited to formal training programmes but that he can obtain knowledge in other ways, as mentioned:

I consider YouTube the open university, and anything I could not understand well, even in new terms in leadership science or other sciences, I returned to YouTube. It is full of beneficial information, and you can choose [...] You do not find only one, two, or three people clarifying the topic, but a large group discussing the subject from a different angle.

The principal's expectations have shifted from control and management to those of educational leader who can nurture learner growth, staff development, parent involvement, and community support, as well as adapt to significant expectations and changes (Mestry & Singh, 2007). The leaders of the six schools realise the importance of developing themselves professionally, especially in light of the challenges they face. Stewart and Matthews (2015) recommended that officials and policymakers should target rural school leaders to provide the necessary professional development to help them in an already overburdened and isolated situation. Also, the previous examples show how keen they are to develop themselves at their own expense or through informal CPD ways. To be as influential as potential, school leaders constantly expand their knowledge and skills to fulfil better educational practices (Mizell, 2010). Therefore,

leaders should be devoted to their CPD in order to equip themselves with the ability to handle the complexity of their roles and the breadth of leadership skills and activities necessary (Arhipova et al., 2018).

There is also a persistent emphasis on the importance of reflection within continuing professional development for school leaders and teachers (Forde et al., 2006; McArdle & Coutts, 2010). In a real-world setting, reflection fosters the development of new knowledge, skills, and attitudes by encouraging critical contemplation of activities (Slade et al., 2019). Individuals and groups are able to question entrenched practices through constant reflection and strategizing processes, even as they are affected by them (Hardy & Melville, 2013). Reflective practice enables principals and teachers to learn from their experiences, pursue lifelong learning, and bridge the gap between theories and practices (Damore & Rieckhof, 2021; Slade et al., 2019). From the documentary review, this study found that the Department of Education training centres publish a schedule of free training programmes at the beginning of each academic year, allowing teachers and school leaders to see and determine their requirements in advance. As a case in point, the teacher (PT4G-A) from focus group ‘G1A’ expressed:

Our training centre publishes the schedule of training courses at the beginning of each year, and we identify and choose the appropriate programmes for us. Also, as a teacher, you must become concerned about developing yourself professionally and identifying your needs and weaknesses [...] I have to ask myself, how do I gain self-confidence? How do I grow my talents? How do I increase my ability? What are the mistakes I made, and how do I correct them?

The documentary review also found school leaders practice reflection from several aspects: school tasks and matters related to school leadership, and on the other hand, ensuring the continuing professional development of themselves and their staff. As an illustration, the leader (PL7B-D) of school ‘D’ stated:

I see the school as my second home, and every day I have to review myself and my work to see what the difficulties, challenges, and opportunities are and how I overcome them; for example, if there is a problem with a teacher, student, parent, or even in the work how can I solve it? And I communicate with the deputy and colleagues to find solutions because we are in a school far from the city and the teachers’ residences, and we may face daily challenges [...] I must ensure that every teacher takes his opportunity to be

trained, and I help him develop the things he wants to grow in, or I notice that he needs to develop himself in them [...] I am also identifying the things I need to develop myself in, such as leadership matters or using technology. The deputy must also be prepared to be a leader. If, for instance, in some circumstances, he would be able to lead the school.

Rushton and Suter (2012) argued that practice of reflection contributes to developing and improving and learning and teaching and adopting changes. The publication of the training schedules provided by the training centres at the beginning of each academic year offers the opportunity for teachers to consider their needs. This type of analytical reflection makes them able to modify and improve their practical knowledge and skills (Chaharbashloo et al., 2020). Williams and Grudnoff (2011) conducted a study contrasting and comparing the perceptions of novice and experienced teachers about the usefulness of reflection in practice. They found that both groups of educators shifted from being to some degree sceptical of reflection to adopting it as a tool for modifying and analysing their practice (Williams & Grudnoff, 2011). In contrast reflection describes the capacity of leaders to combine experiential thinking with rational and logical thinking through information, perceptions, and experiences to make judgements about what has occurred and then to build intuitive principles to lead future activities (Pisapia et al., 2009). School leaders' reflection contributes to workplace learning, which in turn promotes improvement, development, and innovation (Hulsbos et al., 2016). When leaders identify their needs, they are able to develop their personal learning, knowledge, and skills (Notman & Henry, 2011). Also, from the example of leader 'D', the leaders will communicate with colleagues if they need to find solutions to a problem they may face. Consequently, their desire to engage in ongoing reflective practice with colleagues becomes clear to support their development (Drago-Severson, 2012). Moreover, while rural schools have their unique environment, implementing a form of reflection as a strategy may help in understand their experiences, beliefs and practices in the cultural and social context of a school (Baxter et al., 2021). Therefore, reflection should be combined into education courses and training programmes for the preservice and in-service teacher and leader's preparation to grow effective teachers and successful leaders (Çimer et al., 2013; Furman, 2012; Orr & Orphanos, 2011).

Additionally, many studies indicate that professional development interventions can effectively enhance teachers' and school leaders' confidence and efficacy (Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Ke et al., 2019; Koonce et al., 2019; Nadelson et al., 2013). In a review of three large-scale

studies of the effectiveness of award-bearing professional development courses, Day (2002) highlights the positive impact these courses were deemed to have in various areas, including increased professional confidence, self-efficacy, classroom practice, leadership skills, and career development. This study found that 37 participants, including ten leaders, indicated that continuing professional development improved their self-confidence and efficacy. For example, the leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' holds a diploma; however, she received many training programmes besides her long experiences that helped her gain leadership knowledge and skills, reflected in her self-confidence and efficiency:

I am developing myself with training courses; I have attended many leadership training courses, some of which were up to two or three days, and some were up to six months. I benefited a lot from them, and they reflected on my performance, and I feel that I understand a lot about leadership matters.

Also, teacher (PT28B-D) pointed out:

Continuing professional development helps the teacher to review the latest information, which will be shown in his performance in the classroom, and he will become confident about his background knowledge. I have more than 150 hours of training and feel that.

Despite the importance of the practice experiences, the above examples demonstrate that CPD enhances school leaders' and teachers' self-confidence and efficacy. These findings are consistent with many studies that acknowledge the role of CPD in raising the confidence and efficacy of teachers and school leaders (Makopoulou et al., 2021; McBrayer et al., 2018; Petridou et al., 2017; Valdmann et al., 2016).

7.3 The challenges of CPD

Schools in rural areas confront numerous obstacles, creating some challenges in school leaders' and teachers' continuing professional development (Salazar, 2007; Tsotetsi & Mahlomaholo, 2015). Ovenden-Hope and Passy (2019) assert that geographically isolated schools must be supported and meet their needs for CPD. Rural school leaders require continuing support and specialised training to lead their local and distinctive environments effectively (Hildreth et al., 2018). Despite the differences with urban areas, rural teachers also need exceptional professional development support appropriate to the requirements of their context (Glover et al., 2016). However, from the documentary review and as most study participants indicated that many training courses did not address rural areas and their needs. When the school 'F'

deputy (PL12B-F) was asked, for example, about his training experiences and if the needs of rural areas were discussed, his response was:

Not all, nothing was discussed about remote schools. I take almost eighty per cent of the training courses at my own expense through private training centres. You find them interested in the knowledge and applied fields of leadership, educational leadership, and leadership theories. But no one talks about the issues of rural schools, and they are not addressed at all. I do not remember that rural schools were mentioned over the eighteen years I spent in the education sector, and their problems were never discussed.

The lack of referring to the challenges met by school staff in rural areas is not only for leaders but also for teachers, as indicated by teacher (PT8G-B) from focus group ‘G2B’:

I used to talk about the problems we faced with students when attending the training courses, and I told them that: my students are from a rural school. The answer was: you are in exceptional circumstances, or we cannot discuss this point with you, or we cannot help you with this issue. We feel somewhat marginalised.

There is no doubt that the training programmes offered to school leaders and teachers in Saudi Arabia have developed significantly in the last decade. Still, the main message conveyed by informants was the frustration that the challenges facing them in rural area were not addressed in the training courses. They see that their priorities and training needs are primarily marginalised while expressing their desire to continue their professional development. This may lead to loss of effectiveness of training for school staff at some points. This is in line with a study conducted in rural Pakistan on perceptions of key stakeholders (teachers, school leaders, PD providers, and education department officials) to understand the contextual factors that impact the effectiveness of CPD programmes for teachers (Nawab & Bissaker, 2021). The study concluded that current CPD programmes offered to rural Pakistani teachers are less successful in positively influencing teachers’ practices since CPD providers intervene without taking into account contextual constraints (Nawab & Bissaker, 2021). Similarly, in Australia, Hardwick-Franco (2019) recommended that rural context be considered in professional development of rural school leaders, while their roles differ from urban school principals across various areas (Hardwick-Franco, 2019; Nawab & Bissaker, 2021).

Also, rural schools face some challenges due to the lack of administrative staff and teachers, leading to an increased workload. Several studies indicated that the heavy workload in rural schools constitutes an obstacle for school leaders and teachers (Hansen, 2018; Heffernan &

Longmuir, 2019; Kooymans et al., 2013; Taole, 2022), the most significant of which is their involvement in continuing professional development (Downes & Roberts, 2018; Wieczorek & Manard, 2018). From the documentary review, this study found that school leaders and teachers in rural schools have multiple commitments that may make them unable to participate in training programmes. For instance, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' stated:

The lack of administrative staff is a challenge that sometimes hinders my professional development. Because the deputy has classes and I have many tasks to complete daily. So, sometimes it is difficult for me to leave school to attend a training course.

Another example from a focus group 'G4D' teacher (PT23B-D) explains their challenges in developing themselves professionally:

The number of students in the village indeed is few, but by teaching a diversity of subjects, you miss the benefit of this opportunity. In what subject should I develop myself? The teacher in the village teaches more than one subject and is entrusted with administrative tasks and other tasks to complete. Also, my attendance at the training courses may delay me in the curriculum, so I must make up for it.

Another example is a focus group 'G3C' teacher (PT17G-C) who saw CPD programme times as challenging for her:

The problem with professional development programmes is that they are held during official working hours. It is possible for the teacher to absent for a week, three days, or two days from school so that she can attend these training courses, and this affects the educational process, especially for rural teachers.

The previous examples show that the lack of administrative staff in rural schools has consequences for leaders and teachers. As the employees of these schools work collaboratively, the activities and tasks are distributed among them to ensure the work's progress. Although rural schools have a smaller number of students and classrooms, teachers in these schools are required to teach more than one subject. As a result, the staff of these schools have other tasks assigned to them, which in turn creates a heavy workload for them. The greater the workload on leader or the teacher, the more this affects their focus on developing themselves professionally and on an ongoing basis (Nasreen & Odhiambo, 2018; Tulu, 2019). Also, the time of holding training courses is frequently official working hours, as obtained from the documentary review, which makes rural school staff unable to manage their time. Formal

working hours are essential, especially for teachers in rural areas to be able to complete their curricula. When school staff commute, they might expose to storms, traffic accidents, or other circumstances that may prevent them from going to their schools, making their loss of these times inevitable. Therefore, the times of continuing professional development programmes may be challenging for them in addition to the heavy workload (Nasreen & Odhiambo, 2018; Rouf & Mohamed, 2017).

In addition, continuing professional development for teachers and school leaders is vital to school outcomes, which must be implemented (Somantri & Iskandar, 2021). However, not only the six-school staff have to commute long distances to their schools, as discussed in Chapter Five, but they also need to travel on another journey to attend the CPD programmes, as obtained from the documentary review. The data demonstrates that one of the challenges facing rural school staff in continuing to develop themselves professionally is the long distance of training venues. As an illustration, teacher (PT42B-F) responded:

There is a point that sometimes causes me to refrain from attending the training course. My school is about 160 km away from home. When I go to school and meet the principal, he tells me: there is a training session after a week. Would you like to register? I directly ask him: Is it in the city of...? Because it is close to my house. He says no, it is in the education office. Is it better for me to travel 200 km to attend the training programme or to commute 160 km to school? I would go to my school, which is closer. So, my answer sometimes is I cannot go.

From the documentary review, the Education Department has the main training centre within the city and subsidiary training centres attached to education offices located on the city's outskirts or villages. After getting approval from those centres, employees in rural areas can decide which programmes they prefer to attend, whether at the main centre or sub-centres. Only some training programmes are available in the main centre, but the others are distributed to all centres under the Education Department's umbrella. Also, teachers and school leaders in rural areas are sometimes requested to attend training programmes their supervisors provide in sub-centres close to their schools. The staff of these schools need to travel to these training venues, which may be further away from their schools. Therefore, this may cause them to be reluctant to attend and be not committed to their professional development (Luschei & Zubaidah, 2012; Meke, 2013).

Moreover, the motivation to acquire new knowledge on the part of educators is one of the most fundamental requirements for effective professional development (Shulman & Shulman, 2009). Continuing professional development gives trainees personal motivators of achievement, advancement, and growth; encourages contingent factors such as school policy and personal relationships (McMillan et al., 2016). The motivations of teachers play a crucially important role in the process of teaching and learning (Gemedā & Tynjälä, 2015). However, the data from this study showed that 17 of the participants indicated that the lack of skills and capabilities of the training course provider (trainer) may contribute to the loss of motivation to attend CPD programmes. As an example, a focus group ‘G1A’ teacher (PT3G-A) mentioned:

One of the things that do not motivate me to attend some training courses is that some trainers only present PowerPoint and read from PowerPoint, that is all. They can send me a link with all the programme contents, and I will read and analyse the information myself. They need to gain experience and training skills and the way of gaining feedback after the programme should be improved.

The CPD provider’s approach, skills, and knowledge may have an impact on the success of any CPD activities, wither positively or passively (Sabah et al., 2014). It is clear from the previous example that the more skilled and experienced the trainer is in what is presented and the training, the more the trainees desire to join and attend CPD programmes. Padwad and Dixit (2011) argued that CPD is not only the transfer or acquisition of sets of knowledge and skills to deal with specific new demands (such as teacher training to use a new teaching method or implement a new textbook) but also to promote teachers’ knowledge, thinking, and understanding. Therefore, CPD providers must evaluate, analyse, compare, and improve CPD practices and policies to influence teacher learning (Tannehill et al., 2021).

Providing feedback from the trainees is also crucial, as it contributes significantly to raising the level of training (Steyn, 2011). Evaluating any training programme indicates the knowledge gap between what the trainee learns and what the trainer teaches (Dahiya & Jha, 2011). There are also many evaluation tools that training programmes in professional development can benefit from, most notably the formative and summative evaluation (Newcomer et al., 2015). During the operation of a programme or activity, formative evaluation is undertaken, whereas summative evaluation is conducted at the conclusion of a programme or activity (Guskey, 2000). It is clear from the previous example that the focus is on summative evaluation, even though formative evaluation utilises evaluation techniques to enhance the

delivery of a training programme (Newcomer et al., 2015). Therefore, it is essential to use different evaluation methods to obtain accurate results from the participants in the training programmes and to make them aware of the importance of providing helpful evaluation and constructive feedback.

In addition, one of the challenges that may reduce the motivation of employees to continue developing themselves professionally is getting older. According to Huberman (1992), as cited in de Vries et al. (2013), there are five stages of teacher's career cycle, each based on the different number of years in the profession: (1-3 years) the launching a career, (4-6 years) the stabilising, (7-9 years) the new challenge, (10-19 years) the plateauing, and (20-30 years) the final. The data exhibited that the closer the employee's age is to retirement or the more they want to retire early, the less motivated they are to participate in CPD programmes. When participants were asked about future training needs, a small group responded, for instance, as the teacher (PT17G-C) from the focus group 'G3C':

I will retire after two years, and I would like to answer your question if it was ten years ago, but I do not mind if there are training programmes on technology or its use in teaching because it is renewable.

de Vries et al. (2013) concur that each stage of the career cycle, teachers' commitment, and concerns, as well as their professional development needs and behaviour, alter. Regarding these stages, Richter et al. (2011) found that teachers with 10-19 years of experience are more likely to attend formal conferences and workshops and to engage deeply in activities related to their teaching topics, content, and pedagogy, while teachers in the later stage of their careers are less likely to do so, due to the lower potential return of future PD activities when retirement is imminent. However, informants are willing to attend any training programmes on technology and its use in teaching and ask for them. This is consistent with what Richter et al. (2011) found, where teachers from the final stage demonstrated increased participation in training programmes on utilising technology for teaching and student assessment.

Covid-19 and the shifting to e-Training:

There were demands to study and develop e-training for teachers and school leaders in Saudi Arabia and to draw roadmap to working on it before the pandemic (Amasha & Alkhalaf, 2016; Zaenalabedeen, 2016). According to Zheng et al. (2013), e-training demonstrated great promise in the interest of educational process and the internet era. Simultaneously, Boytcheva et al. (2018) urged to empower school staff with new technical content, technologies, and

methodologies to align with remote training appropriately. However, at the beginning of 2020, when most countries worldwide relied on distance learning, education systems had to continue developing school staff professionally by implementing e-training (Chin et al., 2022). In Saudi Arabia, remote training was employed during the pandemic, as there were several training programmes on distance learning and others (Ezzeldin & Alsharidah, 2021). Although e-training contributed to solving some challenges, it became limited to some training programmes after returning to normal life, as indicated by the documentary review. Yet, besides the weakness of the internet in some areas, e-training has created new challenges, including the lack of digital skills and technical issues. This study found that 27 of the participants in this study confronted some issues related to the use of technology and apps. For instance, teacher (PT14G-B) stated:

We face technical problems; for example, sometimes, in the middle of the training session, the internet cuts off, the mic does not work, or I cannot hear the trainer, and some applications are complicated to use. Sometimes I do not know how to attend the training because some applications are complex.

Chen et al. (2009) indicated that online CPD programmes tend to provide better online learning experiences if an internet connection and a computer exist. Even though all participants have computers, the skill of using them and overcoming technical challenges in dealing with training programmes and internet outages are considered the barriers. This is consistent with a study in Morocco that explained the barriers that school staff have faced during the pandemic while having e-training, comprising lack of digital skills, technical challenges, and internet problems (Boumaaize et al., 2021).

In addition, social interaction in face-to-face CPD programmes allows for the cultivation of creative engagement and influences the learning potential (Ingleby & Hunt, 2008; Köpsén & Andersson, 2018). Kennedy (2011) argued that it provides the opportunity to promote informal learning by creating an effective collaborative learning climate. However, this study found that one of the most critical challenges facing e-training is participants' inability to interact socially and benefit from this type of informal learning. As case in point, the leader (PL9B-E) of school 'E' mentioned:

One of the most challenging things is that we miss the interactions in the training hall, the discussions, and the exchange of ideas that we find in face-to-face training. I agree it is helpful, but we are missing out on a lot of sharing ideas and knowledge.

The concept of e-training is unprecedented for some teachers and school leaders, as some participants explained that the prevailing stereotype among them was its ineffectiveness. Considering the pandemic and the transition entirely to the practice of distance learning with the continuation of professional development differing from the usual for them, it became clear that it is possible to benefit from it significantly, effectively, and successfully. However, many strategies and tools can be used and implemented during distance training to enhance interaction between trainees (Anho, 2022). Thus, since continuing professional development is essential to ensure that trainees are constantly maintained and updated on best practice, skills, and knowledge necessary for the profession, e-training should be designed to enhance interaction among them and can be translated into practice (Lander et al., 2022).

7.4 Professional learning communities:

Professional learning communities (PLCs) are becoming more popular with the teaching profession to enhance school improvement processes and outcomes (Watson, 2014). The success of the PLCs in their dealings and interactions with each other generate new professional knowledge and create solutions to the challenges they may face (Harris & Jones, 2010). Vescio et al. (2008) suggested that well-developed PLCs have a positive impact not just on teaching practice but also on students' achievement. It is only possible for improvement to occur through professional learning communities if school staff work together and concentrate on the 'real work' of enhancing both learning and teaching (Harris & Jones, 2009, as cited in Harris & Jones, 2010). The school leader also has an influential role in promoting PLCs and implementing these activities (Buttram & Farley-Ripple, 2016). In order to develop and maintain teachers' capacities, skills, and knowledge, school leaders should more than ever pay attention to and contribute to supporting professional learning communities, which is an essential tool for improving their schools and their outcomes (Balyer et al., 2015). The six schools in this study face several challenges that require school leaders to work collectively and collaboratively to support exchanging knowledge among teachers to improve their skills. The leaders of the six schools agree that the challenges they face differ from those of urban areas, which calls for the need to benefit from the experiences of all. For instance, the leader (PL5G-C) of school 'C' indicated:

We are in a school far from the city, and our challenges differ. We must learn from each other, collaborate, and share knowledge and experiences. I am keen that my colleagues learn from each other, and I also learn from them because some have more experience than me in this school, whether dealing with parents or students. Even if I

get a new teacher, it is one of my duties to let her integrate and learn from us, and we also learn from her.

The challenges that the rural school staff face make them more cohesive in a collaborative culture that allow PLCs to be accessible (Antinluoma et al., 2018). The leader's critical role is to establish professional learning communities that contribute to disseminating knowledge among them, especially in rural schools (Willis, 2016). Therefore, principals not only share responsibility for teacher learning and how they integrate professional learning into the daily life of their school but also assist in creating and nurturing school conditions that lead to professional learning communities (Haiyan & Allan, 2021).

In addition, school leaders are accountable for facilitating instructional practices and procedures to ensure that teacher learning and improvements in teaching practice lead to better student learning within PLCs (Huggins et al., 2011). On the premise that teachers can learn from each other, learning communities build and maintain an atmosphere that encourages open communication, commitment, and collaboration, to the individual and collective growth and development of its members (Lieberman et al., 2011). The documentary review and the leaders of the six schools indicated that they support the continuing professional development of their schools by encouraging the exchange of visits between teachers of the same subject. As an illustration, the school 'D' leader (PL7B-D) stated:

I have a record of exchange of teachers' visits, and I encourage them to visit each other. The visits are between subject teachers, for example, mathematics with each other, Arabic with each other, and so on.

When focus group 'G2B' was asked how they develop themselves professionally, teacher (PT10G-B) answered as follows:

The teachers of the same subject, or rather, I am now the only one in the school teaching physics, as well as we have one teacher for chemistry subject, and another for biology subject, but we consider as a family, the family of sciences. We always discuss our topics, student learning and achievement, and a method to explain a particular part to the students. We also exchange visits, and I hear their feedback when they visit me, and I work on improving my mistakes.

Exchange visits between teachers facilitate the development of the trust needed to work effectively with each other by providing feedback in the environment of professional learning

communities (Roy & Hord, 2006). Hord (2004, p. 11) argued that reviewing teacher practices by colleagues should be the norm in PLCs, as the process is not for evaluation but a part of ‘peers helping peers’. Teachers, in this process, encourage one another to embrace new practices by providing reflective dialogue (Hord, 2004). Successful schools are the ones that create a collaborative environment in which there is time for reflective dialogues between its members in every process (DuFour & DuFour, 2013). Therefore, leaders should encourage teachers to address instructional concerns and provide critical feedback to their peers, generate deep and insightful talks on specific student learning problems and achievement, and facilitate reflective dialogues among employees, which may lead over time for PLCs to flourish (Schaap & de Bruijn, 2018; Zheng et al., 2019). Additionally, knowledge sharing is closely related to developing professional learning communities, which can thus assist teachers in solving various issues linked to teaching and learning (Talebizadeh et al., 2021). Rismark and Sølvsberg (2011) argued that knowledge sharing might be implemented into practice to develop schools as PLCs. The data found that the leaders of the six rural schools seek to create opportunities for knowledge sharing among teachers, as indicated by the leader (PL9B-E) of school ‘E’:

In rural schools, you must create opportunities and use them correctly to develop teachers and to spread knowledge among them. We gather outside the school weekly, and most of the discussions in it revolve around the school, students’ problems, and opportunities in which we can face some challenges. As for inside the school, we all meet in the teachers’ room almost daily, especially during break time, and this is the best opportunity to share experiences. We also have some distinguished teachers in the school who take training courses and transfer them to us.

Another example by teacher (PT6G-A):

There are a lot of exchanges of experiences and knowledge daily in the teachers’ room. For example, I needed help understanding an application in the science curriculum related to mathematics, such as using the logarithm, so I asked the mathematics teacher [...] drawing part of the human body; I am not proficient in drawing; I asked the art teacher and asked her how I draw? How do I start drawing? It is normal if I ask because we are in school here like sisters [...] Also, some of my colleagues gave training courses at the school.

PLCs are associated with information exchange among teachers and mutual consultation sharing experiences within schools, where teachers can learn from one another and enhance

the impact of individual skills and knowledge (Luyten & Bazo, 2019). Also, relationship between rural school staff are different, as it is built on mutual respect and trust, which motivates them to create a ground for collaborative learning (Castro & Villafuerte, 2019). Therefore, the six rural schools are characterised by a collaborative culture that may remove barriers to knowledge sharing and consequently promote effective organisational learning (Nugroho, 2018). In contrast, rural school leaders create opportunities such as friendly gatherings with staff outside the school, meeting with them regularly in the teachers' room, and giving opportunities for teachers to implement a training course for their colleagues in the school, which thus contributes to disseminating and sharing knowledge. This finding is backed by opportunity-driven evidence from the literature on knowledge sharing (Cheng et al., 2017; Park & Kim, 2018; Zeinabadi, 2020).

Technology plays an effective role in promoting professional learning communities, as there are many social media platforms that gather them (Mingsiritham et al., 2020). With the use of social media, school leaders and teachers are able to reach a large number of people simultaneously (Johnson-Holder & Bethea-Hampton, 2019). School staff's access to online resources and increased internet connectivity have expanded their professional learning opportunities and the sharing of their ideas and knowledge on social media platforms (Prestridge, 2019). The documentary review showed that all participants in this study use social media, as 32 indicated that they have professional communities outside the boundaries of their schools. As case in point, teacher (PT42B-F) affirmed:

I have more than one WhatsApp group. I have the school group, where we discuss everything related to the school. I have an educational group for teachers where you find all new about learning and teaching. I have the supervisor group for the same subject teachers. All are beneficial to me.

Another example of the school 'B' leader (PL3G-B) showing how social media platforms are used to obtain information and knowledge:

There are many social media platforms that I benefit from, for example, the Ministry's Twitter account and the educational Telegram channels. I also have a WhatsApp group with school leaders. Because sometimes, a person faces a problem and does not know how to deal with it, you send in this group asking for answer an experienced colleague so we all can benefit.

One of the most significant developments in numerous education systems in recent years is the rise of professional learning (Azorín et al., 2020). Social media contributes to professional learning by transforming learners from passive consumers to producers of information, promoting learning through comprehending the experiences of others, and supporting the desire to ongoing learning with social community of peers (Bedford, 2019). Therefore, using social media platforms and apps by rural school staff may help alleviate their isolation and integrate them into professional learning communities in urban areas. In a comparative study of professional learning communities in rural and urban schools in China, evidence indicated that context influences teachers and teaching (Wang et al., 2017). Wang et al. (2017) suggested that PLCs should be strengthened at the school level, which is a crucial way to narrow the teaching and learning gaps between rural and urban areas.

Professional learning communities during covid 19:

After suspending the work of schools during the pandemic, the Ministry of Education launched its vision of accrediting distance learning. As a result, all participants from the six schools in this study reshaped a clear vision that fits with the Ministry's distance learning instructions and policies. The professional learning community develops a shared vision of the modifications and improvements on which they will collaborate to enhance student learning (Hord, 2008). As all schools' activities tended towards achieving it, all rural school staff followed and adapted to this reshaped vision. Although most of the participants explained that before covid 19, they did not believe that distance learning was adequate and that some of them lacked many teaching skills using technology, they shared the enthusiasm for developing themselves and the values of the significance of distance learning after they practised it. The ways in which teachers operate individually and collectively toward common goals are influenced by shared vision and values (Teague & Anfara Jr, 2012). These motives prompted them to collectively try to overcome the challenges and learn the needed skills and knowledge, as teacher (PT6G-A) observed:

Before covid, the idea of distance learning was that it needed more time, especially in rural schools, but now distance learning has dramatically developed our electronic capabilities. We started entering programs and apps and learning about things in technology that we did not know before.

Also, most participants agreed on values such as collaboration and concern for students' interests. For example, teacher (PT27B-D) responded:

We must develop ourselves and collaborate on this matter, especially in technology the circumstances we are going through during the pandemic because we are dealing with rural students [...] in addition, the student here depends on you because some of their parents are illiterate, so the student's interest must be the priority.

A fundamental element of a professional learning community is the staff's shared vision, values, and goals for their common purpose (Hord, 2008). The shared vision and values of the rural school staff have an unwavering emphasis on student learning through developing their needs that influence decisions on teaching and learning (Olivier & Huffman, 2016). In a systematic literature review to identify the most effective components of a professional learning community that supported teacher competencies and development under the covid-19 pandemic, they found that shared values and vision were frequently consistent with the PLC literature (Kanawapee et al., 2022).

Additionally, in professional learning communities, school improvement becomes a continuing concentration in that all school staff hold collective responsibility (Hord, 2004). Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) emphasises that a collective sense of responsibility rests not only on teachers' belief that they have the capacity to affect student learning but also on their shared commitment to do so. The data showed that the six-school staff at the beginning of the pandemic took responsibility collaboratively to help each other finding solutions to technical problems they encountered. Although teachers were not prepared to use the Madrasati platform, school leaders sought, after coordinating with computer science teachers, to provide training courses on how to use it through Teams. As a case in point, the deputy (PL6G-C) of school 'C' explained:

At the beginning of Covid, the first problem we faced was dealing with technology and with this the platform because it was new to us. But we coordinated with the computer science teacher, and she did not hesitate. She offered us training through the Teams about the platform and some programs and applications, which was very useful for everyone.

In the interview with the focus group 'G6F', one (PT36B-F) of the teachers praised the role played by the computer science teacher during the pandemic, as he mentioned:

Mr PT37B-F is a computer genius, and we learned a lot from him. A while ago, he gave us training courses on distance learning, the technology we can use, and the programs

concerned with distance learning. He has experience in this field and cooperates with all of us.

From the above examples, rural school leaders play an essential role in using opportunities that may contribute to developing teachers' responsibility. Park et al. (2019) found that school leaders' support positively affected both PLCs and collective responsibility, that in turn, influenced student achievement. When a school is characterised by beliefs in shared norms and collective responsibility for student learning, there are more frequent adjustments in practice and professional learning (De Neve et al., 2015). Also, this kind of collaboration as part of one big family makes teachers feel collective responsibility in learning and teaching (Meirink et al., 2010). These findings are combined with a study on how PLCs were used in public schools in Kuwait during the pandemic (Alsaleh, 2021). This study found that school staff practised professional learning communities through several components, including shared values and vision and collective responsibility (Alsaleh, 2021).

7.5 Future development needs:

Meeting and identifying the training needs to develop rural schools' staff professionally and continuously is of paramount importance, especially in light of their unique circumstances and challenges. Spencer et al. (2018) indicated that the different school contexts significantly influence the nature of these needs. As education systems worldwide seek to ensure high achievement for all their students in order to remain globally competitive, effective teacher development is a priority to fulfil this aim (Bayar, 2014; Looney, 2011). Thus, enhancing teacher effectiveness is vital, as CPD workshops and training should be designed for instructors' specific needs (Badri et al., 2016; Figland et al., 2019). On the other hand, rural principals' challenges and opportunities are fundamentally distinct from those of their urban and suburban counterparts. The roles of school leaders in rural areas are not specified within the school walls, including teachers' development and student achievement but also go beyond that to touch the needs of local communities (Kooymans et al., 2013; Liu & Hallinger, 2018). Therefore, essential leadership capacity should be built through effective continuing professional development tailored to rural school leaders' unique needs (Hardwick-Franco, 2019; Salazar, 2007). This section will discuss future development needs in three parts: the needs of teachers, the training needs common to teachers and school leaders, and the needs of school leaders.

For Teachers:

The curriculum strives to obtain the right balance between the essential knowledge domains, preparation for society and students' personal development in today's societies (Erstad & Voogt, 2018). One of the key objectives of the curriculum is to create an encouraging, stimulating, purposeful learning context and enjoyable learning atmosphere where students can be more productive and effective in line with their expectations and needs (Çimen, 2022). It is not only a set of material resources that teachers use to implement the curriculum but also a knowledge producer that might have educational value for the stakeholders, especially in rural areas (Madondo, 2021). The evidence showed that 23 teachers wanted to obtain training programmes in their curricula before implementing any amendment. For instance, the teacher (PT27B-D) said:

There is a continuous update on the curricular. For example, the Arabic language curriculum was updated a while ago, and I did not receive training programmes related to this update. There are many changes in the textbook, such as symbols, barcodes, and others. Therefore, I would like to get training in the curriculum (textbook) and the new changes.

All curricula provided to public schools around the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are issued textbooks from the Ministry of Education. The Ministry often reforms school curricula periodically to align with the changes in local and international standards (Mitchell & Alfuraih, 2018). Then, the schools adopt these curricula, taught before teachers in rural areas receive full training to deal with the urgent changes. Therefore, teachers with this research demanded continuing professional development programmes in the curricula and ways to deal with them before, during and after their publication and teaching them in schools. These findings consist of a study conducted in South Africa to explore the experiences of rural teachers concerning CPD in curriculum (Phasha et al., 2016). The results of the study indicated that when introducing a new curriculum, there is a need for proper planning, preparation, implementation, and support for the CPD of teachers (Phasha et al., 2016).

Additionally, education researchers and policymakers have been interested in what teachers know and how they apply their knowledge to instructional tasks for decades (Chan & Hume, 2019). Shulman (1987) pioneered a new approach to understanding the scope and depth of teachers' knowledge. He suggested that teachers' knowledge base consists of at minimum seven categories of knowledge, including, most interestingly, pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987). Teachers' PCK fundamentally enhances student learning (Keller et al.,

2017), teacher-student interactions (Alonzo et al., 2012), refinement of appropriate learning outcomes, and improves teacher confidence (Jones & Moreland, 2004). This study found 80% of teachers demanded continuing professional development programmes in the ways they deliver their content. As an illustration, teacher (PT3G-A) from the focus group ‘G1A’ indicated:

I need training courses in laboratories and experiment materials that I use in chemistry, as most of my work is practical. I know and possess the teaching skills, but I need training on the methods of teaching chemistry and the content I have, especially for rural students.

Saeli et al. (2011) described PCK as the knowledge that enables teachers to transform their subject-matter knowledge into something attainable to their pupils. Rural schools are often challenged by the lack of resources and equipment that influence teaching and learning (Quansah et al., 2019), which in turn limits the teachers’ capacity to deliver content. These teachers must use the available capabilities that require specific knowledge and teaching methods to suit rural students. Therefore, Professional development programmes should priorities the cultivation of teachers’ pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) because it encompasses teachers’ understanding of the processes through which rural students learn or struggle to learn the particular subject matter (Jordan et al., 2018; Van Driel & Berry, 2012).

Furthermore, technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) is the knowledge base teachers need to use technology effectively in classrooms (Chai et al., 2013). Voogt et al. (2013) described TPCK as when teachers want to integrate technology into their practice; consequently, they need to be competent in aligning pedagogy, content, and the potential of technology. The data indicated that most rural teachers need to obtain training programmes that support their continuing professional development on the uses of technology in education. As an illustration, the teacher (PT10G-B) from the focus group ‘G2B’ responded:

We need training programmes in any new technical thing related to education. We need to get regular courses on updates in technology, whether programs, devices, applications, or others because technology is constantly evolving. We need to understand more about teaching methods and content delivery via the internet because it is vital for the students and us.

In recent years, TPACK has emerged as a focal point of inquiry in the fields of technology education and teacher preparation and professional development (Dong et al., 2015; Rosenberg

& Koehler, 2015). During the Covid-19 pandemic, teachers in rural areas have acquired some skills in technological pedagogical knowledge by teaching through the internet. Also, the Ministry of Education has provided many educational tools and technological content, such as the provision of e-curricula and the creation of the Madrasati platform, including sources that the teacher can use. However, distance learning remains new to those schools' staff, despite the pre-pandemic stereotypes that using online learning was as thought to be fiction in rural areas. Therefore, teachers in rural schools need many CPD programmes in TPACK that facilitate the integration of technology and teaching methods with the available content, taking into account the development of the content periodically (Hill & Uribe-Florez, 2020; Wang et al., 2019).

Also, inclusion in school is a fundamental right of students, including those with special education needs, in school systems worldwide (DeVries et al., 2018). Hudgins (2012) argued that schools are tasked to provide all pupils with adequate access to general education curricula, and necessary instructional support for all students with disabilities. However, rural schools suffer from a shortage of teachers focussed on special education, which poses a challenge to their staff (Sindelar et al., 2018). This study found that the six rural schools do not have specialised teachers in special education, as explained by the deputy (PL8B-D) of school 'D':

Sometimes you cannot find special education teachers in rural schools, and it is rare to find them here. Village schools need teachers with the skills to deal with students with special needs. The Ministry provides many centres and schools with specialised teachers to deal with them, but most of them are in the cities. It is also difficult for parents take their children to those schools, which may be fifty Km away per day because that will be very costly for them. Also, they may have other children that they should take care of. Therefore, you find them saying 'I will try to take care of the rest of my children and do what I can with my disabled son because I cannot afford the costs and hardships of travelling daily.

Here, teacher (PT15G-C) from focus group 'G3C' revealed that she needs the training to deal with special needs students:

In some classes, I have students with special needs. For example, I have a student who has difficulty learning and another who has difficulty speaking, and another with stuttering. So, I need training in dealing with special needs students because they have

the right to learn, and they have the right to receive an appropriate education like their classmates.

The geographical isolation of rural areas makes parents unable to travel with their children daily to centres and schools that take care of special needs students. The rural school staff are aware of the rights of these students to receive an appropriate education, but in return, they need professional training in how to deal with them. This is in line with study findings that general education teachers in rural secondary schools supported the idea of inclusion, integrating special needs students in their schools, but they believed that they did not receive training (Short & Martin, 2005).

For both:

Over the recent decades, a global education reform movement has radically influenced education systems and policies around the world (Verger et al., 2013). These reforms often aim to improve education to make schools more relevant to local and global changes by updating their policies and systems (Reimers, 2021). The evidence in this study demonstrated that many reforms have been undertaken by the Ministry of Education in the past decade, which in turn were reflected in the staff of rural schools. These reforms were accompanied by updated regulations, systems, and policies that teachers and school leaders were asked to implement. The informants demanded that they should be trained on the new regulations and systems required before applying them in their schools, as mentioned by the school leader (PL3G-B):

Some policies and regulations are sent to us that need more explanation. There is also a new system (tracks system) for secondary schools that have been implemented so far, which needs to be clarified. But I want to learn more about the new system, regulations, or policies, as I hope in the future, if they are going to apply any new things, I would like to have training before its implementation.

Another example is by teacher (PT24B-D) from focus group ‘G4D’, observed:

Our challenge is implementing new systems without training. For instance, the distance learning and Madrasati platform, which we were trained on after using it in the field, we had time because we were in the summer break and were in quarantine, and we had free time. Why do not we train on it and take an overview of how to use it before implementing it? We must be trained in any new system before using or implementing

it. The teacher must be updated and trained continuously on all the Ministry's latest regulations and educational systems before applying them in the field.

The training supervisor (SuperDB) also commented on this point:

We offer programmes related to educational systems and instructions at the beginning of the school year for the field, especially for new leaders.

The Ministry of Education has recently undertaken many reforms in its education system, from developing the curricula, distance learning and the secondary school education system to enacting regulations that encourage its employees to CPD and other (Alghamdi, 2019; MoE, 2021). Despite the serious efforts to implement these reforms in schools to ensure the improvement of teaching and learning, the rural school staff needs to be well prepared through training them on these developments. From the example of the training supervisor, there is one training course at the beginning of each school year for a specific category, which is not enough to keep pace with these reforms. School staff plays an essential role in the successfully implementing education reforms through their professional development (Kenny et al., 2020). On the other hand, CPD is an influential factor that contributes to improving professional practice and student outcomes as well as developing conditions for adopting new educational systems (Yuen, 2012). Therefore, school staff and their CPD are vital to explicitly shaping the prosperity of any educational reform and, implicitly, the future of society (Ucan, 2016).

Effective communication is fundamental to the educational system as it contributes to building and improving organisational relationships, and thus, academic achievements will be higher (Dar, 2019). Khan et al. (2017) concluded that teacher communication skills have a considerable role in students' learning and achievement. Simultaneously, effective communication of leaders determines their rural schools' instructional and motivational direction (Salazar, 2007). This study found that 26 participants (including two leaders and four deputies) would like to obtain professional training in effective communication and dealing with beneficiaries. For instance, teacher (PT42B-F) indicated:

We all need each training course that includes teacher development in communication and its skills in order to communicate information with a student and a teacher, the communication between the teacher and the administration, and between teacher and community. These are all needed by teachers and school leaders, including me, especially in rural areas.

The professional and personal development of teachers' communication skills and capacities makes them capable enough to perform their duties effectively (Gopang, 2016). On the other hand, successful rural school leaders need to be adept communicators and relationship builders who can strike a balance between the demands of teachers, students, parents, the Department of Education, the Ministry, and local authorities (Duncan & Stock, 2010). Rural areas are characterised by having different interactions and communication; for example, the accent and the way of dealing are greatly influenced by the customs and traditions inherent in the culture of those societies. When leaders and teachers in these areas can overcome communication barriers, they are able to influence not only the students but also their surrounding communities. Therefore, it is essential that rural school leaders and teachers receive constant training in communication strategies in order to be able to integrate and work effectively (Hansen-Thomas et al., 2016; Nasreen & Odhiambo, 2018).

For school leaders:

Schools face increasing requirements because of the pressures of globalisation and rising accountabilities, which in turn demand well-prepared and skilled leadership (Moorosi & Bush, 2011). The world has recently become increasingly technology-oriented as the ability to use it is considered critical in both society and the workplace (Andersen & Pitkänen, 2019). On the other side, school leaders should endeavour to fill any digital skill and knowledge gaps (Hamzah et al., 2021). They may face some challenges that require them to give guidance and direction for promoting technological development throughout the school learning culture and lead this practice in their school (Aksal, 2015). This study found that 9 out of 12 school leaders (5 leaders and four deputies) would like to receive training courses on how to use technology to lead their schools. The school 'C' leader (PL5G-C) responded:

With the pandemic, we in rural schools have begun a new era in use of technology, distance learning, and even leadership has become through online. The deputy or I, for example, entered the platform and visited the classes online; even our meetings have become via Zoom or Teams. So, I also need training in how leadership is done online because I still need to understand it more and how to lead with technology.

In order to establish a digital learning culture in schools, it requires leaders to demonstrate their digital leadership (DL) skills (Karakose et al., 2021). Despite the challenges facing rural schools, the concept of digital leadership needs a lot of attention, especially since the use of technology has become inevitable. Yusof et al. (2019) argued that DL encompasses several

functions, including virtual meetings, virtual information and knowledge sharing, virtual communication, virtual monitoring of student performance and achievement, virtual teaching and learning supervision, and virtual promotion of professional development. In Kuwait, AlAjmi (2022) found that during the Covid-19 pandemic, school principals' digital leadership had a beneficial effect on teachers' technology development. Therefore, it is essential to plan and organise digital leadership CPD programmes that not only benefit teachers but also improve student achievement (Hamzah et al., 2021).

Additionally, leadership is usually acknowledged as the second-greatest effect on students' academic growth compared to teachers' influence in the classroom (Bush & Glover, 2014). Successful rural school leaders prioritise relationships with staff, students, parents, and community while they can be agents of change by implementing instructional leadership and striking a balance between local and regional rules (Preston & Barnes, 2017). However, compared to their counterparts in larger urban schools, rural leaders frequently experience limited access to leadership development opportunities and professional isolation (Kaur et al., 2021). The data showed that all six school deputies and three school leaders (2 girls' schools and one boy's school) requested more training programmes in school leadership and work environment development. For instance, the school 'E' deputy (PL10B-E) noted:

I have gone from the stage of a teacher to the set of being a deputy as a leader of the school [...] In every work we do, you must read about the tasks you will face in this work and how you develop yourself and develop your skills, especially in leadership. Now I need training on how to develop myself and how to deal and communicate with individuals at work with the staff, my students, and parents. I must build my leadership skills and bring new ideas that may improve my school's educational environment.

There are differences in responsibilities and roles between teaching and leadership, which make the preparation and development for school leadership a concern predominantly on how leadership positions are anticipated, leadership capacity is formed, and leadership is continuously developed (Moorosi, 2021, pp. 704-705). School leaders can effectively be improved through participation in training programmes that focus on human capital, leadership, and school culture (Tingle et al., 2019). Renihan and Noonan (2012) believed that the training programmes for leaders in rural schools should be accompanied by community-related tasks, the challenges they may face, and the appropriate use of the systems and policies they may benefit from to develop the educational environment in their schools. On the other hand, Jansen

and du Plessis (2020) argued that the educational leadership literature indicates that relatively little attention has been paid to the particular responsibilities and duties of the school deputies while they are generally viewed as principals in training, and their relationship with their principals is characterised by shared leadership practices. School leaders and their deputies in rural schools have many roles and tasks, they are in same boat to face internal and external challenges. therefore, it is necessary to provide CPD programmes for them in general and rural leadership because it may make them successful leaders, take advantage of the training networks, and exchange experiences that may provide them with learning opportunities with and through others (Kaur et al., 2021).

Also, school leadership intersects with essential quality assurance components, including developing people, setting directions, the reliability of managerial leadership, and redesigning organizations (Anastasiadou & Anastasiadis, 2019). Quality assurance is not only enhancing the school learning culture, but it is also increasing student performance (Madumere-Obike et al., 2013). This study found that three school principals out of 6 requested training programmes in quality assurance. The leader (PL1G-A) of school 'A' responded:

I would like to get a training course in quality assurance and how to achieve quality in the school and maintain it. It will be new for me, as I have received many training programmes in various fields. Still, I did not have the opportunity to obtain any quality assurance training, which is largely unavailable.

The need for school education quality assurance is to ensure that the school learning procedure is conducted in line with relevant programmes and with the standard reference (Rahman et al., 2020). It significantly impacts the quality of teaching and learning processes and improve the education system's overall quality. Although rural schools face numerous challenges, promoting the concept of quality among leaders can make difference in those areas. Thus, it is crucial that continuing professional development programmes include quality assurance training for school leaders (Huber, 2010).

7.6 Conclusion:

This chapter discusses the concept of continuing professional development from the perspectives of school leaders, teachers in rural areas, and supervisors of training by the Department of Education. It concluded with four themes, namely the importance of continuing professional development for rural school staff, the challenges they face in enrolling in training programmes, clarifying the role of leaders and teachers in building professional learning

communities, and finally, the future development needs for them. The findings related to this part of the framework reveal that most of the participants in this study are aware of the importance of continuing professional development as it increases their skills, knowledge, motivation, confidence, and efficacy alongside the efforts of the Ministry of Education.

There are also some challenges facing the staff of these schools, which call for attention to the challenges and needs of rural areas to be included. The teachers and leaders of rural schools have workloads, and the distance may cause them not to enrol in training, which may be dealt with by distance training, considering overcoming technical problems and applying strategies that make it more attractive. There must also be accurate strategies for evaluating training programmes and focusing on raising awareness of their importance as well as feedback among school staff.

In addition, school leaders play a significant role in creating and building professional education communities and exploiting opportunities that may help. The leader can encourage teachers to address educational concerns and provide critical feedback to their peers, create deep and insightful conversations about specific student learning problems and achievements, and facilitate reflexive dialogues among staff, which may lead to thriving PLCs over time.

Finally, the teachers in those schools need continuous updating of any change in the curricula and the methods of teaching the content they provide, either face-to-face or online, in addition to providing them with training courses to deal with students with special needs. School leaders and teachers in rural areas interact and communicate with a different community than in urban areas, so they must be trained in effective communication strategies. They must constantly be updated on the systems and policies aimed at education reforms before implementing them. On the other hand, in the age of technology, training programmes on digital leadership must be provided to leaders in those schools. They should also be provided with programmes on rural school leadership and quality assurance. Providing continuing professional development programmes for rural school leaders and teachers that meet their needs is critical to ensuring the effectiveness of these schools and reducing their isolation.

Conclusion: Analysis and Discussion

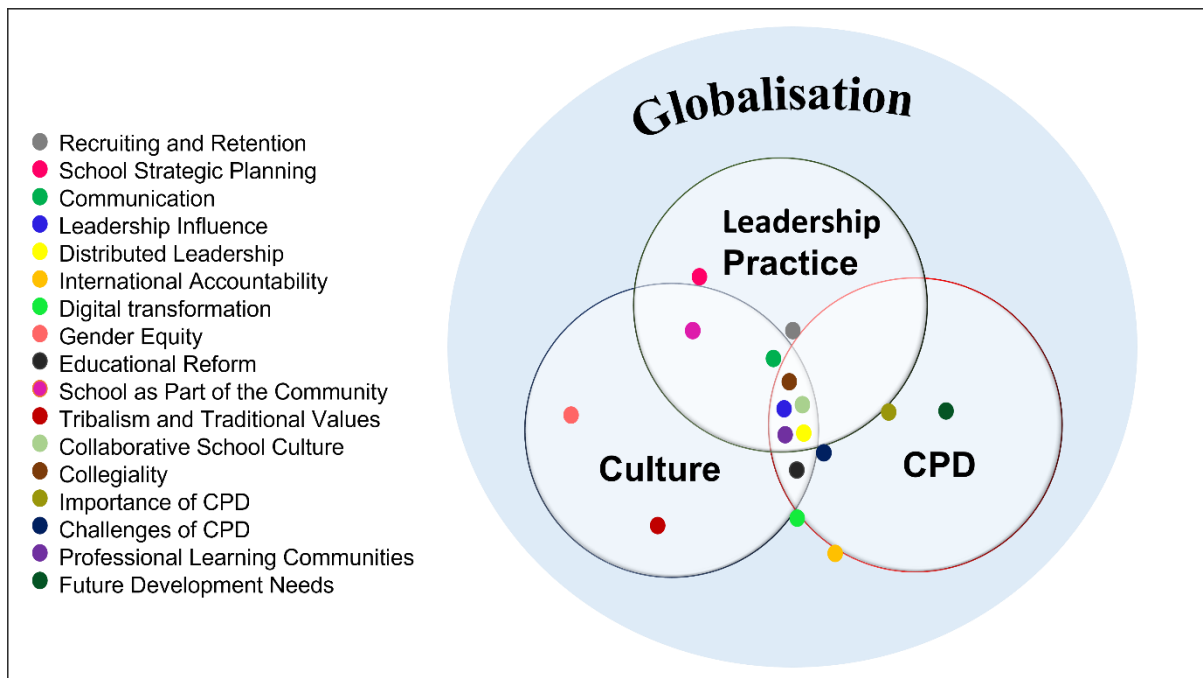


Figure 7:1 The study framework

This study concluded with sixteen themes (please see Figure 7:1), as each theme falls under one of the three concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. This section explains the framework for this study illustrated above and discusses the intertwining of the themes with other concepts.

Five themes fall under leadership practice: recruiting and retention, school strategic planning, communication, leadership influence, and distributed leadership. First, it is noted in Figure 7:1 that recruiting school leaders is the prerogative of the Education Departments and school leadership supervisors, as rural schools have some exceptions (Lee & Mao, 2020; Snodgrass Rangel, 2018). However, it emphasises the importance of continuing professional development by preparing leaders and providing ongoing training programmes (Nasreen & Odhiambo, 2018). Despite the employment of administrative staff by the Ministry of Education, this shortage in those schools contributed to the emergence of distributed leadership and the promotion of a collaborative culture. Also, these schools suffer from geographical isolation, where rural communities have a different culture from urban ones. Therefore, recruiting and retention fall mostly under leadership but touch on the culture and CPD. Additionally, in school strategic planning, the leaders and the Ministry of Education play a significant role in creating the vision, mission, goals and operational plans; therefore, it stems from the leadership.

However, it touches on culture in terms of the values found in those schools inspired by society's culture (Hallinger & Leithwood, 2013).

It is also clear that leadership effectively communicates with the local community or within the school. However, the accent of the local community, knowledge of their customs and traditions, and communication with the sheikh of the tribe identify of their culture. Communication is not only with students mainly from the community but also with teachers from diverse cultures. As a result, communication can be said to be a leadership practice but also culturally compatible (Joshi et al., 2005; Wille et al., 2019).

Leadership influence is one of the essential practices by which the leaders of these schools build trusted relationships and enhance teachers' motivation. However, mentoring and motivating with a sense of achievement, promoting mutual respect and understanding teachers' circumstances with an empathetic approach contribute to improving the school's culture, facilitating their continuing professional development and learning from each other (Hallam et al., 2012; Shortland, 2010). Therefore, leadership influence is primarily leadership practice but also contributes to building the school's culture and promoting CPD.

In addition, all schools agree on the importance of distributed leadership, which is one of rural areas' most important leadership practices. It is clear from Figure 7:1 that it converges with culture and continuing professional development through teacher collaboration, decision-making and expert utilisation of the school (Harris, 2003; Liu et al., 2021).

The second concept is culture, which has been divided into two levels: Macro-cultures (globalisation, national culture), and Micro-cultures (organisational culture). Two themes fall under globalisation; the first is international accountability, whose effects on rural schools were discussed. In this theme, high impacts intersect with continuing professional development through international tests (training of students and teachers), scholarships, and international conferences that contribute to bringing expertise and knowledge from abroad (Caro & Kyriakides, 2019).

It also appears that digital transformation touches culture through the spread of the Internet and technology among rural communities and the staff of the six schools, which reduced their isolation (Graziano, 2021). This theme also intersects with CPD by improving the skills to use technology for school and community staff (Abuhammad, 2020; Winter et al., 2021).

The national culture also includes gender equality and is fully immersed in the culture of not only the rural community but also the entire Saudi society. Furthermore, it is clear from Figure 7:1 that the educational reform, in addition to its cultural effects, intersects with CPD, as the updates to the curricula, the addition of physical education for girls and its cultural dimension, and the amendment of the secondary school system require training programmes for teachers and leaders in those schools (Ucan, 2016).

Additionally, the school is considered part of the community in rural areas, linking students and locals to the Ministry of Education and profit and non-profit organisations. School leaders play an essential role in strengthening community partnerships; therefore, this theme shares the concepts of culture and leadership practice (Zuckerman, 2020). Moreover, tribalism and traditional values describe the culture surrounding the rural schools and are, therefore, just under the concept of culture.

Finally, the organisational culture represents rural schools' culture and includes collaborative culture and collegiality. Figure 7:1 shows that both themes intersect with leadership and continuing professional development through collaboration, trust, a fraternal atmosphere, sharing joys and sorrows, and collective responsibility (Seashore Louis & Lee, 2016; Wildy et al., 2014).

As for continuing professional development, it encompassed four themes: the importance of CPD, challenges of CPD, professional learning communities, and future development needs. First, this study found that the importance of professional development touches on leadership practice, as leaders have an essential role in developing their teachers professionally by encouraging them and facilitating their attendance (Stevenson et al., 2016). In addition, the challenges of CPD and future development needs can be considered by the training programme providers. On the other hand, professional learning communities intersect with leadership practice, as the leader plays a significant role in encouraging teachers to exchange visits and seize opportunities that help in informal professional development (Schaap & de Bruijn, 2018; Zheng et al., 2019). It also crosses from culture to collaboration by seeking helpful peer feedback and a sense of collective responsibility (Antinluoma et al., 2018).

Chapter eight: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction:

This study investigated six schools in rural areas of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia focussed on three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. This chapter summarises the research and its findings. It also highlights the contributions to knowledge and limitations of this study. This section considers the implications and offers recommendations for both those who are currently involved in the development of schooling in the Kingdom and others who may consider further research.

8.2 Summary of the study

The aim of this study is to explore school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural education in Saudi Arabia. The framework of this study is based on three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development. For this reason, the following questions are proposed:

Main research question

What are school leaders' and teachers' experiences and perceptions of working in rural secondary schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia?

Sub-questions

How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?

How does global, national, and organisational culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?

What are the continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?

This study views educational supervision and school staff, including school leadership supervisors and training supervisors, leaders and teachers, as active social actors who build and reproduce their social reality. Thus, this work adopts a constructivist approach to ontology. It tackled epistemological concerns from an interpretivist perspective, as this research endeavours to describe, understand, and interpret the features of rural schools in Saudi Arabia. Utilising multiple case studies selected for their intrinsic interest and not their generalisability, qualitative methodology was deemed to be the most suitable approach.

The specific context of this study is a region of Saudi Arabia that contains many rural schools of different levels. Six schools were selected, three schools for boys and three schools for girls, which are classified by the local authorities as meeting the specifications of remote areas and the conditions of the selected cases for the study. In addition, these schools are characterised by geographical isolation and the dearth of all services. The participants in this study are principals, deputies, teachers, school leadership supervisors, and training supervisors. Multiple methods were used to collect data, including one-to-one interviews, focus groups, and documents review. All citations have been translated from Arabic into English and reviewed by two multilingual people.

This study's findings can be summed up in three concepts connected to the generated themes: leadership practice, culture and continuing professional development. In the next part, all themes will be summarised under each of the three concepts.

Leadership practice:

The findings related to the concept of leadership practice addressed five themes: recruitment and retention, school strategic planning, communication, leadership influence, and distributed leadership. First, recruiting leaders is crucial, especially since rural schools have some barriers to retaining teachers and leaders. Rural schools face some challenges, the most important of which are long distances, geographical isolation, and scarcity of accommodation. This leads to the reluctance of teachers who meet the conditions approved by the Ministry and the Department of Education to run for a leadership position in the school. Although school leadership supervisors are keen on implementing these conditions, they find themselves looking for leaders for rural schools. Thus, exceptions are made for those who still need to fully meet the requirements to ensure the functioning of the educational process in rural schools. However, the data reveals an interest in continuing professional development and the extent to which unqualified leaders receive training programmes. For example, the principal and deputy of school "A" both hold a diploma. Still, after obtaining many short and long training programmes related to leadership, some conditions were exempted from them, and even the period allowed for them was extended due to the proximity of their residence to the teacher. Preparing school leaders is critical, especially in rural areas, which equips them with knowledge and skills through professional development programmes. In addition, some leaders are excluded from the permissible experience requirement (four years before becoming a deputy and two years to become a leader) to join an administrative position in the school, such

as the school leader "C". The shortage of people willing to lead rural schools leads to exceptions being allowed. Therefore, education administrations must take great care to compensate for this shortfall and fill this gap by providing newly appointed leaders of rural schools who do not meet the conditions with many continuing professional development programs. In addition, priority should be given to occupying leadership positions in rural schools for residents of those areas.

In addition, rural schools suffer from a shortage of administrative staff, and in some schools, there is no full-time deputy. This shortage constitutes additional burdens for the staff of those schools and creates some challenges for school leaders. Selecting the right people and training them on dealing with administrative jobs may take time, in addition to increasing their workload to carry out managerial work. As a result, this leads to the reluctance of teachers in those schools to occupy leadership positions or to lose the retention of the current leaders. However, the lack of administrative staff may make leadership emerge highly distributed and create a collaborative culture in these schools.

Among the challenges facing rural schools is geographical isolation, which is a concern for the staff of these schools. Geographical isolation and scarcity of accommodation make rural school staff commute long distances to and from their schools. During their travel, they may be exposed to some difficulties, such as road hazards and weather fluctuations, which may cause them not to reach their schools on time. As for girls' schools, most teachers have a private drivers and travel individually or collectively. However, the data found that the availability of private drivers and transportation for female teachers constitutes a challenge for them. Such challenges make rural schools undesirable to work for some individuals, which in turn makes it difficult to retain their staff. On the other hand, when the staff of these schools move collectively, they face these challenges together, which may build relationships of trust between them. Therefore, there must be different systems and policies that characterise these schools which takes account of the employees' conditions and is more flexible.

Additionally, the Ministry of Education set financial incentives for employees in rural schools to encourage them to stay in them. In addition, there are material and moral incentives for the leaders and their deputies appointed by the education departments. Such incentives may help increase teachers' desire to take leadership positions in their schools or at least to retain existing leaders. As a result, such incentives help, directly or indirectly, to retain leaders and teachers, and provide moral incentives for teachers for them.

School strategic plans are crucial to improving low performance and drawing a clear future roadmap. This study found that the plans in rural schools are operational but only for one academic year. The strategic plans applied to all schools come from the Ministry of Education. In contrast, the leaders of rural schools are asked to develop a strategic plan for up to four years, as they believed that some results could be achieved and seen after a period of time. Although one of the school leaders pointed out that the failure to ensure the retention of teachers and the lack of administrative staff may negatively affect the implementation of any long-term plans, many of them agreed that the strategic plans can anticipate future challenges. Also, setting an annual plan may make teachers vulnerable to forgetting the vision of their schools, as such visions in change annually. Additionally, the absence of a strategic plan for an extended period may create a sense of lack of achievement among the staff of these schools, and, as such, the work routine becomes repetitive, as they do not find that there is a difference between what they are currently doing and the previous years. Therefore, it is vital to be flexible with rural schools in order for them to develop strategic plans with a clear vision, mission and goals, so that educational supervisors can review the extent to which they are achieved.

In addition, among the values prevalent in these schools is the value of collaboration, which the participants frequently mentioned. Rural schools' challenges require the collaboration of all school staff, as the leader cannot do all the work alone. The data also showed that such values such are present in all six schools. Therefore, school leaders should continue to cultivate them in order to improve the school environment.

Furthermore, the nature of communication in rural schools differs from its counterparts in urban areas, as school staff deal with a community with distinct customs and traditions. Most of the teachers and leaders come from a variety of backgrounds, and most of them live close to the schools. This study found that communication in these schools consists of two levels: communicating with the rural community and communicating within the school.

Rural communities have typical forms of communication, including the difference in accent, as it is a barrier for some teachers and school leaders. Although the Ministry of Education required teachers to adhere to classical Arabic, rural schools and communities still have not implemented to this requirement. Even so,, classical Arabic should be the dominant language in schools, and the rural community needs to be made aware of this.

Illiteracy is also widespread among parents in rural areas, especially among the elderly. Schools communicate directly by inviting them to the school and explaining what they want. In some

cases, especially in boys' schools, parents avoid attending schools, so the school communicates with the tribal sheikh, who is the primary key to communicating with the village community. On the other hand, girls' schools do not find a compelling need to communicate with the sheikh except rarely, as they believe that the school guard may provide them with better communication and more information because all school guards are mainly from the same rural area. In addition, rural communities are considered as one family, and in the event of not obtaining a response from the parents, the school communicates through the students' relatives or one of the school's employees, who are mainly from the village. Finally, there is an official account for each school on Twitter, which not only allows communication with the local community but also with the Ministry and the Education Department. Therefore, this study recommends an increase in direct communication between the school and parents.

Even so, the evidence reveals that all six schools use WhatsApp, which facilitates communication between them. The leaders and many teachers participating in the study agree that this application greatly helps the participant in quick decision-making, saves time, and keeps all school staff up to date. It is also used to spread positive feedback, which in turn increases teachers' motivation. Considering the Covid-19 pandemic, all schools resort to using technology to communicate not only with school staff but also with parents and students.

Additionally, leadership influences teachers in rural schools in many ways, the most prominent of which are trusted relationships and motivating others. The fourth theme in this section is leadership influence, divided into two sub-themes: building trusted relationships and motivation. In the beginning, the data found that first impressions are the first step in building any relationship. When the teacher commutes for the first time to school, they are surprised by the long distance, isolation, and circumstances surrounding the school. The school leader is the main gateway to the school community, and the better the first impression, the more confidence the teacher has. The mentoring that leaders provide teachers is also a factor in fostering trust and improving relationships. A large percentage of the participants agree that mentoring, whether from the leaders or their colleagues, significantly impacts relationships in rural schools. A group respondents added that empathy additionally plays a crucial role in building trusting relationships, especially when the school leader understands the circumstances and challenges surrounding teachers. Therefore, school leaders must realise that the first impression, mentoring, mutual respect, and empathy generated from understanding the needs and circumstances of others are all essential factors for building trusted relationships.

On the other hand, motivation is crucial to improving the work environment and continuing to create innovations. Increasing teachers' motivation in rural areas is often one of the most critical roles that leaders must look for better ways to enhance in their schools. However, to ensure that leaders can provide and develop it in their schools, their motivation must be raised first. The data revealed that rural school leaders demand increased autonomy to ensure quick decision-making regarding engagements and activities outside school walls. That autonomy provides them with a sense of self-determination, which in turn raises their commitment, volition and choice and is based on intrinsic motivation and integrated extrinsic motivation.

This study also found that one of the factors that help motivate employees in rural schools is the sense of achievement and seeing it in action. Although the staff of these schools do not have a clear vision of their schools, a sense of achievement can be obtained from their students and school leaders. Any change in these small schools can be noticed rapidly due to the low numbers of students and teachers. And with every achievement that teachers make, they need to recognise this achievement, both by the leader or their supervisor from the Education Department. There is a way to recognise teachers' achievements in those schools, including certificates of appreciation, positive feedback and providing gratitude through the WhatsApp application and on the school's official account on Twitter. Therefore, leaders must consider the importance of recognition for teachers' achievements and encourage them to provide the best.

Finally, the distributed leadership in rural schools is clear and one of the most important mechanisms that ensure the success and development of rural schools. One of the challenges facing rural schools is the lack of administrative staff, which makes school leaders unable to complete all tasks without cooperation. The leaders of the six schools agreed that the involvement and cooperation of school staff are essential to ensuring the effective functioning of the school day. These schools are also characterised by everyone's participation in decision-making, which enhances the commitment of teachers to implement these decisions and work effectively.

In addition, distributed leadership focuses on engaging experts wherever they are found within the school so that their experiences and relationships can be leveraged. The data shows many examples of how leaders benefit from those with expertise in their schools. For example, the school guard is a critical player in communicating between schools and the local community.

On the other hand, the data shows that most of the study participants who are teachers have other tasks besides teaching. The distribution of tasks in these schools is inevitable considering the shortage of school staff and the low number of teachers compared to urban areas. Therefore, the teacher must take part in assisting school leaders with various tasks.

School staff in rural areas face many obstacles daily, but these challenges can also create numerous opportunities. Leadership in rural schools differs from those in other schools because leaders must seize opportunities that may not be apparent. In this context, leadership practice can be seen in two aspects, inside and outside the school. First, the leadership within the school must be distributed, dominated by a collegial atmosphere, mutual respect, knowing the needs of the team, and working as one family. There should be a leader who believes that change and development are possible to achieve despite the difficult circumstances and challenges, and s/he must have faith in her/his school staff that they can overcome these obstacles. It has been said that whoever climbs a mountain and sees the people at the bottom of the hill as small, they also see her/him on that mountain as small and alone. Therefore, the leader must not be that person who sits in her/his office and issues orders because, in rural schools, s/he will find her/himself grappling with all those challenges and obstacles alone.

On the other hand, leadership outside the school's walls, specifically with the local community, requires an understanding of how to deal and communicate with them and knowing their customs and traditions. Rural society may seem a straightforward conservative society, but at the same time, it has keys that successful leaders must recognise and understand, which in turn will open all closed doors in front of them. Leaders must listen to them and the challenges they face, and find opportunities that can be taken advantage of, because these communities are still not exposed to the pressures of living in urban areas. Leaders there not only deal with teachers, administrators, students, the Department of Education, and the Ministry of Education, but also with a community with unique customs and traditions.

Culture:

This section has been divided into two parts: macro cultures (including: globalisation, and national culture) and micro cultures (including: organisational culture). Under each level, a group of themes related to rural schools was shown by the data. In the beginning, globalisation generally has positive effects, such as the transfer of knowledge, skills, expertise, and technology and the improvement of educational systems and policies. Under globalisation, the theme of international accountability appears, as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has many

connections in the education sector. Saudi students participate in international tests, which aim to clarify their own data and compare it with international standards to improve the quality of education. The data revealed that rural schools participate in these tests, as it benefits not only students and school outcomes but also teachers and their professional development. However, the Ministry's efforts do not stop there but seek to transfer expertise and knowledge by establishing partnerships with international universities in the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia. The Ministry launched a year-long program called Khebrat (Experiences), selecting teachers and school leaders to go to those countries and gain experience and knowledge that will impact on Saudi schools. This study found that some teachers in rural areas have joined the programme, and many want to enrol in it. It also provided many scholarships for higher studies for school staff and educational supervisors to study for masters and doctoral degrees. This study focuses on the schools in rural areas and hopes to contribute to their development and improve their effectiveness. In addition, a group of rural school leaders participated in international conferences under the auspices of the Ministry, which included workshops, lectures and other activities. Although these conferences did not address rural schools and their challenges, the respondents indicated that they benefited greatly from them. Such international participation is essential to bring experiences, knowledge and skills and apply them in Saudi schools.

On the other hand, globalisation has some negative aspects, such as environmental pollution and the spread of diseases that affect all countries around the world. At the beginning of 2020, the Covid-19 pandemic spread rapidly, making most of the countries of the world quarantine areas. During the pandemic, the face-to-face education system was suspended in order to adopt distance learning in most countries, including Saudi Arabia. This transformation immensely helped spread technology not only to school staff but also among students and rural communities. Although the Ministry of Education had previous experience in distance learning, rural schools did not have these opportunities due to the lack of internet service. Undoubtedly, the pandemic has caused damage, but it has provided many opportunities for those areas where Internet networks became available, knowing that many claims existed to improve them. Despite the low speed of the Internet, the provision of this service in those areas contributed to the exit of these communities from their isolation to interaction with Saudi society and access to international events. The Ministry of Education also launched the Madrasati platform, and the government and some non-profit organisations disburse financial aid and provide many devices to needy students in rural areas. With the rapid spread of

technology in rural communities, students and their parents suffered from a lack of experiences in using it. Therefore, teachers and school leaders helped students and parents in the way of using these modern devices. Additionally, distance learning allows teachers to transfer knowledge from school to home. Illiteracy is widespread among parents in rural areas, especially among the elderly, and for various reasons. However, the data showed that distance learning indirectly helped both illiterate and educated parents to build their knowledge and skills. Therefore, all the previous factors contributed to the spread of technology, which in turn required the Ministry to ensure the continuity of distance learning in addition to face-to-face instruction.

As for the national culture and its effects on rural schools, this study concluded with three topics: gender equality, educational reform, and schools as part of the community. About five years ago, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia launched Vision 2030, which aims for many economic, social and educational reforms. Among the most prominent of these reforms were women's empowerment in Saudi society, providing more job opportunities for them and increasing awareness of women's rights. The data revealed that most of the women participating in this study linked Vision 2030 to women's rights and that there is significant awareness not only among the staff of those schools but also at the level of female students. This led to societal and intellectual change, as female students looked forward to a better future because many universities allowed women to study some disciplines that were previously reserved for men. There is no doubt that the availability of job opportunities gives them opportunities to develop and support their small communities financially. Women constitute half of Saudi society, so they must be supported and provided with, job opportunities on the same criteria as men.

Recently, the Ministry has made some reforms related to the curricula and the addition of support materials and the overall educational system for secondary schools. Developing and updating curricula regularly is crucial to keep pace with the changes accompanying Vision 2030. The new curricula have become more advanced with the possibility of taking advantage of technology to access information and practical exercises. However, the study found that these changes imply adequate training for teachers before schools can adopt them. Therefore, continuing professional development programmes related to all these curricular updates must be provided.

The Ministry of Education recently added a physical education subject to all girls' schools in Saudi Arabia, which included the schools participating in the study. There are many benefits to the behavioural, social, and academic development that physical and athletic education provides to students. However, the three participating girls' schools lack the necessary facilities for practising sports activities and physical education. It is essential for these facilities to be available in those schools and to promote a culture of physical education among female students.

In addition, the Ministry of Education has recently implemented a new system for secondary schools: the tracks system. This system allows students to select the path they wish to complete and qualifies them for the labour market or universities. However, participants in this study indicated that the system needs to be clarified, as the facilities and workforce to support it are unavailable. Therefore, teachers and school leaders must be trained on the tracks system intensively and continuously, considering the facilities and capabilities that need to be provided.

Schools in rural areas are also considered part of the community as they act as mediators between the Ministry, the government, profit and non-profit organisations, and the local population. Poverty spreads among some members of rural communities, making the Ministry of Education and the government provide monthly financial assistance to needy students. In order to obtain information and data on students in need, rural schools submit their names annually to the concerned authorities. In addition, although all schools have community partnerships with one or two non-profit organisations, only one school leader in the six sought to increase that number. Therefore, one of the most critical roles required of the leader in rural areas is trying to build community partnerships with profit and non-profit organisations that benefit the school, the student and the local community.

This study also found that rural schools hold seminars to educate rural communities and students. These seminars are conducted either by one of the teachers or by other parties such as health centres and others. However, the more geographically isolated the school, the less community participation with these non-profit centres to provide volunteer work for the community members. Leaders in those schools must seize any opportunity that may arise to take advantage of this system. On the other hand, the data revealed that the private sector's participation in community partnerships with schools is minimal. Therefore, the private sector must be encouraged to develop these communities with rural schools.

Rural communities realise the importance of having a school in their areas, as the absenteeism rate among students is very low. Rural students are often not only from the same village in which the school is located but also from neighbouring villages. Students consider it a gathering point for them, where they can participate in extracurricular activities effectively. This is an opportunity that teachers and school leaders can take advantage of to improve the outcomes of their schools.

The rural community comprises tribes with customs and traditions who share the same language, accent and some essential social differences since they are all members of the same extended family. They are characterised by their conservative social cohesion and often avoid everything that contradicts their beliefs. However, these values and beliefs are not difficult to change. An example is the acceptance of these communities of the technology required to deal with the the pandemic, even though they previously rejected it. The men and women of the tribe are often keen on the reputation of their tribe, as words of praise describing them and their tribe are among the most important motives. Although there are justifications that Saudi society prioritises collectivism over individualism because the Islamic religion underpins it, this study adds that tribalism is also one of these reasons. Also, the most important values that school leaders and teachers must know about these communities and deal with them are generosity and hospitality. They see it as derived from their past, as many stories, legends and poems revolve around these values. Thus, school staff must consider these values and beliefs in order to integrate with the communities.

Finally, the organisational culture includes two positions within the six rural schools: collaborative culture and collegiality. The collaborative culture enhances employee behaviour and effectiveness in the workplace, where they support each other in their pursuit of professional growth. The data found that fairness and equality among teachers are the most critical factors that help create a collaborative culture. If teachers do not find fairness and equality from the school leader, negative subcultures may form, affecting the teacher's performance. Therefore, leaders must uphold the values of fairness and equality in their dealings with teachers.

In addition, the staff of these schools may be exposed to some challenges and conditions that they may find difficult. More than 80% of the respondents indicated that the flexibility created in their schools helps to promote a positive, collaborative culture. As the leader allows flexibility in teachers' cooperation with each other, such as schedules and others, it supports

such a culture. Flexibility is not only for the staff of these schools but also for dealing with students, especially where some of their parents are illiterate or have some unique social circumstances. This study also found that trusted relationships that include mutual respect and distributed leadership play significant roles in forming a collaborative culture. As a result, flexibility must be considered in these schools in order to understand the circumstances of others.

Additionally, collegiality is crucial for employees who work in geographically isolated areas. It contributes to the quality of education, the performance of schools, and the professional development of teachers, which in turn is reflected in students' achievement. The six schools are characterised by a fraternal atmosphere and strong friendship relations between the staff of rural schools, and there are many examples of this, as the data showed. Many of the participants in this study also pointed out that creating a collegial environment among staff is one of the responsibilities of school leaders. So, for instance, if there is a dispute between one teacher and another, school leaders in those areas must intervene and resolve these differences. By this means school leaders support a collegiality culture in their schools.

Macro-cultures include globalisation and national culture, which in turn can converge and agree at certain points. Previously, it was difficult to communicate between countries except through ambassadors or official diplomatic missions and to get to know others only through governments due to weak technical and human capabilities. Countries became almost isolated from other cultures, except for the colonial governments, some of which sought to consolidate their cultures and values in those colonised countries. However, with the beginning of the twenty-first century and the spread of the internet among members of societies, people began to get to know and learn about other cultures. In the era of the reach of intelligent devices and the internet, knowledge is no longer a monopoly for some, so it is possible for anyone in the world to learn about other people's cultures and benefit from their experiences.

Within this context, many countries sought to exchange experiences, knowledge, and skills to develop their institutions and societies. These developments and the transfer of knowledge between countries affected not only the national cultures but also the micro cultures within the organisations. It also helped these organisations, including educational ones, understand, reformulate, improve, develop, and transfer this knowledge again to national societies and other countries. For example, this study was conducted in the United Kingdom, and the sample was in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which in turn, hopes that it will be helpful not only to a

specific country but may speak to rural education elsewhere in similar cultural contexts. Additionally, it can be said that schools and communities in rural areas, especially after Covid-19 and the introduction of technology, the internet, and the digital transformation currently taking place in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, have become open to the world. Those regions and organisations that were semi-isolated could communicate not only at the local Saudi level but also at global level. Therefore, it can be indicated that there is a great deal of interaction between macro- and micro-cultures.

Continuing Professional Development

Continuing professional development is critical for rural school staff due to their unique situation. The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has also paid great attention to the professional development of its employees recently in order to improve its outputs to suit the needs of the labour market. This chapter concluded with four topics: the importance of continuing professional development, the challenges of continuing professional development, professional learning communities, and future development needs.

First, the importance of continuing professional development is evident in many successful education systems worldwide. Recently, the Ministry of Education has sought to provide many training programmes through its training centres throughout the Kingdom. It has also recently established ranks for teachers and school leaders, linking promotions and annual appraisals to the number of training programmes individuals have attended. All these factors may have contributed to increased interest in continuing professional development, as this study found.

In addition, pedagogical knowledge (PK) and content knowledge (CK) are among the basics that the teacher must have in order to raise student achievement. There are many training courses provided by training centres related to general teaching methods and some programmes related to content. The results of this study concluded that the participants are aware of the importance of training programmes that develop teaching skills and their knowledge of the content and its impact on students' achievements.

Leaders also have a vital role in the professional development of teachers in these schools, as regulations require their approval for teachers to enrol in training programmes. Rural schools have a collaborative culture that encourages each other attend CPD programmes. The data shows that leaders are aware of the importance of developing school staff, and some believe that it also helps increase teachers' motivation.

On the other hand, the continuous professional development of school leaders, especially considering the conditions they face in rural areas, is essential. The leaders participating in this study are aware of the importance of developing themselves professionally, and even several of them seek to obtain knowledge and skills either by obtaining training programmes at their expense or by using technology and getting informal development. In addition, the training centres publish the training schedules that teachers and leaders can join at the beginning of each academic year. This saves school staff time to identify their needs and reflection on their requirements. Further, the leader's reflection includes not only the needs of the staff in rural schools but also their personal needs. Reflection is a successful strategic tool, especially for the staff of these schools. Thus, this study calls for integrating reflection into educational courses and training programmes for leaders and teachers before and during the training session to prepare them to become effective teachers and successful leaders.

CPD programmes also have an impact on the self-confidence and efficacy of both leaders and teachers. The data in this study revealed that a large group of participants believe that access to many continuing professional development programmes increases their self-confidence and efficacy. Teachers see that this effect is evident inside the classroom, while leaders believe that training provides them with some solutions to daily challenges and how to deal with them. Therefore, increasing the efficacy and self-confidence of leaders and teachers through the knowledge gained from training programmes will help them develop their rural schools.

On the other hand, providing training that simulates the needs of rural school staff, understands their challenges, and creates some solutions for them is very important. One of the most critical challenges facing CPD is that most training programmes avoid addressing and discussing the problems of rural areas. Although CPD is very beneficial for staff in these schools, most participants agree that the training programmes they have attended do not include the challenges of rural schools. Therefore, it is essential to have dedicated CPD programmes for rural school staff and discuss their challenges.

Additionally, rural schools suffer from a lack of administrative staff and a small number of teachers, which in turn increases the workload of the school staff. Some participants said that they had extra work that would make them unable to attend the training programmes, while some found that the training times may need to be revised. Time and commitment to the school day in these schools are significant, especially considering the challenges that may disrupt them, such as road hazards and others.

Also, the distance to some training centres where leaders and teachers are required to attend is considered a challenge. Some participants find that the distance from their home to school is closer to them than the training centre, as there are some training centres in semi-rural places. Therefore, this may affect their commitment and attendance at training programmes.

The motivation to acquire new knowledge and skills is also one of the essential prerequisites for CPD. However, some participants indicated that one factor that reduces their incentive to attend some training programmes is the trainer's weakness and lack of experience in the training field. The use of skills and merging them with knowledge and presenting them to the trainees in an exciting way affects the extent of their learning. When these claims were presented to training supervisors, they indicated they needed accurate evaluation and feedback from some participants in continuing professional development programmes. Therefore, this study urges training centres to verify the capabilities of trainers and ways to develop them by means different evaluation strategies, and to enhance the awareness among trainees of the importance of evaluation and accurate feedback.

In addition, this study found that the older the trainees who are and the closer their retirement age, are less inclined to participate in CPD programmes. On the other hand, such participants demanded access to technology-related programmes and methods of using them. It seems that technology is attractive not only to students but also to older colleagues.

Considering the pandemic, the education system shifted to distance learning, and professional development programmes became online. The stereotype of distance learning or training was likely to be ineffective before Covid-19, but it quickly changed after its implementation on the ground. However, this shift created some challenges, as the online training participants faced technical problems and skill difficulties in using the technology.

Also, some participants believe that online training needs to provide social interaction between them. Although face-to-face training may provide an opportunity for informal learning, e-training may help overcome some challenges rural school staff face. Distance training is new to teachers and school leaders, but many tools and strategies can be used to develop it.

In addition, well-developed professional learning communities have a positive impact not only on teaching but also on student achievement. Rural schools face many challenges that require teachers and school leaders to create a collaborative culture that facilitates learning from each other. This study found that the leaders of the six schools agreed that the challenges they faced differed from those in urban areas, which necessitated the need to benefit from the experiences

of all. One of the most critical responsibilities that school leaders must consider is to create a collaborative culture that helps build PLCs.

The evidence also showed that the leaders of the six schools urged the exchange of visits between teachers to their mutual advantage. One-on-one visits allows teachers to develop the confidence needed to work effectively with one another by providing feedback in a professional learning community environment. Thus, school leaders must encourage teachers to provide constructive feedback to their peers and facilitate reflective dialogues about specific educational problems for students that may lead to thriving professional learning communities over time.

Also, rural school leaders may take advantage of many opportunities to share teachers' knowledge and experiences with one another. The staff of rural schools are distinguished by a collaborative culture and a fraternal atmosphere, facilitating their meetings inside and outside the school. School leaders should take advantage of such opportunities that contribute to strengthening professional learning communities.

Using technology and social media platforms contributes to building professional learning communities, as users move from passive consumers into knowledge producers. This study found that all participants use WhatsApp and have a school group. On the other hand many of them have accounts on social networking platforms related to professional learning communities. These schools suffer from geographical isolation, while technology can bridge this gap by connecting them with urban areas.

During the Covid-19 pandemic, the Ministry launched its vision of distance learning, which was implemented in rural schools. Along the same line, the teachers and leaders of these schools many shared the ministry's vision, as they sought to share it and go along with it in the interest of the students. Some of them also knew that the students and their parents in those areas depended on them, so they found themselves sharing the values in those communities' interests. Also, the data showed that they were keen to assume collective responsibility, where they sought to help each other to understand how to deal with platforms and teaching methods that can be applied through distance learning. Computer science teachers in those schools also provided training programmes for teachers and school leaders on relevant applications.

Finally, this research focussed primarily on the future development needs of teachers and school leaders in rural areas. The requirements were divided into three levels: the needs of teachers, the needs of teachers and leaders, and the needs of leaders. It was found that there is

a group of teachers requesting training programmes for the updates that the Ministry implements on the curricula in the textbooks. The Ministry is keen on evaluating and developing school curricula to suit the changes in Saudi Arabia. They also called for training before, during and after applying any update to the curricula. Also, teachers asked for training programmes in pedagogical content knowledge, which helps teachers merge content and pedagogy. Teachers see that students in rural schools differ from their peers in urban areas, requiring their pedagogical content knowledge development. With the changes accompanying the Covid-19 pandemic, teachers were required to attend continuing professional development programmes in technological pedagogical content knowledge. The entry and use of technology are new to teachers in rural schools, although the Ministry has provided technical content. Teachers in those areas find that they need professional development related to TPACK. Moreover, rural schools suffer from a shortage of special needs teachers. The geographical isolation of these areas makes parents unable to send their children to specialised centres and schools, which are primarily in cities. Therefore, some participants demanded that they be trained in dealing with special education students, which will contribute to bridging the gap between rural and urban areas.

At the second level were the needs required by teachers and leaders in those schools, the most important of which is training on the changes that occur to the systems and regulations associated with educational reform. Educational reform is fundamental, with global changes and developments designed to improve educational outcomes. Before the Ministry of Education aims to keep pace with these changes, its training centres must implement continuing professional development programmes for teachers and school leaders more related to these reforms. Also, students and the rural community differ in their way of dealing with and communicating. Therefore, participants demanded training programmes on communication skills and methods to develop them. Some of them believe that it may help them more by integrating with students within the classroom and the local community, which in turn is represented in the importance of the role that the school offers in rural areas.

At the last level, it represents the needs of school leaders, as their CPD is beneficial not only within the walls of the school but also to the local community. Evidence revealed that one of the needs demanded by school principals and deputies is to provide them with continuing professional development programmes in digital leadership. Equipping school leaders with technical skills and knowledge is crucial, especially considering the spread of technology after Covid-19. In addition, the leaders of rural schools asked, including the six school deputies, for

leadership programmes. Leadership is essential because of its effects on teachers, students and communities in rural areas. Therefore, leadership programmes must be provided for principals and deputies who are seen as leaders in those schools. The leadership also intersects with some of the essential elements of quality assurance and thus affects the performance of teachers and students. The data revealed that three leaders of the six interviewed requested training courses on quality assurance. Continuing professional development programmes are vital when identifying the needs of teachers and school leaders in rural areas, which affects the outputs of those schools.

8.3 The original contribution to knowledge:

Rural schools suffer globally from the lack of published research compared with their urban and suburban counterparts over a range of reform dimensions. Also, these studies were often conducted in countries such as the United States, South Africa, Australia, and China, which implies that the findings may not be generalised to other cultures, nations or countries that differ from them culturally in many matters, especially when dealing with rural areas. Thus, this study claims to contribute to knowledge by providing insight into the experiences and perceptions of school leaders and teachers in Saudi rural schools from different research perspectives. To develop new theoretical insights into Saudi rural schools, this study adopts a conceptual framework based on the interrelationships between three key concepts: leadership practice, culture, and continuing professional development that adds to the study's originality and its highlighting of significant characteristics of working in rural schools in Saudi Arabia.

This study also claims three essential contributions: the levels of theory, empirical context, and disciplinary knowledge. The theoretical contribution of this research is the framework that was developed for understanding rural schools. The model combined of three interrelated concepts (leadership practice, culture, and CPD) has not been used previously to explore rural schools in the Arab context. To understand rural schools from different perspectives, this original framework was used, which in turn contributed to broadening the scope of discussion about the circumstances these schools go through. Leadership practice in rural areas is vital because it helps interact with cultures beyond the school's boundaries and build reinforces the school culture. In addition, it plays several critical roles in the continuing professional development of rural school staff. On the other hand, culture at its three levels (globalisation, national and organisational) influences and is affected by leadership practice and CPD. In contrast, continuing professional development enhances and improves leadership practice and culture at all levels. Thus, due to its interpretative epistemology, this study cannot claim that only these

three concepts make rural schools a desirable choice for some of their employees. Even so, it does describe substantial aspects that may help increase their retention.

This research uses a qualitative methodology to investigate rural schools; as far as the researcher knows, studies on rural schools in the country in which a thorough investigation through qualitative inquiries are scarce. It also contributes to defining the local communities' values, customs and traditions in those areas. However, it seems that studies related to rural schools in the neighbouring Arab countries of Saudi Arabia are also almost non-existent. Due to the similarity in some customs and traditions of rural societies in the Arab world, this study may contribute to the wider Arab context.

Finally, contributions related to knowledge are listed below:

- This research concerns the challenges and opportunities facing school leaders and teachers in rural areas.
- The exceptional cases in which school leaders are recruited and the suggestions to help go along with them.
- The ways in which rural schools communicate with the local community and communicate within schools.
- School strategic planning, as the plans in those schools are operational.
- Building trusted relationships that depend on first impressions, mentoring, mutual respect, and understanding of teachers' circumstances.
- Factors that help increase the motivation of teachers and school leaders.
- All participating schools are based on distributed leadership, which requires participation in decision-making, benefiting from experts, cooperation, and initiatives.
- The effects of globalisation on rural schools considering the Covid-19 pandemic and the spread of technology among school staff and rural communities, which in turn contributed indirectly to spreading knowledge among illiterate parents.
- The influences of the national culture, such as 'Vision 2030', contributed to empowering women and raising awareness of their rights. Also, the educational reforms carried out by the Ministry of Education, which align with Vision 2030.
- Description of rural communities and the concept of tribalism which affects society to be collective orientation and clarifies the most prominent values in those communities.

- The effects of the school culture, as the fairness and equality with which the leader treats the teachers, is one of the most critical factors that help build the collaborative culture in schools, noting that these schools are characterised by fraternal atmospheres.
- Determine the importance of continuing professional development, as leaders have important roles.
- Challenges that rural school staff face in continuing professional development.
- The roles played by leaders in promoting professional learning communities and seizing opportunities that may be available in those schools.
- Training needs of school leaders and teachers in rural areas.

8.4 Limitations:

The findings of this thesis cannot be generalised, as discussed in the methodology chapter, because of the sample size and the nature of the qualitative inquiry. However, the researcher was keen to take many steps to ensure the accuracy of the data (see the methodology chapter). The six schools participating in this study are in geographically isolated places as it takes a long time to reach some of them, in addition to the road hazards and hardships of travel. Thus, this study was unable to use qualitative observations.

This research would benefit from adding urban schools, which may create a kind of comparison between them and rural schools. However, it would be a challenge due to its limited resources, time, word count, and working as a single researcher. Also, expanding the circles of participants to include parents and students may provide a clearer picture of rural communities, but this will expand this research beyond the researcher's capabilities and be costly and inappropriate, and it will not be feasible at the present stage of this study.

8.5 Implications and Recommendations:

This section includes the significance of the study and the implications for practice, and some recommendations for future research.

The significance of the study:

This study does not guarantee generalisation for reasons mentioned in the previous section. Instead, it aims at an in-depth understanding of Saudi schools located in rural areas in their context to enrich additional development of theory, practice, and research. The significance of this study lies in enriching theory and research in Western and many countries that are interested in rural schools in different contexts and the challenges and opportunities faced by

the staff of those schools. Also, due to the lack of research regarding rural schools in the Arab world, in which the inhabitants of rural Arab areas share some values, customs and traditions, this study enriches research in those countries. On the other hand, the Ministry of Education seeks to develop the educational system in various fields to align with Saudi Vision 2030, which aims at many social, economic, and other reforms. Although there are many studies in Saudi Arabia on schools in urban areas, which are distinguished in several dimensions, few studies target rural schools. Therefore, the significance of this study lies not only in presenting and evaluating the effectiveness of Western and global examples, perspectives, and theory but also in examining and highlighting rural schools and the challenges and opportunities people experience in the Saudi rural context.

Implications for practice:

The findings of this study lead to implications that may benefit policymakers and providers of continuing professional training, especially school leaders in rural areas, as school leadership plays an essential role in rural schools. Thus, this section divides into three, namely implications for school leaders, implications for policymakers, and implications for CPD providers.

Implications for school leaders:

1. Rural school leaders should create long-term school strategic plans with a clear vision, mission and goals with the participation of the school staff and establish values such as collaboration, honesty, fairness, tolerance, honesty, and the spirit of taking the initiative within schools.
2. Due to the different accents in rural areas, school leaders must encourage the use of classical Arabic within schools and raise awareness among the local community about its importance. Also, the leader and teachers must increase communication between the school and the rural community, promote technology in this field, and know the prevailing customs, traditions, values, and beliefs in those communities to ensure their integration with the school. In addition, communication with the teacher should be uncomplicated and straightforward.
3. Leaders in these areas should strive to build trusted relationships through first impressions, mentoring, mutual respect, and empathy that stem from understanding the needs and circumstances of others. On the other hand, leaders should seek to motivate teachers by recognising teachers' achievements and encouraging them to do their best through positive feedback.

4. Distributed leadership in rural schools is one of its most essential components, as school staff must participate in decision-making. The leader should distribute tasks equally, considering others' conditions, and benefit from experts in the school.
5. The leader must build community partnerships that benefit local communities with profit and non-profit organisations and take advantage of all opportunities.
6. Leaders should promote a collaborative culture by dealing fairly and equally with teachers and encouraging collegiality and a fraternal atmosphere.
7. Leaders have significant roles in the continuing professional development of teachers, so they must urge teachers to join training programmes and help them identify their needs and develop professional development communities by facilitating the exchange of visits between them and urging them to exchange constructive feedback and benefit from experienced people to provide training courses within the school.

For policymakers:

1. Increasing the number of administrative staff or providing them with a full-time deputy for each rural school.
2. Designing regulations and policies commensurate with the conditions experienced by rural school staff, distinguishing them from urban areas, and adding some incentives regarding their promotion.
3. Providing rural school leaders more autonomy and encouraging them to develop long-term school strategic plans.
4. Encouraging non-profit organisations and the private sector to participate in community partnerships in rural areas.
5. Continuing to use distance learning alongside face-to-face learning and encouraging the establishment of professional learning communities that link rural and urban areas.

For CPD providers:

1. Providing ongoing training programmes on school leadership, digital leadership and quality assurance for rural school leaders and deputies.
2. Keeping pace with the reforms undertaken by the Ministry of Education by updating and providing CPD programmes related to the curricula, regulations, systems, and policies that the Ministry introduces throughout the academic year.
3. Providing specialised training courses about rural areas and communication skills for rural school employees and identifying their needs annually, and offering CPD

programmes in special education, pedagogical content knowledge, and technological pedagogical content knowledge for teachers in those schools.

4. Integrating reflection in training programmes, improving evaluation and feedback tools, and spreading awareness of their importance.

8.6 Recommendations for future research

This study should be expanded to include schools in urban and rural areas, and a comparison should be made between them. The findings of this mixing may provide a clearer picture of the differences between these schools and ways to reduce the gap. In addition, the number of schools participating in this study formed six multiple case studies. In the future, researchers can reduce the number of schools instead, including students and parents within the research sample. This study also should be generalised and include a broad research community, which in turn provides other information on other rural areas. Finally, gender equality for rural female teachers should be considered more closely in order to understand and act on the challenges and opportunities they face.

8.7 Researcher reflections:

PhD research is a journey full of events and situations in which the researcher can learn something new daily. This study helped me get to know schools in rural areas differently, despite my previous experience. These areas are entirely different from urban ones, making leadership there unique. This study familiarised me with a lot of literature and helped identify methods and practices from which leaders can benefit. I only had a little experience in continuing professional development. During my studies, I found that many models can be applied in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Also, the concept of globalisation became clearer by reading extensive literature. Also, this study took place at the time of the Covid-19 pandemic, which spread worldwide, and it was one of the methods I employed to explain the concept of globalisation to the study respondents.

I also have a wife, a PhD student at the same university, from whom I learned much during this trip. I have children who study in public schools. Through them, I could see the education system and schools, but rather discuss the teachers and the school principal and ask some questions and inquiries about continuing professional development in their schools and school leadership. Also, one of my goals was to make friends on this trip, benefit from their experiences, and exchange knowledge with them. I have many friendships with students of different nationalities, not only from my college but also from other colleges. I learned from

them and hope, I have also offered them something valuable. I had the opportunity to participate in several conferences, which in turn expanded my circle of friendships.

Every country worldwide has always been characterised by a different charming culture that distinguishes it from other countries. Getting to know this culture and integrating with it and its history is a beautiful thing for me. I believe history tells beautiful stories that make us understand and imagine our future. Although I have experiences in some Western countries, the British culture, with its history and the fragrant past embodied in its historical castles and cities, created my curiosity to know it more deeply.

I also learned that nothing is impossible, but we create boundaries for ourselves that may prevent us from achieving our dreams and goals.

References

- Abdullah, A., Rogerson, S., Fairweather, N. B., & Prior, M. (2006). The motivations for change towards e-government adoption: Case studies from Saudi Arabia. E-government Workshop, ABEGS. (2010). *Saudi MOE celebrates Arabic Language Day*.
https://www.abegs.org/eportal/news/news_detail?id=5073703515717632
- Aben Ahmed, M. R. (2013). *English business communication in the Saudi workplace: Employers' perceptions and insights about the cultural ecology and needed literacies* ProQuest Dissertations Publishing].
http://sdl.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwpV1LS8NAEB5svYgHFRUfVRaEqpN2sQ0gghai6gno-eSzU4gkKaPbRF_g3_anc0mKVV68bgku7CZzczszPfNAHQ7V1ZrRSe46PiUoYu6PLLsyOGO8BC9iCPGykYQOTI49oO3XnDvvhhwIVFjjLgLLalVtxhHFDVvE2nlsx3Pc-8m0xb1kaJ8q2mqUYNNm8p35enbP-7vpLtd8v5tU_ipGpd-aWVtagY7ULQrISLVkRQZtkc6ivAZzrDdxzhcpPO8ku6H2nj_9XY-W2CzLeTrUnTCu7eJDpDgdaWZuFEjEoi9kplyH99kF3Y7i9l-PdgA7N9-DZkYWZaXkoWlfnSWJlx5YeylFyIhJVIsRtm2hHP5CWbVAAcFmZCTZEUVIADQlbr6UUREYa6EveXfi9T1hkFy5nWSo_JA7gYPL4_PLWKzQ3N7ySH1c66h1DPxhkeAbNR-dpu6AvlKjrqsB7XOB1bHGhKyfP9Y-hsW6lk_WPT2GroztfULSIAXUS5RnUlljO9ZH6AZ0e5-Y
- Abrahams, J. (2018). Option blocks that block options: exploring inequalities in GCSE and A Level options in England. *British journal of sociology of education*, 39(8), 1143-1159.
- Abu-Nasser, F. M. (2011). Perceptions of secondary school principals in Saudi Arabia of time management techniques. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 38(1), 18-23.
- Abuhammad, S. (2020). Barriers to distance learning during the COVID-19 outbreak: A qualitative review from parents' perspective. *Heliyon*, 6(11), e05482.
- Adu-Gyamfi, S., Donkoh, W. J., & Addo, A. A. (2016). Educational reforms in Ghana: Past and present. *Journal of Education and Human development*, 5(3), 158-172.
- Akafo, V., & Boateng, P. A. (2015). Impact of reward and recognition on job satisfaction and motivation. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(24), 112-124.
- Aksal, F. A. (2015). Are headmasters digital leaders in school culture? *Egitim ve Bilim*, 40(182).
- Al-Asfour, A., & Khan, S. A. (2014). Workforce localization in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Issues and challenges. *Human Resource Development International*, 17(2), 243-253.
- Al-Dossary, R. N. (2018). The Saudi Arabian 2030 vision and the nursing profession: the way forward. *International nursing review*. <https://doi.org/10.1111/inr.12458>
- Al-Fozan, M. I. A. A. (1997). *The leadership style of headteachers and its relationship with primary school pupils' achievement in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia* Durham University].
- Al-Jarf, R. (2021). Investigating Digital Equity in Distance Education in Saudi Arabia during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Online Submission*.
- Al-Otaibi, N. (2020). Vision 2030: Religious Education Reform in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *King Faisal Center for Research and Islamic Studies*, 7-8.
- Al-Qahtani, M. M. Z., Alkhateeb, T. T. Y., Mahmood, H., Abdalla, M. A. Z., & Qaralleh, T. J. O. T. (2020). The role of the academic and political empowerment of women in economic, social and managerial empowerment: The case of Saudi Arabia. *Economies*, 8(2), 45.
- Al-Rethaiaa, A. S., Fahmy, A.-E. A., & Al-Shwaiyat, N. M. (2010). Obesity and eating habits among college students in Saudi Arabia: a cross sectional study. *Nutrition journal*, 9(1), 39.
- Al-Saggaf, Y., & Simmons, P. (2015). Social media in Saudi Arabia: Exploring its use during two natural disasters. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 95, 3-15.
- Al-Shehri, S. (2020). Transforming English Language Education in Saudi Arabia: Why Does Technology Matter? *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET)*, 15(6), 108-123.

- Al Dossry, T. M. (2012). Consumer Culture in Saudi Arabia (A Qualitative Study among Heads of Household).
- Al'Abri, K. (2011). The impact of globalization on education policy of developing countries: Oman as an example. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal*, 2(4), 491-502.
- Alajmi, H. (2016). *Job satisfaction among elementary teachers in Saudi Arabia* [Indiana State University].
- AlAjmi, M. K. (2022). The impact of digital leadership on teachers' technology integration during the COVID-19 pandemic in Kuwait. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 112, 101928.
- Alameen, L., Male, T., & Palaiologou, I. (2015). Exploring pedagogical leadership in early years education in Saudi Arabia. *School Leadership & Management*, 35(2), 121-139.
- Alamri, M. (2011). Higher education in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 11(4), 88-91.
- AlBar, A. M., & Hoque, M. R. (2019). Factors affecting the adoption of information and communication technology in small and medium enterprises: A perspective from rural Saudi Arabia. *Information Technology for Development*, 25(4), 715-738.
- Aldossry, B. (2021). Evaluating the madrasati platform for the virtual classroom in Saudi arabian education during the time of Covid-19 Pandemic. *European Journal of Open Education and E-learning Studies*, 6(1).
- Aldraehim, M. S., Edwards, S. L., Watson, J. A., & Chan, T. (2012). Cultural impact on e-service use in Saudi Arabia: The role of nepotism. *International Journal for Infonomics (IJ)*, 5(3/4), 655-662.
- Alenezi, A. (2019). Effectiveness of Educational Technology Applications in Saudi Arabian Secondary Schools. *Journal of Informatics and Mathematical Sciences*, 11(2), 221-233.
- Algahtani, H., Buraik, Y., & Ad-Dab'bagh, Y. (2017). Psychotherapy in Saudi Arabia: its history and cultural context. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 47(2), 105-117.
- Alghamdi, H. (2014). The road to culturally relevant pedagogy: Expatriate teachers' pedagogical practices in the cultural context of Saudi Arabian higher education. *McGill Journal of Education/Revue des sciences de l'éducation de McGill*, 49(1), 201-226.
- Alghamdi, M. H. (2018). *Teacher Collaboration and Student Outcomes in Saudi Arabia: An analysis of TIMSS Data* [University of Kansas].
- Alghamdi, S. (2019). *Curriculum innovation in selected Saudi Arabia public secondary schools: The multi-stakeholder experience of the Tatweer project* [University of Sheffield].
- Alhammadi, M. (2018). *Outstanding schools in Saudi Arabia: leadership practices, culture and professional development* [University of Reading].
- Alharbi, K., & Boling, K. (2022). Saudi Women Take the Wheel: A Content Analysis of How Saudi Arabian Car Companies Reached Women on Social Media. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 43(2), 165-184.
- Aljughaiman, A. M., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2013). Growing up under pressure: The cultural and religious context of the Saudi system of gifted education. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 36(3), 307-322.
- Allmnakrah, A., & Evers, C. (2020). The need for a fundamental shift in the Saudi education system: Implementing the Saudi Arabian economic vision 2030. *Research in Education*, 106(1), 22-40.
- Almaiah, M. A., Hajje, F., Lutfi, A., Al-Khasawneh, A., Shehab, R., Al-Otaibi, S., & Alrawad, M. (2022). Explaining the Factors Affecting Students' Attitudes to Using Online Learning (Madrasati Platform) during COVID-19. *Electronics*, 11(7), 973.
- Almalki, S., & Ganong, L. (2018). Family life education in Saudi Arabia. In *Global perspectives on family life education* (pp. 381-396). Springer.
- Almutairi, N. (2017). *Principal Perceptions Regarding Autonomy and School Improvement in Saudi Arabia's Educational System* [Indiana State University].
- Alonzo, A. C., Kobarg, M., & Seidel, T. (2012). Pedagogical content knowledge as reflected in teacher–student interactions: Analysis of two video cases. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 49(10), 1211-1239.

- Alqahtani, A. S., Noman, M., & Kaur, A. (2021). Core leadership practices of school principals in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 49(2), 321-335.
- Alrashidi, O., & Phan, H. (2015). Education Context and English Teaching and Learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: An Overview. *English Language Teaching*, 8(5), 33-44.
- Alsaleh, A. (2019). Investigating instructional leadership in Kuwait's educational reform context: school leaders' perspectives. *School Leadership & Management*, 39(1), 96-120.
- Alsaleh, A. (2021). Professional learning communities for educators' capacity building during COVID-19: Kuwait educators' successes and challenges. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 1-20.
- Alsarhani, K. (2005). *Saudiization and job performance: opportunities and constraints in the management of Saudi national employees in the public sector* [University of Glasgow].
- Alshantqiti, L. (2018). *A qualitative study of leadership in Saudi Arabian early childhood education: influential factors and critical challenges* [Canterbury Christ Church University].
- Alsharif, K. M. (2011). *Towards quality teacher education: Productive pedagogies as a framework for Saudi pre-service teachers' training in mathematics education* [Curtin University].
- Alshehri, A. (2015). *The Role of School Principals as Leaders of Educational Change in Saudi Arabia* https://www120.secure.griffith.edu.au/rch/file/dfd4362f-2eeb-4009-9d97-57737d9249f3/1/Alshehri_2016_01Thesis.pdf
- AlShurafa, N., Alssadi, W., Elyas, T., & AlRawi, M. (2021). Investigating the cultural signs and ideological representations in Masameer Saudi cartoon: a discursive and semiotic analysis. *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 1-25.
- Alshuwaikhat, H., & Mohammed, I. (2017). Sustainability matters in national development visions—Evidence from Saudi Arabia's Vision for 2030. *Sustainability*, 9(3), 408.
- Alsubaie, A., & Jones, K. (2017). An overview of the current state of women's leadership in higher education in Saudi Arabia and a proposal for future research directions. *Administrative Sciences*, 7(4), 36.
- Altbach, P. G. (2004). Globalisation and the university: Myths and realities in an unequal world. *Tertiary Education & Management*, 10(1), 3-25.
- Althuwaybi, A. S. (2021). *Confidence in pedagogical efficacy of m-learning among teachers from the kingdom of Saudi Arabia* [Kansas State University].
- Alvesson, M. (2012). *Understanding organizational culture*. Sage.
- Alyamani, H. (2016). *Targeted Areas of School Improvement in Saudi Arabia* [University of Toledo].
- Alyami, R., & Floyd, A. (2019). Female School Leaders' Perceptions and Experiences of Decentralisation and Distributed Leadership in the Tatweer System in Saudi Arabia. *Education Sciences*, 9(1), 25.
- Alzaidi, A. M. (2008). Secondary School Head Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Saudi Arabia: The Results of A Mixed Methods Approach. *Annual Review of Education, Communication & Language Sciences*, 5.
- Amanah. (2018). *Center Download*. https://amanah.moe.gov.sa/center_download.aspx
- Amasha, M. A., & Alkhalaf, S. (2016). Using RSS 2.00 as a Model for u-Learning to Develop e-Training in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 6(7), 516.
- Anastasiadou, S., & Anastasiadis, L. (2019). Quality assurance in education in the light of the effectiveness of transformational school leadership. In *Economic and Financial Challenges for Eastern Europe* (pp. 323-344). Springer.
- Anastasiou, S., & Papagianni, A. (2020). Parents', teachers' and principals' views on parental involvement in secondary education schools in Greece. *Education Sciences*, 10(3), 69.
- Andersen, H. V., & Pitkänen, K. (2019). Empowering educators by developing professional practice in digital fabrication and design thinking. *International Journal of Child-Computer Interaction*, 21, 1-16.

- Anho, J. E. (2022). The Use of E-Training and Development as Principals Administrative Task on Secondary School Teachers' Job Performance. *European Journal of Education and Pedagogy*, 3(4), 133-140.
- Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)*, 5(2), 272-281.
- Antinluoma, M., Ilomäki, L., Lahti-Nuutila, P., & Toom, A. (2018). Schools as professional learning communities. *Journal of Education and Learning*.
- Appadurai, A. (1996). *Modernity at large: cultural dimensions of globalization* (Vol. 1). U of Minnesota Press.
- Appelbaum, R. P., & Robinson, W. I. (2005). *Critical Globalization Studies*. Routledge.
https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=iR8-2p_Dw2MC
- Arhipova, O., Kokina, I., & Rauckienė-Michaelsson, A. (2018). School principal's management competences for successful school development. *Tiltai: socialiniai mokslai*(1), 63-75.
- Ariely, G. (2012). Globalisation and the decline of national identity? An exploration across sixty-three countries. *Nations and Nationalism*, 18(3), 461-482.
- Ärlestig, H. (2008). *Communication between principals and teachers in successful schools* Pedagogik].
- Arnett, J. J. (2002). The psychology of globalization. *American psychologist*, 57(10), 774.
- Arshad-Ayaz, A. (2008). From producing citizens to producing managers: Education in a globalized world. In *Power, Voice and the Public Good: Schooling and Education in Global Societies* (pp. 479-506). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Aslanargun, E. (2015). Teachers' expectations and school administration: Keys of better communication in schools. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 15(60), 17-34.
- Assiri, M. A. (2015). *The organizational climate of public schools in Muhayil school district, Saudi Arabia* ProQuest Dissertations Publishing].
http://sdl.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwpV1bS8MwFD647UV8UFHxMkdA2JNzvd1QcS5DfGGrO55pEmKga7TdUX8956k7RxT9uJjUwhpkp7rd74DYFsXRmtFJqBejn zTZR2DWczxbMvlHE11SiNuU0MT4AT3fjDsBF33oQAXqtKY4rhLKaIFN58yFTVvm-iBawy9d_3-0VJ9pFS-tWiqUYEaqk7PzNO3f_jv6Jv5aEgqvVIQP5XP5i-prFXNYBvKdqUpj3UkJaXtiY4ifNKZaPdERLN4njPpjdDe49X81kmmgt8u9I1cfwDd2-qcoYSrZ0WE0s-WRRirzBD_mtDdmCrt5Th34UNkezBCC8jmS5VfdKYsFiisYzDEcmptkmqCUFTIhPyIL3RLxkXQ4Qrdl_J5uckoBmX5GZGQ0n34WzQf729a5XLHbc_Rjr-WaN9ANVkmohDIFaHGaHp0ctICFSWLBSO77gMRW9ocicSR1BfN9Px-tcnsllWjpvHTepQVYdyChXc7AbUuv3n2FDX5JvamDUdA
- Astiz, M. F., Wiseman, A. W., & Baker, D. P. (2002). Slouching towards decentralization: Consequences of globalization for curricular control in national education systems. *Comparative education review*, 46(1), 66-88.
- Atieno, O. P. (2009). An analysis of the strengths and limitation of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 13(1), 13-38.
- Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in teaching and teacher education over ten years. *Teaching and teacher education*, 27(1), 10-20.
- Azanza, G., Moriano, J. A., & Molero, F. (2013). Authentic leadership and organizational culture as drivers of employees' job satisfaction. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones*, 29(2), 45-50.
- Azorín, C., Harris, A., & Jones, M. (2020). Taking a distributed perspective on leading professional learning networks. *School Leadership & Management*, 40(2-3), 111-127.
- Backhouse, R. E. (2005). The rise of free market economics: Economists and the role of the state since 1970. *History of Political Economy*, 37(Suppl_1), 355-392.

- Badri, M., Alnuaimi, A., Mohaidat, J., Yang, G., & Al Rashedi, A. (2016). Perception of teachers' professional development needs, impacts, and barriers: The Abu Dhabi case. *Sage Open*, 6(3), 2158244016662901.
- Bailey, R. (2006). Physical education and sport in schools: A review of benefits and outcomes. *Journal of school health*, 76(8), 397-401.
- Bakhtiari, S., & Shajar, H. (2006). Globalization and education: Challenges and opportunities. *International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER)*, 5(2).
- Ball, D. L., Thames, M. H., & Phelps, G. (2008a). Content knowledge for teaching. *Journal of teacher education*, 59(5), 389-407.
- Ball, D. L., Thames, M. H., & Phelps, G. (2008b). Content knowledge for teaching: What makes it special? *Journal of teacher education*, 59(5), 389-407.
- Ball, S. J. (2003). *Class strategies and the education market: The middle classes and social advantage*. Routledge.
- Balsalobre-Lorente, D., Driha, O. M., & Sinha, A. (2020). The dynamic effects of globalization process in analysing N-shaped tourism led growth hypothesis. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 43, 42-52.
- Balyer, A., Karatas, H., & Alci, B. (2015). School principals' roles in establishing collaborative professional learning communities at schools. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 197, 1340-1347.
- Bantwini, B. D., & Moorosi, P. (2018). School district support to schools: voices and perspectives of school principals in a province in South Africa. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 21(6), 757-770.
- Baqadir, A., Patrick, F., & Burns, G. (2011). Addressing the skills gap in Saudi Arabia: does vocational education address the needs of private sector employers? *Journal of Vocational Education & Training*, 63(4), 551-561.
- Barnett, B. G., & O'Mahony, G. R. (2006). Developing a culture of reflection: implications for school improvement. *Reflective practice*, 7(4), 499-523.
- Barnett, B. G., Shoho, A. R., & Oleszewski, A. M. (2012). The job realities of beginning and experienced assistant principals. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 11(1), 92-128.
- Barr, J., & Saltmarsh, S. (2014). "It all comes down to the leadership" the role of the school principal in fostering parent-school engagement. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(4), 491-505.
- Barrett, N., Cowen, J., Toma, E., & Troske, S. (2015). Working with what they have: Professional development as a reform strategy in rural schools. *Journal of Research in Rural Education (Online)*, 30(10), 1.
- Bauch, P. A. (2001). School-community partnerships in rural schools: Leadership, renewal, and a sense of place. *Peabody journal of education*, 76(2), 204-221.
- Baxter, L. P., Southall, A. E., & Gardner, F. (2021). Trialling critical reflection in education: the benefits for school leaders and teachers. *Reflective practice*, 22(4), 501-514.
- Bayar, A. (2014). The Components of Effective Professional Development Activities in Terms of Teachers' Perspective. *Online Submission*, 6(2), 319-327.
- Becker, S., Crandall, M. D., Fisher, K. E., Kinney, B., Landry, C., & Rocha, A. (2010). Opportunity for All: How the American Public Benefits from Internet Access at US Libraries. *Institute of Museum and Library Services*.
- Bedford, L. (2019). Using Social Media as a Platform for a Virtual Professional Learning Community. *Online Learning*, 23(3), 120-136.
- Bellibaş, M. Ş., Gümüş, S., & Liu, Y. (2021). Does school leadership matter for teachers' classroom practice? The influence of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on instructional quality. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, 32(3), 387-412.
- Belloumi, M., & Alshehry, A. (2018). The Impacts of Domestic and Foreign Direct Investments on Economic Growth in Saudi Arabia. *Economies*, 6(1), 18.

- BERA. (2018). *Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research*. British Educational Research Association. <https://www.bera.ac.uk/publication/ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2018>
- Berger, S. (2000). Globalization and politics. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 3(1), 43-62.
- Berliner, D. C. (2004). Describing the behavior and documenting the accomplishments of expert teachers. *Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society*, 24(3), 200-212.
- Betweli, O. K. (2020). Curbing Teacher Misconduct in Public Primary Schools in Sumbawanga Municipal and Rural Districts, Tanzania: Headteachers' Strategies and Challenges. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences Vol*, 8(4).
- Bhattacharjee, A. (2012). Social science research: Principles, methods, and practices.
- Bhengu, T. T., & Mthembu, T. T. (2014). Effective leadership, school culture and school effectiveness: A case study of two 'sister' schools in Umlazi Township. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(1), 43-52.
- Bickley, S. J., Chan, H. F., Skali, A., Stadelmann, D., & Torgler, B. (2021). How does globalization affect COVID-19 responses? *Globalization and health*, 17(1), 1-19.
- Binzer Hobolt, S., & Brouard, S. (2011). Contesting the European Union? Why the Dutch and the French rejected the European constitution. *Political Research Quarterly*, 64(2), 309-322.
- Birt, L., Scott, S., Cavers, D., Campbell, C., & Walter, F. (2016). Member checking: a tool to enhance trustworthiness or merely a nod to validation? *Qualitative health research*, 26(13), 1802-1811.
- Black, B. (1999). National culture and high commitment management. *Employee Relations*, 21(4), 389-404.
- Blandford, S. (2000). *Managing professional development in schools*. Routledge.
- Bolden, R. (2011). Distributed leadership in organizations: A review of theory and research. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(3), 251-269.
- Boumaaize, Z., El Madhi, Y., Soulaymani, A., El Wahbi, B., & El, H. (2021). Distance learning during lockdown: Satisfaction assessment among moroccan trainee teachers. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 11(9), 424-428.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative research journal*, 9(2), 27-40.
- Bowen, W. H. (2014). *The History of Saudi Arabia*. ABC-CLIO.
- Boyle, B., Lamprinou, I., & Boyle, T. (2005). A longitudinal study of teacher change: What makes professional development effective? Report of the second year of the study. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, 16(1), 1-27.
- Boycheva, E. S., Nikolova, N., & Stefanova, E. (2018). Challenges of teachers e-training: how to solve unsolvable problems. VII NATIONAL EDUCATION CONFERENCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS,
- Bozeman, T. D., Scogin, S., & Stuessy, C. L. (2013). Job Satisfaction of High School Science Teachers: Prevalence and Association with Teacher Retention. *Electronic Journal of Science Education*, 17(4), n4.
- Breen, L. (2007). The researcher'in the middle': Negotiating the insider/outsider dichotomy. *The Australian Community Psychologist*, 19(1), 163-174.
- Brenner, D., Elder, A., Wimbish, S., & Walker, S. (2015). Principals' perceptions about alternate route programs in rural areas. *The Rural Educator*, 36(2).
- Briggs, A. R., Morrison, M., & Coleman, M. (2012). *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. Sage Publications.
- Brooks, J. S., & Normore, A. H. (2010). Educational leadership and globalization: Literacy for a global perspective. *Educational Policy*, 24(1), 52-82.
- Brunstein, J. C., & Heckhausen, H. (2018). Achievement motivation. In *Motivation and action* (pp. 221-304). Springer.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.

- Bryson, J. M. (2018). *Strategic planning for public and nonprofit organizations: A guide to strengthening and sustaining organizational achievement*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Bubb, S., & Earley, P. (2007). *Leading & Managing Continuing Professional Development : Developing People, Developing Schools*. SAGE Publications.
<http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/reading/detail.action?docID=435374>
- Bubb, S., & Jones, M.-A. (2020). Learning from the COVID-19 home-schooling experience: Listening to pupils, parents/carers and teachers. *Improving schools, 23*(3), 209-222.
- Bukova-Güzel, E. (2010). An investigation of pre-service mathematics teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, using solid objects. *Scientific Research and Essays, 5*(14), 1872-1880.
- Burlacu, S., Gutu, C., & Matei, F. O. (2018). Globalization—pros and cons. *Calitatea, 19*(S1), 122-125.
- Burnett, B., & Lampert, J. (2016). Teacher education for high-poverty schools in Australia: The national exceptional teachers for disadvantaged schools program. In *Teacher education for high poverty schools* (pp. 73-94). Springer.
- Bush, T. (2008). *Leadership and management development in education*. Sage.
- Bush, T. (2012). Authenticity in Research: Reliability, Validity and Triangulation. In A. R. Briggs, M. Morrison, & M. Coleman (Eds.), *Research methods in educational leadership and management*.
- Bush, T., Bell, L., & Middlewood, D. (2019). *Principles of Educational Leadership & Management*. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2003). School leadership: Concepts and evidence.
- Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2014). School leadership models: What do we know? *School Leadership & Management, 34*(5), 553-571.
- Bush, T., & Middlewood, D. (2013). *Leading and managing people in education*. Sage.
- Bush, T., & Ng, A. Y. M. (2019). Distributed leadership and the Malaysia Education Blueprint: From prescription to partial school-based enactment in a highly centralised context. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
- Buttram, J. L., & Farley-Ripple, E. N. (2016). The role of principals in professional learning communities. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 15*(2), 192-220.
- Calderhead, J., & Gates, P. (2003). *Conceptualising reflection in teacher development*. Routledge.
- Campbell, C., & Levin, B. (2009). Using data to support educational improvement. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability (formerly: Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education), 21*(1), 47-65.
- Carney, S., & Bista, M. B. (2009). Community schooling in Nepal: A genealogy of education reform since 1990. *Comparative Education Review, 53*(2), 189-211.
- Carnoy, M. (2011). As higher education expands, is it contributing to greater inequality? *National Institute Economic Review, 215*(1), R34-R47.
- Carnoy, M., Hallak, J., & Caillods, F. (1999). *Globalization and educational reform: What planners need to know*. UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.
- Carnoy, M., & Rhoten, D. (2002). What does globalization mean for educational change? A comparative approach. *Comparative education review, 46*(1), 1-9.
- Caro, D., & Kyriakides, L. (2019). Assessment design and quality of inferences in PISA: Limitations and recommendations for improvement. In (Vol. 26, pp. 363-368): Taylor & Francis.
- Carpenter, D. (2015). School culture and leadership of professional learning communities. *International journal of educational management*.
- Casto, H. G. (2016). " Just One More Thing I Have to Do": School-Community Partnerships. *School Community Journal, 26*(1), 139-162.
- Castro, L., & Villafuerte, J. (2019). Strengthening English language teaching in rural schools through the role-playing: Teachers' motivations. *International Journal of Educational Methodology, 5*(2), 289-303.

- Chaharbashloo, H., Gholami, K., Aliasgari, M., Talebzadeh, H., & Mousapour, N. (2020). Analytical reflection on teachers' practical knowledge: A case study of exemplary teachers in an educational reform context. *Teaching and teacher education, 87*, 102931.
- Chai, C. S., Koh, J. H. L., & Tsai, C.-C. (2013). A review of technological pedagogical content knowledge. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society, 16*(2), 31-51.
- Chan, K. K. H., & Hume, A. (2019). Towards a consensus model: Literature review of how science teachers' pedagogical content knowledge is investigated in empirical studies. *Repositioning pedagogical content knowledge in teachers' knowledge for teaching science, 3-76*.
- Chang, H.-J. (2003). *Globalization, economic development and the role of the state*. Zed Books.
- Chapman, D. (2013). The 'one-man band' and entrepreneurial selfhood in neoliberal culture. *Popular Music, 32*(3), 451-470.
- Chen, Y., Chen, N.-S., & Tsai, C.-C. (2009). The use of online synchronous discussion for web-based professional development for teachers. *Computers & education, 53*(4), 1155-1166.
- Chenail, R. J. (2011). Interviewing the investigator: Strategies for addressing instrumentation and researcher bias concerns in qualitative research. *The qualitative report, 16*(1), 255-262.
- Cheng, E. C. (2021). Knowledge management for improving school strategic planning. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 49*(5), 824-840.
- Cheng, E. C., Wu, S. W., & Hu, J. (2017). Knowledge management implementation in the school context: case studies on knowledge leadership, storytelling, and taxonomy. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice, 16*(2), 177-188.
- Chin, J. M.-C., Ching, G. S., del Castillo, F., Wen, T.-H., Huang, Y.-C., del Castillo, C. D., Gungon, J. L., & Trajera, S. M. (2022). Perspectives on the Barriers to and Needs of Teachers' Professional Development in the Philippines during COVID-19. *Sustainability, 14*(1), 470.
- Chinnammai, S. (2005). Effects of globalization on education and culture. *New Delhi*.
- Choy, L. T. (2014). The strengths and weaknesses of research methodology: Comparison and complimentary between qualitative and quantitative approaches. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 19*(4), 99-104.
- Chreim, S., Williams, B. B., Janz, L., & Dastmalchian, A. (2010). Change agency in a primary health care context: The case of distributed leadership. *Health care management review, 35*(2), 187-199.
- Chu, S.-Y. (2014). Perspectives of teachers and parents of Chinese American students with disabilities about their home-school communication. *Preventing School Failure: Alternative Education for Children and Youth, 58*(4), 237-248.
- Chukwumah, F. O. (2015). Developing Quality Strategic Plan in Secondary Schools for Successful School Improvement. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(21), 136-144.
- Chukwuyenum, A. N. (2013). Impact of critical thinking on performance in mathematics among senior secondary school students in Lagos State. *IOSR Journal of Research & Method in education, 3*(5), 18-25.
- Cieminski, A. B. (2018). Practices That Support Leadership Succession and Principal Retention. *Education Leadership Review, 19*(1), 21-41.
- Çimen, S. S. (2022). Exploring EFL Assessment in Turkey: Curriculum and Teacher Practices. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching, 9*(1), 531-550.
- Çimer, A., Çimer, S. O., & Vekli, G. S. (2013). How does reflection help teachers to become effective teachers. *International Journal of Educational Research, 1*(4), 133-149.
- Ciravegna, L., & Michailova, S. (2022). Why the world economy needs, but will not get, more globalization in the post-COVID-19 decade. *Journal of International Business Studies, 53*(1), 172-186.
- CITC. (2017). *Annual Report*.
<http://www.citc.gov.sa/ar/MediaCenter/Annualreport/Pages/default.aspx>
- Clarke, S., & Wildy, H. (2011). Improving the small rural or remote school: The role of the district. *Australian Journal of Education, 55*(1), 24-36.

- Cleveland, R., Chambers, J., Mainus, C., Powell, N., Skepple, R., Tyler, T., & Wood, A. (2011). School culture, equity, and student academic performance in a rural Appalachian school. *Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning*, 9(1), 4.
- Cochran-Smith, M. (2005). The new teacher education: For better or for worse? *Educational Researcher*, 34(7), 3-17.
- Coe, R. (2012). The Nature of Educational Research. In J. Arthur, M. Waring, R. Coe, & L. Hedges (Eds.), *Research Methods & Methodologies in Education* (pp. 5-14). SAGE Publications.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). Research methods in education. Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon,[England]. In: Routledge.
- Coleman, M., & Briggs, A. R. (2002). *Research methods in educational leadership and management*. Sage.
- Collins, J., & Reid, C. (2012). Immigrant teachers in Australia. *Cosmopolitan Civil Societies: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 4(2), 38-61.
- Crane, D., Kawashima, N., & Kawasaki, K. i. (2016). *Global culture: Media, arts, policy, and globalization*. Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014a). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. Pearson Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014b). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.
- Cronin, M. (2010). Globalization and translation. *Handbook of translation studies*, 1, 134-140.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Sage.
- Cuban, L. (1988). *Managerial Imperative and the Practice of Leadership in Schools*, The. Suny Press.
- Cuervo, H. (2020). A social justice approach to rural school staffing: The need for a politics of distribution and recognition to solve a perennial problem. *Journal of Pedagogy/Pedagogický Casopis*, 11(1).
- Curran, F. C., & Kitchin, J. (2021). Documenting geographic isolation of schools and examining the implications for education policy. *Educational Policy*, 35(7), 1191-1229.
- Daft, R. L. (2014). *The leadership experience*. Cengage Learning.
- Dahiya, S., & Jha, A. (2011). Review of training evaluation. *International Journal of Computer Science and Communication*, 2(1), 11-16.
- Dale, R. (2005). Globalisation, knowledge economy and comparative education. *Comparative Education*, 41(2), 117-149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03050060500150906>
- Dale, R. (2007). Specifying globalization effects on national policy. *the RoutledgeFalmer reader in education policy and politics*, 14(1), 48.
- Damore, S., & Rieckhof, B. (2021). Leading Reflective Practices in Montessori Schools. *Journal of Montessori Research*, 7(1), 51-65.
- Daniëls, E., Hondeghem, A., & Dochy, F. (2019). A review on leadership and leadership development in educational settings. *Educational research review*, 27, 110-125.
- Danielson, C., & McGreal, T. L. (2000). *Teacher evaluation to enhance professional practice*. Ascd.
- Dar, M. A. (2019). Contribution of Effective Communication in Educational Settings: A Critical Review. *International Journal of Research in all Subjects in Multi Languages*, 7 (8), 13-20.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (2007). *Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Darling-Hammond, L., Hylter, M. E., & Gardner, M. (2017). Effective teacher professional development.
- Datnow, A. (2011). Collaboration and contrived collegiality: Revisiting Hargreaves in the age of accountability. *Journal of educational change*, 12(2), 147-158. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-011-9154-1>

- David, M., & Sutton, C. D. (2011). *Social research: An introduction*. Sage Publications.
- Davis, N. (2020). The globalisation of education through teacher education with new technologies: A view informed by research through teacher education with new technologies. *AACE Review (formerly AACE Journal)*, 8-12.
- Dawadi, S., Giri, R. A., & Simkhada, P. (2020). Impact of COVID-19 on the Education Sector in Nepal: Challenges and Coping Strategies. *Online Submission*.
- Day Ashley, L. (2012). Case Study Research. In J. Arthur, M. Waring, R. Coe, & L. Hedges (Eds.), *Research Methods & Methodologies in Education*. SAGE Publications.
- Day, C. (2002). *Developing teachers: The challenges of lifelong learning*. Routledge.
- Day, C., & Sammons, P. (2013). *Successful leadership: A review of the international literature*. ERIC.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., & Gorgen, K. (2020). Successful School Leadership. *Education development trust*.
- De Neve, D., Devos, G., & Tuytens, M. (2015). The importance of job resources and self-efficacy for beginning teachers' professional learning in differentiated instruction. *Teaching and teacher education*, 47, 30-41.
- de Vries, S., Jansen, E. P., & van de Grift, W. J. (2013). Profiling teachers' continuing professional development and the relation with their beliefs about learning and teaching. *Teaching and teacher education*, 33, 78-89.
- Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (2016). *Shaping school culture*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2010). Self-determination. *The Corsini encyclopedia of psychology*, 1-2.
- DeFeo, D. J., & Tran, T. C. (2019). Recruiting, Hiring, and Training Alaska's Rural Teachers: How Superintendents Practice Place-Conscious Leadership. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 35(2).
- Delamont, S. (2012). *Handbook of qualitative research in education*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Demir, K. (2015). The Effect of Organizational Trust on the Culture of Teacher Leadership in Primary Schools. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 15(3), 621-634.
- Denison, D. R. (1990). *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Denscombe, M. (2017). *The Good Research Guide: For Small-scale Research Projects*. Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2008). *The Landscape of Qualitative Research*. Sage Publications. <https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=4StZvMUWJf0C>
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2018). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. SAGE Publications.
- DeVries, J. M., Voß, S., & Gebhardt, M. (2018). Do learners with special education needs really feel included? Evidence from the Perception of Inclusion Questionnaire and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire. *Research in developmental disabilities*, 83, 28-36.
- Dickerson, M. S. (2011). Building a collaborative school culture using appreciative inquiry. *International Refereed Research Journal*, 2(2), 25-36.
- Dimmock, C., & Walker, A. (2000). Globalisation and societal culture: Redefining schooling and school leadership in the twenty-first century. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 30(3), 303-312.
- Docktor, J. L., Strand, N. E., Mestre, J. P., & Ross, B. H. (2015). Conceptual problem solving in high school physics. *Physical Review Special Topics-Physics Education Research*, 11(2), 020106.
- Doğan, S. (2019). The changing face of organizational communication: School whatsapp groups. *Research in Pedagogy*, 9(2), 231-244.
- Dong, Y., Chai, C. S., Sang, G.-Y., Koh, J. H. L., & Tsai, C.-C. (2015). Exploring the profiles and interplays of pre-service and in-service teachers' technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) in China. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 18(1), 158-169.
- Dooley, K. E. (2007). Viewing Agricultural Education Research through a Qualitative Lens. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 48(4), 32-42.
- Dooly, M., Moore, E., & Vallejo, C. (2017). Research Ethics. *Research-publishing.net*.

- Dorn, E., Hancock, B., Sarakatsannis, J., & Viruleg, E. (2020). COVID-19 and learning loss—disparities grow and students need help. *McKinsey & Company, December, 8*, 6-7.
- Dotger, B. H. (2011). The school leader communication model: An emerging method for bridging school leader preparation and practice. *Journal of School Leadership, 21*(6), 871-892.
- Downes, N., & Roberts, P. (2018). Revisiting the schoolhouse: A literature review on staffing rural, remote and isolated schools in Australia 2004-2016. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education, 28*(1), 31-54.
- Doyle, D., & Locke, G. (2014). Lacking Leaders: The Challenges of Principal Recruitment, Selection, and Placement. *Thomas B. Fordham Institute*.
- Drago-Severson, E. (2012). The need for principal renewal: The promise of sustaining principals through principal-to-principal reflective practice. *Teachers college record, 114*(12), 1-56.
- Drummond, A., & Halsey, R. J. (2013). How hard can it be? The relative job demands of rural, regional and remote Australian educational leaders. *Australian Journal of Education, 57*(1), 19-31.
- Du Plessis, P. (2017). Challenges for rural school leaders in a developing context: A case study on leadership practices of effective rural principals. *Koers, 82*(3), 1-10.
- Du Plessis, P., & Mestry, R. (2019). Teachers for rural schools—a challenge for South Africa. *South African journal of education, 39*.
- Dube, B. (2020). Rural online learning in the context of COVID 19 in South Africa: Evoking an inclusive education approach. *REMIE: Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research, 10*(2), 135-157.
- DuBrin, A. J. (2015). *Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills*. Nelson Education.
- DuFour, R. (2004). What is a "professional learning community"? *Educational leadership, 61*(8), 6-11.
- DuFour, R., & DuFour, R. (2013). *Learning by doing: A handbook for professional learning communities at work TM*. Solution Tree Press.
- DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (2009). *Professional Learning Communities at Work TM: Best Practices for Enhancing Students Achievement*. Solution Tree Press.
<https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=y2lXBwAAQBAJ>
- Duncan, H. E., & Stock, M. J. (2010). Mentoring and coaching rural school leaders: What do they need? *Mentoring & tutoring: partnership in learning, 18*(3), 293-311.
- Dwyer, S. C., & Buckle, J. L. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International journal of qualitative methods, 8*(1), 54-63.
- Eaker, R., & DuFour, R. (2009). *Getting started: Reculturing schools to become professional learning communities*. Solution Tree Press.
- Earley, P., & Porritt, V. (2009). *Effective Practices in Continuing Professional Development: Lessons from Schools*. ERIC.
- El-Kogali, & Tayeb, S. E. (2018). *Expectations and Aspirations : A New Framework for Education in the Middle East and North Africa : Overview (English)*.
<http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/527931542039352771/Overview>
- Elyas, T., & Picard, M. (2013). Critiquing of higher education policy in Saudi Arabia: towards a new neoliberalism. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*.
- Eman, A., & Al-Dhuwaih, A. (2021). Recruitment and selection of school leaders in Saudi Arabia. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences, 16*(5), 2277-2291.
- Engels, N., Hotton, G., Devos, G., Bouckennooghe, D., & Aelterman, A. (2008). Principals in schools with a positive school culture. *Educational studies, 34*(3), 159-174.
- Ergashev, I., & Farxodjonova, N. (2020). Integration of national culture in the process of globalization. *Journal of Critical Reviews, 7*(2), 477.
- Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing Naturalistic Inquiry: A Guide to Methods*. SAGE Publications. <https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=mOawndGmMslC>
- Erstad, O., & Voogt, J. (2018). The twenty-first century curriculum: issues and challenges. *Springer International Handbooks of Education, 19*-36.

- EETC. (2017). المعايير والمسارات المهنية للمعلمين. <https://etec.gov.sa/ar/productsandservices/Qiyas/profession/TeachersLicensure/Pages/default.aspx>
- EETC. (2020). *International Conference On Education & Training Evaluation: Improving Learning Outcomes & Supporting Economic Growth*. <https://etec2020.gov.sa/>
- EETC. (2021). *International Assessment*. <https://etec.gov.sa/en/productsandservices/Qiyas/internationaltests/Pages/default.aspx>
- Etscheidt, S., Curran, C. M., & Sawyer, C. M. (2012). Promoting reflection in teacher preparation programs: A multilevel model. *Teacher education and Special education, 35*(1), 7-26.
- Evans, C. J., Shackell, E. F., Kerr-Wilson, S. J., Doyle, G. J., McCutcheon, J. A., & Budz, B. (2014). A faculty created strategic plan for excellence in nursing education. *International journal of nursing education scholarship, 11*(1), 19-29.
- Ewing, L.-A., & Cooper, H. B. (2021). Technology-enabled remote learning during COVID-19: perspectives of Australian teachers, students and parents. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education, 30*(1), 41-57.
- Ezzeldin, S. M. Y., & Alsharidah, M. A. M. (2021). Teacher Digital Empowerment Level in Light of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia s Vision 2030: Reality and Aspirations. *Elementary Education Online, 20*(2), 96-96.
- Fang, Z., Grant, L. W., Xu, X., Stronge, J. H., & Ward, T. J. (2013). An international comparison investigating the relationship between national culture and student achievement. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability, 25*(3), 159-177.
- Fargas-Malet, M., & Bagley, C. (2022). Is small beautiful? A scoping review of 21st-century research on small rural schools in Europe. *European educational research journal, 21*(5), 822-844.
- Ferguson, J. (2010). The uses of neoliberalism. *Antipode, 41*, 166-184.
- Figland, W., Blackburn, J., Stair, K., & Smith, E. (2019). What Do They Need? Determining Differences in the Professional Development Needs of Louisiana Agriculture Teachers by Years of Teaching Experience. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 60*(2), 173-189.
- Fischer, C., Heider, J., Schröder, A., & Taylor, J. E. (2020). "Help! I'm afraid of driving!" review of driving fear and its treatment. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 44*(2), 420-444.
- Flick, U. (2017). *The Sage handbook of qualitative data collection*. Sage.
- Forde, C., McMahon, M., McPhee, A. D., & Patrick, F. (2006). *Professional development, reflection and enquiry*. Sage.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *Leading in a Culture of Change*. John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.
- Fullan, M. (2010). *Motion leadership: The skinny on becoming change savvy*. Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M. (2011). *Change leader: Learning to do what matters most*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Fullan, M. G. (1988). *What's Worth Fighting for in the Principalship? Strategies for Taking Charge in the Elementary School Principalship*. ERIC.
- Furman, G. (2012). Social justice leadership as praxis: Developing capacities through preparation programs. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 48*(2), 191-229.
- GAER. (2018). نبذة عن نظام فارس. The General Administration of Education in Riyadh. <https://edu.moe.gov.sa/Riyadh/Departments/GeneralManager/faris/Pages/default.aspx>
- Gaffney, M., & Faragher, R. (2010). Sustaining improvement in numeracy: developing pedagogical content knowledge and leadership capabilities in tandem. *Mathematics Teacher Education and Development, 12*(2), 72-83.
- Gallo, J., & Beckman, P. (2016). A global view of rural education: Teacher preparation, recruitment, and retention. *Global education review, 3*(1).
- GAS. (2016). *General Information about The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*. General Authority for Statistics in KSA. <https://www.stats.gov.sa/en/page/170>
- GAS. (2019). *Population Estimates*. General Authority for Statistics. <https://www.stats.gov.sa/en/43>
- Gates, S. M., Ringel, J. S., Santibanez, L., Guarino, C., Ghosh-Dastidar, B., & Brown, A. (2006). Mobility and turnover among school principals. *Economics of Education Review, 25*(3), 289-302.

- Geldenhuys, J. L., & Oosthuizen, L. C. (2015). Challenges influencing teachers' involvement in continuous professional development: A South African perspective. *Teaching and teacher education, 51*, 203-212.
- Gemeda, F. T., & Tynjälä, P. (2015). Exploring teachers' motivation for teaching and professional development in Ethiopia: Voices from the field. *Journal of Studies of Education, 5*(2).
- General Authority for Statistics in KSA. (2018). *Population and Vital Statistics*.
<https://www.stats.gov.sa/en/43>
- General Commission for Survey. (2018). *General Plastic Relief map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*.
<https://www.gcs.gov.sa/En/ProductsAndServices/Products/PublicMaps/Pages/General-Plastic-map-of-the-KSA.aspx>
- Gerhard Huber, S. (2004). School leadership and leadership development: Adjusting leadership theories and development programs to values and the core purpose of school. *Journal of Educational Administration, 42*(6), 669-684.
- Ghenghesh, P. (2016). Job Satisfaction and Motivation: What Makes Teachers Tick? *Editors*, 1040.
- Ghubash, H. (2014). *Oman-The Islamic Democratic Tradition*. Routledge.
- Glover, T. A., Nugent, G. C., Chumney, F. L., Ihlo, T., Shapiro, E. S., Guard, K., Koziol, N., & Bovaird, J. (2016). Investigating Rural Teachers' Professional Development, Instructional Knowledge, and Classroom Practice. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 31*(3), n3.
- Goddard, Y. L., Goddard, R. D., & Tschannen-Moran, M. (2007). A theoretical and empirical investigation of teacher collaboration for school improvement and student achievement in public elementary schools. *Teachers college record, 109*(4), 877-896.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The qualitative report, 8*(4), 597-606.
- Gomba, C. (2015). Why Do They Stay: Factors Influencing Teacher Retention in Rural Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Instruction, 8*(2), 55-68.
- González, A., Macias-Alonso, I., & Peck, J. (2022). Mentorship and Role Modeling, In and Out of the House: Evidence from High School Girls in Saudi Arabia. *University of Chicago, Becker Friedman Institute for Economics Working Paper*(2022-48).
- Goodpaster, K. P., Adedokun, O. A., & Weaver, G. C. (2012). Teachers' perceptions of rural STEM teaching: Implications for rural teacher retention. *The Rural Educator, 33*(3).
- Gopang, I. B. (2016). Teacher education and professional development programs in Pakistan. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education, 7*(1), 1-14.
- Grady, J., & Harvie, D. (2011). Neoliberalism. *M. Tadajewsky, P. Maclaran, E. Parson, E., M. Parker, (Eds.), Key concepts in critical management studies, 173-176*.
- Grady, M., Watkins, S., & Montalvo, G. (2012). The effect of constructivist mathematics on achievement in rural schools. *The Rural Educator, 33*(3).
- Graziano, T. (2021). Smart technologies, back-to-the-village rhetoric, and tactical urbanism: Post-covid planning scenarios in Italy. *International Journal of E-Planning Research (IJEPR), 10*(2), 80-93.
- Greene, M. J. (2014). On the inside looking in: Methodological insights and challenges in conducting qualitative insider research. *The qualitative report, 19*(29), 1-13.
- Grissom, J. A., & Harrington, J. R. (2010). Investing in administrator efficacy: An examination of professional development as a tool for enhancing principal effectiveness. *American Journal of Education, 116*(4), 583-612.
- Grossman, P., & McDonald, M. (2008). Back to the future: Directions for research in teaching and teacher education.
- Großschedl, J., Harms, U., Kleickmann, T., & Glowinski, I. (2015). Preservice biology teachers' professional knowledge: Structure and learning opportunities. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 26*(3), 291-318.
- Gruenert, S., & Whitaker, T. (2015). *School culture rewired: How to define, assess, and transform it*. ASCD.

- Gu, Y. (2021). The impact of globalization on education. *International Journal of Social Science and Education Research*, 4(3), 152-157.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of qualitative research*, 2(163-194), 105.
- Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluating professional development*. Corwin press.
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and teaching*, 8(3), 381-391.
- Haiyan, Q., & Allan, W. (2021). Creating conditions for professional learning communities (PLCs) in schools in China: the role of school principals. *Professional Development in Education*, 47(4), 586-598.
- Halik, M., & Webley, P. (2011). Adolescents' understanding of poverty and the poor in rural Malaysia. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 32(2), 231-239.
- Hallam, P. R., Chou, P. N., Hite, J. M., & Hite, S. J. (2012). Two contrasting models for mentoring as they affect retention of beginning teachers. *NASSP Bulletin*, 96(3), 243-278.
- Hallinger, P. (2005). Instructional leadership and the school principal: A passing fancy that refuses to fade away. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4(3), 221-239.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (2002). What do you call people with visions? The role of vision, mission and goals in school leadership and improvement. In *Second international handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 9-40). Springer.
- Hallinger, P., & Lee, M. (2014). Mapping instructional leadership in Thailand: Has education reform impacted principal practice? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(1), 6-29.
- Hallinger, P., & Leithwood, K. (2013). Unseen forces: The impact of social culture on school leadership. In *Leading Schools in a Global Era* (pp. 126-151). Routledge.
- Hammer, P. C., Hughes, G., McClure, C., Reeves, C., & Salgado, D. (2005). Rural Teacher Recruitment and Retention Practices: A Review of the Research Literature, National Survey of Rural Superintendents, and Case Studies of Programs in Virginia. *Appalachia Educational Laboratory at Edvantia (NJ1)*.
- Hamzah, N. H., Nasir, M. K. M., & Wahab, J. A. (2021). The Effects of Principals' Digital Leadership on Teachers' Digital Teaching during the COVID-19 Pandemic in Malaysia. *Journal of Education and E-Learning Research*, 8(2), 216-221.
- Hancock, D. R., & Algozzine, B. (2017). *Doing case study research: A practical guide for beginning researchers*. Teachers College Press.
- Hancock, D. R., Müller, U., Stricker, T., Wang, C., Lee, S., & Hachen, J. (2019). Causes of stress and strategies for managing stress among German and US principals. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 14(2), 201-214.
- Handford, V., & Leithwood, K. (2013). Why teachers trust school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
- Hansen-Thomas, H., Grosso Richins, L., Kakkar, K., & Okeyo, C. (2016). I do not feel I am properly trained to help them! Rural teachers' perceptions of challenges and needs with English-language learners. *Professional Development in Education*, 42(2), 308-324.
- Hansen, C. (2018). Why Rural Principals Leave. *Rural Educator*, 39(1), 41-53.
- Hardwick-Franco, K. G. (2019). Educational leadership is different in the country; What support does the rural school principal need? *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 22(3), 301-315.
- Hardy, I., & Melville, W. (2013). Contesting continuing professional development: Reflections from England. *Teachers and teaching*, 19(3), 311-325.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Contrived collegiality: The micropolitics of teacher collaboration. *Sociology of education: Major themes*, 3.
- Harmon, H. L., & Schafft, K. (2009). Rural school leadership for collaborative community development. *The Rural Educator*, 30(3).

- Harper, M., & Cole, P. (2012). Member checking: can benefits be gained similar to group therapy? *The qualitative report*, 17(2), 510-517.
- Harradine, A., Batanero, C., & Rossman, A. (2011). Students and teachers' knowledge of sampling and inference. In *Teaching statistics in school mathematics-challenges for teaching and teacher education* (pp. 235-246). Springer.
- Harris, A. (2003). Teacher leadership as distributed leadership: heresy, fantasy or possibility? *School Leadership & Management*, 23(3), 313-324.
- Harris, A. (2004). Distributed leadership and school improvement: leading or misleading? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 32(1), 11-24.
- Harris, A. (2005). OP-ED. *Journal of curriculum studies*, 37(3), 255-265.
- Harris, A. (2012). Distributed leadership: Implications for the role of the principal. *Journal of management development*.
- Harris, A. (2013a). Distributed leadership: Friend or foe? *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 41(5), 545-554.
- Harris, A. (2013b). *Distributed school leadership: Developing tomorrow's leaders*. Routledge.
- Harris, A., & Jones, M. (2010). Professional learning communities and system improvement. *Improving schools*, 13(2), 172-181.
- Harris, A., Jones, M., & Huffman, J. (2017). *Teachers leading educational reform*. Routledge London.
- Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2004). *Improving schools through teacher leadership*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Harvey, D. (1989). *The condition of postmodernity* (Vol. 14). Blackwell Oxford.
- Harvey, D. (2005). *A Brief History of Neoliberalism*. Oup Oxford.
http://reading.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwtV07T8MwELagHWDjKQoFMrEFJbaTNEOHUrViQBWCAiqLZSc2ZWgTtUXi53OXR9NWYkDAYsVWcrLvzo7PvuuOEEavHXtjTaBRrJgXubAfULFOETIFUWOoUkxymoH1v97T0YD2hn6_gsGt2v5V8NAGosdA2h8lf0kUGuAZVABKUALoN_bHy2rhfYx2vy5xQLJ79IFOMm8SxDycVEvPrMijXlm3Y8_OvI25P7vl8c7a8UCwcTzwTdjhmhXpoAsqzOw8q8sG_DRKQqBtsoUKliZTnUkktmbwGFFY5mK5DNNsDIXa8TEeDG5QgDzSfweLdp6aj89bpM6ZYHTqpF6p_cwel4eh6FdFoRODnqUE2AFPtKS4MpV8oo1UM96tLlpG06RGgaK7JMtPT0gO2WE9_yQWB0r471V8N5KjLXG-yPy0u8Nu7d2kYnCli4i9vu2Ma04IMpXoXEilg1mQVeepMYzjMeeCYyRzDMmjOAVI1KYGzFXsBv1YsQYpOyY1KbjVJ8Qi0cBD00g_dCXXBkqXS0dyVkrbnEeBrJBmvkwRZoDjhRshX-TD9Zgg1yWgxfZhxRhxSt6N13Ecwv9BrnLpVR-zsZnv4tuTOyW-lpk9QWsw99DsZnHjNyUSjGF8XIV-l
- Heffernan, A., & Longmuir, F. (2019). 'A school full of instructional experts': Shared instructional leadership in rural schools. *Leading and Managing*, 25(2), 1-13.
- Held, D., & McGrew, A. (2007). *Globalization / Anti-Globalization: Beyond the Great Divide*. Wiley.
<https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=vskz1poDuvoC>
- Henderson, J. C. (2011). Religious tourism and its management: the hajj in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(6), 541-552. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.825>
- Henschke EdD, J. A. (2013). From history to practice: How trust, empathy, reciprocity and sensitivity in relationships create the foundation of learning.
- Hildreth, D., Rogers, R. R., & Crouse, T. (2018). Ready, Set, Grow! Preparing and Equipping the Rural School Leader for Success. *Alabama Journal of Educational Leadership*, 5, 39-52.
- Hill, J. E., & Uribe-Florez, L. (2020). Understanding Secondary School Teachers' TPACK and Technology Implementation in Mathematics Classrooms. *International Journal of Technology in Education*, 3(1), 1-13.
- Hoffmann, S. (2002). Clash of globalizations. *Foreign Aff.*, 81, 104.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 10(4), 15-41.
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online readings in psychology and culture*, 2(1), 8.

- HofstedeInsights. (2022). *COUNTRY COMPARISON*. <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/saudi-arabia/>
- Hohner, J., & Riveros, A. (2017). Transitioning from Teacher Leader to Administrator in Rural Schools in Southwestern Ontario. *International Journal of Teacher Leadership*, 8(1), 43-55.
- Hord, S. M. (2004). *Learning together, leading together: Changing schools through professional learning communities*. Teachers College Press.
- Hord, S. M. (2008). Evolution of the professional learning community. *The learning professional*, 29(3), 10.
- Horsford, S. D. (2010). *New perspectives in educational leadership: Exploring social, political, and community contexts and meaning* (Vol. 1). Peter Lang.
- HRSD. (2021). لائحة الوظائف التعليمية (Decisions and Regulations, Issue. <https://hrsd.gov.sa/ar/policies/%D9%84%D8%A7%D8%A6%D8%AD%D8%A9-%D8%A7%D9%84%D9%88%D8%B8%D8%A7%D8%A6%D9%81-%D8%A7%D9%84%D8%AA%D8%B9%D9%84%D9%8A%D9%85%D9%8A%D8%A9-0>
- Huber, S. G. (2010). Preparing school leaders—international approaches in leadership development. In *School leadership-international perspectives* (pp. 225-251). Springer.
- Huber, S. G., & Hiltmann, M. (2010). The recruitment and selection of school leaders—first findings of an international comparison. In *School Leadership-International Perspectives* (pp. 303-330). Springer.
- Huber, S. G., & Pashiardis, P. (2009). The recruitment and selection of school leaders. In *International handbook on the preparation and development of school leaders* (pp. 194-220). Routledge.
- Hudgins, K. S. (2012). Creating a collaborative and inclusive culture for students with special education needs. *McNair Scholars Research Journal*, 5(1), 8.
- Huggins, K. S., Scheurich, J. J., & Morgan, J. R. (2011). Professional learning communities as a leadership strategy to drive math success in an urban high school serving diverse, low-income students: A case study. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 16(2), 67-88.
- Hulpia, H., & Devos, G. (2010). How distributed leadership can make a difference in teachers' organizational commitment? A qualitative study. *Teaching and teacher education*, 26(3), 565-575.
- Hulpia, H., Devos, G., & Van Keer, H. (2011). The relation between school leadership from a distributed perspective and teachers' organizational commitment: Examining the source of the leadership function. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 47(5), 728-771.
- Hulsbos, F. A., Evers, A. T., & Kessels, J. W. M. (2016). Learn to lead: Mapping workplace learning of school leaders. *Vocations and learning*, 9(1), 21-42.
- Hussin, S., & Al Abri, S. (2015). Professional Development Needs of School Principals in the Context of Educational Reform. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 7(4), 90-97.
- IC. (2019). *Natural Resources*. Industrial Clusters. <https://www.ic.gov.sa/en/invest-in-saudi-arabia/natural-resources/>
- Industrial Clusters. (2019). *Natural Resources*. <https://www.ic.gov.sa/en/invest-in-saudi-arabia/natural-resources/>
- Ingleby, E., & Hunt, J. (2008). The CPD needs of mentors in post-compulsory Initial Teacher Training in England. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 34(1), 61-74.
- Intxausti, N., Joaristi, L., & Lizasoain, L. (2016). Educational leadership as best practice in highly effective schools in the Autonomous Region of the Basque County (Spain). *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 44(3), 397-419.
- Jacobson, S. (2011). Leadership effects on student achievement and sustained school success. *International journal of educational management*, 25(1), 33-44.
- Jansen, C., & du Plessis, A. (2020). The role of deputy principals: Perspectives of South African primary school principals and their deputies. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 1741143220975764.

- Jarzabkowski, L. (2003). Teacher collegiality in a remote Australian school. *Journal of Research in Rural Education, 18*(3), 139-144.
- Jenkinson, K. A., & Benson, A. C. (2010). Barriers to providing physical education and physical activity in Victorian state secondary schools. *Australian journal of teacher education, 35*(8), 1-17.
- Jerald, C. D. (2006). School culture. *Center for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement*.
- Jin, B., Almousa, M. O., & Kim, N. (2018). Retailing amid regulation and religion: The unique cultural challenges and opportunities facing market ventures in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Cultural Marketing Strategy, 3*(1), 70-81.
- Johnson-Holder, A., & Bethea-Hampton, T. (2019). Educational leaders, professional learning communities, and social media. *Journal of Research Initiatives, 4*(3), 2.
- Johnson, J., & Howley, C. B. (2015). Contemporary federal education policy and rural schools: A critical policy analysis. *Peabody journal of education, 90*(2), 224-241.
- Jones, A., & Moreland, J. (2004). Enhancing practicing primary school teachers' pedagogical content knowledge in technology. *International journal of technology and design education, 14*(2), 121-140.
- Jones, M., Adams, D., Hwee Joo, M. T., Muniandy, V., Perera, C. J., & Harris, A. (2015). Contemporary challenges and changes: principals' leadership practices in Malaysia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 35*(3), 353-365.
- Jordan, R. L., Bratsch-Hines, M., & Vernon-Feagans, L. (2018). Kindergarten and first grade teachers' content and pedagogical content knowledge of reading and associations with teacher characteristics at rural low-wealth schools. *Teaching and teacher education, 74*, 190-204.
- Joshi, A., Eberly, J., & Konzal, J. (2005). Dialogue across cultures: Teachers' perceptions about communication with diverse Families. *Multicultural Education, 13*(2), 11-15.
- Jung, T., Scott, T., Davies, H. T., Bower, P., Whalley, D., McNally, R., & Mannion, R. (2009). Instruments for exploring organizational culture: A review of the literature. *Public administration review, 69*(6), 1087-1096.
- Kanawapee, C., Petsangsri, S., & Pimdee, P. (2022). The Importance of Sharing, Caring and Collaboration in Thai Teacher Competency Development through Online Professional Learning Communities. *Journal of Positive Psychology and Wellbeing, 6*(1), 3674-3689.
- Karakas, F. (2009). Welcome to World 2.0: the new digital ecosystem. *Journal of Business Strategy, 30*(4), 23-30.
- Karakose, T., Polat, H., & Papadakis, S. (2021). Examining teachers' perspectives on school principals' digital leadership roles and technology capabilities during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Sustainability, 13*(23), 13448.
- Kaur, S., Chimka, M., & Wells, T. (2021). Rural principal perspectives of leadership development needs. *The Rural Educator, 42*(3), 45-55.
- Ke, Z., Yin, H., & Huang, S. (2019). Teacher participation in school-based professional development in China: does it matter for teacher efficacy and teaching strategies? *Teachers and teaching, 25*(7), 821-836.
- Keillor, B. D. (2011). *International business in the 21st century* (Vol. 3). ABC-CLIO.
- Kelchtermans, G. (2006). Teacher collaboration and collegiality as workplace conditions. A review. *Zeitschrift für Pädagogik, 52*(2), 220-237.
- Keller, M. M., Neumann, K., & Fischer, H. E. (2017). The impact of physics teachers' pedagogical content knowledge and motivation on students' achievement and interest. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 54*(5), 586-614.
- Kelly, J., & Cherkowski, S. (2015). Collaboration, collegiality, and collective reflection: A case study of professional development for teachers. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(169).
- Kennedy, A. (2011). Collaborative continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers in Scotland: aspirations, opportunities and barriers. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 34*(1), 25-41.

- Kenny, N., McCoy, S., & Mihut, G. (2020). Special education reforms in Ireland: changing systems, changing schools. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1-20.
- Kent, A. M. (2004). Improving teacher quality through professional development [Article]. *Education*, 124, 427+.
<http://link.galegroup.com.idpproxy.reading.ac.uk/apps/doc/A117036570/AONE?u=rdg&sid=AONE&xid=d22f1fff>
- Khan, A., Khan, S., Zia-Ul-Islam, S., & Khan, M. (2017). Communication Skills of a Teacher and Its Role in the Development of the Students' Academic Success. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(1), 18-21.
- Khan, A. R., Wiseberg, J. A., Lateef, Z. A. A., & Khan, S. A. (2010). Prevalence and determinants of diabetic retinopathy in Al Hasa region of Saudi Arabia: primary health care centre based cross-sectional survey, 2007–2009. *Middle East African journal of ophthalmology*, 17(3), 257.
- Khaola, P. P., & Oni, F. A. (2020). The influence of school principals' leadership behaviour and act of fairness on innovative work behaviours amongst teachers. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18, 8.
- Khatib, A. M. (2011). The effect of the increase in oil revenue on government expenditures on education in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 3(2), 74.
- Khourey-Bowers, C., Dinko, R. L., & Hart, R. G. (2005). Influence of a shared leadership model in creating a school culture of inquiry and collegiality. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The Official Journal of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching*, 42(1), 3-24.
- Killingsworth, B., Xue, Y., & Liu, Y. (2016). Factors influencing knowledge sharing among global virtual teams. *Team Performance Management*.
- Kim, L. E., & Asbury, K. (2020). 'Like a rug had been pulled from under you': The impact of COVID-19 on teachers in England during the first six weeks of the UK lockdown. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 90(4), 1062-1083.
- Kim, S., & McLean, G. N. (2014). The impact of national culture on informal learning in the workplace. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 64(1), 39-59.
- Kim, S. Y., & Hamdan Alghamdi, A. K. (2019). Female secondary students' and their teachers' perceptions of science learning environments within the context of science education reform in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 17(8), 1475-1496.
- Kim, S. Y., & Hamdan Alghamdi, A. K. (2021). Saudi Arabian secondary school students' views of the nature of science and epistemological beliefs: gendered differences. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, 1-23.
- King, M. B., & Newmann, F. M. (2001). Building school capacity through professional development: Conceptual and empirical considerations. *International journal of educational management*, 15(2), 86-94.
- Kipnis, A. (2009). Neoliberalism. *The Routledge Encyclopedia of Social and Cultural Anthropology*, 503-504.
- Klar, H. W., & Brewer, C. A. (2014). Successful leadership in a rural, high-poverty school: The case of County Line Middle School. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
- Klar, H. W., Huggins, K. S., Andreoli, P. M., & Buskey, F. C. (2020). Developing rural school leaders through leadership coaching: A transformative approach. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 19(4), 539-559.
- Klar, H. W., Huggins, K. S., Hammonds, H. L., & Buskey, F. C. (2016). Fostering the capacity for distributed leadership: A post-heroic approach to leading school improvement. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 19(2), 111-137.
- Klein, M., Sosu, E. M., & Dare, S. (2022). School absenteeism and academic achievement: does the reason for absence matter? *AERA Open*, 8, 23328584211071115.
- Klenke, K. (2016). *Qualitative research in the study of leadership*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

- Koç, E. M. (2011). Development of mentor teacher role inventory. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 34*(2), 193-208.
- Kochan, F., Bredeson, P., & Riehl, C. (2002). Rethinking the professional development of school leaders. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 101*(1), 289-306.
- König, J., Lammerding, S., Nold, G., Rohde, A., Strauß, S., & Tachtsoglou, S. (2016). Teachers' professional knowledge for teaching English as a foreign language: Assessing the outcomes of teacher education. *Journal of teacher education, 67*(4), 320-337.
- Koonce, M., Pijanowski, J. C., Bengtson, E., & Lasater, K. (2019). Principal engagement in the professional development process. *NASSP Bulletin, 103*(3), 229-252.
- Kooymans, R., Jakubiec, B. A., & Preston, J. P. (2013). Common challenges faced by rural principals: A review of the literature. *The Rural Educator, 35*(1), 1.
- Köpsén, S., & Andersson, P. (2018). Boundary processes in connection with students' workplace learning: Potentials for VET teachers' continuing professional development. *Nordic Journal of Vocational Education and Training, 8*(1), 58-75.
- Korstjens, I., & Moser, A. (2018). Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: trustworthiness and publishing. *European Journal of General Practice, 24*(1), 120-124.
- Kotz, D. M., & McDonough, T. (2010). Global neoliberalism and the contemporary social structure of accumulation. *Contemporary capitalism and its crises: Social structure of accumulation theory for the 21st century, 93-120.*
- Koula, V. (2015). The interpersonal relations between teachers and between principals and teachers: factors in the all-round development of the studentpersonalities. *Humanities and Social Sciences Review, 4*(1), 481-495.
- Kraidy, M. (2017). *Hybridity, or the cultural logic of globalization*. Temple University Press.
- Krauss, S. E. (2005). Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The qualitative report, 10*(4), 758-770.
- Krook, M. L., & True, J. (2012). Rethinking the life cycles of international norms: The United Nations and the global promotion of gender equality. *European journal of international relations, 18*(1), 103-127.
- Krutka, D. G., & Carpenter, J. P. (2016). Why social media must have a place in schools. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 52*(1), 6-10.
- Kumar, R. (2019). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. Sage Publications Limited.
- Kurland, H., Peretz, H., & Hertz-Lazarowitz, R. (2010). Leadership style and organizational learning: the mediate effect of school vision. *Journal of Educational Administration, 48*(1), 7-30.
- Labonté, R., & Stuckler, D. (2016). The rise of neoliberalism: how bad economics imperils health and what to do about it. *J Epidemiol Community Health, 70*(3), 312-318.
- Lai, J., & Widmar, N. O. (2021). Revisiting the digital divide in the COVID-19 era. *Applied economic perspectives and policy, 43*(1), 458-464.
- Laine, S. W. (2000). *Professional Development in Education and the Private Sector: Following the Leaders*.
- Lander, N., Lewis, S., Nahavandi, D., Amsbury, K., & Barnett, L. M. (2022). Teacher perspectives of online continuing professional development in physical education. *Sport, Education and Society, 27*(4), 434-448.
- Lane, J. E., & Kinser, K. (2011). The cross-border education policy context: Educational hubs, trade liberalization, and national sovereignty. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2011*(155), 79-85.
- Lasater, K. (2016). School leader relationships: The need for explicit training on rapport, trust, and communication. *Journal of School Administration Research and Development, 1*(2), 19-26.
- Laureano, J., Konukman, F., Gümüşdag, H., Erdogan, S., Yu, J.-H., & Çekin, R. (2014). Effects of marginalization on school physical education programs: A literature review. *Physical Culture and Sport, 64*(1), 29.

- Law, C. C. (2016). Using bonus and awards for motivating project employees. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 24(7), 4-7.
- Lawrence, K. C., & Fakuade, O. V. (2021). Parental Involvement, Learning Participation and Online Learning Commitment of Adolescent Learners during the COVID-19 Lockdown. *Research in Learning Technology*, 29.
- Lawson, S., Sanders, K., & Smith, L. (2015). Commodification of the information profession: A critique of higher education under neoliberalism. *Journal of librarianship and scholarly communication*, 3(1).
- Lee, H. (2022). What drives the performance of Chinese urban and rural secondary schools: A machine learning approach using PISA 2018. *Cities*, 123, 103609.
- Lee, S. W., & Mao, X. (2020). Recruitment and selection of principals: A systematic review. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 1741143220969694.
- Leithwood, K. (2010). Characteristics of school districts that are exceptionally effective in closing the achievement gap. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 9(3), 245-291.
- Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2008). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership. *School leadership and management*, 28(1), 27-42.
- Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2019). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership revisited. *School Leadership & Management*, 1-18.
- Leithwood, K., & Riehl, C. (2003). *What we know about successful school leadership*. National College for School Leadership Nottingham.
- Leithwood, K., Seashore, K., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). Review of research: How leadership influences student learning.
- Leithwood, K., & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 48(3), 387-423.
- Levis, J. M. (2018). *Intelligibility, oral communication, and the teaching of pronunciation*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lewis, J., Asberry, J., DeJarnett, G., & King, G. (2016). The Best Practices for Shaping School Culture for Instructional Leaders. *Alabama Journal of Educational Leadership*, 3, 57-63.
- Li, J., Shi, Z., & Xue, E. (2020). The problems, needs and strategies of rural teacher development at deep poverty areas in China: Rural schooling stakeholder perspectives. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 99, 101496.
- Li, Q. (2007). Student and teacher views about technology: A tale of two cities? *Journal of research on Technology in Education*, 39(4), 377-397.
- Lichtman, M. (2013). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide: A user's guide* (3rd ed ed.). Sage.
- Lieberman, A., Miller, L., Wiedrick, J., & von Frank, V. (2011). Learning communities: The starting point for professional learning is in schools and classrooms. *The learning professional*, 32(4), 16.
- Lima Filho, D. L. (2009). Educational Policies and Globalization: elements for some criticism on the international organizations' proposals for Latin America and the Caribbean Islands Countries. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, 7(2).
- Lin, S.-Y., Isernhagen, J., Scherz, S., & Denner, P. R. (2014). Rural Educator Perceptions of Parent Involvement in Public Schools: Perspectives from Three States. *Rural Educator*, 36(1), n1.
- Lin, X. (2016). Barriers and challenges of female adult students enrolled in higher education: A literature review. *Higher Education Studies*, 6(2), 119-126.
- Lincoln, Y. S. (1995). Emerging criteria for quality in qualitative and interpretive research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 1(3), 275-289.
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). But is it rigorous? Trustworthiness and authenticity in naturalistic evaluation. *New directions for program evaluation*, 1986(30), 73-84.

- Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research, 4*, 97-128.
- Litonjua, M. (2008). The socio-political construction of globalization. *International Review of Modern Sociology, 253-278*.
- Little, A. W., & Green, A. (2009). Successful globalisation, education and sustainable development. *International Journal of Educational Development, 29(2)*, 166-174.
- Liu, S., & Hallinger, P. (2018). Teacher development in rural China: how ineffective school leadership fails to make a difference. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 21(6)*, 633-650.
- Liu, Y., Bellibaş, M. Ş., & Gümüş, S. (2021). The effect of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Mediating roles of supportive school culture and teacher collaboration. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 49(3)*, 430-453.
- Loeb, S., Kalogrides, D., & Horng, E. L. (2010). Principal preferences and the uneven distribution of principals across schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 32(2)*, 205-229.
- Loganathan, T., Chan, Z. X., Hassan, F., Kunpeuk, W., Suphanchaimat, R., Yi, H., & Majid, H. A. (2021). Education for non-citizen children in Malaysia during the COVID-19 pandemic: A qualitative study. *PloS one, 16(12)*, e0259546.
- Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of management development, 23(4)*, 321-338.
- Lomos, C., Hofman, R. H., & Bosker, R. J. (2011). Professional communities and student achievement—a meta-analysis. *School effectiveness and school improvement, 22(2)*, 121-148.
- Looney, J. (2011). Developing High-Quality Teachers: teacher evaluation for improvement. *European Journal of Education, 46(4)*, 440-455.
- Louis, K., Dretzke, B., & Wahlstrom, K. (2010). How does leadership affect student achievement? Results from a national US survey. *School effectiveness and school improvement, 21(3)*, 315-336.
- Louis, K., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K. L., Anderson, S. E., Michlin, M., & Mascall, B. (2010). *Learning from leadership: Investigating the links to improved student learning* (Vol. 42). Wallace Foundation New York, NY.
- Lumpkin, A., & Achen, R. M. (2018). Explicating the synergies of self-determination theory, ethical leadership, servant leadership, and emotional intelligence. *Journal of Leadership Studies, 12(1)*, 6-20.
- Luschei, T. F., & Zubaidah, I. (2012). Teacher training and transitions in rural Indonesian schools: A case study of Bogor, West Java. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 32(3)*, 333-350.
- Lussier, R., & Achua, C. (2015). *Leadership: Theory Application and Skill Development*, USA: Cengage Learning.
- Luyten, H., & Bazo, M. (2019). Transformational leadership, professional learning communities, teacher learning and learner centred teaching practices; Evidence on their interrelations in Mozambican primary education. *Studies in educational evaluation, 60*, 14-31.
- MacDonald, H. E. (2015). A systematic review of empathy and leadership.
- Mackenzie, N., & Knipe, S. (2006). Research dilemmas: Paradigms, methods and methodology. *Issues in educational research, 16(2)*, 193-205.
- Madondo, F. (2021). Perceptions on curriculum implementation: A Case for rural Zimbabwean early childhood development teachers as agents of change. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 35(3)*, 399-416.
- Madumere-Obike, C., Okeke, E., & Nwabueze, A. (2013). Quality assurance as a means of enhancing learning and performance of students in secondary schools in South-East, Nigeria. *EDULEARN13 Proceedings, Barcelona Spain*.
- Mak, A. H., Lumbers, M., & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of tourism research, 39(1)*, 171-196.

- Makopoulou, K., Neville, R. D., Ntoumanis, N., & Thomas, G. (2021). An investigation into the effects of short-course professional development on teachers' and teaching assistants' self-efficacy. *Professional Development in Education, 47*(5), 780-795.
- Malhoit, G. C. (2005). Providing Rural Students with a High Quality Education: The Rural Perspective on the Concept of Educational Adequacy. *Rural School and Community Trust*.
- Mansfield, E. D., & Mutz, D. C. (2009). Support for free trade: Self-interest, sociotropic politics, and out-group anxiety. *International Organization, 63*(3), 425-457.
- Mansour, N., Alshamrani, S. M., Aldahmash, A. H., & Alqudah, B. M. (2013). Saudi Arabian Science Teachers and Supervisors' Views of Professional Development Needs. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 51*, 29-44.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage publications.
- Martens, P., Dreher, A., & Gaston, N. (2010). Globalisation, the global village and the civil society. *Futures, 42*(6), 574-582.
- Martin, J., & Siehl, C. (1983). Organizational culture and counterculture: An uneasy symbiosis. *Organizational dynamics, 12*(2), 52-64.
- Martins, E. C., & Terblanche, F. (2003). Building organisational culture that stimulates creativity and innovation. *European journal of innovation management, 6*(1), 64-74.
- Mas-Coma, S., Jones, M. K., & Marty, A. M. (2020). COVID-19 and globalization. *One health, 9*.
- Maslowski, R. (2006). A review of inventories for diagnosing school culture. *Journal of Educational Administration, 44*(1), 6-35.
- Masumoto, M., & Brown-Welty, S. (2009). Case study of leadership practices and school-community interrelationships in high-performing, high-poverty, rural California high schools. *Journal of Research in Rural Education (Online), 24*(1), 1.
- Mathibe, I. (2007). The professional development of school principals. *South African journal of education, 27*(3), 523-540.
- McArdle, K., & Coutts, N. (2010). Taking teachers' continuous professional development (CPD) beyond reflection: Adding shared sense-making and collaborative engagement for professional renewal. *Studies in continuing education, 32*(3), 201-215.
- McBryer, J. S., Jackson, T., Pannell, S. S., Sorgen, C. H., De Blume, A. P. G., & Melton, T. D. (2018). Balance of instructional and managerial tasks as it relates to school leaders' self-efficacy. *Journal of School Leadership, 28*(5), 596-617.
- McKibbin, W. J. (2000). Globalization: What does it mean? Australian Coal Conference,
- McMillan, D. J., McConnell, B., & O'Sullivan, H. (2016). Continuing professional development—why bother? Perceptions and motivations of teachers in Ireland. *Professional Development in Education, 42*(1), 150-167.
- MCS. (2009). دليل المناطق النائية بالسعودية. Ministry of Civil Service: Ministry of Civil Service Retrieved from https://www.mcs.gov.sa/ArchivingLibrary/Directory/Directory001/132639_badlat.pdf
- Meemar, S. S. (2018). Educational Decentralization Efforts in a Centralized Country: Saudi Tatweer Principals' Perceptions of Their New Authorities. *International Journal of Education Policy and Leadership, 13*(2), n2.
- Mehra, A., Smith, B. R., Dixon, A. L., & Robertson, B. (2006). Distributed leadership in teams: The network of leadership perceptions and team performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*(3), 232-245.
- Meirink, J. A., Imants, J., Meijer, P. C., & Verloop, N. (2010). Teacher learning and collaboration in innovative teams. *Cambridge journal of education, 40*(2), 161-181.
- Meke, E. S. (2013). Teacher motivation and implementation of continuing professional development programmes in Malawi. *The Anthropologist, 15*(1), 107-115.
- Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Mertens, D. M. (2014). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. Sage publications.

- Mestry, R. (2017). Empowering principals to lead and manage public schools effectively in the 21st century. *South African journal of education*, 37(1), 1-11.
- Mestry, R., & Singh, P. (2007). Continuing professional development for principals: A South African perspective. *South African journal of education*, 27(3), 477-490.
- Meunier, S. (2000). The French Exception. *Foreign Aff.*, 79, 104.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2020). *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Method Sourcebook* (4 Ed ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Miller, P. (2015). Leading Remotely: Exploring the Experiences of Principals in Rural and Remote School Communities in Jamaica. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 11(1), 35-53.
- Miller, P. W. (2018). The nature of school leadership. In *The nature of school leadership* (pp. 165-185). Springer.
- Mingsiritham, K., Chanyawudhiwan, G., & Paiwithayasiritham, C. (2020). Factor analysis of smart social media technology to promote professional learning communities for teachers.
- Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological pedagogical content knowledge: A framework for teacher knowledge. *Teachers college record*, 108(6), 1017-1054.
- Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2008). Introducing technological pedagogical content knowledge. annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association,
- Misra, S. (2012). Implications of globalization on education. *Romanian Journal for Multidimensional Education, Romania*, 4, 69-82.
- Mitchell, B., & Alfuraih, A. (2018). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Achieving the aspirations of the National Transformation Program 2020 and Saudi vision 2030 through education. *Journal of Education and Development*, 2(3), 36.
- Mitchell, C. (2001). Building capacity for a learning community. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(19).
- Mitchell, C., & Sackney, L. (2011). *Profound improvement: Building capacity for a learning community*. Routledge.
- Mitchell, R. (2013). What is professional development, how does it occur in individuals, and how may it be used by educational leaders and managers for the purpose of school improvement? *Professional Development in Education*, 39(3), 387-400.
- Mizell, H. (2010). *Why Professional Development Matters*. ERIC.
- Mkhize, T. R., & Hungwe, J. P. (2022). All Hands on Deck! School-Community Partnerships as a Nexus for Resource Mobilisation in South African Rural Schools. *Education Research International*, 2022.
- MOC. (2019). *About the Ministry*. The Ministry of Culture. <https://www.moc.gov.sa/en/About>
- MoE. (2008). دليل ضوابط تكليف شاغلين الوظائف التعليمية. The Ministry of Education. <https://edu.moe.gov.sa/Kharj/DocumentCentre/Pages/default.aspx?DocId=753145c3-fc95-4538-b813-80fc3b6d97fc>
- MoE. (2015). *Statistical Information of General Education* <https://www.moe.gov.sa/ar/Pages/StatisticalInformation.aspx>
- MoE. (2016). *Decree*. Saudi Arabia: The Ministry of Education Retrieved from <https://edu.moe.gov.sa/Methnb/DocumentCentre/Docs/%D8%A7%D9%84%D9%84%D9%88%D8%A7%D9%84%D8%A3%D9%86%D8%B8%D9%85%D8%A9/%D8%B5%D9%84%D8%A7%D8%AD%D9%8A%D8%A7%D8%AA%20%D9%82%D8%A7%D8%AF%D8%A9%20%D8%A7%D9%84%D9%85%D8%AF%D8%A7%D8%B1%D8%B3.pdf>
- MoE. (2017a). *E-Services*. <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/e-services/Pages/default.aspx>
- MoE. (2017b). *Education*. <https://www.moe.gov.sa/ar/HighEducation/thingstoknow/Pages/Education.aspx>
- MoE. (2018a). *The establishment of the Ministry*. <https://www.moe.gov.sa/ar/about/Pages/MinistryDevelopment.aspx>
- MoE. (2018b). *Objectives*. <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/TheMinistry/Education/Pages/Objectives.aspx>

- MoE. (2019). *Ministry Organizational Structure*.
<https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/TheMinistry/AboutMinistry/Pages/MinistryOStructure.aspx>
- MoE. (2020a). إعانة القرى النائية.
- MOE. (2020b). بدل النائي. The Ministry of Education: The Ministry of Education
- MoE. (2021). الأدلة الإرشادية لنظام مسارات التعليم الثانوي.
<https://moe.gov.sa/ar/education/generaleducation/StudyPlans/Documents/%d8%af%d9%84%d9%8a%d9%84%20%d9%85%d9%86%d8%b3%d9%82%20%d8%a7%d9%84%d9%85%d8%b3%d8%a7%d8%b1%d8%a7%d8%aa%2030-11-2021.pdf>
- MoEeBook. (2019). *Digital Content Portal for Curricula*. <http://ebook.sa/default.aspx>
- MoF. (2019). *Budget Statement: Fiscal Year 2019*. T. M. o. Finance.
<https://www.mof.gov.sa/en/financialreport/budget2019/Documents/Budget%20Statement%202019.pdf>
- Mohapi, S. J., & Chombo, S. (2021). Governance collaboration in schools: the perceptions of principals, parents and educators in rural South Africa. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 7(1), 1994723.
- Moletsane, R., Juan, A., Prinsloo, C., & Reddy, V. (2015). Managing teacher leave and absence in South African rural schools: Implications for supporting schools in contexts of multiple-deprivation. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(3), 386-399.
- Mombourquette, C. (2017). The Role of Vision in Effective School Leadership. *International Studies in Educational Administration (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration & Management (CCEAM))*, 45(1).
- Moorosi, P. (2021). Representations of School Leadership and Management in Africa: A Postcolonial Reading. *Research in Educational Administration and Leadership*, 6(3), 692-722.
- Moorosi, P., & Bush, T. (2011). School leadership development in Commonwealth countries: Learning across the boundaries. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, 39(3), 59-75.
- Moriba, S., & Edwards, M. C. (2009). Tribalism and its consequences: A cancer infecting the corpus of educational leadership in many West African countries. In *Educational leadership: Global contexts and international comparisons*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Morrison, M. (2012). Understanding methodology. *Research methods in educational leadership and management*, 14-28.
- Morrow, S. L. (2005). Quality and trustworthiness in qualitative research in counseling psychology. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 52(2), 250.
- Morse, J. M. (2015). Critical analysis of strategies for determining rigor in qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative health research*, 25(9), 1212-1222.
- Mueller, J. T., McConnell, K., Burow, P. B., Pofahl, K., Merdjanoff, A. A., & Farrell, J. (2021). Impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on rural America. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 118(1), 2019378118.
- Mukuna, K. R., & Aloka, P. J. (2020). Exploring educators' challenges of online learning in COVID-19 at a rural school, South Africa. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 19(10), 134-149.
- Mullooly, J., & Palmer, B. (2016). Principal selection and school district hiring cultures: fair or foul?
- Murphy, J., & Torre, D. (2015). Vision: essential scaffolding. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(2), 177-197.
- Nadelson, L. S., Callahan, J., Pyke, P., Hay, A., Dance, M., & Pfiester, J. (2013). Teacher STEM perception and preparation: Inquiry-based STEM professional development for elementary teachers. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 106(2), 157-168.
- Nahedh, M. (1989). *The sedentarization of a Bedouin community in Saudi Arabia* University of Leeds].
- Nasreen, A., & Odhiambo, G. (2018). The Continuous Professional Development of School Principals: Current Practices in Pakistan. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 40(1), 245-266.

- Nasser, R. (2017). Qatar's educational reform past and future: Challenges in teacher development. *Open Review of Educational Research, 4*(1), 1-19.
- Nawab, A., & Bissaker, K. (2021). Contextual factors influencing the effectiveness of professional development for teachers in rural Pakistan. *Teacher Development, 25*(5), 706-727.
- Neeleman, A. (2019). The scope of school autonomy in practice: An empirically based classification of school interventions. *Journal of educational change, 20*(1), 31-55.
- Nerad, M. (2010). Globalization and the internationalization of graduate education: A macro and micro view. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 40*(1), 1-12.
- Newby, P. (2014). *Research methods for education*. Routledge.
- Newcomer, K. E., Hatry, H. P., & Wholey, J. S. (2015). *Handbook of practical program evaluation*. Wiley Online Library.
- Ng, F. S. D., Nguyen, T. D., Wong, K. S. B., & Choy, K. W. W. (2015). Instructional leadership practices in Singapore. *School Leadership & Management, 35*(4), 388-407.
- Ng, S.-w., & Chan, T.-m. (2014). Continuing professional development for middle leaders in primary schools in Hong Kong. *Journal of Educational Administration, 52*(6), 869-886.
- Ngcobo, T., & Tikly, L. P. (2010). Key dimensions of effective leadership for change: A focus on township and rural schools in South Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 38*(2), 202-228.
- NIEPD. (2022). دليل احتساب نقاط التطوير المهني للترقية في لائحة الوظائف التعليمية. <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1rSXJq2LCVJNVj3iAsRafr0SBKD8ePFZ8/view>
- Niess, M. L. (2005). Preparing teachers to teach science and mathematics with technology: Developing a technology pedagogical content knowledge. *Teaching and teacher education, 21*(5), 509-523.
- Ningrum, T. A. (2020). Administrative Staff Work Discipline in Junior High Schools. 2nd Yogyakarta International Conference on Educational Management/Administration and Pedagogy (YICEMAP 2019),
- Noble, H., & Smith, J. (2015). Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-based nursing, 18*(2), 34-35.
- Nooruddin, S., & Bhamani, S. (2019). Engagement of School Leadership in Teachers' Continuous Professional Development: A Case Study. *Journal of Education and Educational Development, 6*(1), 95-110.
- Notman, R., & Henry, D. A. (2011). Building and sustaining successful school leadership in New Zealand. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 10*(4), 375-394.
- Nugroho, M. A. (2018). The effects of collaborative cultures and knowledge sharing on organizational learning. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*.
- Nurunnabi, M. (2017). Transformation from an oil-based economy to a knowledge-based economy in Saudi Arabia: the direction of Saudi vision 2030. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy, 8*(2), 536-564.
- O. Nyumba, T., Wilson, K., Derrick, C. J., & Mukherjee, N. (2018). The use of focus group discussion methodology: Insights from two decades of application in conservation. *Methods in Ecology and evolution, 9*(1), 20-32.
- Odumosu, O., & Fisayi, A. (2018). Teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge on students' achievement in algebra. *International Journal of Education and Research, 6*(3), 83-94.
- OECD. (2012). *Development: Aid to developing countries falls because of global recession*. <http://www.oecd.org/newsroom/developmentaidtodevelopingcountriesfallsbecauseofglobalrecession.htm>
- Ohlson, M., Swanson, A., Adams-Manning, A., & Byrd, A. (2016). A Culture of Success--Examining School Culture and Student Outcomes via a Performance Framework. *Journal of Education and Learning, 5*(1), 114-127.
- Oke, N. (2009). Globalizing time and space: temporal and spatial considerations in discourses of globalization. *International Political Sociology, 3*(3), 310-326.

- Olivier, D. F., & Huffman, J. B. (2016). Professional learning community process in the United States: Conceptualization of the process and district support for schools. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 36*(2), 301-317.
- Olivier, J., Thoenig, M., & Verdier, T. (2008). Globalization and the dynamics of cultural identity. *Journal of International Economics, 76*(2), 356-370.
- Olszen*, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy, 20*(3), 313-345.
- OPEC. (2017). *Saudi Arabia facts and figures*.
https://www.opec.org/opec_web/en/about_us/169.htm
- OPEC. (2018). *Member Countries*. https://www.opec.org/opec_web/en/about_us/25.htm
- Opfer, V. D., Pedder, D. G., & Lavicza, Z. (2011). The role of teachers' orientation to learning in professional development and change: A national study of teachers in England. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(2), 443-453.
- Orr, M. T., & Orphanos, S. (2011). How graduate-level preparation influences the effectiveness of school leaders: A comparison of the outcomes of exemplary and conventional leadership preparation programs for principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 47*(1), 18-70.
- Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., Glazewski, K. D., Newby, T. J., & Ertmer, P. A. (2010). Teacher value beliefs associated with using technology: Addressing professional and student needs. *Computers & Education, 55*(3), 1321-1335.
- Ovenden-Hope, T., & Passy, R. (2019). Educational Isolation: A challenge for schools in England.
- Owen, S. (2005). The power of collegiality in school-based professional development. *Australian journal of teacher education, 30*(1), 1-14.
- Owen, S. (2014). Teacher professional learning communities: going beyond contrived collegiality toward challenging debate and collegial learning and professional growth. *Australian journal of adult learning, 54*(2), 54-77.
- Paasi, A. (2005). Globalisation, academic capitalism, and the uneven geographies of international journal publishing spaces. *Environment and Planning A, 37*(5), 769-789.
- Padwad, A., & Dixit, K. (2011). *Continuing professional development: An annotated bibliography*. New Delhi: British Council, India.
<https://www.britishcouncil.in/sites/default/files/cpdbiblio.pdf>
- Park, J.-H., Lee, I. H., & Cooc, N. (2019). The role of school-level mechanisms: How principal support, professional learning communities, collective responsibility, and group-level teacher expectations affect student achievement. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 55*(5), 742-780.
- Park, S., & Kim, E.-J. (2018). Fostering organizational learning through leadership and knowledge sharing. *Journal of knowledge management*.
- Patrick, F., Elliot, D., Hulme, M., & McPhee, A. (2010). The importance of collegiality and reciprocal learning in the professional development of beginning teachers. *Journal of education for teaching, 36*(3), 277-289.
- Pauleen, D. (2007). *Cross-cultural perspectives on knowledge management*. Libraries Unlimited.
- Pendola, A., & Fuller, E. J. (2022). Homeward Bound? Rural Principal Hiring, Transfer, and Turnover Patterns in Texas: Homeward bound? Rural Principal Hiring et al. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 58*(1), 43-75.
- Peters, A. (2010). Elements of successful mentoring of a female school leader. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 9*(1), 108-129.
- Peterson, K. D., & Deal, T. E. (1998). How leaders influence the culture of schools. *Educational leadership, 56*, 28-31.
- Petridou, A., Nicolaidou, M., & Karagiorgi, Y. (2017). Exploring the impact of professional development and professional practice on school leaders' self-efficacy: a quasi-experimental study. *School effectiveness and school improvement, 28*(1), 56-73.

- Phasha, T., Bipath, K., & Beckmann, J. (2016). Teachers' experiences regarding continuous professional development and the curriculum assessment policy statement. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 14(1-2), 69-78.
- Pisapia, J., Pang, N. S.-K., Hee, T. F., Lin, Y., & Morris, J. D. (2009). A Comparison of the Use of Strategic Thinking Skills of Aspiring School Leaders in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Shanghai, and the United States: An Exploratory Study. *International Education Studies*, 2(2), 46-58.
- Podgursky, M. (2005). Teacher licensing in US public schools: The case for simplicity and flexibility. *Peabody journal of education*, 80(3), 15-43.
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2010). Generalization in quantitative and qualitative research: Myths and strategies. *International journal of nursing studies*, 47(11), 1451-1458.
- Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 52(2), 126.
- Preston, J. P., & Barnes, K. E. (2017). Successful leadership in rural schools: Cultivating collaboration. *Rural Educator*, 38(1), 6-15.
- Prestridge, S. (2019). Categorising teachers' use of social media for their professional learning: A self-generating professional learning paradigm. *Computers & education*, 129, 143-158.
- Prew, M. (2009). Community involvement in school development: Modifying school improvement concepts to the needs of South African township schools. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 37(6), 824-846.
- Pring, R. (2015). *Philosophy of educational research*. Bloomsbury Academic.
- Printy, S. (2010). Principals' influence on instructional quality: Insights from US schools. *School leadership and management*, 30(2), 111-126.
- Punch, K. F. (2009). *Introduction to research methods in education*. Sage Publications.
- Punch, K. F., & Oancea, A. (2014). *Introduction to research methods in education*. Sage.
- Qadach, M., Schechter, C., & Da'as, R. a. (2020). Instructional leadership and teachers' intent to leave: The mediating role of collective teacher efficacy and shared vision. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 48(4), 617-634.
- Quansah, R. E., Sakyi-Hagan, N. A., & Essiam, C. (2019). Challenges Affecting the Teaching and Learning of Integrated Science in Rural Junior High Schools in Ghana. *Science Education International*, 30(4), 329-333. <https://doi.org/10.33828/sei.v30.i4.10>
- Rahman, M. A., Santosa, A. B., & Sihotang, H. (2020). The The Influence of Principal's Leadership, Teacher Performance And Internal Quality Assurance System in Improving The Quality of Education in Vocational High School. *Kelola: Jurnal Manajemen Pendidikan*, 7(2), 162-175.
- Raikhan, S., Moldakhmet, M., Ryskeldy, M., & Alua, M. (2014). The interaction of globalization and culture in the modern world. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 122, 8-12.
- Ramady, M. (2013). Gulf unemployment and government policies: Prospects for the Saudi labour quota or Nitaqat system. *International Journal of Economics and Business Research*, 5(4), 476-498.
- Ramirez, F. O., Meyer, J. W., & Lerch, J. (2016). World society and the globalization of educational policy. *The handbook of global education policy, 2016*, 43-63.
- Ramrathan, L., Le Grange, L., & Shawa, L. B. (2017). Ethics in educational research. *Education studies for initial teacher education*, 432-443.
- Rasheed, M. I., Aslam, H. D., & Sarwar, S. (2010). Motivational issues for teachers in higher education: A critical case of IUB. *Journal of management research*, 2(2), 1.
- Ravhuhali, F., Kutame, A., & Mutshaeni, H. (2015). Teachers' perceptions of the impact of continuing professional development on promoting quality teaching and learning. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 10(1), 1-7.
- Razek, N., & Coyner, S. C. (2013). Cultural impacts on Saudi students at a mid-western American university. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 17(1).
- Rea, J. (2016). Critiquing neoliberalism in Australian universities. *Australian Universities' Review*, The, 58(2), 9.

- Rehmat, A. P., & Bailey, J. M. (2014). Technology integration in a science classroom: Preservice teachers' perceptions. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 23(6), 744-755.
- Reimers, F. M. (2021). *Implementing deeper learning and 21st century education reforms: building an education renaissance after a global pandemic*. Springer Nature.
- Renganathan, S. (2021). English language education in rural schools in Malaysia: A systematic review of research. *Educational Review*, 1-18.
- Renihan, P., & Noonan, B. (2012). Principals as assessment leaders in rural schools. *The Rural Educator*, 33(3).
- Renzulli, J. S., Gentry, M., & Reis, S. M. (2021). *Enrichment clusters: A practical plan for real-world, student-driven learning*. Routledge.
- Rice, J. (2007). Ecological unequal exchange: international trade and uneven utilization of environmental space in the world system. *Social Forces*, 85(3), 1369-1392.
- Richter, D., Kunter, M., Klusmann, U., Lüdtke, O., & Baumert, J. (2011). Professional development across the teaching career: Teachers' uptake of formal and informal learning opportunities. *Teaching and teacher education*, 27(1), 116-126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.07.008>
- Right to Education. (2018). *CRC, CESCR and CEDAW statements on private education September 2014 – November 2017*. <https://www.right-to-education.org/resource/crc-cescr-and-cedaw-statements-private-education-september-2014-november-2017>
- Rikala, J. (2014). *Evaluating QR Code Case Studies Using a Mobile Learning Framework*. ERIC.
- Rimal, K. (2018). Teacher: An important but less recognized actor of school curriculum development in Nepal. *Dhaulagiri Journal of Sociology and Anthropology*, 12, 66-71.
- Rismark, M., & Sølvsberg, A. M. (2011). Knowledge sharing in schools: A key to developing professional learning communities. *World Journal of Education*, 1(2), 150-160.
- Ritzer, G. (2016). *The Blackwell companion to globalization*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Rizvi, F. (2007). Postcolonialism and globalization in education. *Cultural Studies? Critical Methodologies*, 7(3), 256-263.
- Robertson, R. (2001). Globalization Theory 2000+: Ma] or Problematlcs. *Handbook of social theory*, 458.
- Robertson, R., & Inglis, D. (2006). In the tracks of world consciousness. *Globalization and Global History*, 30.
- Robinson, V. (2009). Fit for purpose: An educationally relevant account of distributed leadership. In *Distributed leadership* (pp. 219-240). Springer.
- Robinson, V. M. (2008). Forging the links between distributed leadership and educational outcomes. *Journal of Educational Administration*.
- Robinson, W. I. (2007). Theories of globalization. *The Blackwell companion to globalization*, 125-143.
- Robson, C., & McCartan, K. (2016). *Real world research*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Rosenberg, J. M., & Koehler, M. J. (2015). Context and technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK): A systematic review. *Journal of research on Technology in Education*, 47(3), 186-210.
- Rouf, A., & Mohamed, A. R. (2017). Secondary EL teachers' CPD: Present practices and perceived needs. *Journal of NELTA*, 22(1-2), 1-12.
- Roy, P., & Hord, S. M. (2006). It's everywhere, but what is it? Professional learning communities. *Journal of School Leadership*, 16(5), 490-504.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2012). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Sage Publications.
- Rushton, I., & Suter, M. (2012). *Reflective Practice For Teaching In Lifelong Learning: n/a*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Rushton, N., & Wilson, F. (2019). Teachers' and employers' views on the transition from GCSE mathematics to A-level mathematics or employment. In.
- Sabah, S. A., Fayez, M., Alshamrani, S. M., & Mansour, N. (2014). Continuing professional development (CPD) provision for science and mathematics teachers in Saudi Arabia: Perceptions and experiences of CPD providers. *Journal of Baltic Science Education*, 13(1), 91.

- Sachs, J. (2007). Learning to improve or improving learning: the dilemma of teacher continuing professional development. Proceedings of the 20th Annual World ICSEI Congress, SACM. (2019). *Culture, Traditions and Art*. SACMA. <https://sacm.org.au/culture-traditions-and-art/>
- Saeli, M., Perrenet, J., Jochems, W. M., & Zwaneveld, B. (2011). Teaching programming in Secondary school: A pedagogical content knowledge perspective. *Informatics in education, 10*(1), 73-88.
- SagSchools. (2019). *About Schools*. <http://www.sagschools.com/content/brief.aspx>
- Sahab, A. N. (2021). Religious Perspectives and Cultural Change in Public Life (In the New Normal Covid 19 Era). ICIS 2020: Proceedings of the 3rd International Colloquium on Interdisciplinary Islamic Studies, ICIS 2020, 20-21 October 2020, Jakarta, Indonesia,
- Sahlberg, P. (2016). The global educational reform movement and its impact on schooling. *The handbook of global education policy, 12*(4), 128-144.
- Salazar, P. S. (2007). The Professional Development Needs of Rural High School Principals. *The Rural Educator, 28*(3).
- Santos, L. F. (2017). The role of critical thinking in science education. *Online Submission, 8*(20), 160-173.
- Sarantakos, S. (2012). *Social Research* (revised ed.). Macmillan International Higher Education. <https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=ijUdBQAAQBAJ>
- Sargent, T., & Hannum, E. (2005). Keeping teachers happy: Job satisfaction among primary school teachers in rural northwest China. *Comparative education review, 49*(2), 173-204.
- Sargent, T. C., & Hannum, E. (2009). Doing more with less: Teacher professional learning communities in resource-constrained primary schools in rural China. *Journal of teacher education, 60*(3), 258-276.
- Saud, A. A., & Terry, L. R. (2021). Women, start your engines: US and UK media portrayal of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia women driving ban. *Journal of Media and Communication Studies, 13*(1), 1-11.
- Saudi National Portal. (2017). *Economy*. <https://www.saudi.gov.sa/wps/portal/snp/pages/aboutksa/4economy-content?current=true>
- Saudi Vision 2030. (2018). *Saudi Vision 2030*. <http://vision2030.gov.sa/en>
- SaudiAramco. (2014). *Company dedicated to education, IECHE*. <https://www.saudiaramco.com/en/news-media/news/2014/company-dedicated-to-education-ieche>
- Schaap, H., & de Bruijn, E. (2018). Elements affecting the development of professional learning communities in schools. *Learning environments research, 21*(1), 109-134.
- Schafft, K. A. (2016). Rural education as rural development: Understanding the rural school–community well-being linkage in a 21st-century policy context. *Peabody journal of education, 91*(2), 137-154.
- Schafft, K. A., & Jackson, A. Y. (2010). *Rural education for the twenty-first century: Identity, place, and community in a globalizing world*. Penn State Press.
- Scharff, C. (2014). Gender and neoliberalism: Exploring the exclusions and contours of neoliberal subjectivities. *Theory, Culture and Society, 1*.
- Schein, E., & Schein, P. (2017). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. 5. painos. Hoboken. In: New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organizational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.
- Schleicher, A. (2011). Lessons from the world on effective teaching and learning environments. *Journal of teacher education, 62*(2), 202-221.
- Schoen, L. T., & Teddlie, C. (2008). A new model of school culture: A response to a call for conceptual clarity. *School effectiveness and school improvement, 19*(2), 129-153.
- Scholte, J. A. (2005). *Globalization: A critical introduction*. Macmillan International Higher Education.
- Schön, D. A. (2017). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. Routledge.

- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9), 9-16.
- SE. (1993). *Law of the Provinces*. Saudi Embassy in Washington, DC.
<https://www.saudiembassy.net/law-provinces>
- Seashore Louis, K., & Lee, M. (2016). Teachers' capacity for organizational learning: The effects of school culture and context. *School effectiveness and school improvement*, 27(4), 534-556.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (2015). *Strengthening the heartbeat: Leading and learning together in schools*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Shah, M. (2012). The importance and benefits of teacher collegiality in schools—A literature review. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 1242-1246.
- Shamah, D. (2011). Supporting a strong sense of purpose: Lessons from a rural community. *New Directions for Youth Development*, 2011(132), 45-58.
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for information*, 22(2), 63-75.
- Shields, R. (2013). *Globalization and international education*. A&C Black.
- Short, C., & Martin, B. N. (2005). Case study: Attitudes of rural high school students and teachers regarding inclusion. *The Rural Educator*, 27(1), 1-10.
- Shortland, S. (2010). Feedback within peer observation: Continuing professional development and unexpected consequences. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 47(3), 295-304.
- Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard educational review*, 57(1), 1-23.
- Shulman, L. S., & Shulman, J. H. (2009). How and what teachers learn: A shifting perspective. *Journal of Education*, 189(1-2), 1-8.
- Simmons, M. R. (2006). *Twilight in the desert: the coming Saudi oil shock and the world economy*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Simmons, N., & Hay, I. (2010). Early adolescents' friendship patterns in middle school: Social–emotional and academic implications. *The Educational and Developmental Psychologist*, 27(2), 59-69.
- Sindelar, P. T., Pua, D. J., Fisher, T., Peyton, D. J., Brownell, M. T., & Mason-Williams, L. (2018). The demand for special education teachers in rural schools revisited: An update on progress. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, 37(1), 12-20.
- Singh, P., & Manser, P. (2008). Relationship between the perceived emotional intelligence of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators in a collegial environment. *Africa Education Review*, 5(1), 109-130.
- Singh, S. (2017). *Quality Improvements in Secondary Education*. ANU books.
- Slade, M. L., Burnham, T. J., Catalana, S. M., & Waters, T. (2019). The Impact of Reflective Practice on Teacher Candidates' Learning. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 13(2), 15.
- Sleegers, P., den Brok, P., Verbiest, E., Moolenaar, N. M., & Daly, A. J. (2013). Toward conceptual clarity: A multidimensional, multilevel model of professional learning communities in Dutch elementary schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, 114(1), 118-137.
- Smit, R., Weitzel, H., Blank, R., Rietz, F., Tardent, J., & Robin, N. (2017). Interplay of secondary pre-service teacher content knowledge (CK), pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and attitudes regarding scientific inquiry teaching within teacher training. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, 35(4), 477-499.
- Smith, T. (2006). *Globalisation: A systematic Marxian account* (Vol. 10). Brill Academic Pub.
- Snodgrass Rangel, V. (2018). A review of the literature on principal turnover. *Review of Educational Research*, 88(1), 87-124.

- Soler, M., Morlà-Folch, T., García-Carrión, R., & Valls, R. (2019). Transforming rural education in Colombia through family participation: The case of school as a learning community. *JSSE- Journal of Social Science Education*, 18(4), 67-80.
- Solstad, K. J., & Karlberg-Granlund, G. (2020). Rural education in a globalized world. *Educational Research and Schooling in Rural Europe: An Engagement with Changing Patterns of Education, Space and Place*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing, 49-76.
- Somantri, C., & Iskandar, H. (2021). The Impact of CPD in Teaching, and the Role of Principal in Promoting CPD. 4th International Conference on Research of Educational Administration and Management (ICREAM 2020),
- Spangenberg, E. D., & De Freitas, G. (2019). Mathematics teachers' levels of technological pedagogical content knowledge and information and communication technology integration barriers. *Pythagoras*, 40(1), 1-13.
- Spanneut, G. (2010). Professional learning communities, principals, and collegial conversations. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 46(3), 100-103.
- Spencer, P., Harrop, S., Thomas, J., & Cain, T. (2018). The professional development needs of early career teachers, and the extent to which they are met: a survey of teachers in England. *Professional Development in Education*, 44(1), 33-46.
- Spicer, F. V. (2016). School culture, school climate, and the role of the principal.
- Spillane, J. P. (2012). *Distributed leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B. (2004). Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Journal of curriculum studies*, 36(1), 3-34.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Sage.
- Steger, M. B. (2017). *Globalization: A Very Short Introduction*. Oxford University Press.
<https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=xNyPDgAAQBAJ>
- Steger, M. B., & Roy, R. K. (2010). *Neoliberalism: A very short introduction* (Vol. 222). Oxford University Press.
- Steinberg, G. (2004). Ecology, Knowledge, and Trade in Central Arabia (Najd) during the Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Centuries. In *Counter-Narratives* (pp. 77-102). Springer.
- Stevenson, M., Hedberg, J. G., O'Sullivan, K.-A., & Howe, C. (2016). Leading learning: The role of school leaders in supporting continuous professional development. *Professional Development in Education*, 42(5), 818-835.
- Stewart, C., & Matthews, J. (2015). The lone ranger in rural education: The small rural school principal and professional development. *The Rural Educator*, 36(3).
- Stewart, J. (2006). Transformational leadership: An evolving concept examined through the works of Burns, Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood. *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy*(54).
- Steyn, G. (2011). Continuing professional development in South African schools: Staff perceptions and the role of principals. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 28(1), 43-53.
- Stohl, C. (2005). Globalization theory. *Engaging organizational communication theory and research: Multiple perspectives*, 223-262.
- Stoll, L., Bolam, R., McMahon, A., Wallace, M., & Thomas, S. (2006). Professional learning communities: A review of the literature. *Journal of educational change*, 7(4), 221-258.
- Stoll, L., & Louis, K. S. (2007). *Professional learning communities: Divergence, depth and dilemmas*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).
- Storey, A. (2004). The problem of distributed leadership in schools. *School Leadership & Management*, 24(3), 249-265. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1363243042000266918>
- Straubhaar, J., LaRose, R., & Davenport, L. (2015). *Media now: Understanding media, culture, and technology*. Cengage Learning.
- Strikwerda, C. (2000). From world-systems to globalization: theories of transnational change and the place of the United States. *American Studies*, 41(2/3), 333-348.

- Stromquist, N. P., & Monkman, K. (2014). *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures*. R&L Education.
- Strunk, K. O., Marsh, J. A., Bush-Mecenas, S. C., & Duque, M. R. (2016). The best laid plans: An examination of school plan quality and implementation in a school improvement initiative. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 52(2), 259-309.
- Sufean, H. (2014). School culture and instructional leadership of high-performing and low-performing schools: Patterns of variation and relationship. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 19(3), 138-144.
- Supovitz, J., Sirinides, P., & May, H. (2010). How principals and peers influence teaching and learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 46(1), 31-56.
- Surface, J. L., & Theobald, P. (2014). The rural school leadership dilemma. *Peabody journal of education*, 89(5), 570-579.
- Sutrisna, M. (2009). Research methodology in doctoral research: understanding the meaning of conducting qualitative research. Proceedings of the Association of Researchers in Construction Management (ARCOM) Doctoral Workshop held in Liverpool John Moores University. Conducted by ARCOM Liverpool, UK: ARCOM,
- Swann, M., McIntyre, D., Pell, T., Hargreaves, L., & Cunningham, M. (2010). Teachers' conceptions of teacher professionalism in England in 2003 and 2006. *British educational research journal*, 36(4), 549-571.
- Swider, B. W., Harris, T. B., & Gong, Q. (2021). First impression effects in organizational psychology. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
- Sywelem, M. M. G., & Witte, J. E. (2013). Continuing professional development: Perceptions of elementary school teachers in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Modern Education Review*, 3(12), 881-898.
- Tadesse, S., & Muluye, W. (2020). The impact of COVID-19 pandemic on education system in developing countries: a review. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(10), 159-170.
- Tago, A. (2015). *King Salman merges ministries to boost educational standards*. <http://www.arabnews.com/saudi-arabia/news/698246>
- Taibah, H., Arlikatti, S., & Andrew, S. (2018). Risk communication for religious crowds: preferences of Hajj pilgrims. *Disaster Prevention and Management*, 27(1), 102-114.
- Talebizadeh, S. M., Hosseingholizadeh, R., & Bellibaş, M. Ş. (2021). Analyzing the relationship between principals' learning-centered leadership and teacher professional learning: The mediation role of trust and knowledge sharing behavior. *Studies in educational evaluation*, 68, 100970.
- Tams, S., & Arthur, M. B. (2007). Studying careers across cultures: Distinguishing international, cross-cultural, and globalization perspectives. *Career Development International*, 12(1), 86-98.
- Tannehill, D., Demirhan, G., Čaplová, P., & Avsar, Z. (2021). Continuing professional development for physical education teachers in Europe. *European Physical Education Review*, 27(1), 150-167.
- Tanveer, M., Bhaumik, A., Hassan, S., & Haq, I. U. (2020). Covid-19 pandemic, outbreak educational sector and students online learning in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 23(3), 1-14.
- Taole, M. (2022). Challenges Encountered by Teaching Principals in Rural Multigrade Primary Schools: A South African Perspective. *International Journal of Whole Schooling*, 18(2), 1-27.
- Tashi, K. (2015). A quantitative analysis of distributed leadership in practice: Teachers' perception of their engagement in four dimensions of distributed leadership in Bhutanese schools. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 16(3), 353-366.
- Tawasul. (2019). *Tawasul Services*. <https://tawasul.moe.gov.sa/>
- Tayan, B. (2017). The Saudi Tatweer Education Reforms: Implications of Neoliberal Thought to Saudi Education Policy [International Education Studies]. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 10. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v10n5p61>

- Taylor, C., & Albasri, W. (2014). The impact of Saudi Arabia King Abdullah's scholarship program in the US. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(10), 109.
- Teague, G. M., & Anfara Jr, V. A. (2012). Professional learning communities create sustainable change through collaboration. *Middle School Journal*, 44(2), 58-64.
- Tenzer, H., Terjesen, S., & Harzing, A.-W. (2017). Language in international business: A review and agenda for future research. *Management International Review*, 57(6), 815-854.
- The Embassy of Saudi Arabia in USA. (2019). *Culture & Art*. <https://www.saudiembassy.net/culture-art>
- the Minister of Hajj and Umrah. (2018). *Organization Chart for Hajj and Umrah*. <http://www.hajj.gov.sa/english/about/Pages/scheme.aspx>
- The World Bank. (2018a). *Exports of goods and services*. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NE.EXP.GNFS.ZS>
- The World Bank. (2018b). *who we are*. <http://www.worldbank.org/en/who-we-are>
- Theobald, P. (1991). Community schools in the national context: The social and cultural impact of educational reform movements on American rural schools. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 7(3), 3-14.
- Thomas, G. (2011). A typology for the case study in social science following a review of definition, discourse, and structure. *Qualitative inquiry*, 17(6), 511-521.
- Thomas, G. (2015). *How to do your case study* (2 ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Thomas, L., Tuytens, M., Devos, G., Kelchtermans, G., & Vanderlinde, R. (2020). Transformational school leadership as a key factor for teachers' job attitudes during their first year in the profession. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 48(1), 106-132.
- Thompson, M. C. (2018). Saudi Arabia: Civil Society and Natural Resource Management. In *Public Brainpower* (pp. 291-309). Springer.
- Thoonen, E. E., Slegers, P. J., Oort, F. J., Peetsma, T. T., & Geijsel, F. P. (2011). How to improve teaching practices: The role of teacher motivation, organizational factors, and leadership practices. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 47(3), 496-536.
- Thorpe, R., Gold, J., & Lawler, J. (2011). Locating distributed leadership. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(3), 239-250.
- Tian, M., Risku, M., & Collin, K. (2016). A meta-analysis of distributed leadership from 2002 to 2013: Theory development, empirical evidence and future research focus. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 44(1), 146-164.
- Tingle, E., Corrales, A., & Peters, M. L. (2019). Leadership development programs: Investing in school principals. *Educational studies*, 45(1), 1-16.
- Tj, H. W. (2021). The Influence Of Organization Culture And Commitment Mediated By Motivation To Career Development Of School Administrative Staff In The South Tangerang Regional. *International Journal of Science, Technology & Management*, 2(3), 668-672.
- Tondeur, J., Pareja Roblin, N., van Braak, J., Voogt, J., & Prestridge, S. (2017). Preparing beginning teachers for technology integration in education: Ready for take-off? *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 26(2), 157-177.
- Tongco, M. D. C. (2007). Purposive sampling as a tool for informant selection. *Ethnobotany Research and applications*, 5, 147-158.
- Toole, J. C., & Louis, K. S. (2002). The role of professional learning communities in international education. In *Second international handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 245-279). Springer.
- Tran, H., & Dou, J. (2019). An Exploratory Examination of What Types of Administrative Support Matter for Rural Teacher Talent Management: The Rural Educator Perspective. *Education Leadership Review*, 20(1), 133-149.
- Tsai, P. J. (2009). Amy B. M. Tsui and James W. Tollefson (eds): Language Policy, Culture, and Identity in Asian Contexts [journal article]. *Language Policy*, 8(3), 311-313. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-009-9132-0>

- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Gareis, C. R. (2017). Principals, trust, and cultivating vibrant schools. In *How school leaders contribute to student success* (pp. 153-174). Springer.
- Tsotetsi, C. T., & Mahlomaholo, S. (2015). Exploring strategies to strengthen continuing professional development of teachers in rural South Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa/Revue de l'enseignement supèrieur en Afrique*, 13(1-2), 45-73.
- Tuan, L. T. (2010). Organisational culture, leadership and performance measurement integratedness. *International Journal of Management and Enterprise Development*, 9(3), 251-275.
- Tulu, A. (2019). The Practice and Challenges of School-Based Teachers' Continuous Professional Development: A Case of Government Secondary Schools of Hawassa City in Ethiopia. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 14(1), 33-43.
- Tyler, D. E. (2016). Communication Behaviors of Principals at High Performing Title I Elementary Schools in Virginia: School Leaders, Communication, and Transformative Efforts. *Creighton Journal of Interdisciplinary Leadership*, 2(2), 2-16.
- Tytler, R. (2009). School innovation in science: Improving science teaching and learning in Australian schools. *International Journal of Science Education*, 31(13), 1777-1809.
- Ucan, S. (2016). The role of continuous professional development of teachers in educational change: A literature review. *Harran Maarif Dergisi*, 1(1), 36-43.
- UN. (2016). *The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2016*. United Nations. <https://ggim.un.org/documents/The%20Sustainable%20Development%20Goals%20Report%202016.pdf>
- UN. (2019a). *Advancing women's rights in Saudi Arabia, in line with the Sustainable Development Goals*. The United Nations. <https://bit.ly/3h5K6WC>
- UN. (2019b). *The United Nations in Saudi Arabia*. The United Nations. <https://bit.ly/3HknLzg>
- UNESCO. (2018). *World Arabic Language Day*. <https://en.unesco.org/commemorations/worldarabiclanguage>
- UNITED NATIONS. (2018). *Overview*. <http://www.un.org/en/sections/about-un/overview/>
- UNP. (2018). *Saudi Traffic Dept., Starts Granting National Driving License, for Women Holding Int'l Ones*. the Unified National Platform. https://www.my.gov.sa/wps/portal/snp/content/news/newsDetails/CONT-news-507062018!/ut/p/z1/jzFbT4NAEIV_DY-wM9xKfEOoFyKspIC4LwYMBRLKkgXd9N-7qcakXtrO20y-czJzhjBSEjZW731bLT0fq0H1z8x9iR49G31A6kG6hjQI8cEyMwDqkqcDkOAa7tBGCrZ5A2kY-omTYYFSFS9gl-m-AWs61AulV9TcFAjX6eGf8uGcflMJEp2DVAqmilO4JWYqlk7vxy0nZUCTTB8bOesOrMA1AT21Djs2o7eRrcwwN52oAAjSL-BUYj8cfkdyAE7crA5qB15_s8fa8tTm4tm24hGGG9CjbtlmeYrDTSQUhot5-3QGK98p8Ffko7PCymPSTLt8ryUewv6e53Ve_kBvSoYDg!/dz/d5/L0IHSkovd0RNQUprQUVnQS EhlzROVkuVzW4!/
- UNP. (2022). *Women Empowerment*. Unified National Platform. <https://www.my.gov.sa/wps/portal/snp/careaboutyou/womenempowering>
- UNWTO. (2018). *World Tourism Organization, Statistics*. <http://statistics.unwto.org/>
- ur Rahman, M. M., & Alhaisoni, E. (2013). Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: prospects and challenges. *Academic Research International*, 4(1), 112.
- Vail Lowery, N. (2002). Construction of teacher knowledge in context: Preparing elementary teachers to teach mathematics and science. *School Science and Mathematics*, 102(2), 68-83.
- Valdmann, A., Rannikmae, M., & Holbrook, J. (2016). Determining the effectiveness of a CPD programme for enhancing science teachers' self-efficacy towards motivational context-based teaching. *Journal of Baltic Science Education*, 15(3), 284.
- Valli, L., Stefanski, A., & Jacobson, R. (2018). School-community partnership models: implications for leadership. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, 21(1), 31-49.
- Van Der Bly, M. C. (2005). Globalization: A triumph of ambiguity. *Current Sociology*, 53(6), 875-893.

- Van Driel, J. H., & Berry, A. (2012). Teacher professional development focusing on pedagogical content knowledge. *Educational Researcher*, 41(1), 26-28.
- Van Gasse, R., Vanhoof, J., & Van Petegem, P. (2016). The impact of school culture on schools' pupil well-being policy-making capacities. *Educational studies*, 42(4), 340-356.
- Van Lancker, W., & Parolin, Z. (2020). COVID-19, school closures, and child poverty: a social crisis in the making. *The Lancet Public Health*, 5(5), e243-e244.
- Van Teijlingen, E. R., & Hundley, V. (2001). The importance of pilot studies.
- Vanblaere, B., & Devos, G. (2016). Relating school leadership to perceived professional learning community characteristics: A multilevel analysis. *Teaching and teacher education*, 57, 26-38.
- Vargo, D., Zhu, L., Benwell, B., & Yan, Z. (2021). Digital technology use during COVID-19 pandemic: A rapid review. *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, 3(1), 13-24.
- Verger, A., Altinyelken, H., & De Koning, M. (2013). Global managerial education reforms and teachers. *Education International Research Institute IS Academic Program*.
- Versland, T. M. (2013). Principal efficacy: Implications for rural'grow your own'leadership programs. *The Rural Educator*, 35(1).
- Vescio, V., Ross, D., & Adams, A. (2008). A review of research on the impact of professional learning communities on teaching practice and student learning. *Teaching and teacher education*, 24(1), 80-91.
- Vision2030. (2022). *Vision 2030 Overview*. Saudi Vision 2030. <https://www.vision2030.gov.sa/v2030/overview/>
- Voogt, J., Fisser, P., Pareja Roblin, N., Tondeur, J., & van Braak, J. (2013). Technological pedagogical content knowledge—a review of the literature. *Journal of computer assisted learning*, 29(2), 109-121.
- Wahlstrom, K. L., & Louis, K. S. (2008). How teachers experience principal leadership: The roles of professional community, trust, efficacy, and shared responsibility. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(4), 458-495.
- Waldron, N. L., & McLeskey, J. (2010). Establishing a collaborative school culture through comprehensive school reform. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, 20(1), 58-74.
- Walker, A., & Haiyan, Q. (2019). Leadership and Culture. In T. Bush, L. Bell, & D. Middlewood (Eds.), *Principles of Educational Leadership & Management*. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Wan, S. W.-Y., Law, E. H.-F., & Chan, K. K. (2018). Teachers' perception of distributed leadership in Hong Kong primary schools. *School Leadership & Management*, 38(1), 102-141.
- Wang, D., Wang, J., Li, H., & Li, L. (2017). School context and instructional capacity: A comparative study of professional learning communities in rural and urban schools in China. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 52, 1-9.
- Wang, J., Tigelaar, D. E., & Admiraal, W. (2019). Connecting rural schools to quality education: Rural teachers' use of digital educational resources. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 101, 68-76.
- Waring, M. (2012). Finding your theoretical position. In J. Arthur, M. Waring, R. Coe, & L. Hedges (Eds.), *Research Methods & Methodologies in Education* (pp. 15-20). SAGE.
- Wasserberg, M. (1999). Creating the vision and making it happen'. In H. Tomlinson, Gunter, H. M., & Smith, P. (Eds.) (Ed.), *Living Headship: Voices, Values and Vision*. SAGE.
- Watson, C. (2014). Effective professional learning communities? The possibilities for teachers as agents of change in schools. *British educational research journal*, 40(1), 18-29.
- Wheeler, L., Guevara, J. R., & Smith, J.-A. (2018). School–Community learning partnerships for sustainability: Recommended best practice and reality. *International Review of Education*, 64(3), 313-337.
- Wieczorek, D., & Manard, C. (2018). Instructional Leadership Challenges and Practices of Novice Principals in Rural Schools. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 34(2).

- Wijaya, N. H. S., Prajogo, W., & Kusumawati, H. (2020). Collaborative school culture and educators' job satisfaction relationship: gender as a moderator. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 18(1), 428-437.
- Wildy, H., Sigurðardóttir, S. M., & Faulkner, R. (2014). Leading the small rural school in Iceland and Australia: Building leadership capacity. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 42(4_suppl), 104-118.
- Wille, A. M., Maher, M. K., Cornell, S. R., Kim, A. C., Reimers, B., & Hess, R. S. (2019). It starts with us: Including refugees in rural schools and communities. *The Rural Educator*, 40(2), 33-42.
- Williams, R., & Grudnoff, L. (2011). Making sense of reflection: A comparison of beginning and experienced teachers' perceptions of reflection for practice. *Reflective practice*, 12(3), 281-291.
- Willis, J. (2016). *Investigating the establishment and sustainability of professional learning communities in rural east Texas: The principals' perspective*. Texas A&M University-Commerce.
- Wilson, M., & Xue, X. (2013). School leader perspectives on leadership learning preparation and continuing professional development in the Chinese province of Fujian: An exploratory study. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 41(6), 800-818.
- Winter, E., Costello, A., O'Brien, M., & Hickey, G. (2021). Teachers' use of technology and the impact of Covid-19. *Irish Educational Studies*, 40(2), 235-246.
- Wood, J. N., Finch, K., & Mirecki, R. M. (2013). If we get you, how can we keep you? Problems with recruiting and retaining rural administrators. *The Rural Educator*, 34(2).
- WTO. (2018). *Member information*. https://www.wto.org/english/thewto_e/countries_e/saudi_arabia_e.htm
- Wyatt, M. (2013). Motivating teachers in the developing world: Insights from research with English language teachers in Oman. *International Review of Education*, 59(2), 217-242.
- Wynbrandt, J. (2010). *A brief history of Saudi Arabia*. Infobase Publishing.
- Yaakob, M. F. M., Musa, M. R., Habibi, A., & Othman, R. (2019). Strategic management and Strategic Planning in school: Is it worth for teachers? *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 18(3), 1-6.
- Yalçınkaya, S., Dağlı, G., Altınay, F., Altınay, Z., & Kalkan, Ü. (2021). The effect of leadership styles and initiative behaviors of school principals on teacher motivation. *Sustainability*, 13(5), 2711.
- Yamada, M. (2018). Can Saudi Arabia Move beyond "Production with Rentier Characteristics"? Human Capital Development in the Transitional Oil Economy. *The Middle East Journal*, 72(4), 587-609. <https://doi.org/10.3751/72.4.13>
- Yamani, H. A. (2014). E-learning in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Information Technology and Application in Education*, 3(4), 169.
- Yazici, S., & Yazici, A. (2010). Students' choice of college major and their perceived fairness of the procedure: evidence from Turkey. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 16(4), 371-382.
- Yi, M. (2022). Saudi Arabia Neoliberalism Theory in International Relations. *Journal of Education, Humanities and Social Sciences*, 1, 341-345.
- Yıkıcı, B., & Altınay, F. (2018). The importance of strategic planning and humanpower in school development. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(1), 509-520.
- Yilmaz, K. (2013). Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research traditions: Epistemological, theoretical, and methodological differences. *European Journal of Education*, 48(2), 311-325.
- Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2017). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods*. Sage publications.
- Yuen, L. (2012). The impact of continuing professional development on a novice teacher. *Teacher Development*, 16(3), 387-398.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations (7th ed.)* (7th ed ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G., Michel, J., Schriesheim, C., & Neider, L. (2002). Power and influence in organization. In.

- Yusof, M. R., Yaakob, M. F. M., & Ibrahim, M. Y. (2019). Digital leadership among school leaders in Malaysia. *Int. J. Innov. Technol. Explor. Eng*, 8(9).
- Zaenalabedeem, A. (2016). Exploring Views of Teachers, Teacher Trainees and Educational Experts about E-Learning-based Teacher Training Programs in Saudi Arabia: An Empirical Study.
- Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Jurnal Kemanusiaan*, 5(1).
- Zamil, R. (2013). *Globalization and Cultural Attitudes of Saudi Arabia's College Students: Impact of Satellite Entertainment* ProQuest Dissertations Publishing].
http://reading.summon.serialssolutions.com/2.0.0/link/0/eLvHCXMwrV09T8MwELWqsiAGQID4KMgbUyCJXbdGQggLbAgULswVf6UypCWpv3_3MUOtCAxMUbOYp_9zne-e48QI-lyQ9MSLIXWjJlulKBV9eeOaFl1rWpgdMYuKtf8rnfDAWwwZ5rVtjorlrIKyg284MZs2vM3CV4LbgS93NPxLUkcL31lpUQ0WxBXubMS4ggN_C2Ab3_cP6BekrnkcsR24SXhNB1d_8F0pXrme4S-p8xtTOQ83JItS9xy6wTVrHf53NHtm5X3uu3ycNVxyQ9yATEPs3qSos7Uf6DtpbYuWBdSWdeTpS KzulvYXSU3VZ0pioKPAplne0KeqQzP8WhGDLh3dKFI4JKPhYNx_TKJiQzJvdwCsUsukhmVVgjsuPGCFE8glxsD2DidoUdlcrw0SrG_a2NAuu8IYkXvG2BFpFrPCHROaKpfzxHiVdxxPjdVwk_GZUx2hwaFKfUJa9SpO4qErJ99LePr38BnZzitVC8yktEhzuVi5c4h_gvkuqi3yCch_OR4
- Zeinabadi, H. (2020). Breaking down the walls of weak knowledge-sharing among Iranian teachers: Investigating a less-considered leadership role of principals. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 1741143220968160.
- Zhao, Q. (2021). Research on the influence of computer information technology on rural preschool education. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*,
- Zheng, L., Huang, R., & Yu, J. (2013). Evaluation of the Effectiveness of E-Training: A Case Study on In-Service Teachers' Training. 2013 IEEE 13th International Conference on Advanced Learning Technologies,
- Zheng, X., Yin, H., & Li, Z. (2019). Exploring the relationships among instructional leadership, professional learning communities and teacher self-efficacy in China. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 47(6), 843-859.
- Zuckerman, S. J. (2019). Making sense of place: A case study of a sensemaking in a rural school-community partnership.
- Zuckerman, S. J. (2020). The role of rural school leaders in a school-community partnership.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethical approval

C: SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT:

Note: a signature is required. Typed names are not acceptable.

I have declared all relevant information regarding my proposed project and confirm that ethical good practice will be followed within the project.

Signed: Print Name...Emad Matar M Alotaibi...
Date...1/03/2020....

STATEMENT OF ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR PROPOSALS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE ETHICS COMMITTEE

This project has been considered using agreed Institute procedures and is now approved.

Signed: Print Name...Carol Fuller. Date...7th April 2020
(IoE Research Ethics Committee representative)*

* A decision to allow a project to proceed is not an expert assessment of its content or of the possible risks involved in the investigation, nor does it detract in any way from the ultimate responsibility which students/investigators must themselves have for these matters. Approval is granted on the basis of the information declared by the applicant.

Appendix 2: Data Protection

data protection declaration for ethical approval

This document can be used to provide assurances to your ethics committee where confirmation of data protection training and awareness is required for ethical approval.

By signing this declaration I confirm that:

- I have read and understood the requirements for data protection within the *Data Protection for Researchers* document located here:

http://www.reading.ac.uk/web/files/imps/Data_Protection_for_Researchers_Aug_18.v1.pdf

- I have asked for advice on any elements that I am *unclear on* prior to submitting my ethics approval request, either from my supervisor, or the data protection team at: imps@reading.ac.uk
- I understand that I am responsible for the secure handling, and protection of, my research data
- I know who to contact in the event of an information security incident, a data protection complaint or a request made under data subject access rights

Researcher to complete

Project/Study Title_ Experiences of Leadership in Rural School in Saudi Arabia: Opportunities and Challenges_____

NAME	STUDENT ID NUMBER	DATE
Alotaibi, Emad Matar M		1/03/2020

Supervisor signature

Note for supervisors: Please verify that your student has completed the above actions

NAME	STAFF ID NUMBER	DATE
Professor. Alan Floyd		

Submit your completed signed copy to your ethical approval committee.

Copies to be retained by ethics committee.

VERSION	KEEPER	REVIEWED	APPROVED BY	APPROVAL DATE
1.0	IMPS	Annually	IMPS	

Appendix 3: Participant information sheet



Supervisor: Professor Alan Floyd
Phone: +44(0) 118 378 2720
Email: alan.floyd@reading.ac.uk
Researcher: Emad Matar M Alotaibi
Phone: ,
Email: e.alotaibi@pgr.reading.ac.uk

Participant Information Sheet

Rural Education in Saudi Arabia: School leaders' and Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions

Dear Participant

I am writing to invite you to take part in a research study about rural schools.

What is the project?

I am conducting a research project at the University of Reading with funding from the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. This study aims to understand and explore the nature of six rural case study schools, together with the views of the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia. The focus will be on three key concepts: leadership practice, continuing professional development and culture. It will also help to understand the opportunities and challenges of working in rural context. It aims to provide insight into rural schools in Saudi Arabia which helps researchers, policy makers and practitioners to understand these schools and learn from them.

Why have you been chosen to take part?

You have been invited to be a part in this study because you are essential to rural schools. Therefore, your experiences of such schools will contribute greatly to achieving the aims of this study.

Do you have to take part?

It is entirely up to you whether you participate in this research. You also might withdraw your consent to participation at any time during the study, without any repercussions to you, by contacting the researcher, Emad Alotaibi, +44 7446 555 160, +966 500 905 911 email: e.alotaibi@pgr.reading.ac.uk

What will happen if you take part?

You will be invited to take part in a face-to-face interview at your place of work.. The interview is scheduled to take one hour. The aim of the interview is to learn from your experiences in contributing to rural schools particularly with regard to school leadership practice, continuing professional development and school culture. With your permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the interview has been completed, a copy will be sent to you so that you can add or clarify any points that you wish.

What are the advantages and disadvantages of taking part?

In agreeing to take part in this study there will be a time commitment to consider. You are, of course, able to withdraw from the study at any time. The main benefit for the individual will be an opportunity to reflect in detail on their career experiences. Indeed, previous participants in a similar study all commented on how useful they had found the process. While there will be a time commitment required from participants, it is felt that the benefits of involvement will outweigh the costs. I anticipate that findings of the study will be useful for school effectiveness.

What will happen to the data?

Any data collected will be held in strict confidence and no real names will be used in this study or any subsequent publications. The records of this study will be kept private. No identifiers linking participants or the schools to the study will be included in any sort of report that might be published. Participants will be assigned a number and will be referred to by that number in all records. Your name will not appear in any thesis or report resulting from this study, however, with your permission anonymous quotations may be used. Research records will be stored securely on a password-protected computer and only the research team will have access to the records. The results of the study will be presented at the researcher's own doctoral thesis. I can send you a summary of the study if you wish.

What about data protection?

The organisation responsible for protection of your personal information is the University of Reading (the Data Controller). Queries regarding data protection and your rights should be directed to the University Data Protection Officer at imps@reading.ac.uk, or in writing to: Information Management & Policy Services, University of Reading, Whiteknights, P O Box 217, Reading, RG6 6AH.

The University of Reading collects, analyses, uses, shares and retains personal data for the purposes of research in the public interest. Under data protection law we are required to inform you that this use of the personal data we may hold about you is on the lawful basis of being a public task in the public interest and where it is necessary for scientific or historical research purposes. If you withdraw from a research study, which processes your personal data, dependant on the stage of withdrawal, we may still rely on this lawful basis to continue using your data if your withdrawal would be of significant detriment to the research study aims. We will always have in place appropriate safeguards to protect your personal data.

If we have included any additional requests for use of your data, for example adding you to a registration list for the purposes of inviting you to take part in future studies, this will be done only with your consent where you have provided it to us and should you wish to be removed from the register at a later date, you should contact the researcher concerned.

You have certain rights under data protection law which are:

- Withdraw your consent, for example if you opted in to be added to a participant register
- Access your personal data or ask for a copy
- Rectify inaccuracies in personal data that we hold about you
- Be forgotten, that is your details to be removed from systems that we use to process your personal data
- Restrict uses of your data
- Object to uses of your data, for example retention after you have withdrawn from a study

Some restrictions apply to the above rights where data is collected and used for research purposes.

You can find out more about your rights on the website of the Information Commissioners Office (ICO) at <https://ico.org.uk>

You also have a right to complain the ICO if you are unhappy with how your data has been handled. Please contact the University Data Protection Officer in the first instance.

Who has reviewed the study?

This study has been reviewed following the processes of the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct. The University has the appropriate insurances in place. Full details are available on request.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you can contact the Project Supervisor, Professor Alan Floyd, Tel: (0) 118 378 2720, email: alan.floyd@reading.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

If you would like more information, please contact Emad Alotaibi

Mobile: _____, Email e.alotaibi@pgr.reading.ac.uk

I do hope that you will agree to your participation in the study. If you do, please complete the attached consent form and return it, either in person or via email.

Thank you for your time.

Yours sincerely,

Emad Matar Alotaibi

Date:

Appendix 4: Consent form



CONSENT FORM

Research Project:

Rural Education in Saudi Arabia: School leaders' and Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions

Name, position and contact address of Researcher

Emad Alotaibi

PhD student at the University of Reading,

Tel: _____,

E: e.alotaibi@pgr.reading.ac.uk

This application has been reviewed by the University Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct.

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

3. I agree to take part in the above study.

Please tick box

- | | Yes | No |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 4. I agree to the interview being audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Appendix 5: Initial Interview Schedule for School Leaders, Deputies and Teachers

Interviewee.....Date.....

Research Question	Interview Themes/Questions	Discussed
Introduction	Study background and aims	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Participants Prerogatives	<input type="checkbox"/>
How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Place and age? • Academic background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Schools, courses taken, subjects favoured, achievements? • Career history <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ General work history, (including enter education, work experiences, numbers of years, position and locations, become school leaders)? • Leadership practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How are school leaders, teachers and students evaluated (providing and getting feedback)? ➤ How do communication, trusted relationship, motivation and shared/distributed/formal /informal leadership occur in the school? ➤ What are the challenges and the opportunities of leading in a rural context (including problem solving)? • The school development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How is the school strategic plan built (vision, mission, values, long/short-term goals, decision-making, people engaged and plan achieved)? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
What are continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Have you attended the induction programme for new teachers? Have you had any session about leadership or rural context? Describe. ➤ If you could have training before you starting your leadership (or teaching) responsibilities, what kind of courses would you take? And how could these courses help you to achieve your tasks? • Continuing professional development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Have you Interacted/discussed with other people regarding professional issues (including using technology)? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

	➤ Do you have any suggestions for developing positive school culture?	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any other comments? • What will happen to data? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow up meeting/respondent validation • Thank interviewees 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 8: Initial Interview Schedule for School leadership supervisors

Interviewee.....Date.....

Research Question	Interview Themes/Questions	Discussed
Introduction	Study background and aims	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Participants Prerogatives	<input type="checkbox"/>
How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Place, age? • Academic background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Courses taken? • Career history <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ General work history, (including enter education, work experiences, numbers of years, positions and locations)? • Leadership practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What decisions are made to distribute teachers and school leaders? ➤ What are the differences between rural and urban schools in respect of policies and leadership practice? ➤ What are the challenges and the opportunities of leading in rural context? ➤ What kind of criteria are used to classify rural schools? ➤ What are your roles to ensure that the school has a strategic plan (vision, mission and values)? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
What are continuing professional development experiences and needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What training do you provide for school staff before allocating them to schools (new teachers, differences between rural and urban context)? ➤ What is the role of the education department in supporting such a programme? ➤ How do you encourage technological development in rural education? 	<input type="checkbox"/>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How do you communicate with other local community actors in order to develop educational strategies? • Sub-culture/Micro-culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do you have any plan/s to develop the school culture? ➤ What are the strategies for solving conflicts/problems in schools? ➤ What are the strategical challenges and the opportunities for developing positive school culture/s? 	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any other comments? • What will happen to data? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow up meeting/respondent validation • Thank interviewees 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 10: Initial Interview Schedule for Training supervisors

Interviewee.....Date.....

Research Question	Interview Themes/Questions	Discussed
Introduction	Study background and aims	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Participants Prerogatives	<input type="checkbox"/>
How is leadership being practised and experienced in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Place, age? • Academic background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Courses taken? • Career history <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ General work history, (including entry education, work experiences, numbers of years, positions and locations)? • Leadership practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How you do develop a leadership programme (including rural context)? ➤ What are the differences between rural and urban schools in respect of leadership practice? ➤ How do you address the challenges and the opportunities for those attending these programmes? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
What are continuing professional development experiences and the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What training do you provide for school staff before allocating them to schools (new teachers, differences between rural and urban context)? 	<input type="checkbox"/>

needs of people working in rural schools in KSA?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What are the roles of the training department to support such programmes? ➤ How do you encourage technological development in rural education? • Continuing professional development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How is CPD developed/applied in rural and urban schools (challenges and opportunities)? ➤ What are the ways of supporting/empowering CPD? 	<input type="checkbox"/>
How does national, local, organisational and school culture impact on rural education in Saudi Arabia?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Macro-culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How do you see education in the past and now (the impact of globalisation on training programmes)? ➤ What are the influences of the Saudi vision 2030 on the training department? ➤ How do you think that links to rural schools' training? ➤ How do you communicate with other local community actors in order to develop the training programmes? ➤ What are the influences of organisational culture in training programmes? • Sub-culture/Micro-culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What are the challenges and the opportunities for developing school culture through your training programmes (support school culture, solving problem)? ➤ Do you have any suggestions to develop positive school culture? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any other comments? • What will happen to data? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow up meeting/respondent validation • Thank interviewees 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 11: Revised Interview Schedule for Training supervisors

Interviewee.....Date.....

Research Question	Interview Themes/Questions	Discussed
Introduction	Study background and aims	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Participants Prerogatives	<input type="checkbox"/>
How is leadership being practised and experienced in	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General background <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Place, age? 	<input type="checkbox"/>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What are the influences of organisational culture in training programmes? • Sub-culture/Micro-culture <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What are the challenges and the opportunities for developing school culture through your training programmes (support school culture, solving problem)? ➤ Do you have any suggestions to develop positive school culture? 	<input type="checkbox"/>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Any other comments? • What will happen to data? 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow up meeting/respondent validation • Thank interviewees 	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 12: Focus Group Interview Table

P1											
P2											
P3											
P4											
P5											

Appendix 13: Teachers' information

T-Symbol	Age/ Gender	Years of Experience	Position/ Career	Qualifications	Traveling time to school	Rural educational background	Experiences of teaching in an urban school
PT1G -A (G1A)	37/ G	9 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in English	50 Min	-	√
PT2G -A (G1A)	37/ G	9 years	Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in physics	1:45 Min	-	-
PT3G -A (G1A)	38/ G	9 years	Teacher/ -Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Chemistry	2 hours	-	-
PT4G -A (G1A)	39/ G	9 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Geography	1 hour	√	-
PT5G -A (G1A)	45/ G	20 years	-Teacher/ - Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	1: 45 Min	√	-
PT6G -A	38/ G	10 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Biology	2 hours	√	-

PT7G -A	35/ G	6 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Computer science	40 Min	√	-
PT8G -B (G2B)	42/ G	14 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in English	45 Min	-	-
PT9G -B (G2B)	47/ G	22 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Geography	30 Min	-	-
PT10 G-B (G2B)	40/ G	9 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in physics	10 Min	-	√
PT11 G-B (G2B)	50/ G	24 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Chemistry	50 Min	-	-
PT12 G-B (G2B)	47/ G	22 years	-Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	40 Min	-	√
PT13 G-B	47/ G	10 years	-Teacher/ - Student advisor	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	30 Min	-	-
PT14 G-B	45/ G	19 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic	25 Min	√	-

PT15 G-C (G3C)	41/ G	15 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in English	1 Hour	√	-
PT16 G-C (G3C)	43/ G	19 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	1: 30 Min	-	√
PT17 G-C (G3C)	58/ G	35 years	-Teacher/ -School leader	Bachelor's Degree in Maths	1:30 Min	-	√
PT18 G-C (G3C)	42/ G	18 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic	45 Min	-	-
PT19 G-C (G3C)	45/ G	21 years	Teacher/ committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Geography	40 Min	-	-
PT20 G-C	35/ G	12 years	Teacher/ -School deputy	Bachelor's Degree in Biology	2 hours	√	√
PT21 G-C	34/ G	8 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Computer science	50 Min	-	-
PT22 B-D	38/ B	10 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Computer science	30 Min	-	√

(G4D)							
PT23 B-D (G4D)	45/ B	22 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Geography	40 Min	-	√
PT24 B-D (G4D)	45/ B	20 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Art	30 Min	√	√
PT25 B-D (G4D)	38/ B	12 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Chemistry	40 Min	-	√
PT26 B-D (G4D)	38/ B	10 years	Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic science	30 Min	√	-
PT27 B-D	38/ B	10 years	-Teacher/ - Student advisor	Bachelor's Degree in Maths	30 Min	-	√
PT28 B-D	44/ B	22 years	-Teacher/ -Student advisor -School deputy	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	40 Min	√	-
PT29 B-E (G5E)	43/ B	18 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Biology	40 Min	-	-

PT30 B-E (G5E)	44/ B	17 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Geography	45 Min	-	√
PT31 B-E (G5E)	43/ B	20 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Sport	40 Min	-	-
PT32 B-E (G5E)	34/ B	10 years	-Teacher/ -School leader	Bachelor's Degree in Chemistry	50 Min	-	√
PT33 B-E (G5E)	43/ B	20 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	1 hour	-	-
PT34 B-E	47/ B	18 years	-Teacher/ -Student advisor	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic science	40 Min	-	√
PT35 B-E	39/ B	15 years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Maths	1: 10 Min	√	√
PT36 B-F (G6F)	36 / B	9 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Biology	25 Min	√	-
PT37 B-F	37 / B	11years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	- Bachelor's Degree in Computer science	1 hour	√	√

(G6E)				-Master's in Educational technology			
PT38 B-F (G6E)	38 / B	11 years	Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Maths	10 Min	√	-
PT39 B-F (G6F)	32 / B	6 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in Art	1:40 Min	-	-
PT40 B-F (G6F)	47/ B	24years	Teacher/ Committee member	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	10 Min	√	-
PT41 B-F	35/ B	8 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in physics	1:40 Min	√	-
PT42 B-F	39/ B	10 years	-Teacher/ -Activities organiser	Bachelor's Degree in History	1:30 Min	-	-

Table 5:2 General information about teachers

Appendix 14: School leaders' information

L-Symbol	Age/ Gender	Years of Experience/ as leader in the current rural school	Position/ Career	Qualifications	Traveling time to school	Rural educational background	Experiences of teaching in an urban school
PL1G-A	41/ G	21 Y/ 10 Y	School leader/ -School deputy -Teacher	-Diploma in Maths -Attendance of many long and short leadership courses	10 Min	√	-
PL2G-A	42 / G	21 Y/ 5 Y	School deputy/ -Teacher	-Diploma in Arabic -Attendance of some short leadership courses	10 Min	√	-
PL3G-B	48 / G	25 Y/ 3 Y	School leader/ -School deputy -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic - Attendance of many short leadership courses	35 Min	-	√
PL4G-B	52/ G	25 Y/ 3 Y	School deputy/ -School leader -Student advisor -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Biology - Attendance of many short leadership courses	40 Min	-	√

PL5G-C	43/ G	12 Y in private school + 6 Y / 3 Y	School leader/ -School deputy -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic science - Attendance of many short leadership courses	1:20 Min	-	√
PL6G-C	42/ G	19 Y/ 2 Y	School deputy/ -School leader -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in English - Attendance of short leadership courses	1:30 Min	-	-
PL7B-D	38/ B	11 Y/ 4 Y	School leader/ -School deputy -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Arabic - Attendance of many short leadership courses	10 Min	√	√
PL8B-D	44/ B	25 Y/ 3 Y	School deputy/ -Teacher	Bachelor's Degree in Islamic science - Attendance of many long and short leadership courses	40 Min	√	√
PL9B-E	39/ B	18Y/ 3 Y	School leader/ -School deputy -Talented coordinator -Teacher	- Master's degree in education leadership and management - Bachelor's Degree in physics - Attendance of many long and short leadership courses	1 hour	-	√
PL10B-E	41/ B	20 Y/ 3 Y	School deputy/ -Teacher	-Bachelor's Degree in Maths -Attendance of some short leadership courses	50 Min	-	√
PL11B-F	48/ B	23 Y/ 3 Y	School leader/	-Bachelor's Degree in Arabic	10 Min	√	-

			-School deputy -Teacher	- Attendance of many short leadership courses			
PL12B-F	42/ B	18 Y/ 2 Y	School deputy/ -Teacher	-Master's degree in education leadership and management - Bachelor's Degree in Islamic science - Attendance of many long and short leadership courses	40 Min	-	√

Table 5:3 General information regarding school leaders

Appendix 15: Example of original quotations

Leadership practice:

The first challenge is that there is a shortage of administrative staff, and this is very, unfortunately, a primary problem in the school and rural villages in general. (PL3G-B)

التحدي الأول هو وجود نقص في الكادر الإداري، وهذه مشكلة أساسية للأسف في المدرسة والقرى الريفية بشكل عام

I was appointed in a remote rural school in my first year, all the school staff were new, from the administration to the teachers. Even the school leader was a newbie like us (PT3G-A)

لقد تم تعييني في مدرسة ريفية نائية في عامي الأول ، وكان جميع موظفي المدرسة جددًا ، من الإدارة إلى المعلمين. حتى قائد المدرسة كان مبتدئًا مثلنا

Communicating with the local community is easy. For example, a student may be late during exams. We know the phone number of her neighbour, sister, aunt, or one of her relatives, so we communicate with them and get a quick response.

التواصل مع المجتمع المحلي سهل. على سبيل المثال ، قد يتأخر الطالب أثناء الامتحانات. نعرف رقم هاتف جارها أو أختها أو خالتها أو أحد أقاربها ، لذلك نتواصل معهم ونحصل على رد سريع

When the teacher enters the school for the first time, she asks, where is the administration? Where is the leader? If the leader made a good start and the first impression was good, the teacher would begin with confidence. (PT5G-A)

عندما تدخل المعلمة المدرسة لأول مرة تسأل أين الإدارة؟ أين القائد؟ إذا بدأ القائد بداية جيدة وكان الانطباع الأول جيدًا ، فسيبدأ المعلم بثقة

The most important thing to build trusted relationships between you and the leader or between you and your colleagues or students is to have respect, mutual respect at the school. (PT41B-F)

إن أهم شيء لبناء علاقات ثقة بينك وبين القائد أو بينك وبين زملائك أو طلابك و أن تتحلى بالاحترام والاحترام المتبادل في المدرسة

I see that these human relations must be built on respect in the first place so that I can gain their trust. And we look at the humanity of the teacher herself, the teacher is a human being, and she has her environment, circumstances and everything that must be considered. (PL3G-B)

أرى أن هذه العلاقات الإنسانية يجب أن تُبنى على الاحترام في المقام الأول حتى أتمكن من كسب ثقتهم. وننظر إلى إنسانية المعلمة نفسها ، فالمعلمة إنسانه ، ولها بيئتها وظروفها وكل ما يجب مراعاته

We have a principal who motivates us. The most important thing is the kind word. Anything you have done, big or small, a little or a lot, does not go unnoticed. She offers her opinion, thanks us and

praises us if she likes the work, and if she notes something, she repeats it verbally. Here, she pushes you to work more and work with love, meaning not for anything or praise at all. (PT9G-B)

لدينا مدير يحفزنا. أهم شيء هو الكلمة الطيبة. أي شيء قممت به ، كبير أو صغير ، قليل أو كثير ، لا يمر مرور الكرام. تقدم رأيها وتشكرنا وتنتهي علينا إذا كانت تحب العمل ، وإذا لاحظت شيئاً تكررته شفهيًا. هنا ، تدفعك إلى العمل أكثر والعمل بحب ، يعني ليس من أجل أي شيء أو مدح على الإطلاق

The leader has no choice in the village...everyone must help her because she cannot do all the work alone. Unlike the school leaders in the cities, the leader in the village must be cooperative and get cooperation from the teachers. (PL6G-C)

ليس للقائدة خيار في القرية ... يجب على الجميع مساعدتها لأنها لا تستطيع القيام بكل العمل بمفردها. على عكس قادة المدارس في المدن ، يجب أن يكون القائد في القرية متعاونًا وأن يحصل على تعاون من المعلمين

You must involve the teachers in making the schedule because every teacher has his circumstances, and their lack of participation will force them to do something that could lead to their lack of commitment, and they will not cooperate with you in anything you ask. (PL7B-D)

يجب عليك إشراك المعلمين في وضع الجدول لأن كل معلم له ظروفه الخاصة به ، وعدم مشاركتهم سيجبرهم على فعل شيء قد يؤدي إلى عدم التزامهم ، ولن يتعاونوا معك في أي شيء تطلبه

Most teachers, especially in our area or other rural areas, take the initiative. And the teacher, who takes the initiative, helps to make no barriers between him and the leader. (PL11B-F)

يأخذ معظم المعلمين ، وخاصة في منطقتنا أو المناطق الريفية الأخرى ، زمام المبادرة. والمعلم ، الذي يأخذ زمام المبادرة ، يساعد في عدم وضع حواجز بينه وبين القائد

Culture:

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia seeks to have its place in global education and international tests. So, I worked on intensive training for rural teachers on the reading comprehension strategies for the students, and we conducted experimental tests that simulated international tests with them. (SuperDG)

تسعى المملكة العربية السعودية إلى احتلال مكانتها في التعليم العالمي والاختبارات الدولية. لذلك ، عملت على تدريب مكثف لمعلمي الريف على استراتيجيات فهم القراءة للطلاب ، وأجرينا اختبارات تجريبية تحاكي الاختبارات الدولية معهم

During the past year, I studied for a year at the University of Delaware in America, the Khebrat programme. And now it is almost six months since I came back. (PT20G-C)

خلال العام الماضي درست لمدة عام في جامعة ديلاوير في أمريكا برنامج خبرات. والآن مر ما يقرب من ستة أشهر من رجعتي

Previously, if we got there (Rural area), we felt almost isolated from the world, even the mobile network was unavailable in the area. (PT39B-F)

في السابق ، إذا وصلنا إلى هناك ، نحس بالعزلة تقريبًا عن العالم ، حتى أن شبكة الجوال ما كانت متوفرة في المنطقة

The challenges we face are the internet in the same village. The speed of their Internet is poor. It sometimes hinders students from entering classes. (PT18G-C)

التحديات التي نواجهها هي الإنترنت في نفس القرية. سرعة الإنترنت عندهم ضعيفة. في بعض الأحيان تعيق الطلاب من دخول الحصة

Many parents come to the school to consult us about computers and smart devices in order to follow up on their children. (PL12B-F)

يجينا الكثير من أولياء الأمور إلى المدرسة يستشارونا بخصوص أجهزة الكمبيوتر والأجهزة الذكية من على شان متابعة أبنائهم

The barrier was broken for us as teachers during the pandemic. I am one of the people who had problems using technology and lacked some skills, but now I am different. (PT26B-D)

تم كسر الحاجز بالنسبة لنا كمعلمين خلال الجائحة. أنا أحد الأشخاص اللي واجهوا مشاكل في استخدام التقنية وكان يتقصني بعض المهارات ، لكنني الحين مختلف

There are many changes, and I am talking about the Vision (Vision 2030) and the situation as a whole community. Frankly, what happened to women and fairness to women is beautiful. This is really something for years that we have been asking for it. (PT15G-C)

هناك العديد من التغييرات ، وأنا أتكلم عن الرؤية والوضع ككل. بصراحة اللي صار للمرأة وإنصاف المرأة جميل. هذا بصراحه شيء كنا نطلبه من سنوات

During the last five years, I noticed changes [...] As for female students, their thinking and ambitions have changed. Many female students have asked me because they see more job opportunities available. (PT2G-A)

خلال السنوات الخمس اللي عدت ، لاحظت تغييرات [...] أما بالنسبة للطالبات ، فقد تغير تفكيرهم وطموحاتهم. سألوني كثير من الطالبات لأنهم يرون المزيد من فرص العمل المتاحة

The only breathing space for the villagers is the school because they do not have enjoyable venues. We do not have any absences, and students do not prefer absent themselves. (PL5G-C)

المتنفس الوحيدة للقرويين هي المدرسة لأن ما عندهم أماكن ترفيه. ما عندنا أي غيابات ، والطلاب ما يحبوا الغياب من أنفسهم

If the leader is unfair, my performance may be decreased, and if he does not equal me with my colleagues, there might be no creativity or collaboration in the school. (PT22B-D)

إذا كان القائد غير عادل ، يمكن ينخفض أدائي ، وإذا ما يساويني مع زملائي ، فقد ما يكون هناك إبداع أو تعاون في المدرسة

CPD:

During the five years, we noticed a change in the focus on the teacher and leader in terms of gaining many training courses and experiences. You try to take training courses constantly, even if you take them from outside centres (private centres). They have become very focused on professional development. (PT2G-A)

خلال السنوات الخمس ، لاحظنا تغييرًا في التركيز على المعلم والقائد من حيث اكتساب العديد من الدورات التدريبية والخبرات. تحاول أن تأخذ دورات تدريبية باستمرار ، حتى لو كنت تأخذها من مراكز خارجية. أصبحوا يركزون بشكل كبير على التطوير المهني.

We work in the school as one team, and the leader must coordinate between us in the training courses because he cannot allow everyone at one time. For example, if my colleague has a training course, we try to cover his place, after coordinating with the leader. (PT24B-D)

نحن نعمل في المدرسة كفريق واحد ، وعلى القائد أن ينسق بيننا في الدورات التدريبية لأنه لا يمكنه السماح للجميع في وقت واحد. على سبيل المثال ، إذا كان زميلي عنده دورة تدريبية ، نحاول تغطية مكانه بعد التنسيق مع القائد.

I am developing myself with training courses; I have attended many leadership training courses, some of which were up to two or three days, and some were up to six months. I benefited a lot from them, and they reflected on my performance, and I feel that I understand a lot about leadership matters. (PL1G-A)

أطور نفسي من خلال الدورات التدريبية ؛ قد حضرت العديد من الدورات التدريبية على القيادة ، بعضها يصل إلى يومين أو ثلاثة أيام ، وبعضها يصل إلى ستة أشهر. استفدت منهم كثيرًا ، وانعكسوا على أدائي ، وأحس أنني أفهم كثيرًا أمور القيادة.

I will retire after two years, and I would like to answer your question if it was ten years ago, but I do not mind if there training programmes on technology or its use in teaching because it is renewable. (PT17G-C)

أنا بتقاعد بعد عامين ، وأتمنى أن أجيب على سؤالك لو كان قبل عشر سنوات ، لكن لا مانع من وجود برامج تدريبية على التقنية أو استخدامها في التدريس لأنها متجددة.

I have a record of exchange of teachers' visits, and I encourage them to visit each other. The visits are between subject teachers, for example, mathematics with each other, Arabic with each other, and so on. (PL7B-D)

عندي سجل بتبادل زيارات المعلمين وأشجعهم على زيارة بعضهم البعض. تتم الزيارات بين معلمي المادة ، على سبيل المثال الرياضيات مع بعضهم ، والعربية مع بعضهم ، وما إلى ذلك.

I have more than one WhatsApp group. I have the school group, where we discuss everything related to the school. I have an educational group for teachers where you find all new about learning and teaching. I have the supervisor group for the same subject teachers. All are beneficial to me. (PT42B-F)

عندي أكثر من مجموعة واتس اب واحدة. عندي مجموعة المدرسة ، نناقش كل ما يتعلق بالمدرسة. عندي مجموعة تعليمية للمعلمين تجد كل جديد في التعلم والتعليم. عندي مجموعة المشرفين لنفس المدرسين. كلها مفيدة لي.

I need training courses in laboratories and experiment materials that I use in chemistry, as most of my work is practical. I know and possess the teaching skills, but I need training on the methods of teaching chemistry and the content I have, especially for rural students. (PT3G-A)

أحتاج إلى دورات تدريبية في المعامل ومواد التجارب التي أستخدمها في الكيمياء ، حيث أن معظم شغلي عملي. أعرف مهارات التدريس وأمتلكها ، لكنني بحاجة إلى تدريب على طرق تدريس الكيمياء والمحتوى اللي عندي ، خاصة للطلاب الرقري

We need training programmes in any new technical thing related to education. We need to get regular courses on updates in technology, whether programs, devices, applications, or others because technology is constantly evolving. We need to understand more about teaching methods and content delivery via the internet because it is vital for the students and us. (PT10G-B)

نحتاج إلى برامج تدريبية في أي شيء تقني جديد متعلق بالتعليم. نحتاج إلى الحصول على دورات منتظمة حول التحديثات في التكنولوجيا ، سواء كانت برامج أو أجهزة أو تطبيقات أو غيرها لأن التقنية تتطور باستمرار. نحن بحاجة إلى فهم المزيد حول طرق التدريس وتقديم المحتوى عبر الإنترنت لأنه أمر ضروري للطلاب ولنا

With the pandemic, we in rural schools have begun a new era in use of technology, distance learning, and even leadership has become through online. The deputy or I, for example, entered the platform and visited the classes online; even our meetings have become via Zoom or Teams. So, I also need training in how leadership is done online because I still need to understand it more and how to lead with technology. (PL5G-C)

مع الجائحة ، بدأنا في المدارس الريفية زمن جديدة في استخدام التقنية والتعلم عن بعد وحتى القيادة صارت عن طريق الإنترنت. أنا أو الوكيل مثلا ندخل المنصة ونقوم بزيارة الفصول عن طريق الانترنت ؛ حتى اجتماعاتنا أصبحت عبر الزوم أو التيمز. لذلك أحتاج أيضًا إلى تدريب حول كيفية القيادة عبر الإنترنت لأنني ما زلت بحاجة إلى فهمها أكثر وكيفية القيادة باستخدام التقنية