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University of Glasgow

THE ROLE OF COOPERATING TEACHERS IN STUDENT TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL LEARNING IN SAUDI ARABIA REALITY, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

Shatha Hamdan Alghamdi

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy

School of Education, College of Social Sciences

The University of Glasgow

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the role of Cooperating Teachers (CTs) in the professional learning of Student Teachers (STs), within the practicum of Saudi Arabian ITE (Initial Teacher Education) programmes.

Under an Interpretivist paradigm and a constructivist grounded theory (CGT) approach, semi-structured interviews were used to collect the study data. The interviews were conducted to investigate the reality, challenges and prospects of the role of the CT in the Saudi ITE context, from principal stakeholders' perspectives. The findings mirror those reported in the international literature with regard to the benefits of developing CTs' professional learning for both CTs and STs. However, the findings also indicated that the role of the CT takes the form of an apprenticeship relationship, involving observance of a set of responsibilities that reflect a traditional supervisory approach to teaching and learning. The hierarchical educational culture, time limitations, CT selection and preparation, support of CTs and their evaluation of STs were identified as among the major challenges facing the CT's role. From the analysis of the research findings, recommendations are made for practice.

This study proposes a hybrid model of learning that combines aspects of the existing behaviourist approach with cooperative methods of learning within a triadic relationship between all those involved in Saudi ITE practicum. This has the potential for developing a collegial learning environment in an attempt to reduce the hierarchy in the current CT and ST relationship in Saudi ITE, and help reduce the school-university gap by enabling improved teacher learning through a cooperative continuum between them.

Based on the research findings and ITE literature, A National Mentoring Scheme (NMS), is recommended as a school-university collaborative programme overseen by the Saudi Ministry of Education (MOE). Implications of such a framework for the MOE, universities, schools' HTs and CTs are also identified.

DECLARATION

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

Signed:

Date: 7th December, 2018

DEDICATION

I dedicate this PhD to

my father: Prof. Hamdan A. Alghamdi,

my mother Teacher Saado Alghamdi,

my beloved husband Atif,

and my wonderful children:

Elan, Lamar, Ali and Ammar.

This PhD is for you

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My thanks and appreciation must also go to my wonderful family and friends in Edinburgh and back home, for their great support and encouragement throughout the course of my studies. My brother Feras and my sisters, Nada, Abeer, Ghadeer and Reem, you have always been and will always be my source of strength and pride.

My special thanks go to my friend Siham, who has been there for my children since the beginning of this journey, without you this thesis would not have been possible, especially for a mother of four. Therefore, I'm forever in your debt.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ITE	Initial Teacher Education
MOE	Ministry of Education
US	University Supervisor
HT	Head teacher
CT	Cooperating Teacher
ST	Student Teacher
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
BERA	British Educational Research Association
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
STNE	Scottish Teachers for a New Era

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Chapter.1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In recent years, the professionalisation of teachers has become a central component of international educational reforms (Cochran-Smith and Villegas, 2015; Macdonald, 2016; Oolbekkink-Marchand et al., 2017; Willegems et al., 2017, Jackson & Burch 2019). The role of teacher education has acquired an increasingly prominent role in policy-making and international academic debates (Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015; McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; Rothman and Darling-Hammond, 2015; Livingston, 2016a). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is no exception; one of the major aims of the national reform project, Tatweer, is to develop teachers' professionalism by improving teacher education programmes (Tatweer, 2018).

Despite the growing interest in this topic internationally, studies investigating the content and delivery of professional preparation programmes for student teachers (STs) in Saudi Arabia are scarce in both local and international literature. To address this, the current study explores how the role of Cooperating Teachers (CTs) in developing professionalism in STs is conceptualised and implemented through Saudi Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programmes in place in Saudi primary schools. The study reviews and critically analyses key features of international ITE programmes and the professional preparation of teachers generally, with a special focus on learning theories as they relate to teachers as learners. In addition, theoretical underpinnings and shared understandings relating to mentoring roles and practices are explored within the STs' practicum. After reviewing the literature on ITE programmes mentoring, the researcher investigates the reality, challenges and prospects for mentoring by CTs in the Saudi ITE context.

This chapter sets out the study context, highlighting the main influences informing the study focus; i.e. Saudi education in general, and Saudi Teacher Education in particular. The primary motivation for doing so is to address some of the misconceptions and inaccurate or outdated information disseminated about Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia is a rapidly developing and widely misunderstood country; it is important to clarify its recent history and the values espoused within its education system to contextualise the study. A secondary motivation is that in previous literature reviewed by the researcher concerning Saudi Arabia's education system, there seemed to be limited connection established between the contemporary Saudi Education system and the fact that Saudi Arabia is a young Islamic state (founded in 1932) with a fast-growing economy. These are crucial factors that lend the Saudi Education system its uniqueness and continue to influence teacher education. They also explain its most valued principles, and why these remain deeply rooted in the Saudi education system, despite the massive reforms it has undergone (VISION 2030).

This chapter also discusses a number of key influences that inform the rationale and motivation for conducting study, and how it was initiated. These include the conditions that govern the conducting of the research and the data collection, the choice of participants (all female) and the locations from which the data is collected, how the participants were educated, and finally, the constraints limiting this research. The key influences are identified as: Islam, the role of gender, the country's rapid educational journey and funding, and the interventions by government in the modern Saudi educational system. ITE in Saudi Arabia is also explored, highlighting major challenges, and this is followed by the problem statement, the aim of the study and the research questions posed.

1.2 The Educational Setting of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Culture is so pervasive a shaper of education and educational realities that it cannot possibly be ignored. It gives rise to varying and often competing accounts of knowledge, of learning and of the relationship between teacher and taught. (Alexander, 2008, p. 19)

Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is free to all individuals aged from six to 22 or when they graduate from university. The government also provides public schools and colleges with books, health services, and technological equipment (Albedaiwi, 2014). Moreover, higher education institutions are not only free to attend, but students receive a monthly allowance: 1000 SR (equal to almost £160) (Alsahli, 2012; MOE, 2018a), (this amount is also paid to STs during their practicum). In 2013, 25% of the national budget (US\$ 54.75 billion), the largest ever amount in the Kingdom's history (US\$ 219 billion), was allocated to education, while in 2015, and 12% of the overall budget was devoted to Higher Education (MOE, 2018a), including the creation of scholarships for Saudi students (including this author), to pursue higher education overseas.



FIGURE 1-1: KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

1.2.1 Islam and knowledge

Knowledge is highly regarded in Islam. In fact, the first word revealed to the Prophet Mohammad was “Read”:

Read in the name of your Lord Who created. He created man from a clot. Read and your Lord is Most Honourable, Who taught (to write) with the pen. Taught man what he knew not’. (The Qur'an, Al Alaq 96:1-5)

Saudi Rulers and the people they govern observe the same Sharia (Islamic Law), which highly respects education. Sharia law considers it a requirement for Muslim rulers to provide education to their people, to respect the educated and seek their guidance (there is an advisory consultative council of 150 members that carry the highest qualifications in all fields of science and education) (Shura, 2018).

Moreover, Prophet Mohammed stated, “seeking knowledge is obligatory for every Muslim” (Alsahli, 2012). Islam also highly respects teachers, awarding the status of prophet to teachers, giving commands about the rights of teachers. It is written in the Holy Quran:

Do not make the calling of the teacher among you as you are calling one of another. (Surah An-Noor, verse 63)

The verse advises that teachers should be addressed respectfully. In Islam, all prophets were viewed as instructors and teachers for mankind, and as such were respected by their followers; teachers should also be respected in the same way. This high status of teachers in Islam is very significant to teacher education in Saudi Arabia, and raises very interesting issues relevant to this thesis, especially with regard to hierarchy and decision-making powers.

1.2.2 Female Education in Saudi Arabia

As this research is an all-female study, carried out by a female Saudi researcher, it is essential to discuss the development of female education within the Saudi education system. From an Islamic perspective, all Islamic teachings are intended for both males and females, including the duty to seek knowledge (see section: 1.2.1). However, because of cultural, social and traditional values, education in Saudi Arabia is segregated by gender (Hamdan, 2005; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a).

Nevertheless, the intention is that both sexes receive the same quality of education and access to comparable facilities (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a). In its early historical period, female education in Saudi Arabia faced many challenges (Alsuwaida, 2016). However, this is changing, researchers now claim that the development of female education in Saudi Arabia has been one of the fastest and

most impressive in terms of its expansion over a short period of time (Hamdan, 2005; Almuraiii, 2007; Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013; Alomair, 2015; Alsuwaida, 2016).

In 2014, Parveen investigated recent progress in Saudi women's career advancement, demonstrating opportunities and the ability of women to hold leadership positions in the private and public sectors (see Parveen's Saudi Feminization, 2014). The participants in this study reflect the scale of advancement potential for Saudi females within the MOE. Three female officials in the Saudi Ministry of Education (MOE) participated in this study; this would not have been possible before 2010, as until that time all leadership positions in the Saudi MOE were occupied by men.

Since 2010, the Saudi government has recognised the need to invest in the development of both men's and women's leadership capacity as a strategy to ensure progress (Tatweer, 2018). The new reform project (Tatweer, 2018) has led to the opening of a new division of the MOE for females, equal in size to the male section. All positions are filled by Saudi females who are given the same job titles as used in the male section. This means that female teachers in the education system can now communicate with women in leading positions, and meet with them directly to explain their situations both professionally and socially (MOE, 2018). These female MOE officials run their own offices and staff, create plans, and meet with male colleagues in joint meeting rooms, which are located between two buildings, when they wish to voice their opinions to the Minister of Education directly.

This thesis itself exemplifies how Saudi female education has developed, as the researcher is a female scholarship holder pursuing a higher education qualification abroad. Of the 24 studies of Saudi Education mentioned in this study (i.e. written in English and published), six were authored by Saudi female researchers. Moreover, the female MOE officials who participated in this study themselves represent the development of female participation in Saudi educational development, as they occupy leadership positions in the Saudi MOE. This was important to the data collection process for this study, as the researcher was given direct access to their offices and was able to interview the participants freely; a

situation that would have been challenging ten years ago, when all MOE officials were male.

Despite the barriers that females in Saudi Arabia undoubtedly encounter (Almalki and Ganong, 2018; Alyami and Floyd, 2019), this study focuses on modern reforms in Saudi education, which have advanced both female and male education; e.g. the Tatweer project, the King Abdullah Scholarship Programme, KAUST university, 2030 VISION, as will be discussed in the following section.

1.2.3 Role of Government in the Modern Education System

The Saudi government's current investment in Education is not only reflected in its generous spending; in reality, it is also supported by the freedom and trust afforded to MOE leaders who are seeking to adopt new initiatives and implement innovative ideas, e.g. the Tatweer Project¹ and the Aafaq project.² Historically, all educational development initiatives are welcomed, encouraged and endorsed by Saudi Kings (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a; MOE, 2018b) (see Appendix 1 for a detailed timeline of educational development and funding in Saudi Arabia). Pavan adds that: "the role played by the Al Saud rulers in support of education has been remarkably consistent through the years" (Pavan, 2013, p. 27). This is reflected in the Basic Law of Governance issued by the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Fahd on March 1 1992. Article 30 of which establishes: "The State shall provide public education and commit itself to the eradication of illiteracy".

¹ Tatweer is King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz's National Education Development Project for developing the Saudi education system. It is an attempt to align with the highest international standards (MOE, 2018). From 2008 up to US\$ 3.1 billion in funds were allocated for developing all aspects of general education in Saudi Arabia, including teacher education (Albedaiwi, 2014; Tatweer, 2018).

² In 2009, within the framework of the Tatweer Project, Saudi Arabia launched Aafaq (Arabic translation for 'Horizon'), "The Future Plans for Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia". Aafaq is a 25-year plan defining the vision for Saudi Higher Education, its mission, needs, types, output quality and funding methods (MOE, 2018).

As stated in the new 2030 Vision of a future Saudi Arabia (VISION, 2018), the government's support for education in the Kingdom reflects an awareness of the importance of education to sustain development, as the country cannot solely depend on its oil resources, which are finite. Education is acknowledged as the cornerstone of a knowledge-based economy that will support sustainable development and economic growth (Bashehab and Buddhapriya, 2013 in Albedaiwi 2014); thus, the education of teachers is of national importance (VISION, 2018).

1.2.4 Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in Saudi Arabia

This section explores the development of ITE in Saudi Arabia. It is important to understand the developments and setbacks that will be discussed later when comparing it to other ITE systems (section 1.3). It is also important to understand the participants of this study experience when they were educated in teachers' colleges before their closer, and how that effects their perspective on how STs are educated nowadays under the one-year diploma.

In 1953 the Ministry of Knowledge was established, to focus on educating pre-service teachers and training in-service teachers. These Primary Teacher Institutes were opened in seven Saudi cities, and in 1965 they were sub-divided into two sections: Institutes for teachers of Religion and Institutes for Arts and Sports teachers, a third institute for Maths and Science teachers was opened later in 1974 (Alghamdi and Abduljawaad, 2014).

In 1976 Intermediate Colleges were opened to further develop teachers' education. The duration of study was five terms and different subjects were taught; Religion, Arabic Language, Art, Social Studies, Maths, Science, Physical Education. When the student graduated he obtained an Intermediate Teacher College Diploma and was qualified to teach in both elementary and intermediate schools. Later Intermediate Colleges were opened for female students, preparing to be elementary teachers. The system and length of study was the same as in the males' Intermediate Colleges, even the departments were the same, with an additional subject, Household Management (Alghamdi and Abduljawaad, 2014).

In 1989, the MOHE opened Teacher Colleges to prepare primary school teachers and Colleges of Education for high school teachers (Alghamdi and Abduljawaad, 2014). All the participants in this study were graduates from these colleges. Between 1989 and 2004 all Saudi high school graduates planning to pursue a career in teaching were given the opportunity to choose between Teachers Colleges or Colleges of Education, each offering their own programmes. Both colleges offered a four-year bachelor's degree. In both institutes, students were taught both specialised subjects in key areas of study, as well as educational subjects (see attached academic transcripts in Appendix 1 and 2), and given two periods of practical training in schools, one in the students' third year and another in their final year (Liton, 2012; Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018).

Teacher Colleges for preparing primary school teachers, had a separate department for each of the subjects taught in Saudi Primary schools (Maths, general science, Arabic, general Islamic studies, general social studies). Meanwhile, Colleges of Education were considered to be of higher status, because they prepared teachers for teaching in high schools (intermediate and secondary, as they are called in Saudi Arabia). They imposed higher entry requirements and had more complex entry examinations than Teachers' Colleges. They were also more specialised, including departments for all high school subjects (physics, biology, chemistry, history, psychology, English, computer science, etc.). The following figure shows the different courses Teachers' Colleges and Colleges of Education offered between 1990 and 2004.

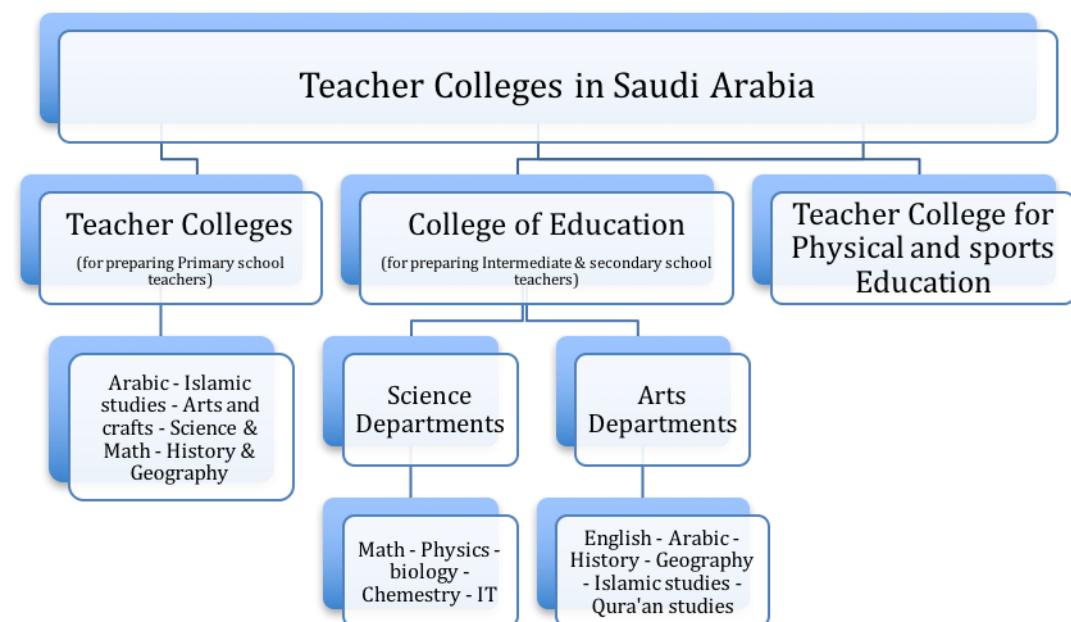


FIGURE 1-2: TEACHER COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA (1990-2004)

An important aspect shared by all the above institutes was that they had a practical training course, enabling students to carry out their practicum in primary or high schools.

At the present time, Saudi graduates who plan on becoming teachers have to obtain a bachelor's degree from a university before applying for a standard one-year post-graduate education program offering a Diploma in Education. The diploma is available to all postgraduates, regardless of their field of study or whether they plan to teach in a primary or high school context. This is considered by many Saudi researchers (e.g. Alghamdi and Li Li, 2012; Al-Seghayer, 2014b; Albedaiwi, 2014; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a) as a major setback to the long evolving process of teacher education in Saudi Arabia, because STs formerly benefitted from an extended period of practical training (two semesters), which is just two or three weeks in the diploma. In general, all colleges of education fall under the auspices of the larger universities and offer courses similar to those offered at Princess Noura University College of Education (P.N.U, 2018):

- Early childhood education
- Teaching methods

- Psychology
- Special Education

This means theory is now offered in isolation from practice; e.g. a student could study English, History or Arabic separately from the profession of teaching, and then after they graduate they would study more theory as part of a one year education programme (Alsahli, 2012). In the following section, the importance of practical training will be introduced briefly (it will be explained in more detail in section 1.4.2), followed by a description of how it is currently carried out in Saudi Arabia. Finally, the challenges it faces from the Saudi researchers' point of view, form part of the justification for this study.

1.2.4.1 Practicum (Practical training)

A considerable amount of international ITE literature on teacher education is concerned with STs' practicum, as it is considered to be the most influential component of their preparation (Burn and Mutton, 2015; Montecinos, Cortez and Walker, 2015; La Paro *et al.*, 2018). However, as mentioned above, students who choose a diploma course post-graduation, only undertake a practical training course (practicum) of two to three weeks in a primary school setting, usually in their last semester (G.T.U, 2018).

STs who attend a College of Education undergo more practical training: one period in their third year, lasting a whole academic semester, and another in their fourth and final year, also lasting a full academic semester, meaning they have a whole academic year of practical training (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018) (see Appendices 2 and 3 for an example of the researcher's own graduation transcript 1998-2002). They also take time in between these two practicum periods to study more advanced theory to apply in their next practicum, which is normally at a higher level (involving older students, more advanced subjects, or includes being involved in creating tests and assisting CTs in evaluation and paperwork).

The current practical training course (practicum) discussed in this study only adds eight credit hours to STs (see K.A.U Graduate Training manual, Appendix 3), and varies from one University to another. Moreover, the system that STs follow during the practicum solely depends on what the school allows them or requires them to do, which varies from one school to another, as when preparing observation lessons, meetings with CTs, giving out tests for pupils, types of extracurricular assignments and number of substitution classes they are expected to teach (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2014b; Alfares, 2014).

Overall, courses on Saudi ITE programmes are 90 percent non-methodological (e.g. psychology, system of education in Saudi Arabia, Education in Islam, etc.) and only ten percent offer teaching-methods courses (Al-Seghayer, 2013). This leads Al-Hazmi (2003) to argue that these courses do not offer adequate preparation for STs, and do not meet their needs, since none of the non-methodological courses would prepare them for classroom practice. Therefore, although STs might acquire the subject knowledge they need, they lack pedagogical knowledge and practical experience (Alfares, 2014).

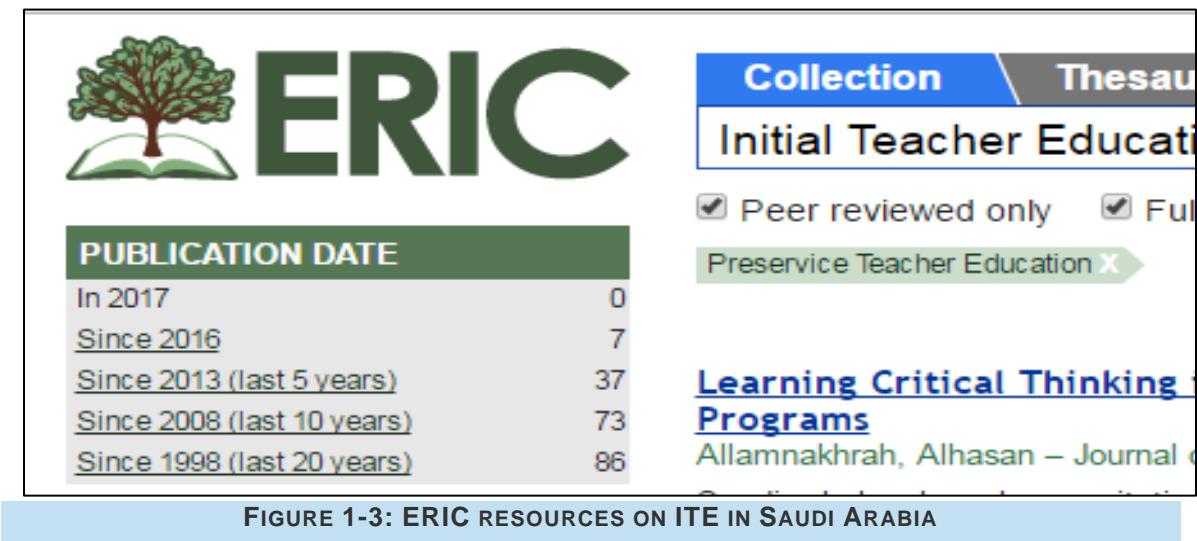
Thus, the requirement for more research into this area is highly recommended by those overseeing the Tatweer project (Tatweer 2018). Undeniably, however, research investigating ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia is challenging, as highlighted in reference to the issues encountered by this study in the following sub-sections.

1.2.5 Issues Related to Conducting Research on Saudi ITE

When choosing whether to investigate a research topic in the context of a country like Saudi Arabia, it is essential to consider the many restrictions, challenges and misconceptions that might influence the research process and the findings as a result.

The first significant issue is the lack of internationally recognised published resources on ITE in Saudi Arabia. For example when looking up the phrases: Initial OR Pre-service teacher education in Saudi Arabia using the ERIC search engine,

only 86 publications were found for the past 20 years, 73 in the last 10, 37 in the last five, and seven since 2016, as depicted in Figure 1-3 (ERIC, 2016).



The second issue is the lack of published research on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia; the majority of studies are by Saudi authors who are themselves students, and so novice researchers. After graduation few choose to progress and develop their research further, publishing papers in well-known journals and sharing their findings with the global research community.

Another issue that is important to note in relation to the dearth of studies, is that it is rare to find an article on ITE in Saudi Arabia that does not focus on EFL teaching and teachers, and so these studies were necessarily included in this thesis (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Al-Seghayer, 2005; Alharbi, 2006; Al-Thumali, 2011; Khan, 2011; Saqlain and Mahmood, 2013; Almalki, 2014; Alsulami, 2014; Mahboob and Elyas, 2014; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015b). The reason for this is that many of the researchers are Saudi scholarship holders, who were sent abroad to continue their higher education in EFL (in the domain of social sciences only the study of English is awarded overseas scholarships). Many of these publications are available in international journals and can be found by searching web engines such as ERIC and ELSEVIER.

A further issue, as mentioned previously, is the existence of misconceptions, and incorrect or outdated information about Saudi Arabia in the available published books and electronic resources. The fifth issue is the rapid and continuous development in Saudi Arabia in all areas, especially in education, which demands constant follow up by researchers to ensure their studies remain relevant. New policies and initiatives are introduced continually, in response to the new 2030 Vision (VISION, 2018). This study exemplifies this, as it reflects on the KASP and Tatweer project, having witnessed the merger between the Saudi MOE and the Higher MOE in 2015 and the Saudi Vision 2030 (2018).

The sixth issue is the lack of formal documentation detailing policies and strategies in English on formal Saudi publicly available websites. This required the researcher to translate the Training Manual for the STs' practicum and their evaluation sheet from Arabic into English for inclusion here (see Appendices 4 and 5). Moreover, the page for the Saudi MOE statistics centre is in Arabic only. Another example is the Tatweer Project Aims folder and its Aims' chart, which are also only available in Arabic for download from their website.

In the literature review presented for this study, terminology was the seventh and most prominent concern. When reviewing the Saudi and international literature on ITE, the gap between the two was apparent (see Chapters 2 and 6). In the Saudi literature and government documents on ITE, certain original terminologies remain in use, despite 30 years of development and educational reform. These include words and expressions that have been replaced in western studies, reflecting the evolution of research in this area. For example, teacher professional learning (TPL) is considered training in Saudi Arabia. Similarly, the terms 'mentor' and 'mentoring' are not employed in the Saudi ITE context, rather the term 'CT' is used to refer to a school teacher who is assigned to supervise STs' professional learning during their practicum. In contrast, other terms, that have been widely used in the field of teacher education in the international literature, are seldom used in the Saudi literature or not at all in relation to Saudi ITE. The following are examples of this:

In Saudi Arabia	International literature
Teacher Training, teaching, supervising	Teacher Education, adult learning, learning to teach, professional learning/development
Training supervisor, teacher	CT, mentor, mentor teacher, in-service teacher, experienced teacher, Practising teachers
college student, college girl/boy, student	ST, mentee, trainee teacher, pre-service teacher, novice teacher
Practical training	Practicum, school placement
Testing, examining	Evaluating, assessing, observing, feed back
Instructing	Guiding, coaching, cooperating, collaborating
Performing/delivering	Learning, reflecting, developing growing, experiencing
Teaching, lecturing	Exchanging knowledge
Write reports	Reflection/self-assessment

TABLE 1-1: ITE TERMS IN SAUDI AND INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE

1.2.6 Review of Saudi ITE Challenges

Existing research on Saudi Arabia's ITE system focuses on three main areas: the ITE programmes' shortcomings, EFL teaching (English as a Foreign Language) and EFL teacher preparation, the Tatweer Project, and the recent 2030 Vision. Challenges in ITE and EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia dominate the majority of available studies and focus mainly on challenges. Whereas, Tatweer and the 2030 VISION address aims and strategies (positive aspects) based on online materials from official websites. This study contends that examining the first will achieve the latter.

The evidence reported in the literature regarding ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia conveys a sense of the education system as a whole; this is because it is a hierarchical system, and the policies in place are applied at all levels of education from pre-school to university level, including within Teacher Education (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018).

1.2.6.1 Hierarchy

The first issue highlighted in the literature concerns the centralisation of decision-making within the hierarchical system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Alzaydi, 2010). For example, in Saudi curriculum provision, decision-making is not informed by contact with daily activities or practices in schools, rather it is based on recommendations that have been presented by the MOE research centre to the Minister of Education. The Minister shares and reviews these with his team. This review panel shares its findings with the Minister, who then issues a decision disseminated to all Saudi schools via a longer chain of officials, who are not necessarily involved in teaching (Al-Sadan, 2000).

Crucially, the MOE in Saudi Arabia is also solely responsible for choosing the curriculum for all levels and sectors of education. It determines the textbook choice for each subject and for each grade, to be used in all the schools throughout the Kingdom. Exactly the same procedure applies to university level curricula, with the addition of a university curriculum board affording an extra layer below the Minister of Education (P.N.U, 2018).

This unified system means all the teachers are working according to the same regulations. These regulations can be examined, as they are posted on the MOE website and are accessible at all times. All the ministry officials, head teachers (HTs), teachers, and school administrators, whether male or female, log on to the MOE website. The teachers then upload their pupils' grades, access their files, view their evaluation forms and read about the MOE's latest new regulations, regardless of whether they are located in the capital Riyadh or in the rural villages of Baha. This means that when working with a small sample of participants the researcher can gain an insight into the challenges and opportunities prevailing in the context within which students undertake their practicum as they all work under the same regulations.

This top-down culture pervades all the educational settings in Saudi Arabia, including universities, schools, and training centres. It is also common in many other developing countries, where decision making is the responsibility of

superiors who cannot be contradicted out of respect. Such countries include Malaysia (Senom, Razak Zakaria and Sharatol Ahmad Shah, 2013; Yusoff, Zainol and Ibrahim, 2014; Tahir et al., 2015), Indonesia (Al-Seghayer, 2005), Ghana (Asante, 2011), Pakistan (Akhter, 2013), UAE (AL Ahbab, 2016) and Saudi Arabia (Alsahli, 2012; Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a).

1.2.6.2 Evaluation

The evaluation process is also another shortcoming of the Saudi education system, because it relies heavily on traditional written exams (Albedaiwi, 2014; Alfares, 2014; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015b; Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018). Al-Sadan argues that assessment should be concerned with learners' development and growth overall: their learning, their attitudes and their personalities, not only their ability to memorise information (Al-Sadan, 2000). In Saudi ITE programmes, for example, the STs pass their practicum evaluation following submission of a written practical Training Report, which equates to 40% of their final grade (G.T.U, 2018) (see Graduate Training Unit manual and trainee evaluation form Appendices 4 and 5). This traditional evaluation method focuses on students' capacity to replicate their tutors' knowledge (typical of the apprenticeship approach). This point will be further discussed when mentoring models and approaches are explored (Chapter 2, section 2.4).

1.2.6.3 Gap between Theory and Practice

Both Saudi and non-Saudi researchers have recognised the gap between theory and practice as a major challenge to Saudi teachers' learning and development (Baqadir and Growth, 2013; Al-Rabai, 2014). They highlight that the material taught in ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia often fails to relate to what is really occurring in schools. Some are still debating what to teach STs, and make frequent changes to their curriculum (Al-Seghayer, 2014a, 2014b). Saudi researchers report that minimal research has been devoted to establishing how to best transform methodological knowledge into practical solutions in Saudi classrooms (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Liton, 2012; Saqlain and Mahmood, 2013; Albedaiwi, 2014). In her PhD thesis, published in 2014, Alfares examined EFL ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia.

She reported that STs' education programmes were disjointed and mainly controlled by the Department of Education, resulting in numerous limitations. The most important of these was the lack of an appropriate duration of school practicum to prepare EFL teachers, since they need to establish ways to implement teaching strategies independently (Alfares, 2014).

Al-Hazmi (2003) reported that CTs (or training supervisors as they are called in Saudi Arabia) could not assume the responsibility for training STs, because they lacked an appropriate background in generalised pedagogical knowledge (GPK) (Al-Hazmi, 2003), resulting in a notable gap between STs' ITE programmes, and teaching in the classroom (Al-Hazmi, 2003).

This gap has also been reported by researchers beyond the Saudi context, who claim that it is a problem shared by many Arab countries. Al-Rabai (2014) (a researcher from Jordan and the Head of the Education College in the University of Qatar) observed a huge gap between the education that STs gain during their ITE programmes and the actual practice of teaching in schools while completing their practicum (Al-Rabai, 2014). Al-Rabai believes that mentoring is the missing link here, and that these countries need to address this. He suggests that they should model/create a mentor teacher-figure and identifies essential factors to allow effective mentoring to occur (Al-Rabai, 2014, p. 289).

1.3 The Purpose and Significance of the Study

The motivation to conduct this study arose from the researcher's experience as a ST working in a College of Education (1998-2002, see Appendices 2 and 3); as a ST training supervisor (CT) in a primary school (2006-2008) and finally as a university training supervisor within King Abdulaziz University's English Department (2011-2013). Through this experience, the researcher observed that STs' practicum training was most effective when they were being well supported by their CTs. It was also noted that STs required more support than that provided by CTs, which suggested that the support system currently in place for STs undertaking their practicum in Saudi primary schools was problematic. For example, some CTs only checked students' lesson plans, to establish whether students had organised their lessons to be consistent with the schools' work

schemes. To these CTs, it seems they believe they are only required to fill in STs' evaluation reports and not to provide them with any support inside or outside the classroom (the position of the researcher in relation to the study will be explored in more depth in section 3.7).

1.3.1 Teachers' professional learning

According to the General Teaching Council for Scotland GTCS (2020); teachers' professional learning should stimulate their thinking and professional knowledge and ensure that their practice is critically informed and current to inspire pupils and provide high-quality teaching and learning experiences, enabling learners to achieve their best (GTCS, 2020). In addition, professional learning for teachers should provide appropriate theoretical courses, clinical placements and in-service training to develop their insight into employment practice (Pilz, Berger and Canning, 2014). In contrast, Saudi MOE policies and official documentation (examined above, section 1.2.5) refers to teacher professional learning TPL as teacher "training" (this different perspective and application of TPL will be further discussed in chapters 2 &5). None the less, challenges facing teacher professional learning in the west is still prominent in the literature. Livingston reports that professional development remains restricted for many teachers, who must select from a catalogue of short 'one-off' pre-planned courses (Livingston, 2014, p. 222). The call for a continuum of collaborative teacher professional learning is gaining more and more interest (McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015). Professional learning would start during ITE for STs and continue throughout their teaching carriers in collaboration with university faculty and school staff (Macdonald, 2016; Willegems *et al.*, 2017).

However, in the Saudi ITE context, research findings point to a number of difficulties, in providing appropriate support for STs in ITE programmes (Baeshin, 2016). Lack of support could have negative effects on STs by generating feelings of isolation, and perhaps explaining why collaboration between teachers and STs might be recognised elsewhere as an important factor in their professional learning (Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Mackie, 2018; Canrinus *et al.*, 2019).

1.3.2 Mentoring

In many teachers' professional learning programmes, the activity of supporting STs is described as mentoring. The National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching developed by the Centre for the Use of Research and Evidence in Education (CUREE) collated a range of literature, and defined mentoring as "a structured, sustained process for supporting professional learners through significant career transitions" (CUREE, 2005, p. 4). This definition is significant for the present study, as it acknowledges the importance of continuous learning process within teacher education, and a sustained structure that supports teachers in both their initial education, and later in their teaching career.

The definition provided by Topping (2005 cited in Powell, 2016, p.632) of a 'school-based mentor' as an experienced school teacher with the responsibility for supporting STs reflects the position of CTs in the Saudi ITE context, in which experienced teachers are responsible for supporting STs. However, mentors can also be other school personnel, and can provide assistance to a broader range of teachers, including in-service teachers, new teachers, and STs (DeCesare, Workman and McClelland, 2016).

Mentoring is also a relationship where mentor and mentee are sporadic partners and co-learners with the mentor acting more as a supervisor (Garza *et al.*, 2019, p. 20) (mentoring will be discussed in depth in chapter two). In countries such as the USA, the UK, other European countries and Australia, mentoring programmes have served to enhance the learning experiences of STs (Cain, 2009; Conway, Murphy and Rath, 2009; Hudson, 2013a; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015; Smith and Nadelson, 2016; Nolan and Molla, 2017; Garza *et al.*, 2019; Walsh and Dolan, 2019).

Since the 1980s, many western countries have witnessed an increase in the number of formal programmes offering school-based mentoring for STs. In England in the early 1990s, for example, the national government mandated that STs should spend at least two-thirds of their postgraduate initial teacher preparation (ITP) time in schools, and that practising teachers would be expected to play a

major role in supporting their attainment of government-specified teaching competences (Hobson et al., 2009).

In the USA, the Santa Cruz New Teacher Centre (SCNTP) established in 1998 identified mentoring as its core activity to support new teachers (Moir, 2005). Similarly, in recognition of collaborative effort as a missing dimension to address problems affecting teaching and learning, the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) set out mentoring as part of its core activities, designed to equip new teachers with practical skills (TRCN, 2007 cited in Aderibigbe, 2012). The Scottish Government's continuous professional development (CPD) framework for career-long professional learning also integrates mentoring and partnership components (Scottish Executive, 2002; Donaldson, 2011).

Unfortunately, this has not been the case in countries such as Saudi Arabia, where the idea of mentoring in teacher education research is relatively limited (Al-Hazmi 2003; Al-Thumali 2011; Alghamdi and Abduljawad 2014; Baqadir and Growth 2013). Although a number of Saudi and non-Saudi researchers have recommended the more structured and prominent figure of a “mentor” as a solution for some of the difficulties facing Saudi ITE programs (Al-Rabai, 2014; Albedaiwi, 2014), there remains a need for more rigorous research. Due to the considerable gap in the literature regarding mentoring in Saudi ITE, international literature is critically reviewed for this study and findings concerning the nature of the role, skills, models, approaches and issues that relate to mentoring STs are explored.

Despite the advantages of mentoring teachers' professional learning being well-documented for both STs and CTs, researchers argue that more effort is needed to enhance teachers' professional development into a mentoring role (Aspfors and Fransson, 2015; Livingston, 2016b). This is consistent with the views set out by Barrera, Bradley and Slate (2010), who contend that, while the benefits of mentoring to teachers' professional development have been reported, its effectiveness in the ITE setting remains under-investigated. They advocate regular examination of mentoring initiatives to determine the needs of teachers and improve their learning. Vermunt and Endedijk (2011) argue that many teacher education reforms have failed because of oversights when addressing teachers'

learning and education (Vermunt and Endedijk, (2011) in Aderibigbe et al., 2016). Traditional approaches to teacher education are increasingly criticised for not attending to STs' needs, resulting in their having a limited impact on professional practice (Lunenberg and Korthagen, 2009).

Perry (2000) highlighted that a major pitfall in mentoring practices is the adoption of a mentoring model from one context and transposition of it to another. This implies there is no “one-size-fits-all” version of mentoring (Murray 2008; Rolheiser et al. 2012; Nishimura 2014). Therefore, this research considers the unique socio-cultural context of Saudi ITE when reviewing literature or considering practices. Moreover, Zeichner and Ndimande (2008) explain that it might be difficult to implement classroom reforms if teachers are not comfortable about new ideas (Zeichner and Ndimande, 2008). This might result in the views of CTs, school HTs and MOE officials being considered essential to better understand CTs’ roles and strengthen mutual learning. As Linley (2006) points out, a study providing relevant information can enhance existing practice and performance. Thus, the awareness that underpins this study is significant and consistent with those published by Barrera et al. (2010) and Cochran-Smith et al. (2015), who insist that the views of stakeholders in the mentoring process need to be considered to achieve mentoring goals (Barrera, Braley and Slatec, 2010; Cochran-Smith et al., 2015). International research also that directs attention towards CTs, emphasising their importance to the success of teacher preparation programmes, especially in Arab Countries, where many teachers are still using traditional teaching approaches and techniques (Al-Rabai, 2014).

In response to the many issues discussed in this section the statement of the research problem is discussed in the next section.

1.4 Statement of the Research Problem

Although mentoring is relatively new and underdeveloped in ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia, school teachers who are in the role of CTs are already involved in the practicum of STs in Saudi Arabia, providing a good starting point for development. Indeed, Saudi ITE researchers have previously suggested that

introducing a mentoring component to existing ITE programmes could resolve the challenges facing STs (Al-Seghayer, 2014b; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015b; Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018; Alyami and Floyd, 2019). However, whether CTs are mentors in everything but name, requiring nothing but a new title; or supervisors, requiring minimal training to carry out mentor responsibilities; or coordinators, who need to undergo a full mentor preparation programme to be able to contribute effectively to STs' professional learning, needs exploration and further understanding. The literature available to date does not resolve these questions or offer clarification regarding what is occurring in ITE programmes at present in Saudi Arabia, or the role performed by CTs in supporting the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools.

The most detailed evidence was provided by Al-Rabai (2014), who described the situation during STs' practicum in a number of Arab countries, including Jordan, Bahrain, Qatar and Saudi Arabia. He explains that typically school HTs assign experienced CTs to supervise STs during their practicum at their school. They usually offer the ST guidance that can take the form of modelling, or class observation and feedback discussions (Al-Rabai, 2014). However, the reality is that the majority of CTs lack the proper qualifications and adequate professional preparation, which might negatively affect the ST's attitude towards, and their perception of the teaching profession (Mena et al., 2015; Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016; Foukal, Lawrence and Williams, 2016). Al-Rabai reports that this is common place because the CTs were not trained as mentors (Al-Rabai, 2014). Regardless of how much added value is associated with extensive teaching experience, it does not qualify a teacher to serve as a mentor for STs. Further, on occasion a CT may be assigned simply because there is no other choice; i.e. because they are the only school teacher sharing the same specialism as the ST (Al-Rabai, 2014).

In regard to the national project for developing education in Saudi Arabia, Tatweer, this study sets out to contribute by fulfilling one of its ten aims: "Developing Teacher Professionalism" (Tatweer, 2018). Tatweer assigns seven strategies to achieve this aim, and this research considers the second: "strengthening school-university partnership to raise teachers' performance".

Three procedures are recommended to achieve this strategy; the aim of this research relates to the third one: “finding new ways to enhance the quality of STs’ practicum in ITE programmes” (Tatweer, 2018) (see Figure 1.4 below).

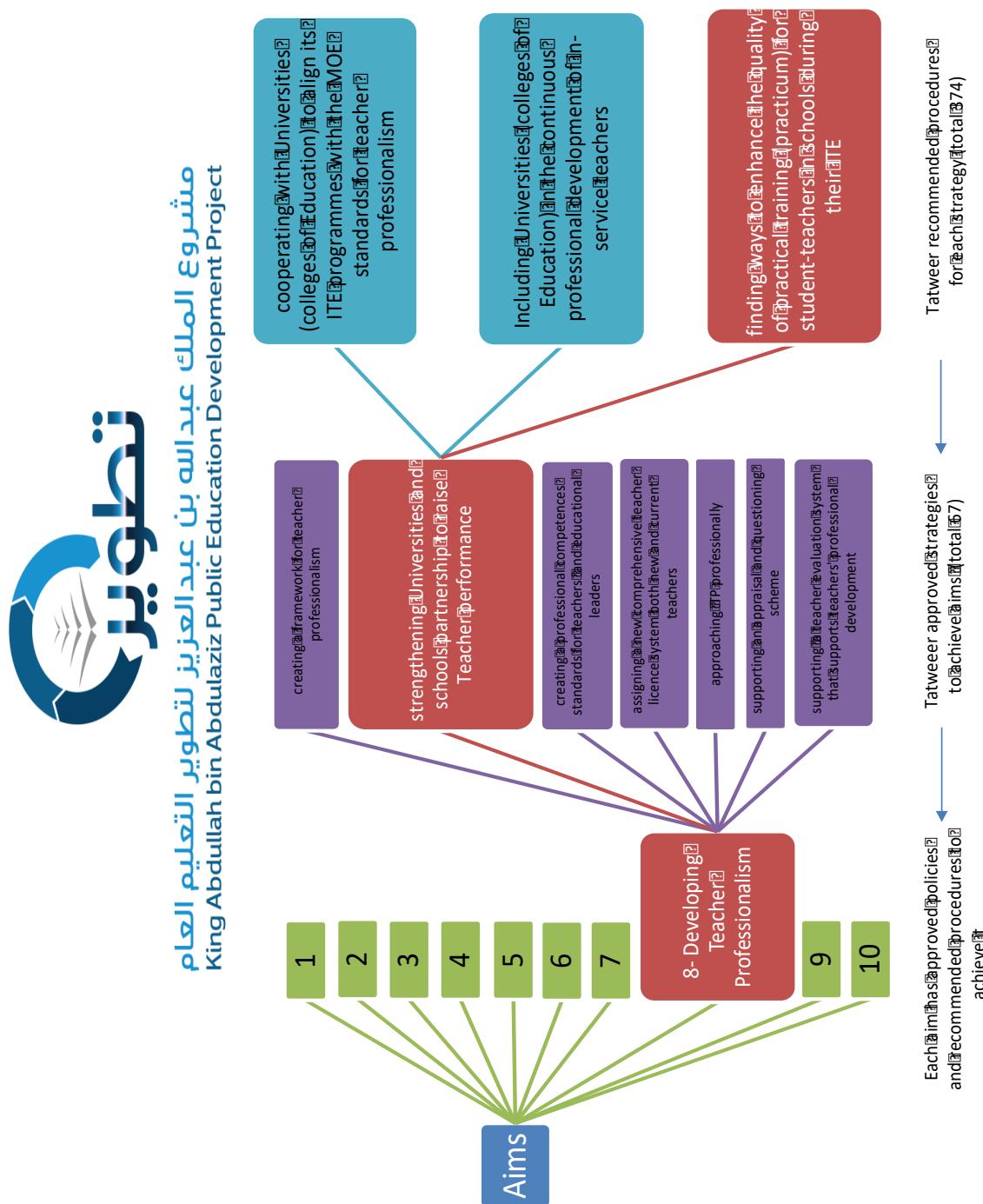


FIGURE 1-4: TATWEER PROJECT AIMS

Tatweer has ten aims and 67 strategies to realise these aims, as well as 378 recommended procedures for achieving them.

1.5 The Aim of the Study

In keeping with the Tatweer Project's call to enhance the quality of STs' practicum in ITE programmes, as a means to raise the level of Saudi teachers' professionalism, this study investigates CTs' role in the professional learning of STs, during their practicum in Saudi primary schools. The aim is first to develop a deeper understanding of how CTs, HTs and the MOE perceive the role, its challenges, and the factors that might contribute to developing it. The second aim is to offer recommendations based on a critical review of the international literature and the research findings, concerning the introduction of a mentoring scheme to develop the quality of Saudi ITE programmes (see Tatweer Project Aim chart, Figure 1-4).

1.6 The Research Questions

- 1- What is the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
- 2- What are the challenges facing the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
- 3- What factors could contribute to overcoming those challenges and help develop the CT's role?

1.7 Thesis Summary

This study comprises six chapters. Chapter 1 provided background information on the setting: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. ITE in Saudi Arabia is analysed highlighting its challenges and issues related to conducting research on Saudi ITE. It then explored ITE programmes that are reported in the ITE literature as successful, so

as to inform practice in other settings. Subsequently, common policies shared by well-performing ITE systems were identified and discussed in relation to the Saudi ITE system. The purpose and significance of the study plus the research problem was presented, followed by the aim of the study and the research questions.

Chapter 2 reviews international literature related to learning and teaching as well as mentoring in ITE. It focuses on the concept of mentoring, the role and strategies of effective mentoring from empirical perspectives, compares mentors' roles to CTs' roles in the ITE literature, and explores mentoring models and approaches utilised in ITE. The chapter concludes by discussing issues associated with mentoring from the ITE literature.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology proposed for this study. It is divided into three parts. The first part focuses on philosophical assumptions and justifies the adoption of the interpretive paradigm. The second part introduces the qualitative approach as a strategy of inquiry. The final part discusses the research methods used in the collection and analysis of data. It concludes by explaining the ethical issues considered during the process of collection, analysis and presentation of the data.

Chapter 4 presents the study's data findings. It is divided into three parts. Each part presents the data findings as it relates to a research question. Within each part, the findings are organised into categories, and the themes that emerged from the previous stage of analysis.

Chapter 5 discusses the study findings in relation to the ITE literature reviewed in Chapter 2. It connects the data findings with mentoring models and theoretical approaches reported in the reviewed international ITE literature, to address the research questions generated for the study and to offer recommendations for practice at the Saudi MOE. This chapter serves as a platform for the next and final chapter.

Chapter 6 presents the conclusions from the study, by summarising the three findings set out in the research questions. The Saudi MOE recommends a Saudi

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National Mentoring Scheme, and its implications are explained by the MOE, CTs, universities, and schools/school HTs, along with the study's limitations and suggestions for further research.

Chapter.2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As a former lecturer with the responsibility of supervising student teachers' practicum, it was noted that they were struggling with meeting their practicum requirements due to the lack of support from school teachers (cooperating teachers) for their professional learning. To improve student teachers' practicum experience, international literature on models of ITE in other countries was analysed. After studying the many ways in which ITE programmes' practicum was developed, it was noted that Saudi ITE practicum was taught and assessed based on a behaviourist model. However, looking at other models of ITE helped me realise that other *theories of learning*: constructivist theories, were useful.

Firstly, the chapter will take a brief look at other models of ITE (section 2.2) and the policies and practices associated with them (section 2.3). Then, in section 2.4, it will move to a synthesis of learning theories and their implications for Saudi ITE programmes. Then it will concentrate on mentoring as a feature of constructivist theories (Appendix 5, pp. 252). It will argue that in order to embed a helpful model of the practicum in ITE in SA, the shift from behaviourism to constructivism is a necessary theoretical shift.

This part of the review provides a context for answering research question 1:

1. What is the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

Since the focus of this study concerns the development of the current CT role in Saudi ITE practicum, into a mentoring role to support professional learning for STs, a synthesise of effective mentoring skills reported in international ITE literature will be provided (section 2.6) followed by a comparison between the roles of mentor and CT (section 2.6.1).

Section 2.7 discusses the main issues associated with the mentor's role in the ITE context, which is significant for addressing RQ2 that concerns the challenges faced by CTs in their role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi ITE:

2. What are the challenges facing the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

The literature provided insights regarding the challenges to mentoring in the international context, compared with those in certain developing countries that share similar socio-cultural elements in their education system with that of Saudi Arabia.

Section 2.7 also discusses the factors reported in the ITE literature that contribute to overcoming these challenges, and to developing the mentoring role. This assists in addressing RQ3 concerning the possible factors that might develop the CT role, particularly in the Saudi ITE context:

3. What factors could contribute to overcoming those challenges and help develop the CT's role?

It also provided a basis for evaluating the data gathered from the Saudi ITE stakeholders in this present study, regarding the factors that could develop the CT role to align with that described in the literature, and with the current practice of some of the leading ITE systems.

2.2 International Models of ITE

Developing ITE programmes has always been an issue for both developed and underdeveloped nations. The process has shifted from simply finding a situational context that fosters ITE, to creating suitable policies, procedures and content. This in many instances required involving different participants (university faculty, teachers, researchers, school staff etc.) (Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Jackson and Burch, 2019) to provide high-quality teacher education, which can involve

changing educational cultures by reducing universities' dominance in this area. There is also evidence of increasing dialogue between school-based ITE supporters and advocates for university-based ITE programmes (Czerniawski et al. 2017). In some places, programmes are starting to take shape, whilst in others, especially in developing countries like Saudi Arabia, such initiatives are recent developments. A major report for the US Government (2011), by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), concerning the implications of the most recent outcomes of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), clarifies that the most successful school systems in the world, such as those in Finland and Singapore, emphasise offering teacher education in schools and retain commitment to university-based provision. STs have the opportunity to study how young people learn, and as such engage with the findings of recent research. They can develop as researchers themselves, through engaging with a number of well-supported opportunities to undertake Master's and Doctoral studies (Furlong, 2013).

In preparation for this study, the author undertook extensive reading to review ITE systems around the world, namely: the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, Italy, Finland, the Netherlands, Turkey, Singapore, Pakistan, Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, Ghana, Chile, Oman, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait and the UAE. The intention was to understand and critique how different systems function in different parts of the world, and how they respond to specific needs and challenges. In particular, the following countries' ITE systems were examined: the UK, the USA, Canada, the Netherlands, Finland and Singapore. The reasons for selecting these countries for review are that they have the most widely cited researchers in ITE (particularly the UK and the USA) and their publications are published in some of the most prominent peer-reviewed journals of education.

An important point to note is that, although the systems analysed were operating in various contexts and on differing development time scales, they all introduced reform after reform to develop their education systems, in response to educational research. Keeping pace with continuous changes in the economic and social scene was a challenge for all systems; thus, re-visiting and re-viewing previous initiatives is an ongoing necessity. For example, at the Amsterdam School

of Education, teacher education begins with an introduction to relevant theory, to provide a frame of reference for discussions about classroom experiences (Burn and Mutton, 2015, p. 223). This highlights the enduring importance of educational theory for ITE professional learning, and suggests a need for caution among those developing countries (like Saudi Arabia) that have drastically cut down on educational theoretical subjects (from 18 to 4) following the mergers of colleges of education (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018). Nevertheless, this study recognises the vast differences between the systems, and the unique socio-cultural context of the Saudi education system. Furthermore, the Saudi ITE system will be analysed to develop a deeper understanding of current practice.

Similar to many countries in the region, the Saudi Arabian higher education system is relatively new. Approximately 65% of the government universities were established in the last 15 years. The total number of students enrolling in government universities in 2016 was 1,193,034 (MOE, 2018b). It is also experiencing the fastest growth, in terms of numbers of students entering college per annum. This growth in numbers, alongside the Tatweer Project, has instigated many changes. Many MOE officials and researchers are principally focused on learning from leading countries in the field of Education. Thus, this study has examined many such countries to identify notable similarities, affecting certain situations or regulations at certain points on the ITE journey that may inform or challenge the current Saudi ITE reality. Specifically, these include many government-initiated educational reforms, colleges of education mergers, vast economic and social change, swift growth in the educational system and the introduction of change to benefit researchers in the field of education, rather than government officials.

2.3 Policies and Processes of ITE Programmes in other countries

Many studies have been conducted to assist school systems with improvements to their ITE programmes, drawing important lessons from nations with outstanding educational systems (Darling-Hammond, 2006, 2010; Conway, Murphy and Rath,

2009; Menter et al., 2010; Darling-Hammond and Rothman, 2011; Rothman and Darling-Hammond, 2015; Canrinus et al. 2019). Typically, researchers examine common features and differences when approaching high-performing systems that have made education a top priority, having developed high-leverage strategies to realise their goals. Their various solutions include ideas on how to create a strong teacher education system from recruitment and preparation through induction, professional development, evaluation, and career advancement, moving into leadership roles (Rothman and Darling-Hammond 2015). The majority of the research focuses on systems in Finland, the Netherlands, Canada, Singapore, the U.K. and the U.S.A. Consequently, a set of common attributes considered necessary for any teacher education system to succeed are explored. These are critically reviewed in terms of their usefulness and relevance to policymakers, practitioners, and researchers engaged in strengthening the quality of ITE in their countries (Canrinus et al. 2019).

Some of the key elements of successful programmes will be considered in relation to the reported challenges of the Saudi ITE context (discussed in section 1.2.7). These are: coherence between coursework and clinical practice (practicum); a strong core curriculum; extensive clinical experience (practicum) in schools; an enquiry based approach; school-university partnerships; assessment based on professional standards, and effective mentoring during the course of clinical practice (practicum) under direct supervision of an expert teacher (Rothman and Darling-Hammond 2015; Grieser & Hindricks 2018; Jackson & Burch 2018).

Moreover, the following factors relate to the development of effective practice in ITE to enhance teacher professionalism (one of the Saudi Tatweer project's aims): mentoring, induction and early professional development; partnership arrangements with schools; continuing professional development (CPD); collaborative approaches to curriculum design and evaluation; recognition of accomplished teachers and issues associated with the professional development of teacher educators, both in universities and schools (Menter et al., 2010, p. 8).

These features provide ITE programmes with the potential to overcome core challenges that share similarities with the Saudi ITE challenges; such as socio-cultural aspects like hierarchy and the gap between theory and practice.

Moreover, in their report prepared for the Irish teaching council, Conway et al. (2009) also identified which principles typically underpin quality ITE programmes. The most relevant to this study is the focus on clearly defined and agreed criteria for ‘good teaching’ (framework) that is linked to wider professional expectations and codes of conduct (Conway, Murphy and Rath, 2009, pp. 18-19). They also highlighted the focus on learners’ knowledge, by understanding the contingent nature of learning and the impact of both the immediate and wider social context on learning and teaching. They also confirm the importance of integrating foundations, curriculum/methods and teaching practices as the three core components of ITE, and the impact of socio-culture aspects on teacher education coursework and practices (Conway, Murphy and Rath, 2009, pp. 18-19).

A critical review of the shared features of successful ITE programmes, such as those given provide an insight into the different features of ITE programmes in countries identified as successful, the reasons for accomplishing successful outcomes, and what graduates achieve as a result. Nevertheless, the policies, organisational features, and resources of these institutes must also be examined, because of the major role they play in fostering the effectiveness of such programmes, whilst bearing in mind that these aspects vary from one ITE programme to another. The following section explores common policies and processes that ITE researchers believe should secure efficient ITE and sustain excellent teacher performance.

2.3.1 Teacher continuous professional learning

Top-performing systems agree that teacher education should be a continuous process throughout a teacher’s professional career. In Scotland, following the Donaldson review of teacher education, it is now Government policy to develop a systematic and coherent approach to career-long professional learning for teachers, in which universities will play a prominent role. A similar emphasis on

integrated and embedded teacher professional learning is evident in the Netherlands, where there has been a shift over recent decades, away from traditional university-based programmes towards more integrated programmes based on “realistic” or “authentic” approaches to teacher education (Burn and Mutton, 2015). In line with developments elsewhere, these Dutch reforms have been driven by a need to provide more adequate preparation to meet classroom realities following widespread recognition of the problem of “reality shock” experienced by new teachers (BERA, 2014, p. 23). In the Netherlands, practicum is undertaken in special training schools that are linked to universities, and have additional resources to prepare teachers, as well as a commitment to providing appropriately graduated learning opportunities. Teacher educators employ a range of tools and techniques, including video clips, roleplay and relevant research findings, to foster and facilitate student learning, and support early professional development. Overall, the programme is designed to create a more integrated set of learning experiences through the delivery of professional learning opportunities. Thus, while there is no single or universally Dutch approach to teacher education, there is, nevertheless, “a common framework and shared vision of teaching and learning”, informed and inspired by extensive research into effective professional and student learning (Hamerness et al., 2012, p.52 in Jackson & Burch 2019).

2.3.2 Practicum

The role of practicum has always been regarded as important within the ITE context (McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; La Paro et al. 2018; St. John et al. 2018; Canrinus et al. 2019). For example, a very early report on the practicum experience, known as the “Flowers Report” (Flowers, 1948 cited in Clarke et al. 2014, p.4), from the Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, recommended that completing a practicum should be considered an integral part of the professional curriculum. Zeichner (1990) claimed that the ground-breaking Flowers Report set the focus on schools responsibility for ITE in the modern era, emphasising the importance of CTs/mentors during practicum, which has become a common theme in teacher education literature since this time (Zeichner, 1990 cited in Clark et al. 2014). According to Burn et al. (2006), mentoring forms a key

part of the practicum. It is important to note that the previous statement concurs with the focus of this study; i.e. the role of CTs in supporting the professional learning of STs during their practicum in the Saudi ITE context. As this aspect of the practicum has yet to be completely understood from the Saudi ITE stakeholders' perspectives, it is especially important to investigate and develop greater understanding of the potential role of mentors in the Saudi context.

As mentioned earlier, international literature on ITE provides many studies that have identified field experience/practicum as an influential component of ITE. It is also frequently mentioned as one of the policies determining the effectiveness of ITE programmes (Lampert, 2001; Menter et al., 2010; Burn and Mutton, 2015; Rothman and Darling-Hammond, 2015, Canrinus et al. 2019).

Moreover, there has been a recent “practicum turn” in ITE (Mattsson et al., 2011, p 17), placing a much greater emphasis on the role of practicum or field experience in the process of learning to teach in ITE programmes (Ayad, 2013; Conroy, Hulme and Menter, 2013; Klieger and Oster-Levinz, 2015). This move has been advocated both by external critics, frustrated by the perceived shortcomings of overly theoretical or academic programmes (BERA, 2014), and internal critics from within the university sector, who have been critical about the fragmented, uninspiring or superficial nature of traditional approaches (Czerniawski et al. 2017). This frustration with traditional approaches to ITE is also shared with researchers from developing countries (Akhter, 2013; Ibrahim, 2013; Al-Rabai, 2014; Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Tahir et al., 2015; AL Ahbabi, 2016). They have also reported that the time STs spend in the University during practicum is longer than that spent in schools, as they constantly go back and forth for exams and projects, resulting in a lack of focus and underachievement.

Moreover, the role of ITE programmes in selecting and supervising appropriate schools/places of training is a persistent issue in the literature (Ronfeldt et al. 2018; St John et al. 2018). However, the principles upon which that choice should be based, and the supervision methods to be deployed are matters that require more thorough investigation in order to consider the latest findings in the field in

relation to individual ITE programme's unique setting, goals and resources, and their restrictions.

In the Netherlands, longitudinal studies focussed on ITE programmes have generated evidence regarding the effectiveness of specific features of the practicum to support STs' conceptual development and classroom competence (Murray, 2008b; BERA, 2014; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015; van Ginkel *et al.*, 2016). These features notably include the alternation between STs' school teaching and college coursework, the close cooperation of school and university-based teacher educators and careful consideration of the growing complexity of teaching demands used to facilitate learning, including simulations and case studies, and data from different sources (La Paro *et al.* 2018). Howe (2006) reviewed ITE programmes in Australia, Britain, Canada, France, Germany, Japan, New Zealand and the United States (Howe 2006 in Dunst *et al.* 2019), concluding that the best approaches for clinical placement/practicum were based on:

- Individualised induction plans and funding for mentor training. This is vital as a mechanism to develop the CT's role in the Saudi ITE system.
- Development of partner schools for more extended periods of induction, shifting between HEI and schools in the first year followed by more intensive school-based elements in the second. Establishing partner schools worthy of considering for Saudi ITE practicum, as many schools are not prepared or are too understaffed to host and supervise STs' practicum. The reason for this is that the current system allows STs to choose their schools, which often results in the selection of schools based on their location.
- Reduction in responsibilities, in addition to a reduction in teaching workload\time for reflection. This is crucial for the Saudi ITE system, as a major challenge faces Saudi CTs if they choose to take on the responsibility of supervising STs on top of their teaching load.

- The development of an organisational culture in which there is a collaborative exchange involving a range of professionals aimed at supporting newly qualified teachers. This relates directly to the hierarchical educational system in Saudi Arabia, and the challenges it poses to the ST-CT relationship. Greater collaboration between Saudi ITE stakeholders would help develop both ST and CT professional learning.
- The separation of support and assessment functions. In the Saudi ITE system, STs are assessed by their CT, which adds greater formality to what is already a hierarchical relationship, leaving little scope for support. As STs are also assessed by their university supervisors (USs), it is worth considering relieving CTs of their responsibility for assessing STs, to enable them to focus exclusively on providing support and guidance.

Student-teachers' practicum, or practical training (as it is called in the Saudi ITE context) is a common component of ITE programmes and has been documented as of great benefit to student's development from the teacher's perspective. Thus far, the majority of ITE programmes in both developed and developing countries include practicum. However, how different countries conduct and evaluate their practicum very differently. Thus, it is essential for countries aiming to develop their ITE programmes to learn the lessons from other countries by evaluating the practicum, and then addressing the challenges that arise as a result.

2.3.3 School- University Partnership

There has been widespread agreement for some time that strong school-university partnerships support pre-service teachers' professional learning, and these are considered to be significant factors in the success and effectiveness of ITE programmes (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Allen and Peach, 2007; Menter et al. 2010; Allen et al. 2013; European Commission, 2014; Montecinos et al. 2015; Jackson & Burch 2019; Livingston and Shiach, 2019). Darling-Hammond wrote:

The enterprise of teacher education must venture out further and further from the university and engage ever more closely with schools in a mutual

transformation agenda, with all of the struggle and messiness that implies.
(Darling-Hammond 2006, p.302)

She also stated the need for ‘a major overhaul’ of relationships between universities and schools, ultimately to produce changes in the content of schooling, as well as teacher training (Darling-Hammond 2006, p.308).

In the UK, the USA and many developed and developing countries, different groups and institutions have established partnerships designed to prepare future teachers. Some partnerships between university departments and practitioners have typically been located in innovative “teaching schools”, “lab schools” or “professional development schools”, where they are intended to play a similar role to teaching that takes place in hospitals in medical education contexts (BERA, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2014). Whilst the focus has primarily been upon fostering the appropriate preparation of new teachers, some partnerships have focussed on practical components throughout the entire continuum of teacher learning (NCATE, 2010 cited in Bamfield, 2014).

In England, school-university partnerships were strengthened after the 1990s through the National Partnership Project (2001-2005), set up by the Teacher Development Agency (McMahon et al. 2015). However, one of the earliest integrated programmes was the Oxford Internship Scheme, which was developed in the mid-1980s as a response to two sets of concerns citing the discontinuity between university and school and between “theory and practice”, and the poor conditions for preparation and professional learning that tended to prevail in schools, where many novice teachers were undertaking pre-service teaching practice (BERA, 2014). The university and its partnership schools, therefore, carefully developed a sequential programme, in which the two elements of coursework and practicum were conducted in parallel (Whitty and Whitty, 2017). The course was designed to offer a gradual introduction to the complexities of teaching, to integrate learning from multiple sources, through the testing of ideas, including those brought forward by STs themselves (Rice, 2008; Hobson, Ashby et al., 2009; Lupu, 2011; Koç, 2012).

As Burn and Mutton (2015) observed, this scheme was the only one identified by Modes of Teacher Education Research Team (Furlong et al. 2000) as a genuinely collaborative partnership, rather than a complementary one (Burn and Mutton, 2015). Moreover, principles of clinical practice were adapted in collaborative and inquiry-based schemes elsewhere in the UK, notably in the Scottish Teachers for a New Era (STNE) programme in Aberdeen (Livingston and Shiach, 2019), and the Glasgow West Teacher Education Initiative (Menter *et al.*, 2012).

In ITE there is a noted variation in the nature of the partnerships between teacher education providers and school partners. Countries such as Singapore, as well as some US states have highly developed partnerships, in which school-based mentors are responsible for the training of teacher education students in schools, and assessment is carried out jointly between school and university staff members, who sit on boards chaired by HTs (NIE, 2009; Darling-Hammond and Rothman, 2011; Low *et al.*, 2012; Dunst *et al.* 2019).

Even where there are well-developed relationships, there can still be relatively marked differences in how roles are conceptualised and distributed. Menter and colleagues (2010) proposed a three-fold typology model incorporating defined separate roles as in Singapore, focusing on pedagogic relationships as in the Netherlands and Finland, and integrating collaborative approaches similar to those applied in Australia and the United States.

Furthermore, in Professional Development Schools in America, there are Instructional Coaches who do not educate pupils, but instead, are responsible for teacher and ST learning (McLean Davies *et al.*, 2015, Ronfeldt *et al.* 2018). This use of schools as sites for both children's learning and professional teacher education mean new roles can be developed for school and university staff to support and realise their aims (Czerniawski *et al.* 2017). Part of this area of development is considering ways of developing ITE, while also improving the teaching practice (McMahon *et al.* 2015).

On the other hand, researchers have identified the many challenges that arise from school-university partnerships within ITE. Burn and Mutton (2015) warn that

increasing STs' time in schools might well imply a rejection of research-based knowledge, rather than the more effective integration of it with professional knowledge. They also add that the introduction of "partnerships" has often brought about little change to traditional conceptions of professional learning (as in some developing countries), as they merely preserve the dominance of one particular perspective, failing to address potential disjunctions (Burn and Mutton, 2015).

Moreover, the constraints associated with establishing and sustaining such partnerships have also been broadly acknowledged (Darling-Hammond et al. 2005; Allen and Peach, 2007; Bloomfield, 2009; Al-Rabai, 2014). Bloomfield (2009) refers to the pressures created by time and resources, which are experienced by organisations involved in partnerships, highlighting the importance of creating a common understanding between key stakeholders. In particular, Bloomfield noted the tensions generated by often disparate stakeholder views which surround what constitutes a "good" ST and a "good" teacher, as well as a "good teacher educator" (Bloomfield 2009, p.27).

Typically, there is very limited ongoing communication between stakeholders, as being something which contributes to the gap that STs face between the theoretical and practical components of their education. Proffering a similar argument, Al-Rabai (2014) suggested that many of the shortcomings of ITE Programmes in the Middle East result from inadequate collaboration between schools and universities. Limited communication can also result in poorly defined stakeholder roles and responsibilities, such that CTs in schools, and USs are often unsure about how best to support and interact with their STs (St John et al. 2018; Jackson & Burch 2019).

2.3.4 Mentoring

Mentoring has been repeatedly named in the international literature as one of the policies that positively contributes to the success of ITE programmes (Al-Rabai, 2014; Rothman and Darling-Hammond , 2015; Mackie, 2018; Garza et al. 2019).

Unfortunately, this has not been the case in many third world countries, such as Saudi Arabia, where discussions concerning mentoring in teacher education research is relatively limited (e.g., Al-Hazmi, 2003; Al-Thumali, 2011; Baqadir and Growth, 2013; Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2014). Although a number of Saudi researchers have recommended a more structured and prominent ‘Mentor’ figure as a solution to address one of the difficulties facing Saudi Teacher-Education programmes (Albedaiwi, 2014), more rigorous research is required.

The following section explores and analyses the views of the roles and skills of a mentor in the ITE context, in order to foster an understanding of the requirements of a mentor, according to the international ITE literature. This guided the present study’s investigation of the role of CTs in the Saudi ITE context, and provided a benchmark against which the current role and practice of CTs in Saudi Arabia can be compared and contrasted. The discussion accounts for the socio-cultural context by including developing countries, such as Ghana, Malaysia, and Indonesia, that share similar socio-cultural elements with the Saudi ITE context, and which have introduced mentoring practices in their ITE systems.

From the literature on international systems, it may be concluded that the key features of successful ITE systems are:

- A concept of career-long professional learning
- A practicum
- A school-university partnership
- A mentor

The following section discusses learning theories that are utilised in ITE systems such as those mentioned above.

2.4 Learning Theories and ITE

This section presents a synthesis of the learning theories utilised in the ITE context. While a number of theories were identified in the extant literature, for the purpose of this study, the distinction was made between behaviourist theories (that resemble the current system of learning in Saudi ITE) as opposed to socio-cultural theories of learning that were utilised in the examples discussed in the previous sections drawn from the international literature of high performing ITE systems. The theories discussed are the behaviourist theory under which lies the apprenticeship model, and the socio-cultural theory under which lies the reflective model and the collaborative model.

Behaviourist theory				
Models	Main Features	STs' professional Learning	Strengths	Weaknesses
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -emphasise the observable, measurable outcomes of learning (Owens 1997). -Common in traditional educational settings (Conway et al. 2009) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -a ST observes behaviour - a ST models behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -offers control, and a straightforward way for measuring learning outcomes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -seeing learning purely in terms of stimulus response and behaviour change
The apprenticeship model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -the most common approach employed in ITE. - the supporter teacher demonstrates experience in developing relevant professional knowledge and skills to their STs. - STs are inducted to the school systems' ethos and culture. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -CT/mentor is the main source of information. -STs are considered to be recipients in the learning process. -STs do not participate in decision-making in their professional learning process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -offers control, and a straightforward way for measuring learning outcomes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -does not recognise the natural ability of STs in terms of their existing skills and knowledge. - it presents a restrictive view of teacher learning, where agencies, languages, and cultural influences on learning are excluded.
The socio-cultural theory Vygotsky's (1978)				

Models	Main Features	STs' professional Learning	Strengths	Weaknesses
The reflective model (Schön, 1978)	-suggests that learning occurs in a real activities-based context and culture. - highlights the importance of accounting for prior knowledge, connecting it to new knowledge, and building on it.	mentors/CTs employ their classroom experience to facilitate STs' learning by guiding their navigation through complex classroom settings	-awareness of socio-cultural theory encourages individuals' participation within a learning context	-it is challenging to implement it in hierarchical systems, such as that in Saudi Arabia. -can limit STs' innovation, especially with a conservative leadership.
The collaborative model (Feiman-Nemser & Beasley)	- focuses on ST's learning through reflection -reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action are central themes.	-STs challenge implicit knowledge about regular practice, and reconstruct knowledge for improved practice. -CT/mentor can also reflect on their professional knowledge and skills.	reflection to develop better understanding and improved professional practices is described as an important component for effective teacher education and mentoring practices	STs and CT/mentor should be trained on reflection and the strategies required to employ it effectively as a learning process (Mackie, 2018)

TABLE 2-1: LEARNING THEORIES AND MODELS IN ITE

The above theories of learning agree that professional learning in ITE is a complex activity. However, behaviourism, although very much evident in education, does not acknowledge the complexity of the learner or the learning process. In addition, the theories in the table show a distinction between The Behaviourist theory and the Socio-constructivist theory. Behaviourism sees ITE as a matter of external actions which can be observed and measured where Socio-constructivism sees ITE as complex. As mentioned above, ITE in the high-performing systems examined earlier was Socio-constructivist in nature but ITE in Saudi Arabia is behaviourist. It is concluded (from the table above) that the behaviourist theory of learning is of limited use because it does not take account of the learner's context or development.

This is a key insight for work undertaken in SA where much education is behaviourist in nature. It is a linear process that starts from the CT/mentor's modelling the required behaviour towards the ST who ends the learning by demonstrating that behaviour. On the other hand, other learning theories take the form of a cycle (e.g Kolb's experiential learning, Appendix 5, pp. 251, 252). These cycles generally involve reflection such as in (Schön's reflective theory, Appendix 5 pp. 251), which enables the ST to participate in the learning process and voice their opinions. Reflection and collaboration are important aspects of constructivist theory where both ST and CT/mentor reflect on their learning process to direct their learning and monitor their development. Collaboration emphasises the importance of the ST-CT/mentor relationship and could offer opportunities for the challenges it could face during practicum (see section 2.7.5). These relationships could use other aspects of constructivism to bridge their hierarchy between CT and ST in SA by creating a common ground of understood values and shared beliefs (Vygotsky 1978) which is one of the challenges that faces mentoring in ITE (section 2.7.8). Collaboration and reflective activities are argued to be key components of mentoring relationships in the ITE literature (Dunst et al. 2019).

The apprenticeship concept of teacher education is behaviourist in nature as it does not necessarily recognise the natural ability of STs in terms of their existing skills and knowledge (Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Löfström and Eisenschmidt,

2009; Nguyen, 2009). This is contested by the socio-cultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), which highlights the importance of accounting for prior knowledge, connecting it to new knowledge, and building on it. Similarly, Bradbury (2010) argued that learning is a social process that cannot be detached from a cultural context, which is a prominent element in this study. This socio-cultural aspect is particularly significant in regards to the Saudi Educational culture which promote experience, regardless of the quality involved (apprenticeship concept) (Rippon and Martin, 2006). This is reflected in the Saudi ITE context, in which CTs are perceived as the main source of information, in which STs are considered to be recipients in the learning process, and do not participate in decision-making in their professional learning process. These theories also provided insight regarding the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs, and its implication for the data collection process and choice of participants in this present study.

2.4.1 Summary of learning theories in ITE

From analysing international literature from the perspective of learning theories and comparing it to the Saudi ITE system (see section 1.2) the current learning theory applied in Saudi Arabia ITE is the behaviourist learning theory where the ST learner observes behaviour and adopt practice (Bandura, 1977). It is pre-documented in their evaluation card (see appendix 4), which leaves no room for STs' innovation (Friesen and Osguthorpe, 2017), which is a significant weakness in learning situations (Tusting and Barton, 2003; Conner, Richardson and Murphy, 2018). Therefore, to address such weaknesses, researchers developed cognitive constructivist learning models, which acknowledged the limitations of seeing learning purely in terms of stimulus response and behaviour change. A theoretical shift from behaviourist to constructivist learning is critical to develop STs' professional learning in Saudi Arabia ITE. If a mentoring system is to be introduced, then learning needs to be understood through a constructivist rather than a behaviourist framework. This new theoretical perspective provided by the literature helped identify that the role of the CT in SA was behaviourist in nature but has the potential to become more constructivist by learning from some of the practices of high-performing systems.

2.4.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of Mentoring

A detailed review of the learning theories was undertaken for this thesis. This review is presented in Appendix 5, pp.251. This section draws on that detailed review in order to focus in this section on how the work of reflective and constructivist theorists such as Schon and Kolb contribute to theoretical underpinning for models of mentoring in ITE.

A shared view exists in the relevant literature that mentors should approach STs' professional learning as one of 'co-thinking' (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ellis & Childs, 2019), creating a zone of 'pedagogical construction' that allows STs to reconstruct their teaching experiences, and to situate these experiences within their personal theories of teaching/mentoring (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015) (Appendix 5 contains outlines of the main theoretical positions in greater detail, pp.251and following). Successful CTs/mentors accomplish this from a professional stance of translating collaborative enquiry into practice (Orland-Barak, 2010; Feiman-Nemser, 2012), in which the CT/mentor is willing to engage in mutual learning about teaching with the ST, during the mentoring process (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015).

It is therefore necessary for CTs/mentors to be aware of when it is appropriate to employ these theories, as mentoring can be used for different purposes, and with different perspectives. Moreover, STs' learning needs are complex, and change over time, and these changes and their complex nature must therefore be accommodated, in order to help facilitate learning. It is important for CTs/mentors to be equipped with the knowledge of learning theories, in order to achieve STs' professional learning goals. A combination of different learning theories with openness and collaboration facilitates the professional development of both mentors and mentees. Moreover, collaborative learning is achieved through professional, practical, reflective and empowerment centred activities (Mullen, 2005 cited in de la Garza, 2016, p.46).

In summary, the present study argues that mentors should deploy aspects from multiple mentoring models (White, 2014; Mackie, 2018; Garza et al. 2019). The

approach of this present study follows a constructive view of learning developed after analysing the various mentoring models. Based on a comparative study in England, Wang et al. (2008) concluded that a structured collaboration between CTs and STs had a significantly positive impact on effective teaching and learning in schools with a collaborative culture, while a limited impact was witnessed in schools with a more individualistic culture (Wang et al., 2008 cited in Zhang et al., 2012, p.618).

The next section discusses the role and skills of mentors.

2.5 Role and skills of a mentor

The role of mentoring has evolved over time. In 1988, Anderson and Shannon identified the following five functions of mentoring: teaching (modelling, confirming, disconfirming, informing, questioning, prescribing); sponsoring (supporting, protecting, advocating); encouraging (inspiring, affirming, challenging); counselling (listening, clarifying, probing, problem-solving, advising); and befriending (accepting and relating). The authors explained that the distinctive feature of mentoring is that it is an “ongoing caring relationship” (Anderson and Shannon cited in Powell, 2016, p.29). However, other authors criticised this definition, because the functions listed “describe an ideal which is rarely realised in practice” (Cain, 2009, p.45).

In 2005, CUREE’s National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching (2005, p.4) defined the role and activities of a mentor as:

Identifying learning goals, supporting progression, developing learners’ control over their learning, active listening, modelling, observing, articulating and discussing practice to raise awareness, shared learning experiences, providing feedback, guidance and direction, review and action planning, assessing, appraising and accrediting practice, brokering a range of support.

This described a more elaborate version of mentoring by introducing aims, objectives, and goals to be achieved through the mentoring process. Similarly, Smith (2007 cited in Brydson, 2011, p.53) advocated that the role of a mentor

encompasses advisor, catalyst, critical friend, guide, listener, role model, sounding board, strategist, supporter, tactician, and teacher.

While the literature advocated that both the mentor and the mentee should have specific roles, and that these roles shape the mentoring outcomes (Koç, 2012; Hudson, 2013a; Davis and Fantozzi, 2016; Garza et al. 2019), the mentors' roles are often not well-defined in the ITE context (Borko and Mayfield, 1995; Bullough, 2005a; Cain, 2009; Livingston, 2014; O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014; Klieger and Oster-Levinz, 2015). According to Ambrosetti et al. (2014), without role clarity for both the mentor and the STs (who they refer to as mentees), mentoring will continue to occur according to preconceived perceptions. The authors studied a vast body of literature concerning mentoring that focused on the interconnectedness of the roles of mentors and mentees, and collated the prominent aspects of the mentor role that were cited, in order to create a list of roles for both parties. For the purpose of the present study, only the mentors' roles were examined, in order to inform the investigation of the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs in Saudi ITE. The following table presents the aforementioned authors' list of mentor roles, including specific actions that mentors perform under each role. This list exemplifies how research can both inform and challenge practice, especially in underdeveloped countries where mentoring is a relatively new concept in the education context.

Role	Role description
Supporter	The mentor offers encouragement and direction to the mentee. As a support person, the mentor introduces the mentee to other staff, informs them about rules and policies, and also provides feedback to the mentee.
Colleague	The mentor treats the mentee as a professional by advocating for the mentee and sharing their professional knowledge and skills.
Friend	The mentor provides the mentee with companionship and camaraderie. They also act as a critical friend, and encourage the mentee to try new tasks and challenges.
Protector	The mentor shields the mentee from unpleasant situations, raises the mentee's profile, and defends the mentee's actions.
Collaborator	The mentor works alongside the mentee on tasks, and they plan and implement lessons in unison.
Facilitator	The mentor creates and provides opportunities for learning and development. The mentor allocates time for the mentee to perform tasks, and creates a place for the mentee to action a task.
Assessor	The mentor assesses the mentee's performance, and assigns a grade or mark.
Evaluator	The mentor tracks the progress of the mentee by appraising the mentee's progress, and provides feedback.
Trainer/ Teacher	The mentor provides the mentee with specific instructions about performing tasks, and assists during their performance.
Reflector	The mentor thinks critically about, and reflects on all aspects of the mentoring process, including the performance of the pre-service teacher, as well as their own development as a mentor and practitioner.
Role model	The mentor demonstrates and models skills and behaviour for the mentee, including tasks, actions, interactions, and processes.

TABLE 2-2. ROLES OF MENTORS (ADAPTED FROM AMBROSETTI ET AL., 2014)

The above table demonstrates that while the roles of a mentor are numerous and multidimensional, the majority focus on the development of the mentee/ST, with the exception of the role of reflector, which also targets the development of the mentor, providing an opportunity for the mentor to reflect on their own development and teaching practices (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014). Reflection is an important developmental aspect for the role of Saudi CTs, and could be highlighted in their prior education as a skill they could benefit from developing for their own learning, as well as for enhancing their STs' professional development during their practicum (this is discussed fully in Sections 5.2 and 5.3).

When assessing the ways in which mentors conduct the role of mentor, it is important to consider the skills and pedagogical strategies they employ (Rice, 2008), as it may be necessary for them to possess skills other than that of being an excellent teacher, which is the main criteria for selecting CTs in Saudi Arabia. A considerable body of ITE literature concerned the investigation of the qualities and skills of effective mentors. For example, Hobson et al. (2009) consequently reviewed more than 900 references regarding mentoring involving beginner teachers, and established the following five conditions for effective monitoring:

1. Providing mentees/STs with emotional and psychological support to make them feel welcome, accepted, and included;
2. Always making time for mentees/students by holding regular meetings;
3. Giving mentees/students the freedom to make decisions, and to develop their own teaching styles;
4. Lesson observation, both of and by STs, followed by constructive feedback. Mentors' observation of their mentees' lessons is most valuable when its objectives are agreed upon in advance;
5. Ensuring that mentees are always challenged and sufficiently encouraged to consider deeper levels of thinking and reflection about teaching and learning.

This list of conditions highlights the importance of such research findings for informing mentoring practice, and underlines the discussion in Chapter One concerning the necessity of such research in the Saudi education context, as no published Saudi studies or official documents were located during the course of this present review that described the role or responsibilities of CTs in the professional learning of STs in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, while the above conditions are helpful for the majority of education settings in developed countries, caution is required when attempting to adapt them to other settings. For example, in the Saudi context, the first three conditions could be performed by CTs, as they are

already expected to provide some form of support, time, and feedback to STs' professional learning (see Chapters 4 and 5). However, conditions three (constructive feedback), and five (ensuring that mentees are always challenged and sufficiently encouraged to consider deeper levels of thinking and reflection) are more challenging for the Saudi ITE context, because the mentor-mentee relationship is top-down, which, for socio-cultural reasons, limits the constructive professional dialogue to direct orders and formal evaluation, according to a pre-defined evaluation form (see the reflective theory of learning, Appendix 5, pp.251).

A number of studies (Orland-Barak, 2002; Burns et al., 2006; Bloomfield, 2009; NIE, 2009; Hennissen et al., 2011; Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016; Garza et al. 2019) found that, as in all forms of teaching, mentoring is most effective when it meets the mentees' needs. Therefore, mentors of beginner teachers should respect their mentees as adult professional learners (see Section 2.3), accounting for their individual learning needs, and ensure that the strategies employed not only support their learning, but are also responsive to their concerns, and are appropriate for their current stage of development (Burns et al., 2006 in Laneshia et al. 2018). Moreover, Burns et al. (*ibid.*) believed that mentoring forms a key part of the practicum, and therefore, proposed that mentors should be familiar with the characteristics of adult learners, how they merge their previous experiences with their new roles, and how to employ this knowledge when designing tasks. Moreover, the authors stressed that mentors should be mindful of the fact that adult learners prefer to actively partake in the learning process, and that they learn better when the topic is of immediate value.

In addition, several studies suggested that mentors should help mentees to identify their conceptions of teaching, in terms of their perception of learning how to teach, and that mentors should agree individual goals for the mentoring process with their mentee (Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese, 2016).

Another significant aspect of adult learning during the practicum is critical thinking, since when mentors teach critical thinking to their STs, they help to create professionals who can learn from their previous experiences and current

training to provide effective self-assessment that, in turn, engenders better decision-making, and hence more influential management.

On a more technical level, the extant ITE literature noted that pedagogy is one of the main theoretical aspects of teachers' professional learning, and that it should be taught by the mentors to their STs. Some researchers developed practices/skills for mentoring pedagogical knowledge, and Hudson (2013a, p.363) stated that the mentor's articulation of pedagogical knowledge is "fundamental" for mentoring a pre-service teacher. His research concluded with the following practices for mentoring pedagogical knowledge: planning, timetabling lessons, preparation, teaching strategies, sharing content knowledge, problem solving, questioning, classroom management, implementation, and assessment (see Figure 3-1). These practices could inform the CTs' role in developing the pedagogical knowledge of STs in the Saudi ITE context, as they might be linked to their current responsibilities as the STs' training supervisor as a means of enhancing that role.

Pedagogical practices for mentoring

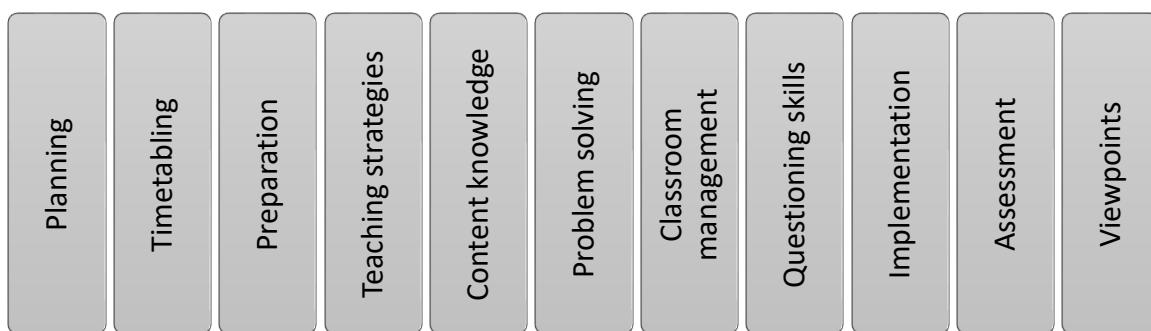


FIGURE 2-1. PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES FOR MENTORING (SOURCE: HUDSON, 2013B).

An effective mentor understands how such pedagogical knowledge practices are interconnected, and includes assessments for teaching and learning (Tankersley, 2010; Benson et al. 2014; Emily et al. 2018; Grieser & Hendricks, 2018). However, these practices might be considered general, and could be interpreted differently in different contexts. For example, classroom management for a teacher in Canada might differ significantly from that in a traditional education setting, such as in Saudi Arabia, in which a teacher is considered to have good classroom management skills if their class is quiet (Albedaiwi, 2014).

In Hudson's (2013b) opinion, mentors require a pedagogical knowledge framework and strategies that can be linked to specific pedagogical knowledge practices to guide a ST's development. In a qualitative research study, he investigated the mentoring strategies assigned to the specific pedagogical knowledge practices shown in Figure 2-1 by 27 experienced mentor teachers. His findings revealed the existence of multiple strategies that could be linked to each practice. For example, the strategies associated with planning teaching included co-planning, verbally reflecting on planning with the mentee, and showing examples of the mentor teacher's planning. The following table presents a number of strategies that mentors might employ to facilitate their mentees'/STs' development of pedagogical practices, especially in developing countries' ITE programmes, such as those in Saudi Arabia, in which there is no clear framework for mentoring in ITE. The existence of a clear list of such strategies would constitute a beneficial starting point that could be adapted and developed to meet the needs of each education setting.

Pedagogical practices	Particular strategies for pedagogical knowledge practices			Strategies applicable to all practices
Planning	Levels of planning (e.g. school, state, national)	Planning approaches (e.g. show examples, templates)	Collaborative planning	Student contexts
Timetabling	Syllabus allocation requirements	Theory behind timetabling subjects	Other impacts (e.g. duties, extra curricula)	Differentiated learning
Preparation	Location of resources	Flexibility with resources	Managing resources	Mentor modelling of practice
Teaching strategies	Varied teaching strategies	Inclusivity of teaching strategies	Experimenting with teaching strategies	Mentor articulation of practice
Content knowledge	Content knowledge from syllabus and research	Validation of current knowledge	Rehearse articulation of content knowledge	Allow mentee to experience practice
Problem solving	Explanations of problem-solving techniques	Pre-emptive thoughts in a range of contexts	Assessed risk taking for solving problems	Interactions with other school staff
Classroom management	Policies, planning, proactive and preventative	Expectations and behaviour management systems	Enthusiasm for the subject	Links to other pedagogical knowledge practices
Questioning techniques	Levels of questions (e.g. Bloom's taxonomy) and variations	Rationalising questions	Directing questions equitably for assessment	
Implementation	Physical classroom environment	Lesson structure, pace, and timing	Inclusion of prior knowledge	
Assessment	Syllabus links and success criteria	Rationale for assessment (e.g. learning tools)	Types of assessment and record keeping	
Viewpoints	Philosophies of teaching	Socio-political, socio-cultural	Reading/interacting with an open mind	

TABLE 2-3. STRATEGIES FOR MENTORING PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE (SOURCE: HUDSON, 2013B).

It should be noted that this is not considered to be a definitive list of strategies for implementing in the Saudi ITE context, rather a bank of strategies that might assist when considering introducing a mentoring scheme. It could also be employed as a starting point for introducing CTs in the Saudi ITE system to promote effective mentoring skills. This present study acknowledges the importance of mentoring for facilitating the development of STs' pedagogical knowledge, and this was noted earlier in chapter 1 to be one of the challenges of

the Saudi ITE system. However, it should be recognised that some of the above pedagogical practices are not suitable for introduction to the Saudi ITE system without careful consideration of the context. These include problem-solving and questioning techniques, and other practices that entail a different skill set, such as preparation, since, for a lesson in the Saudi ITE system, preparation means studying/memorizing the content, and preparing a written lesson plan, while in the table, it means allocating resources. Therefore, for the Saudi ITE system to benefit from the above pedagogical strategies, the current ITE setting and practices must be considered.

2.5.1 The role of CTs in contrast to the mentor's role

In their 2014 work, Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen reported that in the context of the 'Becoming a teacher' project in England, many writers, including Glickman and Bey (1990), Guyton and McIntyre (1990), McIntyre, Byrd and Foxx (1996), and (Hobson et al., 2009), found that STs considered the CT to be the most significant factor in their entry to the profession. Meanwhile, the CTs also viewed their role in teacher education as the most important aspect of learning to teach (Wilson and Floden, 2003; Murray and Male, 2005; Frels, R.K., Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Bustamante, R.M., Garza, Y., Nelson, J.A., Nichter, 2013; St John et al. 2018; Garza et al. 2019), and other authors argued that it is generally accepted by students, teachers, and most faculty members that CTs possess the most powerful influence on the quality of the ST's experience, and often shape what STs learn via the way in which they are mentored.

An understanding of the common conceptions of the participation of CTs is vital for the investigation of the current role of CTs in the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE system. According to the Saudi ministry of education (MOE) (2018), CTs are in-service teachers who 'supervise' STs during their practicum. This supervisory role provides an insight into the way in which CTs partake in teacher education in the Saudi ITE setting. In their 2014 study, Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen employed the term 'CT', and provided a thematic analysis of the relevant literature concerning the participation categories, generating 11 different

classifications that could be viewed as an opportunity for learning and development in other settings:

Providers of Feedback, Gatekeepers of the Profession, Modelers of Practice, Supporters of Reflection, Gleaners of Knowledge, Purveyors of Context, Conveners of Relation, Agents of Socialisation, Advocates of the Practical, Abiders of Change, and Teachers of Children. (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014, p.1)

These classifications were compared with what other researchers labelled ‘mentor’ roles (see Table 2-3), and the authors reported that some of the ITE literature provided similar classifications for the role of both the mentor and the CT in the professional development of STs in their practicum (Spriggs and Boggs, 2016). Nevertheless, they stressed that the terms ‘mentor’ and ‘CT’ should not be employed interchangeably in the same study. The focus of the present study concerned the role of the member of the school personnel, or the teacher, who assists STs in their professional development during the practicum, and who holds the title of CT or mentor. This focus on the CT’s role was due to the fact that it is the term employed in Saudi ITE, and in order to compare and contrast it with the mentoring role described in the international ITE literature. Therefore, the change of the role and responsibilities associated to the current Co-operating Teacher to the above discussed Mentor’s role and responsibilities demonstrates the shift from behaviourism to constructivism which can be observed in ITE models which now incorporate mentoring in the practicum as part of their practice.

In their review of the extant literature, Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen (2014) listed a number of the CTs’ roles in the STs’ professional development that were also identified in the wider ITE literature as the roles of mentors (see Table 3-3).

Roles of CTs (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014)		Researchers who labelled the roles mentoring roles
1	Providers of feedback	(Hudson, 2005; Benson et al., 2014; Izadinia, 2015)
2	Gatekeepers of the profession	(Smith, 2001)
3	Modelers of practice	(Hudson, 2005; Tolmie et al., 2010; Jarvis et al., 2014; Lejonberg, Elstad and Christophersen, 2015)
4	Supporters of reflection	(Korthagen 2004; Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2007; Grossman, 2009; Liakopoulou, 2012; Jarvis et al., 2014; Aspfors and Fransson, 2015; Smith and Nadelson, 2016)
5	Gleaners of knowledge	(Hudson, 2005; Pfund et al., 2015)
6	Transmitters of context	(Koç, 2012; Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015)
7	Conveners of relation and agents of socialisation	(Murray and Male, 2005; Livingston, 2014; Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015)
8	Advocates of the practicum	(Hudson, 2013b; van Ginkel et al., 2016)
9	Abiders of change	(Ambrosetti, 2014)
10	Teachers of children	(Al-Rabai, 2014; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015)

TABLE 2-4. CT ROLES LABELLED MENTORING ROLES ELSEWHERE IN THE ITE LITERATURE

(SOURCE: CLARK, TRIGGS AND NIELSEN, 2014).

These categories of participation were also mentioned in the wider ITE literature under different terms, including ‘in-service teacher’, ‘mentor teacher’, ‘supporting teacher’, and ‘mentor’. The term ‘CT’ was also assigned many other terms, including ‘school advisor’, ‘school associate’, ‘supervising teacher’ (a term used in the Saudi ITE context), ‘sponsor teacher’, ‘school-based teacher educator’, ‘mentor teacher’, and ‘mentor’ (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014). In this present study, the term ‘CT’ was employed to refer to in-service teachers who are involved in the professional learning of STs during their practicum, since it is the term used in the Saudi ITE context, and is also frequently used in the international literature.

In his 2008 study, Rice reported that an aspect of mentoring STs noted in the literature, but seldom developed, is the fact that mentoring is based on a relationship between two adults. Moreover, “Good mentorship involves helping teachers work effectively with adults” (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2000, p.53). Whilst not necessarily applicable to all mentoring situations, it is noteworthy that this view of mentoring in ITE concurs with literature similar to that by Hansford, Tennent and Ehrich (2003, p.53) described as the “dominant conceptual framework” underpinning mentoring. However, little attention has been assigned to investigating how, or whether, this is true in practice within ITE, especially in the ITE systems of developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia.

In terms of this present study, and in particular the development of the connection between the CTs' role in ITE, it was necessary to define the mentoring models and approaches that are discussed in the next section. Accordingly, it was logical to ask how STs learn, and what mentoring models and theoretical approaches are used to educate them. Moreover, since CTs and STs are professional learners, it was necessary to ask how they would benefit from utilising mentoring models and approaches in their own learning. All of these elements assisted in addressing RQ1 concerning the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs in Saudi ITE.

The next section discusses the tools employed to interpret the findings of the data discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. The first part of the section explores learning theories in relation to the models and approaches of mentoring identified in the relevant ITE literature.

2.6 Mentoring in ITE: issues, challenges and prospects

Research demonstrated that there are both potential benefits and potential challenges to employing mentoring in the ITE practicum, with a number of factors of particular significance in relation to achieving an effective mentoring role. The most frequently reported issues in mentoring in the international ITE literature can be synthesised as: the conceptualisation of the role, selection and pairing, preparation and support, and hierarchy. This section discusses each of these issues from the international ITE literature's perspective, while establishing a link to the present study's second and third RQs, which concerned the investigation of the challenges facing the role of CTs (RQ 2), and possible factors that might help to overcome these challenges (RQ 3). This section also relates to the common policies and procedures of top-performing ITE systems that were discussed in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4). This discussion informed the data collection process of this study, which included the participants' perspectives concerning the challenges facing the role of the CTs in the professional learning of STs, and the possible factors that might help overcome the challenges and develop the CT's role in Saudi ITE. It considers all factors that the literature reported might help in overcoming the challenges highlighted and proposes the prospects for their development.

2.6.1 Conceptualisation of Role

One of the most frequently identified difficulties in mentoring in ITE is that of the conceptualisation of the role. While the term ‘CT’ is widely used in ITE terminology, as opposed to the term ‘mentor’, few studies provided insight into how it is conceptualised in ITE literature. Since the term ‘CT’ is used in Saudi ITE, it was necessary to locate its origin, and to discover how it relates to that of ‘mentor’.

According to Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen (2014), after World War II, the following three factors contributed to the introduction of the term ‘CT’ in England, to describe teachers who are allocated the responsibility for STs’ professional learning during their practicum:

- First, as the preparation of STs shifted from school to university settings, faculty members increasingly distanced themselves from normal schools, which were considered to be secondary institutions for the preparation of school teachers throughout the world from the late 1800s to the 1950s;
- Second, deep budget cuts in the 1960s and 1970s engendered the closure of the majority of laboratory schools in England that were previously an important context for pre-service teacher education;
- Third, the ‘baby boomers’ of the second half of the 20th century entered the public school system in greater numbers than ever before, creating an urgent need for practicum placements to prepare teachers for the growing student population.

As a result of these factors, the university faculty members who were once considered to possess a superior capacity to prepare teachers, compared with their school-based counterparts, found it necessary to employ the assistance of school teachers. However, due to the university faculty members’ newly elevated status as experts on teaching, they merely expected classroom teachers to cooperate with them in this endeavour (Boivin, Downie and LaRoque, 1993;

Houston, 2008 cited in Clarke et al., 2014, p.3), which engendered the emergence of the term ‘CT’.

Moreover, during the mid-1980s, in response to public and political criticism of university-based teacher education programmes, university faculties began to seek greater credibility with schools, and commenced the development of closer associations with teachers, in a move that many developing countries are currently experiencing in their ITE. Within this context, some programmes opted to use terms other than ‘CT’, such as ‘mentors’ or ‘associate teachers’ (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014). Although in some instances this reflected a significant shift on the part of universities (*ibid.*), according to Evans and Abbott (1997), even in some of these more generative contexts, simply opting for a name change resulted in only minor enhancements to the actual role of CTs. Similarly, if such an action was taken in developing ITE systems, like that of Saudi Arabia, changing the title would be insufficient to develop the current CT role.

CTs have been described in a number of ways, with most interpretations based on the surrounding work context. Of these, three hold prominence within the literature: classroom placeholder, practicum supervisors, and teacher educator (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014; Livingston, 2014; Loughran, 2014; McDonald et al., 2014; McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; Montecinos, Walker and Maldonado, 2015; Czerniawski et al. 2017; Ronfeldt et al. 2018; Dunst et al. 2019). Descriptions of these are as follows:

- *Classroom placeholder*: This requires a minimal level of participation by the CT, as it involves the ST changing places with the CT, who refrains from interfering for the remainder of the practicum. This conception is based on the assumption that the ST instantly adapts to the teacher role. The CT participation in this conception is very limited, and the STs simply model the practice that served as their own entry to the profession. It is an approach that the western literature suggested is uncommon;
- *Practicum supervisor*: This is the most common conception reported in literature, and involves the CT overseeing the work of the ST. The ST is

expected to acquire the required knowledge for teaching while on-site. The role of the CT is to observe, record, and evaluate the ST's application of that knowledge during the practicum (*ibid.*). Although the level of participation by the CT is considerably greater than with the first conception, the CT's engagement in teacher education is strongly defined in terms of what they have to offer the ST. Furthermore, the interaction between the CT and ST is largely hierarchical. This approach reflects the CTs' approach to the STs' professional learning in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia;

- *Teacher as teacher educator:* A teacher educator is a CT who is far more engaged than a classroom placeholder or a practicum supervisor. This conception is similar to that of a coach, who works closely with the learner in the immediacy of the action setting (Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015), encouraging and eliciting the meaning that the learner acquires of their practice (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014), and additionally providing guidance to facilitate the development of their professional learning (Bullough, 2005a; Pfund et al., 2015). The role of a teacher educator within a practicum setting requires that CTs are knowledgeable about teacher education literature and current debates about teachers' professional learning in practicum settings. This third conception involves the concept that CTs are teacher educators in much the same way as their university counterparts, but with different responsibilities and roles (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014).

These three commonly held conceptions are instructive, as they represent an array of possibilities for the work of CTs to enrich both research and practice, and were therefore all considered as a part of a framework for analysing this present study's findings relating to the role of CTs in Saudi ITE.

Despite the growing interest in mentoring in the international ITE research, the conceptualisation of mentoring in this education context requires further development (Czerniawski et al. 2017; Canrinus et al. 2019), since mentoring has developed in a haphazard way, and clarity regarding its nature varies widely, and

no particular structure of mentoring being employed across the sector, as evidenced by the use of different terminology within the literature. In particular, few researchers described how mentoring is employed within the specific context of ITE.

Another area of confusion concerns the fact that the term ‘mentoring’ is employed interchangeably with terms such as ‘supervising’ and ‘coaching’ (Koç, 2012; Zhang et al., 2012). Thus, the conceptualisation of mentoring in this context is problematic, with many mentors using supervisory, rather than mentoring strategies (Clarke et al., 2014a; Montecinos et al., 2015). However, in the ITE context, the mentor teacher is often considered both as a mentor and a supervisor, and they adopt such roles accordingly (Hennissen et al., 2011; Ambrosetti, 2014). Nevertheless, distinct differences exist between mentoring and supervising, since supervision tends to involve a hierarchical relationship, in which the specific skills and roles of the job are taught and assessed (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; Aspfors and Fransson, 2015; Smith and Nadelson, 2016). In contrast, mentoring employs a supportive and more reciprocal relationship between mentor and mentee, in which professional and personal growth occurs through a reflective process that includes developmental and contextual factors (see Section 3.4.2.3).

A recurrent theme in the literature is the lack of knowledge concerning CTs and mentors, beyond commonly-held conceptions of their participation in teacher education. For example, Goodfellow (2000) stated that there is little understanding of the additional demands placed on CTs, of the images they hold of themselves, and their views of STs, nor of the nature of their work as they undertake other responsibilities associated with STs’ professional learning.

A study conducted by Hall et al. (2008, p.343) revealed that teachers still perceive alternative terms for their role to be “synonymous with the designation of CT and means nothing more than providing a place for the pre-service teacher to practice teaching”. Moreover, Hobson et al. (2009, p.214) lamented the fact that the potential benefits of practicum mentoring are often unrealised, and that the “conditions for effective mentoring” are yet to be met.

Thus, the conceptualisation of mentoring in this context has been problematic, resulting in mentors employing supervisory, rather than mentoring strategies (Hudson, 2010; Koç, 2012), which is the case in many developing countries (Asante, 2011; Low et al., 2012; Akhter, 2013; Montecinos et al., 2015), and especially in Saudi Arabia (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Abu Al Hassan, 2013; Al-Rabai, 2014; Al-Seghayer, 2014b).

Before I carried out my empirical work, I realised that conceptualisation was an issue but during my field work I realised how fundamental it was to my research. Consequently, I returned to my literature review in order to address teacher educators' identity.

2.6.2 Forming Teacher Educator Identity for Mentors\CTs

ITE research reports that teachers with dual roles as teachers and as teacher-educators\mentors\CT struggle with identifying themselves as teacher educators (Bullough, 2005a; Grossman, 2009; Borg and Alshumaimeri, 2012; Livingston, 2013, 2014; Loughran, 2014; Czerniawski, Guberman and MacPhail, 2017; Willegem et al., 2017; Andreasen, Bjørndal and Kovač, 2019). The previous studies discuss the crucial role of teachers professional learning in shaping their role as teacher educators\mentors\CT (discussed above) and in forming their professional identity as teacher educators.

The current CTs in the Saudi ITE system are still referred to as 'supervising teachers' (discussed in chapter 1, section 1.4) and to develop their role, attention should be paid on uncovering how these CTs identify themselves within the ITE system, and what challenges they face that hinder them in identifying themselves as teacher-educators or mentors or even CTs, but most importantly as professionals with a dual role of teaching pupils and educating teachers regardless of the title. The reason being is that as we discussed above in the conceptualising section, changing a title does not necessarily bring about change to the role (Bullough, 2005b) nor does it bring about certainty on one's professional identity within that role.

Becoming a teacher educator involves developing a sense of self in this role (Bullough 2005). In their study of teachers leading professional development in schools, Clemans and her colleagues concluded that, ‘While it is important to share the “what” and the “how to” of teacher education, we must not overlook the significance of the “who am I” in this work’ (Clemans et al. 2010, p. 226).

White (2014) reports major challenges for schoolteachers making the transition into becoming teacher educators (White, 2014). The first challenges are in the area of pedagogy and becoming research-active where researchers describe this transition as ‘fraught with difficulty’, and state that ‘the new professional identity is hard won’ (Field 2012, p. 811). Difficulties described in the literature include experiences of de-skilling (Clemans et al. 2010, White 2011, White 2014); and a lack of understanding of the pedagogy of teacher education (Korthagen, 2010; McDonald *et al.*, 2014; McCauley, Martins Gomes and Davison, 2018; Gauthier, 2019) which was similarly reported by Saudi researchers (Khan, 2011; Wiseman *et al.*, 2017).

Research none the less, provides some recommendations to improve understanding of teacher educators’ identity and could offer valuable insight for this study that sets out to develop the CTs’ role in the professional learning of STs. Clemans et al. (2010), found that establishing a professional learning community of peers provided an opportunity for new teacher educators to develop their practice and knowledge and had the unexpected outcome of facilitating the development of their new identity. However, most of the ITE systems in traditional settings that were reviewed in this study for example, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, UAE, Oman, Indonesia, Ghana, Malaysia and Nigeria assign teachers situated solely in schools to be involved in teacher education. Therefore, the studies that were carried out in those settings report that participating within a community of practice of other teacher educators in other schools or in Universities to provide an environment in which their identity can develop proved challenging (Blackley and Sheffield, 2015; Montecinos, Cortez and Walker, 2015; Andreasen, Bjørndal and Kovač, 2019). In traditional societies like Saudi Arabia the link between role and identity may be less fluid than in Western societies

which is why this thesis focuses specifically on ‘role’ rather than ‘identity’, while acknowledging the importance of identity as a concept.

White (2014) also reports that the experienced teacher taking on the role of teacher educator may resist such a change in identity, or aspects of it that do not seem acceptable to their self-concept as teachers (White, 2014). Other teachers in traditional settings may find it honourable to be teacher of teachers (see Knowledge & Islam, chapter 1, section 1.2.1) but are resistant to embracing an academic identity as a researcher because they see it as interfering with their teaching (Almalki and Ganong, 2018). White suggests (2014) that in order to enhance teacher educators’ identity is to provide them with proper professional learning.

In summary, forming teacher educator identity for teachers with dual roles as teachers and as teacher educators has important implications for this study as it seeks to uncover the role of CTs from their own perspectives which may uncover how they identify themselves within Saudi ITE. It also provides a lens to uncover challenges they face and solutions that could help overcome those challenges.

2.6.3 Mentor selection and pairing

Many studies suggest that the success of mentoring depends in part on how mentors are selected and paired with their mentees (Hobson et al., 2009; Nasser-Abu Alhija and Fresko, 2014; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015; Powell, 2016; St John et al. 2018). Mentors should be effective role models, who demonstrate good professional practice to gain “professional respect” from their mentees (Hobson et al., 2009, p. 211), however being a good teacher does not necessarily translate into being an effective mentor (Bullough, 2005b; BERA, 2014; Aspfors and Fransson, 2015). Moreover, although the role of mentor is increasingly recognised as a separate professional role, it remains primarily a voluntary activity extending beyond teachers’ official job descriptions (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014; Gareis and Grant, 2014; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015; Davis and Fantozzi, 2016; Foukal, Lawrence and Williams, 2016).

Additionally, the literature concerning effective mentoring skills (Section 3.3) provided the following initial attributes of potential mentors: to be supportive, approachable, non-judgemental, trustworthy, and possessing a positive demeanour, good listening skills, the ability to empathise, and a willingness to take an interest in beginning teachers' work and lives (White, 2014). These attributes might serve as the initial categories for selection, which could assist school leaders to select the best candidates for mentoring STs, especially in situations that lack criteria. However, it is also important to be mindful of the learning needs of the STs, according to their ITE context.

Furthermore, mentoring is more likely to be successful when the mentor and mentee pairings account for the mentees' strengths and limitations, and when both parties cooperate, both personally and professionally (White, 2014; Rondfeldt et al. 2018; Dunst et al. 2019). However, deciding mentoring pairings is not an easy task, and carries great responsibility (Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese, 2016). ITE programmes, such as the national institute of education (NIE) in Singapore, employ a framework that pre-determines how the pairing process is conducted, while some programmes allow the ST to select their mentors (NIE, 2009). In contrast, ITE programmes in developing countries allocate responsibility for the assignation of the pairing to the programme managers or school HTs (Akhter, 2013). At a minimum, both instances require knowledge of both the participating CTs and individual STs, and an understanding of the impact of the pairing decision on the effectiveness of the mentoring (Wyre, Gaudet and McNeese, 2016).

The majority of school-based mentors in ITE programmes were originally classroom teachers who were chosen by the HT, or who volunteered to undertake the role of mentoring STs as part of their ITE programme practicum. Therefore, primary school teachers who become CTs or mentors may not have sufficient mentoring expertise to guide their mentees' learning effectively across all key learning areas (Ronfeldt et al. 2018; Ellis & Childs 2019).

The process behind the selection of teachers as mentors can be an indication of the regard ascribed to mentoring activities by both the school and the ITE

programme providers, and can be a measure of the quality of the mentoring itself. The mentor selection process within ITE programmes can be categorised as either random or systematic, depending on the set of criteria, or the framework they follow, however it is often linked to the person who selects mentors, rather than the criteria of selection (Aspfors and Fransson, 2015; Ronfeldt et al. 2018). This process reflects that of many ITE settings in developing countries, such as Saudi Arabia, that do not have a pre-defined set of criteria for choosing CTs (Al-Rabai, 2014). Therefore, this present study focused on the criteria, rather than the decision maker, because in hierarchical settings like the Saudi education system, selection is associated with the chain of command in the school, which is often represented by the HT.

In addition, a considerable number of studies revealed that the majority of mentors did not actively seek the role of mentor, but were assigned it by others (Asante, 2011; Brydson, 2011; Aderibigbe, 2012; Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015). Indeed, in the United States, “the prevailing practice is that campus principals, on their own, select teachers to serve as mentors for novice teachers” (Kajs, 2002 cited in Ronfeldt et al. 2018, p.60), while in Ghana, the selection lies with the school’s administration, and cannot be questioned (Asante, 2011), and in Saudi Arabia, teachers are selected as ST supervisors by HTs (Al-Rabai, 2014).

However, the literature also included suggestions of more systematic approaches to mentor selection, in which school leaders or education authorities define a set of criteria (Asante, 2011). An example of this is the guide developed by Maine State’s Education Department in 2007, which stated that “mentor teachers are selected based on defined selection criteria... potential mentors complete an application... [and] an induction committee selects mentors with input from the [school] principal” (Maine Department of Education, 2007 cited in Cameron, 2014, pp.31).

Once mentors are assigned, they require induction, training, and development. The issues associated with these processes are discussed below.

2.6.4 Mentor preparation and support

Education research has long concentrated on STs' professional learning, and on arguments justifying the necessity of mentoring (European Commission, 2014; Aspfors and Fransson, 2015). Therefore, while much is known about mentoring, relatively little is understood about mentors' professional knowledge and needs (Ronfeldt et al. 2018), and even less about their professional development. How mentors are educated, and how their skills and knowledge develop during mentor education are questions yet to be answered (Bullough, 2012; Dunst et al. 2019), therefore the preparation of mentors should be a priority for policymakers, teacher educators, and researchers. The challenges to mentoring may be offset by supportive strategies, such as mentor preparation and support, each of which is considered in turn below.

2.6.4.1 Preparation

Numerous studies indicated that mentors are more likely to be able to demonstrate effective mentoring strategies when they have undertaken an appropriate programme of mentor preparation (Mason, 2013; Ronfeldt et al. 2018). In his study entitled, 'Being and becoming a Mentor', Bullough (2005) concluded that mentor preparation must exceed merely 'training', and should include planned strategies to assist individuals to develop their identity as mentors. To achieve this, he suggested that mentors should participate in seminars regarding the general practice of mentoring with other teacher mentors and university-based teacher educators. Such seminars could help to overcome mentor isolation, facilitating their skill development through conversations about mentoring practice and pedagogy (Bullough, 2005a).

Meanwhile, other studies emphasised the importance of directing mentors towards appropriate research that will underpin their mentoring activities, and help them to understand the benefits of discussing pedagogical issues with their mentees (Kang et al. 2018). Although some studies attributed evidence of poor mentoring practice, at least in part, to poor mentor training (Lindqvist, 2012; Davis and Fantozzi, 2016; Dunst et al. 2019), the evidence base concerning the actual effects

of different kinds of mentor preparation and support is generally underdeveloped, and the subject therefore requires further research.

It is commonly assumed that the skills of mentoring accrue naturally from experience as a teacher (Gareis and Grant, 2014). As Zeichner (2005, p.118) explained:

The model of assigning teachers to mentor prospective teachers without any formal preparation for this role or ongoing support is based on an assumption that educating teachers is something that does not require any additional preparation and that if one is a good teacher of elementary or secondary students, this expertise will automatically carry over to one's work with novice teachers.

In reality, this means that many CTs are unprepared for the role. While not everyone has a natural ability for mentoring (Hennissen et al., 2011), mentoring skills can be developed through preparation (Pfund et al., 2015; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015; Ronfeldt et al. 2018), and the appropriate preparation can assist in developing a knowledge of mentoring techniques and skills, in order to create effective mentors. This is significant for ITE programmes that do not currently include mentoring practices in their system, such as those in Saudi Arabia, as the findings of the international research can be critically reviewed to inform the practice of mentor preparation in such programmes, while being mindful of the socio-cultural context.

Few teachers currently receive training or preparation for mentoring, and school-based mentors have little, if any, knowledge of the process of mentoring, and the unique roles that mentors and mentees undertake (Ambrosetti, 2012; 2014; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014). According to Aspfors and Fransson (2015), even countries or states with well-established mentoring programmes do not have any systematised mentor preparation, rather it is provided as professional development, often by professional or academic consultants, or as university courses. For instance, New Zealand has a long tradition of induction and mentoring for STs, but has no mandatory mentor education. Similarly, in Japan, the induction programme ‘Shoninsha-kenshu’ is mandatory for STs, but most mentors are not trained (Asada, 2012).

Aspfors and Fransson (2015) conducted a meta-synthesis to deepen the understanding and knowledge of the qualitative research focusing on education for mentors. The synthesis revealed that research concerning mentor education is limited, and the authors stressed the importance of a systematic, long-term, and research-informed mentor education that develops mentors' self-understanding of teaching and mentoring.

In developing countries, the problem of preparing CTs to be mentors is more evident, as teacher training opportunities are generally limited (Sayar, 2004; Arnold, 2006; Al-Thumali, 2011; Al-Seghayer, 2014a). In the Saudi context, there are inadequate training opportunities for teachers in general, and the approach employed in the training is lectures, with a marked absence of teacher participation in the design of training programmes (Alansari, 2004 cited in Aly and Abdulhakeem, 2016, p.2). Meanwhile, Bakhsh (2009) identified several weaknesses of ITE programmes for Special Education teachers in Saudi Arabia, including the poor study of training needs, and the lack of prior training for CTs. Nevertheless, there have been improvements in developing countries that seek to enhance the status of teachers and the quality of their pre-service and in-service education by focusing on mentor preparation, such as in Malaysia (Senom, Razak Zakaria and Sharatol Ahmad Shah, 2013; Jarvis et al., 2014; Yusoff, Zainol and Ibrahim, 2014; Tahir et al., 2015), Pakistan (Akhter, 2013; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015), and Turkey (Koç, 2012; Saqlain and Mahmood, 2013; O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014).

However, although most of the studies conducted in this area stressed the importance of a systematic, long-term, and research-informed mentor education that develops mentors' self-understanding of teaching and mentoring developing countries face a significant challenge in progressing from the initial stage of acknowledging the general need for teacher training, to designing a dedicated mentor training programme for CTs (Al-Rabai, 2014).

Despite the efforts of researchers, reports emanating from teaching practice indicate that CTs are often compelled to rely on their intuitive sense of what it means to supervise STs, often by employing their own practicum experiences as STs (Spriggs and Boggs, 2016). This situation is untenable if the best preparation

for the next generation of teachers is to be achieved. To this end, it is argued that mentor training courses should be structured, and should utilise both the research and the academic literature. According to Hunzicker (2010 cited in Ambrosetti, 2014, p.3), professional learners “prefer open-ended learning opportunities and a voice in the direction and pace of the learning”. Therefore, in the context of mentoring preparation courses for CTs in Saudi ITE, ALT should be employed (see Section 2.4, 2.4.1).

The introduction of mentoring for CTs could benefit Saudi ITE in two main ways. According to Gareis and Grant (2014), mentor training courses for CTs are beneficial for supporting STs’ learning, and research demonstrated that trained mentors provide more feedback, and sustain higher levels of interaction with STs than mentors with no training (Paulsen, DaFonte and Barton-Arwood, 2015). Moreover, preparing teachers for their mentoring role in the professional learning of STs can provide them with further opportunities for professional development. Finally, in relation to the reported school-university gap in Saudi ITE (Section 1.2.6), supplying professional development training for CTs in mentoring would be one way that universities could contribute to the school-university partnership (Ronfeldt et al. 2018; Jackson et al. 2019).

2.6.4.2 Support

The extant international research revealed that the success of mentoring programmes is influenced by many contextual factors (O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014; Aspfors and Fransson, 2015; Ronfeldt et al. 2018; Garza et al. 2019). According to these writers mentoring is more likely to be effective when mentors are provided with additional time for preparing and performing the mentoring role, which also allows mentors and STs to meet more often during the school day. Meanwhile, some studies suggested that mentors should receive a financial reward, or some other form of incentive or recognition for their work. Moreover, some of the studies found the successful ST mentoring was evident when it occurred within schools with an active learning culture, in which both the mentors and mentees had access to support outside of the mentoring relationship, such as from other teachers in the school, or from external networks of peers. This collegial active

learning culture offers a valuable lesson to the hierarchical Saudi ITE system, in which STs are in a subordinate relationship with their CTs, which places restrictions on their learning relationship.

2.6.5 Hierarchy in mentoring relationships

The mentoring relationship is often described as being complex (Hudson, 2016; van Ginkel et al., 2016), which is perhaps due to the problems of conceptualisation, and the resulting vagueness of the relevant terminology. Name labels, such as ‘mentor’/‘mentee’, ‘CT’/‘ST’, and ‘in-service teacher’/‘pre-service teacher’, are frequently employed to indicate the individual actors, and to establish the mentor role authoritatively within the mentoring relationship (Irby et al., 2017). In combination, these points suggest a hierarchical relationship between mentors and mentees, a point raised by many researchers (Frels et al. 2013; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; Tahir et al., 2015; Baeshin, 2016; Oolbekkink-Marchand et al., 2017). It is argued that in this traditional description of mentoring, the mentor is presumed to be ranked higher, and to assume the dominant role, thus creating an environment for possible power struggles between the mentor and the mentee. As Bloomfield (2009, p.37) stated, “Professional experience or the practicum is commonly structured around a hierarchical view of the supervisory relationship, one that frequently positions the ST as sole learner guided by the teacher as expert.” Meanwhile, a more reciprocal relationship, whereby mentors and mentees are involved in a two-way exchange of knowledge and skills, negates the difficulties that may be present in the more traditional relationship.

Recently, countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Australia have sought to develop the traditional supervisory role of school teachers into a more mentoring role (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; White, 2014; Ronfeldt et al. 2018), yet many developing countries still limit the role of CTs in STs’ professional learning during their practicum to a merely supervisory status (Kusumoto, 2008; Asante, 2011; Montecinos, Walker and Maldonado, 2015; Aly and Abdulhakeem, 2016), and in countries such as Saudi Arabia, CTs are also called ‘Practical Training Supervisors’ (MOE, 2018b). Arguably, when CTs are referred to

in such a supervisory context, it assigns them more power over the ST, and it entails them performing a strictly shaping role to mould the ST through enculturation, feedback, and assessment. Meanwhile, other researchers noted that a supervisory role is artificial, and is distant from the holistic mentoring process, which includes the following three components: relationship, developmental needs, and contextual elements.

- *The relational component:* This concerns the relationship that is developed between the mentor and mentee (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014). The relationship can either be of a personal or professional nature, and the connection made between the participants often depends on their willingness to engage in the mentoring relationship. In Ambrosetti's (2012) study, she stated that research has established that a relationship based on hierarchy and power rarely cultivates connectedness and/or productive outcomes, which is significant for the present study, since it reflects the typical hierarchical relationships in the Saudi education context. Alterations to the relational component may represent a means of promoting a more reciprocal relationship that recognises the fact that both the CT and the ST have skills, knowledge, and practices to share. However, it is important to be mindful of the socio-cultural component of the Saudi education system that requires total respect for sources of knowledge (see Section 1.2.1). Therefore, it is necessary to first consider means of equalizing the stature of the participants' roles, because according to Ambrosetti (2012), the mutuality of the relationship offsets hierarchical factors that may cause power struggles;
- *The developmental component:* This concerns the purpose of the relationship that relates directly to the specific needs of the mentor and mentee (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014), and targets the functions and behaviours that are employed to assist the participants to achieve their developmental goals. Both parties benefit from the relationship, as the mentor should also have goals and needs that can be developed through the process of mentoring. It is therefore important that the mentor possesses a willingness to participate, and this also relates to how mentors are

selected, which is one of the challenges facing mentoring in both high performing ITE systems, and ITE systems in developing countries like Saudi Arabia. In Saudi primary schools, CTs are chosen by the school's HT, and they cannot dispute the decision, due to the hierachal power distribution (see Section 1.3). If a reciprocal relationship is to occur, the developmental component of mentoring must be clearly explained to both the CTs and the STs. According to Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers (2014), collaboration should underpin the mentoring process, in which the CT guides and coaches the ST towards the development of both parties' professional learning needs;

- *The contextual component:* This aspect of mentoring is equally as important to the relationship as the relational and developmental components. The contextual component extends beyond the setting of the mentoring relationship, as it focuses on the explicit conditions of the job or profession, and how these are communicated to the mentee (Ronfeldt et al. 2018). Moreover, the mentors act as a role model in their job/workplace behaviour, and provide explicit instruction about the culture of the workplace and its operation (Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014). This is not new to the Saudi ITE context, in which the ST observes and learns about school culture and teaching responsibilities from the CT, since, according to their position in the hierarchy, the CT has more power in the relationship than the ST.

In a review of the literature, Ambrosetti (2014, p.31) noted an interesting distinction between the relationships in mentoring and supervision:

... in mentoring, the relationship becomes central to the interactions that occur. Supervision on the other hand, is centred solely on the developmental aspects of the pre-service teacher and interactions between the participants focus on developmental concerns. In this respect, supervision includes the assessment of the pre-service teacher's development.

This distinction between the roles succinctly captures the fact that it is the assessment element that makes supervision formal and detached, compared with

mentoring, and this is reflected in developing countries in which assessment is facilitated through the hierachal system (Tyokumbur, 2014).

In the mentoring relationship, hierarchy is a prominent factor in the context of developing countries. For example, the findings of a study conducted in Ghana (Asante, 2011) to assess the type of relationship between mentors and mentees revealed that the mentoring relationships were highly hierarchical, with the mentors respected for their age and experience, and their judgement was considered to be indisputable. As well as further highlighting the significance of considering the socio-cultural aspects of hierarchy in such relationships, this encourages a deeper study of aspects of the mentoring relationship that might help to reduce the hierarchical distance, and promote a more collegial relationship between the CT and the ST.

Success in a mentoring relationship requires trust, respect, ethics, and a positive connection between the mentors and their mentees (Tahir et al., 2015). In addition, STs should accept their mentors' criticisms and opinions to enhance their professional performance (St John et al. 2018; Garza et al. 2019), to establish a high degree of openness and communication between the parties, with each mentee possessing the skills to adapt to the culture and environment of their mentors. Furthermore, Foukal, Lawrence and Williams (2016, p.103) suggested that “the emphasis may need to be on how to develop a more horizontal than hierarchical relationship by engaging and collaboratively setting goals with one’s mentee rather than giving advice.”

Within the Saudi ITE context, the CT, or the ‘training supervisor’, generally has more professional experience than the mentee, and adopts a leadership role in the relationship. They are also required to assess and assign a grade to the ST’s performance during their practicum, which, due to the hierachal system, lends them greater power in the relationship, which can therefore be described as asymmetrical.

2.6.6 Mentoring framework

According to the extant research, a formal framework for mentoring in ITE is required, in order to achieve mentoring goals, and to enable the evaluation of mentoring practice (Alsulami, 2014; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; Grieser & Hendricks 2018; Garza et al. 2019). The following were identified as important elements for a formal mentoring framework/scheme, which could serve as a guide for ITE settings that lack such a framework:

- Establish the aims of the scheme;
- Establish objectives for the scheme that are measurable within specific time, roles, and responsibilities of mentors;
- Provide training for mentors;
- Decide the elements of the mentoring process;
- Establish the management and monitoring of the scheme;
- Establish a process for the review and evaluation of the scheme (Rhodes, Syokes and Hampton, 2004).

This study's focus on the CT's role reflected in Rawlings' argument (2002 cited in Aderibigbe, 2012, p.32) that the identification of the qualities, skills, and roles involved in mentoring could be employed to develop, or to shape, the mentoring framework or activities, while Barrera et al. (2010) also indicated the necessity for a formal structure for effective mentoring. In addition, Flynn and Nolan (2008 cited in Barrera et al., 2010) identified the following significant elements of a mentoring framework: (a) Selecting mentors with the same certification who live in close proximity to their mentees, in order to facilitate their meetings; (b) Providing mentors and mentees with schedules that allow for common planning time, and opportunities to observe one another; (c) Reduce workloads; and (d) Providing orientations for both mentors

and mentees. This is significant for the context of this present study, as current education reforms in Saudi Arabia seek greater accountability for STs' ITE, while teachers demand clearer goals, and more stable education plans.

2.6.7 Professional learning for both mentors and mentees

The literature demonstrated that well-constructed mentor training programmes can introduce mentors to explicit practices to ensure that STs receive quality professional learning, and the skills necessary for the improvement of their professional practice (White, 2014; Czerniawski et al. 2017; Ronfeldt et al. 2018; Garza et al. 2019). They concluded that mentoring is a potentially powerful career development strategy that can offer benefits to the mentor, the mentee, and the organisation concerned. Meanwhile, Ronfeldt and his colleagues (2019) provided evidence that demonstrated how mentors not only help to develop STs' professional learning, but also enhance their own professional development, and in another study, and how mentoring provides one means of embedding cost-effective professional development. The qualitative data concerned showed that mentoring acts as a form of professional development, and engenders the enhancement of communication skills, and the development of leadership roles, such as problem-solving and building capacity, whilst advancing pedagogical knowledge.

In a study concerning practising teachers' perceptions of teacher trainees, Kagoda and Sentongo (2015, p.149) reported that "the practicing teachers benefit from an injection of new ideas that enhance their own professional growth and development through the introduction of innovative ideas and current practices introduced by the teacher trainees." Therefore, through the process of mentoring, teachers develop as professionals, enhance their leadership capabilities, reflect on their practice, and gain insights into teaching and learning (Lai, 2010; Smith and Nadelson, 2016a).

Meanwhile, mentoring positively impacts on STs' professional learning by developing their teaching competencies, and it plays a key role in their socialisation process (Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016), and also creates

more effective teams in schools. Hence, mentoring provides STs with an easier transition to becoming more proficient teachers (Emilly et al. 2018). Moreover, many studies concluded that mentoring assists STs to acquire the necessary pedagogical and management skills to coordinate lessons effectively.

Meanwhile, researchers such as White, 2014; McMahon et al. 2015; and Dunst et al. 2019 argued that supporting the professional learning of STs should be a continuum, commencing with the school practice stage, and progressing to induction, and onward into the professional stage, claiming that mentoring should play a major role in the provision of support for beginning teachers. This view reflected the Scottish Teachers for a New Era (STNE)'s philosophy of a continuum of support for beginning teachers' professional development (Livingston et al., 2014), and CPD for experienced teachers (Burn and Mutton, 2015).

2.6.8 Promoting a culture of on-going collaborative learning

Learning to teach is a process of integrating different forms of knowledge into a personal, practical, and professional knowledge base. It is a process that requires reflection and dialogue concerning the interactive reconstruction of knowledge of teaching and learning over an extended period of time (Hudson, 2013a; 2013b; Hudson, 2016). Therefore, teacher preparation and induction should welcome STs into a collaborative professional learning community. For STs, the primary relationship in such communities is often with their mentor, and thus mentors should engage in collaborative and reciprocal learning with their STs.

According to Fulton et al. (2005 cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p.13), mentoring has developed from induction and informal support, and intentional development, to a more contemporary model that situates development within a professional community and school culture that supports the ongoing learning of all teachers. This transformational model requires a fundamental shift from teaching as an independent practice to teaching as an interdependent practice, since

Integrated professional cultures benefit novices and veterans alike. New teachers get support and guidance, experienced teachers get recognition and renewal, and everyone focuses on student learning and school improvement.

In these settings, 20th century solo teaching is replaced by a 21st century model of teaching and learning. (Fulton et al., 2005 cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2012, p.13)

The ‘solo teaching’ referred to in the quotation reflects a situation that remains common in most schools, especially in the Saudi education system, where most teachers still work alone in self-contained classrooms (Al-Rabai, 2014). However, cutting-edge schools also exist in developing countries, in which teachers with varied experience collaborate to promote the learning of all STs, demonstrating that transformation is possible (Johnson, 2003; Korthagen, 2010; Lindqvist, 2012; Conroy et al., 2013). Inducting STs into these integrated professional environments through the mentoring process not only reduces the problem of teacher isolation, but also fosters learning with and from colleagues, and promotes a sense of collective responsibility (Ellis & Chils 2019).

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter explored the international literature concerning mentoring in the ITE context. It explored different models of mentoring, together with the theories underpinning some of these models, comparing and contrasting them with the current ITE practices in the Saudi context. It also established the importance for CTs/mentors to understand these models and approaches.

This chapter also discussed how mentoring can be challenging and demanding in the ITE context, due to a range of factors, including the different conceptions of the mentoring role, forming teacher educator identity, selection and pairing, mentor training and support, and hierarchy struggles within the mentoring relationship. Nevertheless, the literature demonstrated that mentoring is beneficial when certain factors are included, such as the existence of a mentoring framework, in which mentors and their STs gain professional learning in a culture of continuous collaborative learning and support that contributes to raising teachers’ professionalism. The next chapter presents the research methodology employed to conduct this study.

Chapter.3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This study explored the views of Saudi MOE officials, head-teachers (HTs), and cooperating teachers (CTs) regarding role of CTs in the professional learning of student teachers (STs) during their practicum. It seeks to understand the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE context, together with the challenges facing the role, and possible factors that might assist in its development in this context. The research was conducted under an interpretivist paradigm, with critical constructivism as a guiding position (Ling and Ling, 2017) (see Section. 3.2). Due to its critical constructivist stance, it employed a constructivist grounded theory (CGT) methodology as a strategy of enquiry (see Sections 3.6.2 and 3.6.3). The data involved were acquired via semi-structured interviews that were audio recorded, transcribed, translated, re-translated, and analysed manually. Purposive sampling was employed to select the 12 participants, comprising of three MOE officials, three elementary school HTs and six CTs who had participated in training STs attending their school for the practicum aspect of their ITE programme during the academic year 2016/17.

This chapter commences with a discussion of the researcher's orientation, and the rationale for conducting a qualitative research design. The processes undertaken to gather the contextual data, and to identify the interview participants, are discussed. Section 3.4 includes a detailed justification of the methodology chosen, together with an examination of the research design, participants, strategies for data capture, procedures, and the techniques employed for the data analysis. The chapter then proceeds to an assessment of the trustworthiness issues of qualitative research (Section 3.7), and the ethical considerations involved in this study (Section 3.8).

3.2 Research paradigm/orientation

Research is shaped by the researcher's assumptions concerning the nature of being (ontology), the acquisition of truth/knowledge (epistemology), and ways of achieving that truth/knowledge (methodology) (Matthews, 2014; Ling and Ling, 2017; Garza *et al.*, 2019).

Ontologies are worldview philosophies that range from realist positions, such as positivism, which argues for an objective real world, to relativist positions, which argue that reality is constructed socially by different groups of people or cultures as they interact and experience the world (Fox, Martin and Green, 2007; Nagel *et al.*, 2015). Meanwhile, epistemology refers to different forms of knowledge, and asks questions concerning the nature of the relationship that exists between the enquirer and the enquired (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998 cited in Powell, 2016, p.47). Methodological questions are those that ask how an enquirer discovers what to believe or know (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005; Matthews, 2014).

A paradigm is a set of beliefs that inform research approaches and actions. The term is often used to refer to the philosophical assumptions of an enquiry (Creswell, 2003), as paradigms are shared beliefs within a community of researchers concerning the nature of reality, and the most appropriate means for exploring it (Ling and Ling, 2017; Livingston, 2017). The issues related to paradigms of enquiry are based on three major conceptions: positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism (Creswell, 2003; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005; Flick, 2009; Silverman, 2016; Charmaz, 2017).

- Positivism advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond. It resides in a world-view governed by natural laws, which researchers can describe and uncover through quantitative data. To positivists, figures or statistical data have the potential to confirm impressions, or settle disputes, especially when they align with existing pre-conceptions (Bettis and Gregson, 2001). The present study did not adopt this paradigm, as it sought to understand the CTs' role

in STs' professional learning from the perspectives of the participants, who were stakeholders in the Saudi ITE system;

- Interpretivism challenges the positivist epistemology. It is based on the belief that researchers interact with people, their environments, culture, and religion, considering that these, and other aspects, are important for effective social research (Jenks, Lee and Kanpol, 2001; BRYMAN, 2004). Intrinsic to the approach is the belief that research procedures must accommodate the subjective and distinctive nature of human beings within the natural rules advocated by positivists (Jenks, Lee and Kanpol, 2001). It also advocates that any research strategy must recognise and respect the views of the diverse populations in a context, in order to grasp the subjective interpretations assigned to social actions (Bryman, 2004). The use of interviews, focus group discussions, and case studies, among other approaches, are encouraged, as research informed by the interpretive paradigm is mostly qualitative in nature. The present study was conducted under the interpretivist paradigm, as it sought to understand the role of CTs from the perspectives of different stakeholders in the Saudi ITE system, in order to identify the challenges of the role, and the prospects for its development in this specific context. According to MacNaughton et al. (2001 p.35), "Interpretivism seeks to explain how people make sense of their circumstances, that is, of the social world", and Radnor (2001, p.7) asserted that "interpretive educational research has explanatory power and can inspire through offering illuminating insights into human situations", which was the aim of this study;
- The pragmatic stance is an alternative paradigm to positivism and interpretivism, which contends that different world views can be combined to seek deeper understandings of complex experiences and situations through interrogation and the comparison of data (Greene, 2007). This paradigm was not employed in the present study, as it concerned initial discovery and understanding. However, it could be considered for further research, once more data is available regarding ITE in Saudi Arabia, or when the recommendations of this study are considered and applied, in order to

analyse and compare its results with those of similar studies in the ITE programmes of other developing countries.

3.2.1 Theoretical framing of the study: critical constructivism

The principle of constructivism is rooted in the work of Vygotsky (1978), who considered learning to progress from a social context to individual knowledge construction. Many philosophers and educationalists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, and Perkins suggest that constructivism and social constructivism try to solve the problems of traditional teaching and learning (Amineh and Asl, 2015). The origins of using constructivism in educations are believed to date back to the time of Socrates, who claimed that teachers and learners should talk with each other and interpret and construct the hidden knowledge by asking questions (Hilav, 1990, cited in Erdem, 2001). Constructivism as an educational theory holds that teachers should first consider their students' knowledge and allow them to put that knowledge in to practice (Mvududu & Thiel-Burgess, 2012). In other words, Mvududu and Thiel-Burgess represent constructivist view as one of the leading theoretical positions in education. Since there is no universal definition of constructivism, some consider it as a theory of learning, others as a theory of knowledge; although some other scholars and theorists consider it as a theory of pedagogy, theory of science, educational theory or an all-encompassing worldview (Amineh and Asl, 2015).

Bentley, Fleury and Garrison (2007) argued that critical constructivism challenges more deep-seated cultural assumptions concerning the creation and ownership of knowledge. They stated that

Critical constructivism is recommended as a central theoretical referent for all educational practitioners. In preservice teacher education, critical constructivism as a socio-political process should lie at the centre of discussions about the nature of learning, teaching, curriculum and schooling.
(ibid., p. 2)

Critical constructivism was therefore employed as the epistemological position of the present study, because it involved both a more critical understanding of the ideas of constructivism, and a consideration of the social, cultural, and political

nature of knowledge in the teaching and learning process, especially in developing educational settings like that in Saudi Arabia.

One of the most influential changes in STs' professional learning concerns how they view and develop ideas about teaching, learning, curriculum, and education. According to Bentley et al. (2007) in most ITE programmes, educational psychology has often shouldered most of this responsibility, and in Saudi ITE programmes in particular, educational psychology remains one of the few courses to have survived the recent mergers, and continues to be taught in the educational diploma course (see Appendices 1 and 2) (KAU, 2018; P.N.U, 2018). In more developed ITE settings, educational psychology typically provides an array of learning theories (Bentley, Fleury and Garrison, 2007; Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2007; Rice, 2008; Buitink, 2009; König, 2013; Cameron, 2014; Lake et al., 2015). However, this 'survey' approach rarely helps students to understand learning theories as 'artefacts' in evolving conceptualisations about teaching and learning (Wang and Odell, 2002), nor does it help them to understand how to use such theories as referents in their own theorizing about practice (Wang and Odell, 2002; Bentley, Fleury and Garrison, 2007; Helgevold, Næsheim-Bjørkvik and Østrem, 2015; Spriggs and Boggs, 2016). Therefore, researchers with critical constructivist views recommend placing psychological theories into the cultural context of STs, in order to make them relatable and applicable (Bentley, Fleury and Garrison, 2007; Charmaz, 2017; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017), which was one of the present study's main areas of concern.

In addition, this study attempted to understand and reveal how teachers learn in the Saudi educational system, by interviewing Saudi CTs, HTs, and MOE officials who are directly involved with STs' professional learning in ITE programmes. This aligned with the critical constructivist assumption that data collected from participants can reveal aspects of their lived reality, and that while an external reality exists, it is always represented in the interpretations constructed by individuals (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005; Fox, Martin and Green, 2007; Willig, 2013). This implies the existence of a number of perspectives of reality which, due to a range of interacting factors and experiences, are open to different interpretations by individuals, groups, or systems (Fox, Martin and Green, 2007),

which is why the present study's epistemology/theoretical framework lay within the interpretive paradigm (Ling and Ling, 2017).

In summary, this research adopted a critical constructivist under the interpretive paradigm, in order to achieve its aim of understanding the role, challenges, and prospects of CTs in the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE context.

3.3 Research approach

The research approach involves locating the most appropriate way to address a study's research questions (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Ling and Ling, 2017). It is influenced by the purpose of the research, the research paradigm, and the researcher's epistemology, in addition to the limitations of the research, such as the time, money, and support available (Powell, 2016). There are three main research approaches that provide a framework to guide research activity: the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method approaches (Creswell, 2003).

The present study adopted a qualitative approach, because it is more flexible than a quantitative approach, especially when exploring the social and/or individual views, beliefs, experiences, and processes of people in their natural setting (Fox, Martin and Green, 2007; Robson, 2011; Willig, 2013; Silverman, 2016). This approach, as opposed to a more fixed or multi-strategy (quantitative) approach, was considered appropriate for this study as it allowed the research to develop gradually during the process of the data collection and analysis. As noted in Chapter One (Section 1.2.6), research concerning ITE in Saudi Arabia is currently limited, and therefore the literature review process proceeded in parallel with the study. The initial literature review was undertaken at the outset of the study to inform the researcher of the latest developments in the Saudi ITE system, and continued throughout the process of data collection to facilitate awareness of emergent concepts or ideas, which gave this study more flexibility to pursue unpredicted concepts that emerged from the data, without limiting its scope to pre-assigned points of interest (CGT methodology).

A quantitative research approach would normally involve fixed quantitative methods of data collection, and the use of a mathematical statistical analysis that would not have been appropriate for this study. Hence, the research approach employed was solely qualitative, collecting qualitative data, and using qualitative data analysis (Robson, 2011). Furthermore, since the researcher did not combine qualitative methods with quantitative methods, in a multi- or mixed-methods approach, this approach was also not employed for the present study.

3.4 Data collection tools

The researcher's choice of research questions, research paradigm (interpretive) and methodology (CGT), had implications for the selection of the data collection tools and analysis methods. The tool employed to collect data is based on the kind of information being sought, from whom, and under what circumstances. There are several tools/methods available to the researcher, however, the method chosen should be specific to the purpose of the research. The following are tools for collecting qualitative data (Robson, 2011):

- Direct observation to discover what people do in public;
- Interviews or questionnaires to discover what people do in private;
- Interviews, surveys/questionnaires, or attitude scales to learn what people think, feel, and/or believe.

3.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews are one of the most common means of collecting data in qualitative research, because they provide an opportunity for the researcher to collect rich data (Kvale, 1996; Folkestad, 2008; Robson, 2011; Hoyos and Barnes, 2012; Willig, 2013) that is compatible with several methods of data analysis (Willig, 2013).

Generally, an interview involves a dynamic interaction in which the researcher asks questions, and receives answers from a participant (Robson, 2011). Interviews

allow researchers to explore phenomena with individuals or groups, who are not necessarily aware of the researcher's particular research paradigm (Breakwell et al., 2012 cited in Powell, 2016, p.58). There are three main types of interviews, which are distinguished by their degree of structure or standardisation.

- Structured interviews: Have a pre-set list of questions with fixed wording, and a pre-set order that the researcher does not alter, in order that all of the interviewees answer the same questions in the same order. This type of interview can limit the range and depth of responses (Kvale, 1996; Robson, 2011), and was not considered for the present study, which sought to discover as much as possible about the reality, challenges, and prospects for the development of the Saudi CTs' role, with no prior assumptions. This type of interview also eliminates the differences between the participants' perspectives regarding the phenomena investigated, and these differences were valuable for this study, as its participants belonged to three different groups: MOE officials, HTs, and CTs;
- Semi-structured interviews: The interviewer employs an interview guide that serves as a checklist of the topics to be covered. However, the wording and order are modified during the interview, and additional unplanned questions may be asked to elicit elaboration on the interviewees' responses (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007; Folkestad, 2008; Saldaña, 2009). The present study employed this type of interview for the aforementioned reasons. The rationale is fully discussed in Section 3.4.1.3;
- Unstructured interviews: The interviewer has a general area of interest, and allows the conversation to develop naturally within it. The interview may have one overarching question, and can be completely informal. The questions asked are generated during the interview, depending on the responses generated. This can engender a low consistency across the interviews (Robson, 2011). This type of interview was not considered for the present study, as both the Ethical Committee of Glasgow University, and the Saudi MOE required the advance provision and approval of a list of the questions or topics to be discussed in the study.

3.4.1.1 Advantages

In semi-structured interviews, questions function as starting points that prompt the interviewee to communicate freely and openly, while also allowing the researcher to increase their understanding of the topic at hand (Saldaña, 2009). They also enable the researcher to pursue interesting responses, to investigate underlying motives, and to observe non-verbal reactions, which can assist in understanding the verbal response, as well as the implied assumptions and expectations (Robson, 2011; Willig, 2013).

3.4.1.2 Disadvantages

Interviews are time consuming, and the flexibility, particularly of semi-structured interviews and unstructured interviews, requires a degree of interviewer skill and experience (Powell, 2016). Moreover, interviews that lack structure cause problems for eliminating bias (Robson, 2011). The use of semi-structured interviews as a qualitative research method can be criticised for its failure to consider the many contextual features of the interview, as it takes the data at face value (Willig, 2013). Critics emphasise the importance of considering interactional features, the interview's status as a conversation between two people, the stake that each has in the interview, and the possible effects of social identities and linguistic variability involved (*ibid.*).

3.4.1.3 Rationale for using semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview was chosen for the current research, as it aimed to discover the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs, from the perspective of MOE representatives, HTs, and CTs. Interviews can provide greater in-depth information than surveys, and allow for follow-up to better understand an interviewee's responses. Therefore, this type of interview constitutes a suitable approach for developing an understanding of teaching and learning processes and relationships (Kvale, 1996). Semi-structured interviews are a flexible and adaptable method for data collection that enables the researcher and the participant to co-construct meanings and interpretations (Kvale, 1996). The

flexibility of this method provides freedom regarding the order, wording, and priority of the questions employed, which can engender in-depth and unanticipated responses (Robson, 2011). It also enables the modification of the line of enquiry, and the pursuit of interesting responses, as well as facilitating the exploration of the participants' perceptions (Kvale, 1996).

The researcher of the present study believed that, due to the fact that the participants had never met the researcher, and that the researcher wished to avoid giving the impression of being superior, or an expert (an impression imposed by the culture concerned that respects the 'knowledgeable' highly, see Section 1.2.1), it was deemed that the participants would be more comfortable with an informal style of interview between two educators, which would allow the parties concerned to develop a connection. Moreover, this might result in the interviewees considering aspects of the CTs' role in STs' professional learning in a new or different way, generating new knowledge and new understanding for both the researcher and the interviewee (Willig, 2013).

According to Willig (*ibid.*, p.11), semi-structured interviews are compatible with realist research as they can be designed and implemented in such a way as "to facilitate true and undistorted representations" concerning the world and nature of elements within it. However, this view is dependent on the willingness of the interviewee to share their reality and to be "involved" (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005, p. 266). Semi-structured interviews are also compatible with some versions of GT (Willig, 2013), such as that of Strauss and Corbin (1990; 1998) (see Section 3.6.3).

3.4.1.4 Procedure: design and interview construction, sample and participants

a) Design and Interview construction

After choosing semi-structured interviews as the data collection tool for this research, the process of constructing the questions commenced, guided by the literature review, which determined that it was essential to commence with the

study's main topics of interest: ITE clinical trial/school placements, school-based mentoring, ITE practicum in Saudi Arabia, and the role of CT in STs' professional learning in Saudi Arabia.

It was decided that the use of 'question themes', instead of actual questions, was appropriate (see Appendix 9), as this enabled the interviewer to ensure that she retained focus on the original research aim. The interview themes outlined the questions and topics to be covered during the interviews, which, rather than imposing questions and topics, were employed flexibly, in order to explore the participants' views and experiences thoroughly. The questions were translated into Arabic and were then checked by two Arabic researchers to ensure accuracy in the translation. The structure of the interview included introductory comments, a list of topic headings and key questions, prompts, and closing comments (Robson, 2011). The language used for the interviews was Arabic, while the research analysis was conducted in English, meaning data had to be translated following the data collection process. To ensure the highest level of accuracy, all the translated transcripts (from Arabic to English) were back translated to Arabic and compared with the original transcripts to identify any discrepancies.

The literature review and the process of interview construction generated more issues to be thought through. Researchers argued that there is a lack of knowledge of mentoring in Saudi ITE (Al-Rabai, 2014), and some questioned whether it existed at all, whether it is present, but under another title, and whether it really the 'missing link' that many Arab researchers claimed (Al-Hazmi, 2003; Al-Rabai, 2014; Al-Seghayer, 2014b). All these issues were taken into consideration during the construction of question themes.

From this it became apparent that only by interviewing participants face-to-face in their native language, with the flexibility that is part of the semi-structured interview method, could the researcher have confidence that ideas discussed were based on a common understanding.

The word ‘mentor’ does not have a literal translation in Arabic, so researching the term in Saudi researchers’ published studies and official Saudi documents was not an option. Thus, based on the researcher’s belief that the subject should be investigated first hand, the decision was taken to visit Saudi Arabia, in order to collect data directly from the participants.

b) Sample and Participants

The construction of the sample was the result of much thought around what would be ideal to do and what could actually be done in timeframe of the period of study. The reviewed literature reports that in qualitative research, in-depth interviews are a reliable source of data even with a small sample size (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). As discussed below researchers believe that qualitative research typically require a smaller sample size than quantitative research as long as the qualitative sample size is large enough to obtain enough data to sufficiently describe the phenomenon of interest and address the research questions (Creswell and Poth, 2016). The goal of qualitative researchers should be the attainment of saturation. Saturation occurs when adding more participants to the study does not result in additional perspectives or information. Glaser and Strauss (1967) recommend the concept of saturation for achieving an appropriate sample size in qualitative studies. Other guidelines have also been recommended. For an ethnography, Morse (1994) suggested approximately 30 - 50 participants. For grounded theory, Morse (1994) suggested 30 - 50 interviews, while Creswell (1998) suggested only 20 - 30. For phenomenological studies, Creswell (1998) recommends 5 - 25 and Morse (1994) suggests at least six.

Specifically, in constructivist or in-depth qualitative research, a single example can be highly instructive (Boddy, 2016). However, it is also suggested that qualitative sample sizes of ten may be adequate for sampling among a homogenous population (Boddy, 2016). A small sample that has been systematically selected for typicality and relative homogeneity provides far more confidence that the conclusions adequately represent the average members of the population especially if it was analysed thoroughly (Creswell and Poth, 2016) (see data analysis section below). Small sample sizes seek depth, rather than breadth

of data that allows development of insightful analyses (Smith et al., 2009; Alase, 2017; Pietkiewicz, & Smith, 2012).

The researcher identified five stakeholder groups in Saudi education: the Saudi MOE, Saudi universities, HTs, CTs, and STs. Since the aim was to investigate the reality of the CTs' role in the process, the researcher decided to interview individuals from only three of the five stakeholder groups: MOE officials, school HTs, and CTs. University staff and STs were not interviewed, because gaining permission and access to conduct research in Saudi universities, would involve a lengthy procedure, because the researcher was not a faculty member in any university. Moreover, the present study included a review of the extant literature produced by a large number of university faculty-based researchers, who had already conducted research at these locations, concerning their ITE programmes, many of which included interviews with the university staff and STs, especially those from the EFL departments (see Chapter 1, Section 1.2.6) For example, Al-Hazmi, 2003; Al-Thumali, 2011; Liton, 2012; Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Albedaiwi, 2014; Almalki, 2014; Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2016. Since the voices and views of the Saudi MOE, school staff, and teachers were absent in the extant body of research, they were selected as participants for the present study.

The number of interviews to be conducted was considered in relation to the procedures and timeframe of the data collection visit to Saudi, which was undertaken in the context of a three-year PhD research project. This visit required careful consideration, due to the extensive procedures for obtaining approval from the Saudi MOE to visit its premises and its primary schools. The timeframe involved could not exceed one month for a MOE scholarship holder (MOE, 2018b), unless the researcher is a university faculty member, funded by them for a certain research project (KAU, 2018). It was decided in the month available for data collection to select 12 participants: three MOE officials, three HTs from three schools, and six teachers (two from each school). Nonetheless, conducting and analysing the 12 interviews consumed a greater length of time than anticipated (see Section 7.5).

Another reason for selecting this number of participants was the hierarchical system of education in Saudi Arabia, in which a unified set of educational policies is applied to every single school in the country, whether it is public or private, male or female (MOE, 2018b). The legislation is issued and signed by his Excellency the Minister of Education and is distributed to every school in the country. This unified system of education presents the researcher with the advantage that it is easier to discover its rules, because they are available on government websites, such as that of the Education Statistics Centre (MOE, 2017), and in free printed publications, such as ‘System of Education in Saudi Arabia’ (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2014). The researcher can also be assured that the rules apply to the whole country, as the Saudi MOE website has one log-in system for all of its personnel in the education sector in Saudi Arabia, including in higher education (MOE, 2018a).

Nevertheless, it was recognised that although rules can be fixed, the way in which they are applied might differ between schools. Therefore, the researcher aimed to collect in-depth data from every participant.

3.4.1.5 Piloting the interviews

In order to reduce bias, and increase the trustworthiness of the interview data, the interview questions were piloted. During this stage, some of the questions were altered, and some of the wording was amended, in order to clarify the questions, and make them easier to comprehend, such as changing the word ‘journey’ in the context of ITE in Saudi Arabia to ‘system’. In order to evaluate how the interview would work, and how long it would take to conduct, it was piloted with a Saudi colleague and current PhD student, and a volunteer from the Saudi community in Edinburgh, both of whom were bilingual, and were not involved in the main study. The piloting also aided in refining the translation of the questions by locating more suitable Arabic terms to express the original English wording.

3.4.1.6 Sampling procedure

It is standard procedure that MOE researchers are required to obtain an approval letter from the MOE to conduct research in schools. Initial approval was obtained before travelling to Saudi Arabia, and on arrival, a visit was made to the MOE to present all the documents required. A letter was then issued to the researcher, permitting access to the relevant primary schools in Riyadh to conduct face-to-face interviews, and to interview the MOE officials (Appendix 7).

The schools selected were female primary schools in three different parts of Riyadh. These were chosen due to their role in hosting the universities' ITE programmes' practicum. The female MOE officials interviewed were chosen from three different departments: Teacher CPD and Scholarships, Primary Schools Educational Affairs, and Strategic Planning and Development. These departments included male and female officials in separate wings.

In order to gain access to the schools, the researcher was required to present the MOE's letter of permission, to explain her study, request their participation, and leave her contact information. This procedure was followed to ensure that the participating schools were not busy with other events, or with construction work that might hinder the data collection process. Once the schools had granted approval, meetings with their HTs were arranged, in which they were informed of the researcher's aim to conduct the interviews, and the criteria on which the CTs would be chosen. In order to affect this selection, the researcher asked the HT for the names of their CTs, and approached them separately, in their break time. Once the CTs were recruited, they provided their schedules, in order that the interview could be arranged in their free time. Before the interviews, all the participants were provided with a plain language statement, translated into Arabic (Appendix 10), and were given the opportunity to ask questions before signing the consent form (also translated into Arabic, see Appendix 11). These two documents consisted of the following:

- Plain language statement (Appendix 10): This provided details of the study, the rationale for the research, a brief description of how the

interview would take place, how it would be recorded, and what would happen to the recording. It also clarified that the participants could withdraw from the interview at any time;

- Consent form (Appendix 11): This requested the subject's signed consent to participate in the current research and included a declaration that they understood everything mentioned in the plain language statement.

The interviews commenced with the MOE officials, and were completed in one day, due to their place of work being in one building. Meanwhile, two to three visits were made to the schools to conduct the interviews with the HTs and CTs, due to the busy nature of the primary schools. Quiet offices were located, and the interviews were conducted at a time convenient to the interviewee. Approximately one hour was allocated for each interview, the shortest of which lasted for 24 minutes, and the longest 56 minutes. The interviews with the CTs were shorter, due to the restrictions of their teaching schedules, whereas those with the HTs and the MOE officials were longer, because their work was mainly centred in their office where the interview took place. The ethical considerations and challenges involved are discussed in Section 3.8. The interviews were audio-recorded, using a digital voice recorder to ensure the continued focus on the conversation of both the researcher and the interviewee, to maintain rapport, and to aid analysis (Robson, 2011; Willig 2013). The reason for the recording, and the ways in which it might be used was explained to the interviewees.

3.5 Transcribing Interview Data

In order to conduct a full analysis of the data, it was necessary to audio record and transcribe all the interviews. All 12 interviews were transcribed manually, verbatim, including all hesitations, silences, stutters, and repetitions, in order to create a comprehensive record of the interviewees' words and actions, and to ensure that as little as possible was lost (Willig, 2013). The transcripts were checked against the recording by the researcher, to ensure that everything was documented. The transcripts were then translated, a process that was challenging even for the researcher, who speaks both English and Arabic fluently. The

translations were reviewed by a professional translator and checked for any discrepancies. The researcher then applied a re-translation method in which all the transcripts were translated back to Arabic and checked against the original interviews, to assess whether they expressed the same meaning, or if there was any data loss, due to the translation. This challenging process aimed to capture the participants' utterances as accurately as possible.

3.6 Data analysis

Strauss and Corbin (1998 cited in Powell, 2016, p.64) described analysis as the interplay between the researcher and the data. Decisions regarding the method of analysis to employ are influenced by the researcher's aim, research questions and epistemological view (constructivism) (Ramalho *et al.*, 2015; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Various forms of qualitative data analysis exist, most of which involve coding the data to create or find meaning, whilst leaving the participants' views intact (Folkestad, 2008). Common qualitative methods of data analysis include: Thematic Analysis (TA), Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA), Discourse Analysis (DA), and Grounded Theory (GT) (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Powell, 2016). The current research employed the GT method of analysis.

3.6.1 Selecting the method of analysis

Initially, TA was deployed to identify and summarise the key topics, similarities, and differences in the entire data set, highlighting the prominent themes raised (see Section 3.6.5.2). In the next stage of the data analysis, the researcher employed GT, in order to extend the research beyond the simple identification and description of the themes (TA) to the development of a contextually relevant and theoretical perspective for cultivating an understanding of the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs. This approach also enabled the researcher to develop a deeper understanding of the conceptual relationships among the themes/categories identified through the discussion of the interview data (presented in Chapter 6).

3.6.2 Rationale for using Grounded Theory (GT)

The process of analysis and coding the interview content with the aim of cultivating a deeper theoretical understanding of the role of Saudi CTs in the professional learning of STs was guided by GT methodology. The goal of GT is to generate a theory that provides the simplest possible descriptions to explain complex social and psychological phenomena (Willig, 2013). GTs are not tied to any pre-existing theory, and are often fresh, novel, and holds the potential for innovative discoveries in social science (Thornberg and Dunne, 2019).

As an approach, GT differs from other qualitative research methods in both its process and its outcomes. It is primarily a process of category identification and integration that results in an outcome of this process; thus it is both a method and a theory. As a method, GT provides guidelines concerning the identification of categories, how to make links between categories, and how to establish relationships between them (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). As a theory, it provides an explanatory framework within which to understand the phenomenon under investigation (McCann and Polacsek, 2018).

Furthermore, GT involves a number of highly developed, logical, and transparent procedures for analysing qualitative data. Coding is the most basic, yet fundamental, process in GT (Saldaña, 2009). In the development of new theory, conceptual frameworks guide, rather than dictate, the focus of the GT enquiry and observations.

This approach was chosen to develop a contextualised theory for the development of the CTs' role, based on the experiences of all those involved in the process, in order to exceed the simple recognition and organisation of patterns/themes within the data (McCann and Polacsek, 2018; Thornberg and Dunne, 2019). This meant that TA, IPA, and DA were unsuitable, as their aim is to generate themes alone, and their quantitative methods are deductive and aim to test existing theories, not to generate fresh theories (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003). Moreover, these approaches were not suited to the researcher's epistemological stance or research questions, because within the interpretive paradigm, a critical

constructivism stance was employed to understand the teaching and learning processes within the Saudi ITE context. The research questions examined specific aspects of the CTs' role, in order to understand/interpret its reality, challenges, and prospects (inductive), and the responses were then analysed to establish a link to the major theories in international ITE, in order to recommend a National Mentoring Scheme. The researcher found the work of Charmaz (1996) very helpful. From the initial work by Strauss and Glaser, GT has been substantially developed. Charmaz (1996, 2000) states that:

A major contribution of grounded theory methods is that they provide rigorous procedures for researchers to check, refine and develop their ideas and intuitions about the data. In addition, these methods enable the researcher to make conceptual sense of large amounts of data. A grounded theory analysis starts with data and remains close to the data. Levels of abstraction are built directly upon the data and are checked and refined by gathering further data (Charmaz, 1996, p. 28)

Engaging in any form of grounded theory study, however, requires the researcher to address a set of common characteristics: theoretical sensitivity, sampling, treatment of the literature, constant comparative methods, coding, the meaning of verification, identifying the core category, memoing and diagramming (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017, p. 27). Never-the-less, it is essential for the grounded theory researcher to explicitly explore and acknowledge his/her epistemological position in the early stages of the research, as it is this positioning that will ultimately frame the usefulness and potential impact that a literature review conducted before data collection and analysis will have on the resulting grounded theory (Ramalho *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, in seeking a research methodology that would provide an ontological and epistemological fit with my position, I explored the concept of a constructivist grounded theory. Several authors identify grounded theory when it is underpinned by a constructivist stance (Charmaz, 1994, 1995b, 2000; McCann & Clark, 2003a, 2003b; Nelson & Poulin, 1997; Norton, 1999; Stratton, 1997). The next section further discusses how constructivist GT compares to the original GT and why it was deployed in this research.

3.6.3 GT v. Constructivist grounded theory

As noted in the previous section, Grounded theory methods emerged from the fruitful collaboration of sociologists Glaser and Strauss (1965, 1967, 1968; Strauss and Glaser, 1970) during the 1960s. Several variations of grounded theory have evolved over time depending on the researcher's ontological and epistemological beliefs (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 1996, 2017; Nagel et al., 2015; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017; McCann and Polacsek, 2018; Thornberg and Dunne, 2019).

The methodology of GT was first described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as a positivist research paradigm, compatible with objectivist underpinnings of the study of human behaviour. It has continued to develop through the work of researchers such as Strauss and Corbin (1998), and Charmaz (2000; 2006), and is now widely considered to be a valuable method for researching the socially constructed world. In Glaser and Strauss' (1967) original approach, it was assumed that an objective observer discovers data that is subsequently reduced to manageable research problems, and analysed objectively, thus the researcher is detached from the data. However, Charmaz (2006 cited in Powell, 2016, p.67) advocated that GT assumes that people create and maintain a meaningful world in which they construct meaning and act accordingly, which concurs with the critical constructivism stance in the present study.

Strauss and Corbin's (1998) later version of GT expresses a view in relation to a constructivist approach to inquiry (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Their work demonstrates a mixture between post-positivism and constructivism language, with terms such as recognizing bias and maintaining objectivity when describing the position, the researcher should assume in relation to the participants and the data. Nevertheless, they mix these ideas with observations such as "we emphasize that it is not possible to be completely free of bias" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 97). They also acknowledge the importance of a multiplicity of perspectives and "truths" (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1994, 1998) and as such have "extended and emphasized the range of theoretically sensitizing concepts that must be attended to in the analysis of human action/interaction" (MacDonald,

2001, p. 137). This enables an analysis of data and a reconstruction of theory that is richer and more reflective of the context in which participants are situated. They insist that theirs is “interpretive work and . . . interpretations must include the perspectives and voice of the people who we study” (Strauss & Corbin, 1994, p. 274; emphasis in original). Such a position aligns with this study’s approach and clearly implies that this perspective includes relating participants’ stories to the world in which the participants live.

According to the literature GT uses are diametrically contested between traditional and constructivist grounded theorists (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Strauss and Corbin (1998) argued that it is advantageous to establish a ground of knowledge regarding the subject in hand, because previously acquired experience and knowledge are key for guiding the researcher in detecting challenges and concerns in the data, and permit a researcher to seek different explanations, and to identify the dimensions and properties of emerging aspects (Charmaz, 2017). Similarly, the present study sought to achieve this via an extensive review of the extant literature, which was studied, analysed, and synthesised prior to the data collection stage. However, the founders of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967) proposed that data collection and analysis should occur before conducting a literature review, as researchers may see their data through the lens of earlier ideas and become biased (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Glaser argued that the literature related to the researched area should only be read in later stages of a study (Glaser, 1992, p.31). He claimed that if a literature review were conducted before data collection and analysis, existing theories could impose themselves on the analysis and the resulting theory, and thus, prevent it from being truly grounded in, and emerged from, the data (Ramalho et al., 2015).

This perspective has been heavily disputed (see Charmaz, 1996, 2000, 2006, 2017). Strauss and Corbin’s (1998) perspective proposes a middle way, reasoning that when developing a grounded theory, it is important to consider how a review of literature can be used as an analytical tool to enhance conceptualisation, rather than constrain theory development. Therefore, they stated that literature read before data collection could not necessarily hinder the emergence of the theory, but rather to engage with it and use it in "all phases of the research" (Strauss and

Corbin, 1990, p.56). That is, as long as the researcher "maintains an attitude of scepticism" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p.45) and does not allow the literature read to impose itself on the theory (Ramalho et al., 2015).

For traditional grounded theorists, coding from the data is the fundamental analytic tool that will uncover an emergent grounded theory from the field of inquiry. Three forms of codes are used: open, theoretical, and constant comparative (Glaser, 1992). Open coding is the initial step of theoretical analysis, developing codes from the data. This form of coding ends when it locates a core category. Theoretical codes are "conceptual connectors" that develop relationships between categories and their properties (Glaser, 1992, p. 38). Constant comparative coding describes the method of constant comparison that imbues both open and theoretical coding. In contrast, Strauss and Corbin (1998) have used complex coding methods as strategies to examine the interface between structure and process. Strauss (1987) and then Strauss and Corbin (1990) followed on from this but focused on one particular coding family, the "Six Cs," which identifies the causes, consequences, and conditions affecting categories identified by the researcher. Later, Strauss and Corbin (1998) simplified their paradigmatic framework to ask questions about the conditions, actions/interactions, and consequences of categories, thus making links between the ideas being conceptualized from the data. This form of coding is called axial coding and is used in this research (section 3.6.5.2)

The above comparison discusses several key points of difference between the research method of a constructivist grounded theory (CGT) study and that of a traditional grounded theory approach. These are: theoretical sensitivity, treatment of the literature, and coding (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Charmaz has contended that a constructivist approach to grounded theory is both possible and desirable, because, "Data do not provide a window on reality. Rather, the "discovered" reality arises from the interactive process and its temporal, cultural, and structural contexts" (Charmaz, 2000, p. 524).

3.6.4 Tools employed for the analysis

In order to identify, categorise, and develop a theory, GT researchers employ a number of tools or devices to facilitate the coding process, and normally advocate an extensive process of simultaneous data collection and analysis, whereby the researcher collects further data in the light of the categories that emerge from the earlier stages of the data analysis (Willig, 2013). The present study employed an abbreviated version of GT, which, in contrast to the full version (oscillating between data collection and analysis), involved only one round of data collection and coding, which did not allow the researcher to broaden and refine the original data and the proceeding analysis (*ibid.*). Therefore, the processes of coding, the constant comparative analysis, theoretical sensitivity, theoretical saturation, and negative case analysis were conducted within the original interview transcripts. According to CGT researchers questioning and making theoretical comparisons are essential for identifying and developing categories (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Consistent and systematic questioning and comparison stimulates thinking about the properties and dimensions of the categories, and is employed to generate ideas or ways of considering the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Below is a description of the additional CGT tools employed in the current study to increase the researcher's sensitivity to the data, to recognise her bias, and to overcome the analytical challenges (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The coding employed is discussed in detail in Section 3.6.5.

Analytical tool	Researcher's action
Memos: are written records of the process of theory development. They stimulate thinking, provide information concerning the research process, and can substantiate the findings of the research (Willig, 2013). Memos are intended to be analytical and conceptual, rather than descriptive (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Memos specific to CGT include conceptual memos that describe the development of a category and help to develop ideas on theory, and operational memos that relate to research procedure, and serve as reminders (<i>ibid.</i>).	Memos were consistently recorded throughout the process of the data collection and analysis. They included definitions of categories, justification of word choices, emerging perspectives, and reflections (Willig, 2013). They also included the different office locations and telephone numbers, directions to the locations, recording instructions, and reminders.
Microanalysis: is a detailed line-by-line analysis that is conducted to generate the initial codes, and to suggest relationships among the categories. The same process can	After the first general review of the data, line-by-line analysis was conducted using a highlighter to mark important and interesting words in every statement. For example, the word 'hate' reflected the strength of feeling

also be applied to a word, a sentence, or a paragraph (Strauss and Corbin, 1998)	expressed by CTs when discussing completing STs' evaluation forms (see Section 5.5.7).
<p>Constant comparative analysis: aims to link and integrate categories, in order that all cases of variation are captured by the emerging theory (Willig, 2013). The following techniques are those available to aid researchers in making comparisons that were employed in the present:</p> <p>1-Comparing incident to incident: involves comparing incident to incident at the property and dimensional level, seeking similarities and differences to classify them;</p> <p>2-Theoretical comparisons: involves objectively comparing categories to highlight possible properties. There are two types:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The flip-flop technique: can be used to gain a different perspective of a phrase or word. It helps to think analytically rather than descriptively; • Systematic comparison: involves comparing two or more phenomena in the data to one recalled from the literature. <p>3-Waving the red flag: Both analysts and participants naturally have biases, beliefs, and assumptions. 'Waving the red flag' involves noticing when these encroach upon the research.</p>	<p>The researcher performed the following:</p> <p>1-Compared the words highlighted for one segment of data to those used in another to determine whether they were similar or different in meaning (e.g. CTs' responsibilities in MOE officials' interviews, compared with CTs' responsibilities in CTs' interviews);</p> <p>2-After identifying common features that united instances of a phenomenon (e.g. CTs' responsibilities), the researcher refocused on the differences within a category, in order to enable the identification of any emerging subcategories (e.g. taking attendance record, checking uniform);</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Every time the researcher located a new activity that matched an identified code, they were compared with each other (e.g. comparing the observation of STs' lessons to completing evaluation forms); • Asked 'what if' questions to explore all dimensions of the two phenomena, i.e. How do they differ? How do people respond differently? <p>3-Was sensitive to words and phrases like 'never trained', 'don't understand', 'no time', 'don't talk back', and 'college girls' as instances that signalled a closer assessment, in order to limit the researcher's bias.</p>
Theoretical sensitivity: this refers to the researcher's interaction with the data, and is what advances the researcher from a descriptive level to an analytical level (Willig, 2013)	This required the researcher to immerse herself fully in the data, asking questions of it, including emerging categories, ideas, concepts, or links, and when it was appropriate to modify them accordingly. For example, 'never trained' and 'don't understand' was located under 'CT prior training/professional development'.
Theoretical saturation: The point at which no new properties, dimensions, or relationships emerge during analysis (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).	The researcher re-coded all of the data until no new categories were identified, and no new instances of variation emerged. For example, 'school leadership empowerment'.
Negative case analysis: This tool facilitates the continual emergence of theory from the data, adding depth, in order to capture the full complexity of the situation (Willig, 2013).	The researcher sought instances that did not fit with a category, or a link between categories, and located them under a category titled, 'Other', in order to ensure that all possibilities were considered, and new discoveries were not overlooked.

TABLE 3-1. ANALYTICAL TOOLS AND DEVICES EMPLOYED BY THE RESEARCHER.

3.6.5 Stages of analysis

The author Powell (2016, p.74) believed that "good qualitative research should be transparent about its process of analysis, it is therefore necessary to

systematically outline the analytic procedure". This statement is especially important for social sciences researchers in developing countries, where it is necessary to learn about new research methodologies. In terms of the present study, it was challenging to locate a Saudi researcher who was clear and systematic in the documentation of their data collection process and analysis, which inspired the present researcher to be as clear and systematic as possible in this study, in order to add to the methodological knowledge that can be shared with future Saudi researchers.

Following the transcription and translation of the interviews, a significant amount of time was spent re-reading all the available references regarding qualitative research methodology, focusing on those specific to the CGT analysis of interview data and coding, such as Kvale (1996); Strauss and Corbin (1998); Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003); Folkestad (2008); Saldaña (2009); Hoyos and Barnes (2012); and Willig (2013). In addition, the PhD theses of fellow researchers, both native and non-native speakers of English, such as Akhter (2013); Alrasbi (2013); Albedaiwi (2014); Cameron (2014); and Powell (2016), were read, in order to develop an understanding of the possible methodological approaches.

In the literature reviewed concerning qualitative data analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Kvale, 1996; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Creswell, 2003; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Folkestad, 2008; Saldaña, 2009; Robson, 2011; Hoyos and Barnes, 2012; Willig, 2013,), similar stages were listed for conducting a data analysis: preparing the data, coding, and producing theory. However, the number of steps within each stage varied. For example, Hoyos and Barnes (2012) proposed a seven-step qualitative analysis process and Braun et al. (2019) propose a six-step analysis process.

The analysis involved in the present study followed the following stages: preparing the data, coding, categorising, identifying themes (in chapters 4 & 5) and finally producing theory (chapter 6), all of which were interrelated. To produce theory, the researcher continually referred between the transcripts, the codes, and the themes, in order to re-read, regroup, and rethink certain classifications, based on the ITE literature. As Glaser and Strauss (1967, p.105) explained, "Although this

method of generating theory is a continuously growing process - each stage after a time is transformed into the next - earlier stages do remain in operation simultaneously during the analysis.”

3.6.5.1 First stage: Preparing the data

The researcher gathered all of the audio-recorded interviews and listened to them multiple times before transcribing them. They were transcribed in the original language (Arabic), and then checked to ensure the recording matched the transcription. The transcripts were then translated into English, and back-translated into Arabic to check for any discrepancies. Each interview was then re-read, and important quotations (phrases that answer the interview questions directly, ex: responsibilities, practicum procedures, etc) were selected and highlighted, and memos scribed in the margin.

3.6.5.2 Second stage: Coding

The highlighted quotes (above stage) were initially placed in three tables: one for the CT interviews, one for the HTs' interviews and one for the MOE officials' interviews. Every table had six columns; one for each interview question. Thus, when the coding process was conducted; the codes were already categorised under the interview questions (see Figure 3-2). These six groups of codes created the first categories that were then arranged in a meaningful and hierarchical way to form themes (Willig, 2013), with the smaller ideas (codes) grouped under larger ideas (categories), beneath the overarching themes, forming a hierarchical structure (an example is provided below, figure 3-4).

In the Coding Manual for Qualitative Research by Saldaña (2009) a coding model was offered. The coding process is “streamlined” from codes to categories to sub-categories to themes to Theory (Saldaña, 2009) (see Figure 3- below).

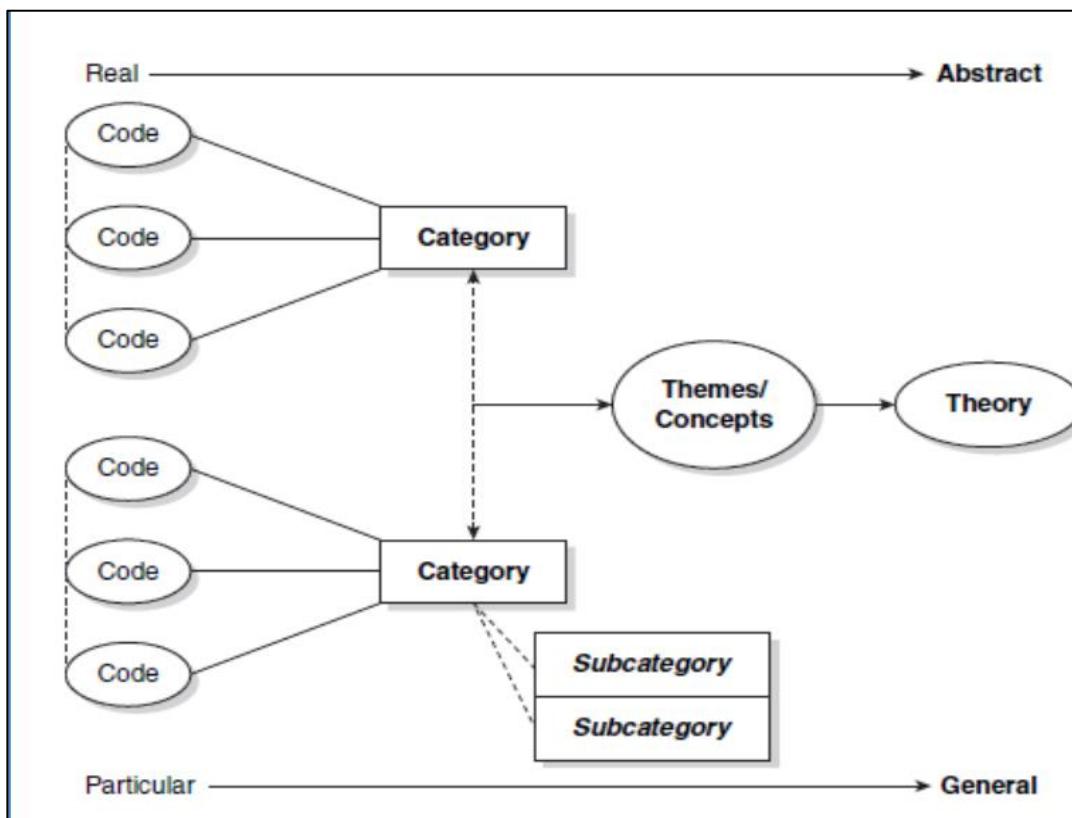


FIGURE 3-1: A STREAMLINED CODES-TO-THEORY MODEL FOR QUALITATIVE INQUIRY (SALDAÑA, 2009)

The Constructivist GT coding paradigm proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1998 cited in Powell, 2016, p.74) is characterised by its inductive reasoning, and the continuous interplay between the data and the researcher, in which bias cannot be eliminated, but is highlighted, and is thus subject to challenge by the researcher and others through the transparency of the process. This process, which was applied to the present study, involves three stages of coding:

- *Open coding*: generating categories of information (Figure 3-2);
- *Axial coding*: interconnecting the categories, and positioning each within a theme (Figure 3-3);
- *Selective coding*: establishing the core category or themes explaining the interconnection of these categories, via a reasonable scenario (Figure 3-4).

Step 1: Open coding

As explained above, the transcripts' quotes were placed in the six columns tables according to the six interview questions they were in response to. For example: the column: "Q1" refers to the first interview question: What is the current role of CTs in the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE practicum? And so on for the other interview questions (see Appendix 9). A screenshot of this stage is provided in Figure 3-2. This stage involves evaluating the theoretical possibilities of the data by generating provisional words or phrases (codes) that serve to indicate the meaning of a segment of data (Robson, 2011). This preliminary stage of coding segments can engender low-level categories. In this case the categories (that originated from the interview questions) encompassed a variety of similarly themed codes and group concepts that appear to relate to the same phenomenon. In the present study, this step was conducted in two stages: open coding A, and open coding B (coloured coding) (see Figures 3-2 and 3-3).

Interviewee	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Codes
Ministry Official 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Supervise STs, -keep record of attendance. -check uniform. -attend STs' lessons. -explain school policy. -introduce MOEs' teaching strategies. explain how to deal with the pupils and their parents. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -chooses which teachers are to be CTs. - introducing the ST to the school's staff, rules and policy's. -they should conduct welcoming programmes to ease the STs transition. - prepare a suitable room and work area 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They all understand the importance of the role and consider it the most crucial in the professional learning of the ST. -They all agreed on the importance of the impression given by CTs to their STs on teaching explaining that they are the first encounter with the profession of teaching and that 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -all agree that the practicum journey went through a lot of changes. - they offer extensive knowledge stressing the fact that it varies from one university to another and from one course to another and they go under changes in schools because of lack of supervision from U to how their 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -no clear job prescription for -CTs are chosen randomly. -CTs don't get prior training. -CTs have too many other responsibilities. -CTs don't understand some of the criteria on the forms they have to fill on STs' progress. -too many STs assigned to one teacher. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -developing a general systematic plan for practicum agreed by both Universities and MOE. -Generating agreed criteria for school selection. -selection of CTs should also follow a set of agreed criteria. -Adding STs' training as a responsibility in the job description of every teacher. -CT teaching schedule and responsibilities should be reduced. This could motivate distinguished teachers to be CT. Plus 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - CT only supervises - CT does induction -HT focus on rules -all know CT role is important -varies from U to another -CT has too much to do - no prior training

FIGURE 3-2. CODING (OPEN CODING A)

In the first stage (open coding A), once a category was identified (interview question 1, Q2, Q3, etc.), all the phrases that relates to that category was highlighted in yellow, (e.g CTs' responsibilities, CTs' Challenges etc. see Figure 3-2) according to the properties and dimensions of the concepts included in the data. The properties are the general or specific characteristics or attributes of a category, while the dimensions represent the location of a property on a continuum or range.

Interviewee	Q1:Role of CT	Q2: Role of School	Q3: Importance of Role	Q4: Knowledge of Practicum Process	Q5: Challenges	Q6:Recommendations	Categories
Ministry Officials	-Supervise STs, -keep record of attendance. -check uniform. -attend STs' lessons. -explain school policy. -introduce MOEs' teaching strategies. -explain how to deal with the pupils and their parents. -do model lessons for STs to observe. -check their lesson plans*. -fill in their	-chooses which teachers are to be CTs. - introducing the ST to the school's staff, rules and policy's. -they should conduct welcoming programmes to ease the STs transition. - prepare a suitable room and work area for STs, where they can meet with their CTs and be able to prepare for their lessons.	- They all understand the importance of the role and consider it the most crucial in the professional learning of the ST. -They all agreed on the importance of the impression given by CTs to their STs on teaching explaining that they are the first encounter with the profession of teaching and that they could determine the level of attraction to the teaching profession and vice	-all agree that the practicum journey went through a lot of changes. -they offer extensive knowledge stressing the fact that it varies from one university to another and from one course to another and they go under changes in schools because of lack of supervision from U to how their STs' practicum is carried out in schools. -It takes place in the second term	-no clear job prescription for CTs are chosen randomly. -CTs don't get prior training. -CTs have too many other responsibilities. -CTs don't understand some of the U criteria on the evaluation forms they have to fill on STs' progress. -too many STs assigned to one teacher. -no motivation. -Practicum is not taken seriously by CTs and their	-developing a general systematic plan for practicum agreed by both Universities and MOE. -Generating agreed criteria for school selection. -selection of CTs should also follow a set of agreed criteria. -Adding STs' training as a responsibility in the job description of every teacher. -CT teaching schedule and responsibilities should be reduced. This could motivate distinguished teachers to be CT. Plus reducing the paperwork they have to fill for STs' U supervisor. -the MOE should create career development paths for teachers where they are classified into: beginner T,	CT HT MOE U ST Other

Page 1 of 12 2844 words English (United Kingdom)

Focus

FIGURE 3-3. CODING (OPEN CODING B).

During the second stage (open coding B), other sub-categories were identified by “colour coding” the above highlighted codes using different colours (they were yellow in open coding A, Figure 3-2). This is to further categorise the codes as shown in Figure 3-3). Some codes were pertaining to the participant, for example under each category, if the codes were related to CTs they would be highlighted with blue and was considered a sub-category that concerns CTs. So: for example, Code= “Supervise” is blue which makes it under the sub-category= CTs under the category= Q1 which concerns the CT’s role. Similarly, other codes became subcategories, to conditions, actions/interactions (for example: the code= “no joined meetings” is a sub-category=School/University partnership (purple) which is under the category= Q5 which is about the CT’s role challenges. Figure 3-3 provides a screenshot of this stage.

Step 2: Axial coding

Axial coding is conducted to establish links between the categories developed through open coding, and to integrate them into higher analytical constructs or ‘themes’ (Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Robson, 2011; Willig, 2013). During the process of axial coding, the researcher systematically codes around the axes of a category or a topic to develop links between them (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Asking theoretical questions, and thinking comparatively, prepares for the development of theory (ibid.). Thus, axial coding creates an understanding of the

central phenomena in the data, in terms of their context, the conditions producing them, the action and interaction strategies required to deal with them, and their consequences (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017; Thornberg and Dunne, 2019). In the present study, the codes and their related categories were explored in terms of ‘process’, such as the role of the challenges facing the role of the CT, its causes, and actions required to deal with them, which are further categorised under ‘themes’, such as teacher professionalism, and leadership. Figure 3-3 provides a screenshot of the themes identified through the axial coding process.

Categories	Codes	Initial Themes/Categories
Role of CT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervises only (administrative) • Random selection • No job prescription • Too much responsibilities • No prior training • Low motivation • No rewards • No communication with U • No prior knowledge of practicum • Not aware of practicum importance • Fear for their pupils’ learning • Fear of getting bad evaluation • Not included in STs’ Practicum design or decision making 	Challenges of CT role
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chooses CT randomly (<u>no</u> criteria) • Evaluates on cooperation not skill (irrelevant) 	

FIGURE 3-4. CODING (AXIAL CODING).

Step 3: Selective coding

Selective coding concerns the process of focusing on central categories and themes and how they relate to theory reported in literature (Kang, Donovan and McCarthy, 2018). The central theme becomes the centrepiece of the analysis and is the phenomenon around which the categories arising from the axial coding are integrated (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This task can be approached via a ‘storyline’, using diagrams and sorting, reviewing memos, and using computer

programmes (*ibid.*). Figure 3-4 provides a screenshot of the key themes identified in the present study through the selective coding, which are discussed fully in Chapter 4.

Categories	Codes	Themes
Role of CT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supervises only (administrative) Random selection No job prescription Too much responsibilities No prior training Low motivation No rewards No communication with U No prior knowledge of practicum Not aware of practicum importance Fear for their pupils' learning Fear of getting bad evaluation Not included in STs' Practicum design or decision making 	Cooperating Teacher role m CT Challenges
Role of HT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No prior training No proper knowledge of practicum Not aware of practicum importance Chooses CT randomly (no criteria) Evaluates on cooperation not skill (irrelevant demands) Doesn't have the authority to reduce CT teaching load Passes responsibilities to CT like attendance and induction 	School challenges
STs' Practicum	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Very short Differs from one University to another Disconnected from U courses STs' evaluation forms' criteria does not relate to actual teaching situations Evaluation as a whole should be rethought and redistributed. Schools control it and change it according to their needs or lack of resources U supervisor passes responsibilities (e.g. evaluation) to schools' HT and CT. Practicum is not fully understood or appreciated No communication or cooperation between concerned parties: MOE, U and schools and all their representatives in the field. 	ST Professional Learning challenges

FIGURE 3-5. CODING (SELECTIVE CODING).

3.6.5.3 Third stage: Producing theory

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967, p.1), GT involves “the discovery of theory from data”. However, Willig (2013) believed that the term ‘discovery’ suggests that the researcher mainly uncovers something that pre-exists, and that the concept of the ‘emergence’ of categories of theory degrades the active role of the researcher in the research process. This view of the research process in GT is

heavily influenced by a positivist epistemology that suggests that categories and theories can simply ‘emerge’ from data, and that it is possible for a researcher to avoid the imposition of categories of meaning onto the data.

In contrast, Charmaz (1990; 2000; 2002; 2006, in Willig, 2013, p.75) introduced a social constructionist version of GT that argued that categories and theories do not emerge from the data, but are constructed by the researcher through an interaction with the data. According to Charmaz (1990 cited in Willig, 2013, p.1169) “The researcher creates an explication, organisation and presentation of the data rather than discovering order within the data. The discovery process consists of discovering the ideas the researcher has about the data after interacting with it.”

Therefore, the researcher’s decisions, the questions they ask of the data, the method employed, and their personal, philosophical, theoretical, and methodological (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017) background shape the research process and, ultimately, the findings (Willig, 2013). As a result, the theory produced represents one particular reading of the data, rather than the only truth.

In the present study, the researcher’s methodological background was critical constructivism under the interpretive paradigm. Therefore, theory was constructed through the researcher’s interaction with, and interpretation of the data, rather than merely reporting it. Chapter 6 includes a detailed discussion of the process of the researcher’s interaction with the data in relation to the theory (see section 6.1.4).

3.7 Trustworthiness of qualitative research

In qualitative research, validity concerns the procedures employed by the researcher to evaluate and minimise the threats to accuracy and qualitative reliability, and to indicate that the researcher’s approach was consistent (Creswell, 2003; Robson, 2011). According to Brydson (2011, p.106), “For validity, this means that the data making and analytic process accurately captures participants’ reality, that it is trustworthy, has truth, value and credibility.”

Generalisability concerns the extent to which the results of a study are representative of other groups or settings, and includes the concept of ecological validity, which is the extent to which research findings accurately represent real-world settings.

Typically, terms such as validity, reliability, and generalisability are avoided in GT research, as they are quantitative in origin. Moreover, CGT studies do not assert one unified truth in the world, therefore it is difficult to claim that a qualitative piece of research is absolutely valid because ‘truth’ is assumed to be subjective, and based largely on perceptions (Charmaz, 2017). Likewise, with claims of reliability, a CGT researcher generally expects the research process to change throughout the study as the topic evolves and the CGT becomes more refined.

Furthermore, CGTs are typically ecologically valid, because they are ‘close’ to the data from which they were generated (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017). Although the constructs in a CGT are abstract, they are context-specific, detailed, and closely connected to the data. For example, despite all the attempts to “restructure the roles of STs and mentors and flatten the traditional hierarchy of power, making relationships between them more democratic” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015, p.3), the debate regarding the existence of a hierachal relationship in mentoring remains prominent in the international ITE literature (Fairbanks, Freedman and Kahn, 2000; Awaya et al., 2003; Margolis, 2007; Nokes et al., 2008; Izadinia, 2015; Pfund et al., 2015; Hudson, 2016), and significantly informed the present study’s theoretical framework. Nonetheless, the researcher was mindful of considering the distinctive socio-cultural reality of developing countries like Saudi Arabia, and to extract the applicable aspects of the extant studies, in order to inform Saudi ITE policy makers and stakeholders of practices that might reduce the hierarchy, and encourage a more collegial relationship between CTs/mentors and STs (see Sections 4.7.1. and 5.8).

The concept of ‘trustworthiness’ was introduced by Guba and Lincoln (1981) as a way of broadening a debate. According to Robson (1993), ‘trustworthiness’ means that the data collected captures the information required to address the research questions. In the present study, this was represented in the presentation of the

findings (see Sections 4.5, 4.6, and 4.7), which were categorised and linked directly to the research questions RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3, respectively.

Additionally, trustworthiness depends on the ability to tie the emergent theory not only to the data, but also to the existing literature (Eisenhardt, 2002). In the present study, multiple links were established between the ITE literature reviewed, the policy landscape, the data, and the emergent themes. In Chapter 6, the data is theorised in relation to conceptual frameworks of adult learning and mentoring in ITE, such as the diversity of teacher educators' roles and identities (see Sections 5.2 to 5.8).

Another technique that was employed to address the issue of trustworthiness in the present study involved providing rich and substantial descriptions of the entire research process (CGT approach), including details not only concerning the data collection and analysis, but also of the decisions made at various stages, and the rationale behind them (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017) (see Chapters 3 to 5). The details regarding the context of the study presented in Chapter 1 also served this aim. Many researchers emphasise the matter of providing rich, thick description, which is designed to maximise the transparency of a study (Guba and Lincoln, 1981; Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Saldaña, 2009; Hoyos and Barnes, 2012).

Reflexiveness also enhances the trustworthiness of a research study (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003; Saldaña, 2009; Willig, 2013), and requires researchers to be explicit regarding their preconceptions, power relations in the field, the nature of the researcher/respondent interaction, how their interpretations and understanding may have changed, and their underlying epistemology. According to Willig (2001), personal and epistemological reflexivity influences research, since researchers must reflect on how their own beliefs, values, and experiences, among other factors, impact on the research, or how the research changed their prior assumptions.

In terms of the researcher of the present study, as a Saudi pupil, an ST, then a teacher who experienced the recent changes and developments in Saudi ITE, she was an insider with her own expectations of the role of CTs in the professional

learning of STs in Saudi ITE. In addition, her higher education at Moray House School of Education in Scotland (Training and Development), plus her supervision of STs at King Abdulaziz University, provided further experience of what STs' professional learning might entail. However, she attempted to approach the study with as open a mind as possible, seeking to address a new investigation of the matter by carefully designing the data collection process and tools. The interviews with different stakeholders helped her to gain new in-depth and up-to-date perspectives concerning the matter investigated, and she found it revelatory and beneficial to discover the reality of the situation, rather than employing a prior assumption of the situation, and testing to discover whether it existed. It was challenging for the researcher to disregard her prior experiences, and some of her experiences were utilised in the socio-cultural aspects of the data collection process, such as what to wear in primary schools, and how to greet teachers. However, the researcher was mindful of the need to clearly acknowledge the problem of her status as an insider, and was reflexive throughout the study by being self-aware, and constantly reflecting on the research process by writing daily memos, and recording audio comments on the data collection process, which helped to reduce her insider bias.

A further method that was employed to address the issue of trustworthiness involved displaying the quotations from the interview data that demonstrated critically their link with the categories created (see Chapter 4).

According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), there are four main indicators of trustworthiness that a GT researcher should establish: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. It is through complete transparency in the data collection and analysis process that a GT researcher is able to demonstrate trustworthiness, as this restricts the possibility of the researcher basing conclusions on biased theories. Table 3.2 summarises the strategies and measures employed in the present study to establish these aspects of trustworthiness.

Credibility	Transferability	Dependability and confirmability
<p>To establish credibility, the following measures and strategies were implemented:</p> <p>In-depth interviews were conducted with individuals who were directly involved in student-teacher learning during the academic year 2016/17. A purposive sampling method was used to select the most appropriate candidates to interview.</p>	<p>To ensure transferability, the following measures and strategies were implemented:</p> <p>The transcripts generated provide a rich, lengthy, detailed data.</p>	<p>Audit trail (research journal or memos). A transparent audit trail of how the data was collected and analysed.</p> <p>Original evidence was presented systematically to demonstrate the link between the interpretations and the evidence.</p>
<p>A pilot interview was conducted to ensure that the questions were clear and generated an in-depth dialogue concerning the research questions. It was also used to ensure that sufficient time was allocated for each question.</p>	<p>The participant selection involved sufficient variation that included the relevant major stake holders. An attempt was made to obtain a homogenous, yet representative sample.</p>	<p>Crude memos and analysis records were kept, in addition to the manual transcriptions in both Arabic and English.</p>
<p>All the transcribed interviews were re-translated from English into Arabic to ensure that the same ideas were generated from both version of the transcripts.</p>	<p>A naturalistic setting was provided. For the MOE officials, it was their offices at the Ministry, and for the HTs and CT, it was their respective school.</p> <p>Descriptions and codes were developed in relation to the school context.</p>	<p>The interviews were recorded, and the transcripts checked multiple times for mistakes or discrepancies.</p>
<p>Reflexivity: field journals were employed to capture ideas, connections, and methodological notes related to the understanding of the phenomenon. A research file was kept to record ideas and to document work done.</p>		<p>Negative or contradictory information was presented and discussed openly (confirmability).</p>

TABLE 3-2. TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH.

It is anticipated that the trustworthiness of the findings and associated recommendations in this study will be further tested through implementation by subsequent evaluation and research.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Formal ethical approval was obtained from the University of Glasgow's College of Social Science Research Ethics Committee before any research activity commenced. In addition, the research was fully supported by the Saudi MOE, the Saudi Cultural Bureau, and the researcher's supervisors, as their permission and approval to research the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs in Saudi ITE was sought.

In order to express respect for human dignity, and the right to privacy, the researcher ensured that all of the participants recruited were aware of their right to withdraw from the study at any time. The participants were also informed of the complete anonymity of their identities, and were not required to provide their names, since the data was not presented at an individual level, and the information provided was treated as confidential. Moreover, in terms of titles, general terms were employed to conceal their identities. For example, 'MOE official' was used, instead of their actual position, to protect their anonymity. The transcripts were provided to the professional translator without titles, and were numbered in separate files. The re-translation was conducted by the researcher.

At the recruitment stage, the researcher explained the research background, the motives for conducting the study, and the purpose of the semi-structured interviews, and all of the prospective participants consented to take part at this point. In addition, during the interview process, the researcher informed the interviewees of their rights and the ethical obligation towards them if they chose to withdraw. Two candidates withdrew at this stage, because of the recording device, as they felt intimidated by the fact that their voice was to be documented, which they considered to be culturally inappropriate. Another candidate withdrew for fear of 'criticizing authority', a cultural value of many Saudis. Since she came from the same background, the researcher understood her reluctance, and approached another candidate who had indicated a willingness to participate.

3.9 Summary

This chapter presented the research paradigm, approach, data collection tool, data analysis tools, and the trustworthiness of the qualitative data, together with explaining the ethical considerations involved in the study. This research study contributed to the limited body of research exploring the views of those engaged in ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia, and specifically the role of Saudi CTs in the professional learning of STs during the school practicum. The analysis and implications of the findings is discussed in the following chapters, in which recommendations for practice are also proffered, in order to inform the Saudi MOE, Saudi universities and schools, and other professionals working to support STs' ITE through school-based practicum.

Chapter.4 Presentation of Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from the semi-structured interviews conducted for this study, which are discussed in detail in the following chapter. The interviews were undertaken with three Saudi MOE officials, three primary school HTs and six CTs. The interviews lasted between twenty-four and sixty minutes, during which the participants replied to six semi-structured interview questions arising from the themes (see Appendix 9).

The presentation of data has been structured according to the research questions (see Section 1.3, below).

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Three MOE officials, three primary school HTs and six CTs took part in this study (see Table 5.1 below)

Participants	No.	Gender
Saudi MOE Officials	3	female
Primary school HT	3	female
CT	6	female
Total	12	female

TABLE 4-1: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The MOE officials had previously worked as teachers who had either been promoted to positions in the MOE, or been granted scholarships to continue their own higher education (MOE, 2018).

All three HTs had over ten years of experience within schools and had direct experience of receiving STs in their schools, with two having previously acted as CTs.

The CTs consisted of experienced primary classroom teachers, selected by their school's HT as a result of their distinguished performance in their annual evaluation. Five participants had over twenty years of teaching experience, with one having had fourteen years' experience. All CTs in this study had similar experience in training STs, having working with them for over eight years. The participants had all originally graduated from Colleges of Education before they were merged with universities and held teaching degrees in various subjects (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018) with two of the MOE officials and one CT possessing a Master's degree in Education.

4.3 Presenting Data Findings

As outlined in the Methodology chapter (Section 3.6.5), the final stage of data coding consisted of producing the main categories and themes. This section employs these themes to outline the data findings in relation to the research questions (i.e. categories):

1. What is the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
2. What challenges CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
3. What factors could contribute to overcoming those challenges and help develop this role?

In the following table (Table 8), a list of the related themes is provided in relation to each main category along with examples of some the codes that were generated under those categories in the initial stage of analysis (section 3.6.5). It also prepares the groundwork for the final stage of producing the theory, discussed in Chapter 6, in response to the view of methodology researchers: Charmaz (2017) and Mills et al. (2017) that it is not until the major themes are finally integrated to form a larger theoretical scheme that the research findings can take the form of a theory (Charmaz, 2017; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017).

	Code examples	Categories	Themes
Research Question 1	<p>"CT is a school teacher that teaches"</p> <p>"CT supervises STs"</p> <p>"CTs train STs"</p> <p>"provide guidance"</p> <p>"I take them around school"</p> <p>"I do model lessons" "they should do like I do"</p> <p>"I introduce them to school staff"</p> <p>"I check their uniform and attendance"</p>	CTs' role	Identifying CT role and responsibilities Provision of guidance School induction demonstration of good practice Understanding school culture
Research Question 2	<p>"no time! no time!"</p> <p>"the HT chooses the CTs"</p> <p>"no criteria"</p> <p>"we don't meet their US"</p> <p>"they don't listen to us!"</p> <p>"the US and the HT meet and close the door"</p> <p>"I don't understand what they want"</p> <p>"These evaluation sheets are difficult" "why don't we evaluate them?"</p> <p>"they think we don't understand or something!"</p> <p>"they have to listen to us!"</p>	Challenges	Time Selection and preparation Differences in values and opinions Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) Inflexibility and difficulties in stepping back Inability of CTs and STs to meet prior to any field experience STs' evaluation School culture
Research Question 3	<p>"we need a framework on a national level"</p> <p>"we need to visit the U and meet the US"</p> <p>"we need to know in advance how many STs are they sending"</p> <p>"the U could provide training for CTs"</p> <p>"they could come with their STs!"</p>	Suggestions	National policy Co-planning ahead of practicum Improved communication and reciprocal arrangements between universities and schools

TABLE 4-2: CATEGORIES AND THEMES OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

4.4 RQ 1: What is the role of CTs in the professional training of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

In order to answer the first research question, the participants were asked the following questions:

- As a MOE official/HT/CT, what is your understanding of the role of CTs in STs' professional training during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
- What is the importance (from the participants' point of view) of the role of the CT in the support of STs' professional training during their practicum?
- Can you explain the school placement process of STs in primary schools in Saudi Arabia?

Five key themes emerged from the participants' answers, which enabled the researcher to observe their conceptualisation of the role of the CT in STs' professional training:

- Identifying CTs' role and responsibilities.
- Provision of guidance.
- Induction into the school.
- Demonstration of good practice (i.e. communication skills, and interpersonal and teaching skills).
- Understanding of school culture.

4.4.1 Identifying CTs' role and responsibilities

The analysis of the participants' reflections on the role of CTs revealed that all twelve participants called CTs: 'supervisors' on sixty-two occasions and 'trainers' on 112 occasions:

A CT is a school teacher who specialises in teaching a certain curriculum (pause) her role is to supervise and cooperate fully with the STs during the practicum. (MOE official 3)

The CT is meant to train the STs, she is the primary person responsible for their training. That's why we call them CTs. (MOE official 2)

This view was also shared by both HTs and CTs. All six CTs identified themselves primarily as: (1) 'teacher supervisors' and (2) 'teacher trainers'. Moreover, their responsibilities were described by all three MOE officials and three HTs as consisting of: (1) 'training'; (2) 'teaching'; (3) 'telling'; (4) 'showing'; (5) 'guiding'; and (6) 'evaluating'.

This CT supervises STs, schedules their lessons, attends her lessons, gives her feedback and fills in evaluation sheets. (MOE official 1)

A CT has to know that she must undertake certain actions, including the following: supervising; taking a record of attendance; checking uniforms; attending lessons; helping STs adapt to important school policies and the Ministry's teaching strategies. She also needs to evaluate the STs, even though she has limited grades at her disposal. (MOE official 2)

The CTs were consistent with MOE officials and HTs in describing their responsibilities towards STs (as discussed in detail in the following section). All twelve expressed a traditional approach towards teacher training. For example, they expressed this procedure using phrases such as: "first, they observe me, to see how it is done", "we currently have good STs they listen to me", "they don't know how to teach, I show them" "even STs' do a "model" lesson" i.e. the apprenticeship model (as discussed in Section 2.4.2.2). When asked about the practicum all twelve participants expressed a formal type of training, during which STs observe and then imitate CTs' teaching (Cochran-Smith and Villegas, 2015, p. 113), thus reproducing the method considered most effective from the perspective

of each individual CT. None of the participants referred to STs' education as 'professional training', nor did they consider that CTs gained professional development opportunities from supervising STs. All twelve participants were also consistent in their description of the practicum process, because of the unified system of ITE under the MOE (see Section 1.2.5). For example, the MOE officials, HTs and CTs description of the practicum was consistent; the phrases: "we observed", "we listened" "follow rules", "CTs supervised", "practical training" and "evaluation" was repeated in all their answers. The practicum was governed in a formal setting, in which there was restricted professional dialogue between CTs, USs, and STs, arising from a number of challenges (i.e. hierarchy and the school-university gap), as discussed in detail in Section 4.6. The following section discusses the participants' view of CTs' responsibilities.

4.4.2 Provision of guidance

CTs were described on a number of occasions as offering guidance to STs. These included the following four instances of the expressions: 'guide' and 'provides guidance':

1. *My CTs offer the new STs guidance. (HT 3)*
2. *You have to guide them by telling them what's going to happen and what tasks to expect, and give them general advice on things that they may find difficult. (CT 6)*
3. *I also expect that CTs in the field are capable of guiding STs. (MOE 2)*

Additionally, ten of the twelve participants acknowledged guidance as an important component in the training of STs (apprenticeship/behaviourist model). However, one participant warned that guidance should be given to STs based on their needs.

Some STs need a lot of help, but some, a few, just need somebody for a little bit of guidance. (CT 1)

This appears to suggest that STs need their CTs to guide them in order to enhance their professional development, while the data also suggests that CTs need to provide guidance to STs based on their needs.

4.4.3 School Induction

CTs are expected to give STs an introduction to their schools, orienting them in relation to school policies, timings, and dress codes:

Little things. Perhaps showing them round the school, introducing them to the head office personnel. Telling them about our dress code. Showing them where their room is and where the classes are, etc. (HT2)

I explain to them our school policies and timetable, the way we dress and how we address children and parents. (CT1)

It involves information about the school, such as where to go and how to work within the school, and approaches to the curriculum. Things like that. (CT 5)

On the other hand, four of the six CTs considered orientation to be the responsibility of the school's HT. However, only one of the three HTs agreed that it was part of her job:

These young ladies come into school not respecting the time, or the schedule, asking for changes all the time, or to leave early! Unacceptable! So I make sure to tell all them my school rules as soon as they arrive, especially their way of dressing and their appearance. (HT 3)

All twelve participants stressed the importance of having a dedicated formal orientation concerning the practicum to be given to STs and school staff.

4.4.4 Demonstration of good practice

The participants noted that the practicum (or 'practical training') focuses on CTs demonstrating to STs good practice in terms of teaching and classroom management by giving 'model lessons'.

I have to do a model lesson for each group during their first week of observation! Model lessons are exhausting, I mean, they take extra work and preparation. (CT2)

Model lessons guarantee demonstrating good practice and help supporting STs in a more rapid manner. (HT1)

I think it's also by modelling good teaching, because our everyday lessons can't be perfect all the time. (CT 4)

The participants thus acknowledged the importance of a role model whose approach can be adopted for effective teaching and learning. However, CTs considered that a demonstration of good practice can only be provided from pre-planned 'model lessons', i.e. those CTs are accustomed to give in front of MOE visitors or during workshops. All six CTs expressed that these model lessons could place considerable demands on their time and finances, due to the additional elements they are required to prepare, i.e. seating arrangements, printed coloured handouts, projectors for power point presentations and beverages.

Moreover, communication skills are considered vital for CTs involved in STs' professional learning during their practicum:

I think all personnel involved in STs' practical training should have good communication skills, especially CTs, because they definitely have the more prominent role in that project. (MOE official 3)

CTs themselves highlighted the importance of communication skills when training STs. They noted that STs should be good listeners, while one stated that, in order to ensure a successful school experience, both are required to listen to each other:

It's very important they listen to everything we say and don't half listen. It's also very important that we listen to them if they want to try something...we have to listen to what their problems might be, or what their weaknesses are, what they need to work on. We really have to listen to them. (CT 6)

One CT identified communication skills as vitally important in evaluating STs' practice:

Within communication, a good CT is a good listener, making use of excellent questioning skills, especially after a ST demonstrates a lesson, it's really important. Good communication is the ability to evaluate and give feedback to the ST. (CT 1)

The findings suggest that the participants considered communication skills vital for effective relationships between CTs and STs. However, all six CTs described such skills as a one-way process, i.e. emanating from them to the STs. Furthermore, four CTs and two MOE officials acknowledged the importance of supporting STs through active listening.

Additionally, the data reveals a potential negative impact on STs' professional training during their practicum if CTs are not sufficiently equipped with interpersonal skills, and that effective interpersonal skills can maintain a collaborative working relationship:

My CTs know how to maintain good working relationships. They are cooperative and respected by their colleagues. It makes the job easier. (HT 3)

Some CTs are really reticent, especially when interacting with their STs. But if they want to train them, they need to be open and willing to get along with whoever it may be, and be patient and tolerant. (CT 3)

You need to build up a friendly relationship to begin with, so that the ST feels comfortable with your support and guidance. (CT 1)

The data further indicated that CTs require good teaching skills:

You need to be able to model good practice, I think, so that the STs can see that. (CT 2)

An MOE official also highlighted that CTs' teaching skills could enhance the effectiveness of STs' practical training during their practicum:

I think a lot of it is just good teaching skills. I think training STs is probably my definition of teaching, but not only in explaining and sharing knowledge; it's also about helping STs reach their full potential. (MOE official 1)

A number of the participants emphasised the importance of technological skills:

There's a lot of technology involved, and things come up every minute...like the new MOE's Noor grading system. STs don't know how to use it, but we try to show them. (CT 1)

The data revealed that the role of CTs in STs' practicum requires a number of specific skills, including communication and the ability to establish good relationships, as well teaching and technological skills. In conclusion, all twelve participants demonstrated similar views of good communication and teaching skills for CTs, but differed when it came to interpersonal skills.

4.4.5 Understanding school culture

The data revealed that participants were aware of the importance of promoting STs' understanding school culture:

When the STs first arrive, they know a little about teaching in a primary school, because, of course, they have studied there. But the reality I guide them through is what I think will make them succeed as future teachers. I tell them not to make the HT or her deputy angry, and they should always consult their superior, even if they don't need it. You know, things like that... (interviewer asks for clarification). Well, I tell them that if they want to be good teachers, they should get good evaluations, which are given by the HT and MOE visiting supervisors, and the fastest way to make them happy is to make them look good in front of their superiors in the MOE, by focusing on extra-curricular activities and applying the new MOE projects. That's why I encourage my STs to perform as many extra-curricular activities as possible during their practicum, to guarantee them good grades. (CT 2)

When they first come, they have no idea about schools and school systems. They only know what the university teaches them, nothing on school rules and regulations in particular. (HT 3)

This reveals that STs' introduction to school culture in Saudi primary schools is primarily through their practicum and guided by CTs.

Moreover, the data revealed that all six CTs acknowledged the hierachal system of education in Saudi Arabia, with superiors ranked above them, including those involved in ST professional development. Accordingly, CTs identified STs as their inferiors, indicating that STs should show respect:

STs are supposed to listen to us. Sometimes, I'm strict with my STs, because I want them to pass their practicum. I answer to my HT, who reports back to their USs and to the MOE, who question us if a single

ST fails their practicum. This never happens, as we don't want trouble. We just want them to finish their practicum and pass. (CT 4)

I feel like they are MY students. I feel responsible for them. They come here to learn from me, so I take them under my wing. (CT 6)

When I was a ST, I never answered back. I listened to my CT and learned. These girls come from college thinking they are teachers like us, some younger than my daughters!! They should teach them in university to listen politely to their CTs. (CT 2)

This provides an insight into the culture in Saudi primary schools (as discussed in further depth in Chapter 1) and its influence on the dynamics of STs' practicum. In addition, it also reflects the tension between the hierarchical system and the quality of teaching in the Saudi education system.

The findings for RQ1 revealed that the conceptualisations of mentoring roles and responsibilities by all twelve participants was based on the traditional apprenticeship model (see Section 2.4.2.2), and in particular their views concerning teachers' professional training, both initial and continuous (as fully discussed in Chapter 5, sections 5.2 and 5.3). This highlights the point raised by this study relating to the absence of a clear distinction between adult and child learning in Saudi educational culture. This highlights why CTs were not considered as learners in the Saudi ITE context, apart for one CT who stated that STs can prove helpful in setting up and using new technologies in the classroom.

Culture proved a further significant factor in the participants' perspective towards the role played by CTs, with an emphasis on hierarchy. This contrasted with the general culture in Saudi Arabia, which has a high respects for teachers (see Section 1.2.1).

4.5 RQ 2: What challenges CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

To answer the second research question, the participants were asked the following question:

- What are the challenges (from the participants' point of view) encountered by CTs in the professional training of STs during their practicum in Saudi Primary schools?

The following eight themes emerged as challenges faced by CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools.

4.5.1 Time

Time was the most frequently mentioned challenge by all twelve participants, i.e. on forty-five occasions. All participants confirmed that CTs are given no reduction in their workload when supervising STs, creating an additional 'burden' to the already busy schedule of a primary teacher. CTs reported that this led to them being overwhelmed by their responsibilities:

Time, time, is the biggest challenge for me; little time and too much effort and a lot of responsibilities that affect my help and support of STs. (CT 3)

This ST supervision takes over my time and from my efforts as a teacher. It's so stressful on top of what I already have. How am I supposed to follow up on my own pupils? I don't have enough time. I want to have more time, and less of a workload, so I can do this job. (CT 4)

The first thing is the lack of time, and full classes, which affects my teaching schedule. A lot ... of my pupils' time, and my own, is lost, including my breaks, my lunch ... I should be at least partially excused from my teaching schedule to train STs. (CT 1)

The findings revealed that time creates the biggest challenge for CTs, due to being expected to continue with their regular duties as primary school teachers. However, the MOE officials considered that HTs had a responsibility to relieve the CT of some of her duties (MOE officials 1 and 3).

Most HTs give teachers extra-curricular activities and substitution classes, along with morning and evening playground supervision. They could relieve them from some of those duties when they are assigned to train STs... I mean, if they can't reduce their teaching load. (MOE 1)

On the other hand, all three HTs claimed that the MOE did not award them the authority to take such decisions.

I would love to help my teachers, but I can't. I don't have the authority. Another teacher who doesn't have STs would go to the MOE to complain and I'll be questioned. Therefore, I just ask for volunteers for this extra task. (HT 3)

One HT compensated for the additional responsibilities placed on her CTs by giving their teaching load completely to the STs:

My teachers' happiness is a priority to me. That's why I tell them that if you supervise STs, they could take your schedule and teach it, and you can attend for ten minutes and leave. But of course they would have to attend an entire lesson to evaluate them at the end. (HT1)

4.5.2 Selection, preparation and demotivation

According to the findings, selection of CTs was made by each school's HT, according to a variety of criteria:

The selection is haphazard. HTs choose whichever teacher they see as competent for the job. Some HTs don't choose the best, they choose those who say, 'yes' to everything, because they know they can't force teachers to do the job unless they volunteer. (MOE official 2)

Some were found to select teachers with the highest performance scores in their annual evaluation:

We call them, the 'First Teacher', which means they are the best in teaching their subject. These are the ones I choose for training STs.
(HT 2)

Nine participants stated that the most common choice relates teaching experience, due to such teachers being believed to be the most knowledgeable and tolerant:

When the CT has many years of experience, they have more patience and willingness to help STs. (HT 3)

Moreover, some HTs ensured the supervision of STs was voluntary, while also promising participating CTs that they would obtain good annual evaluations.

It's not mentioned in their job requirements, so I can't force them! They have plenty to do already. (HT1)

I get two extra points for training STs. It's like doing extra-curricular activities, I guess it falls under the same evaluation point. Plus, I train STs because I feel sorry for them. We had help when we were STs, and they need us to help them now. (CT 3)

Another selection criterion concerns CTs who have followed additional professional development (PD) courses in relation their colleagues, even those not necessarily related to STs' professional training:

Many CTs are training STs because they attended PD courses here in the Ministry's training centre, but the courses we provide are general ... mmmm. Like using Word, how to be a successful speaker or using one of our new programmes in the MOE, like the new online grading system NOOR. (Interviewer asks about dedicated training courses for trainers). *No, nothing that I know of.* (MOE official 1).

Furthermore, all participants noted that CTs' dissatisfaction arose from a lack of direct training in assisting STs in their professional learning:

I really need a qualification or training course to prepare me for training STs. CTs should be always updated, because sometimes the CT has an old qualification. (CT 2)

We need preparation. They should teach us what they want from us, because the USs are never happy with our work. The university should

show us exactly how to train their STs according to what they want!
(CT 6)

In addition, the data revealed that most CTs were demotivated as a result of: (1) an overwhelming workload; (2) a lack of understanding; (3) a lack of any reward or recognition; and (4) fear of being given a poor annual review:

The first thing is that she's being chosen randomly. The CT should be chosen according to certain regulations. Another thing is that the CT is not qualified, so she/he was not trained to do this role. Also, the CTs struggle with keeping up with their different responsibilities. Moreover, they don't have any motivation nor do they get credit for training STs. Therefore, a lot of teachers do not take practicum seriously. (MOE official 2)

Also, she has to fill out a report for STs every week. The reports are often from the university with plenty of criteria, and the CT isn't given enough time to fill them in, due to the large numbers of STs or because she doesn't understand most of the questions. Moreover, she doesn't get anything in return. So what is the incentive for this CT to do this job? The lack of motivation causes the CTs to refuse to undertake supervision of STs. (MOE official 3)

All twelve participants stated that CTs chosen for this task are excellent teachers in their field, but none added that the CTs were recognised or compensated in any way:

I'm going to be honest. I do love helping STs, but at the same time, I'm still doing what I'm supposed to do as a teacher, my classes, my lessons, my grades, etc. I'm not relieved of the other duties, I'm not given any authority. The STs know that, they sense that... they are only afraid of their US! (CT4)

I don't blame the CTs for refusing to supervise STs. To them it's extra work with nothing in return. They should be recognised and thanked, with a letter or a reward from the MOE. (MOE official 3)

4.5.3 Differences between the views of CTs and USs

The findings revealed that differences regarding teaching and learning in the ITE context by HTs and CTs can hinder the latter's role in supporting the professional learning of STs during their practicum. Although the three MOE officials valued

the practicum, they understood this view was not shared by HTs and CTs in the field:

The majority of HTs consider receiving a number like this (the number of STs) very disruptive to her school. (MOE official 3)

Some HTs don't even know what their school's STs look like. (MOE official 1)

In my opinion, if the training of STs was placed as part of the job description of every CT in the school, there would be more engagement, especially if it was a goal set by her school's HT. Because every teacher has her own strengths, and her HT is expected to know them. (MOE official 2)

According to two MOE officials, two HTs and three CTs, this arises from reason HTs lacking the appropriate knowledge regarding the STs' practicum:

I'm pleased with the arrival of the college girls, because they will handle substitution classes, so that my teachers can focus on their main responsibility: teaching. (HT 1)

They come to fulfil a university requirement to get the grades that enable them to graduate. (HT 2)

The term 'college girls' is incorrectly used by the school administration and CTs. (MOE official 3)

However, all twelve participants agreed that the reason for these differences in views between HTs, CTs and USs arises from a gap between universities and schools in terms of ITE in Saudi Arabia:

There's a huge gap between what's being taught in college and what is taking place in schools. Unfortunately, the university is not teaching them what we need teachers to know. (MOE official 2)

When they first come, they have no idea about schools and school systems. They only know what the university teaches them, and that includes nothing on school rules, and regulations in particular. (CT 5)

Occasionally, I think it breaks down because the CTs' expectations are of the old system, and they're expecting the STs to simply come out and model what they're doing exactly as they're doing it. (MOE official 3)

I really want to know what the USs do? Honestly, they look so knowledgeable, but what do they exactly do? They criticise me and my STs. Come support us then, come and guide us if you know everything! (CT 4)

All three of the MOE participants in this study acknowledged the variation between the views of CTs and USs. They stressed that these could arise from differences in the agendas of schools and universities (i.e. the school-university gap in Saudi ITE, as discussed in Section 1.2.6) and a failure to effectively communicate such agendas to each other's personnel.

The school system is more stable and organised because it is under the unified policy of the Saudi MOE. However, although universities in Saudi Arabia are also under the authority of the MOE, they do have variations of university systems with their own policies according to their specialisation. Plus, the drastic changes that took place after the merger of the Teachers' Colleges of Education (TCs) under the Universities' Colleges of Education had a considerable impact on the practicum. As a result, those different colleges of education that offer ITE programmes and schools who host their practicum don't always meet. The agendas are different sometimes, which can pose challenges. There are different agendas, so what a school may want of STs as a future employee might not be exactly what a university expects of its graduates, and so on. (MOE 2)

Another CT noted the challenges posed by the different views, particularly when they disagree on some aspects of STs' training.

Well, the US always comes and goes in a hurry... I don't get anything from her. Plus everything is no, no, no, not allowed, not recommended. Rules that don't benefit me or the ST. . . . my previous work with the girls was not appreciated and I was not consulted when it came to ST training. Ok, I gave her my class and my work. She just comes and takes over my class, using my work to learn. I don't care what they learn in university, they should follow my system in class, or they could affect my students' learning. The way the university asks them to teach is different from ours. The university cares about appearances (things like teaching aids and power point presentations), while I care about actual teaching. I wish they would come over and see how we teach. (CT 4)

It is random, we don't understand ... there is a huge gap ... things that are not relevant to our job as teachers, or to the reality of our workplace. (CT 4)

This finding reveals the considerable differences of opinion between universities and schools in relation to ITE of STs during practicum in Saudi schools. It also suggests that this gap can potentially hinder the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum.

4.5.4 Pedagogical Knowledge (PK)

Both HTs and CTs identified the challenges posed by the inadequacy of the PK and skills of most STs. The MOE officials explained the low levels of PK among STs as follows:

You know, since the closure of TCs, our teachers' levels of competence have been decreasing to a frighteningly low standard. The programme has been reduced drastically. I graduated from a TC and so did you. Now, four years have been reduced to a nine-month course, or in some cases a semester with only three to four weeks of practical training/practicum instead of the whole year we used to spend in schools during the days of TCs. (MOE official 1)

This challenge was further highlighted by all six CTs who explained that because they were graduates from TCs and studied extensive PK and practical skills, they were aware that STs lacked this knowledge:

We studied over fourteen methodology courses a year for four years, everything from lesson planning, to teaching aids and psychology of education. These girls don't know any of that. They don't know how to prepare a lesson plan or create tests! (CT 1)

I'm of the view that before you actually start applying your knowledge of teaching, you should have at least studied the major theories in the field, or you won't fully understand what makes pupils tick, what helps create an effective learning environment, or how they learn. If you don't have those as principles and theoretical base for what you're trying to do, you will fail in your role as a teacher. (CT 5)

When I supervise STs, I expect them at least to know how to prepare a lesson plan, how to construct a lesson, how to evaluate the taught skill. But unfortunately, they don't, and so I end up teaching them all that. (CT 2)

Data also showed that in the opinion of two of the three HTs, STs were not prepared for the primary school curriculum and system:

They didn't know anything about our rules, timings or our system... they think they can enter and leave school when they please, without signing in or out. This is a major issue! (HT 2)

In primary, we have a set of pupils' skills/competences that each level should master. STs have no prior knowledge of these and my CTs don't have the time to teach all of them - there are over a hundred! (HT 1)

However, one CT noticed that, despite having no classroom experience, her STs were equipped with some important skills.

They were good in technology, things like power point presentations, etc. But I don't know if that is because they studied this at university or because they are just young (laughing). However, when it comes to pupils, STs get nervous and can't control the class themselves. (CT 1)

These remarks suggest that some STs do not have sufficient preparation for practical teaching experience, with all twelve participants maintaining that the practicum/field experience is insufficient. The three MOE officials and all six CTs acknowledged the need for STs to possess an understanding of theoretical knowledge, such as methods of teaching, psychology of education and how children learn prior to their arrival at schools. However, when expressing their views on the competence of STs, all three HTs and four of the six CTs focused on: (1) punctuality; (2) following school regulations; (3) scheduling; (4) keeping the class quiet; (5) recording attendance; (6) administrating tests; and (7) organising extra-curricular activities.

This data points to differences in understanding when it comes to practical experience and training and the minimum required to be effective in a classroom. The three MOE officials focused on the need for comprehensive professional knowledge, while all three HTs and four of the six CTs felt it related more to some aspects of practical knowledge (i.e. teaching skills), including aspects of teaching and management.

4.5.5 Inflexibility and difficulties in stepping back

The data revealed that some CTs found it difficult to step back sufficiently to enable STs to practice their teaching skills. Some CTs indicated that they preferred their STs to be confined to observation and assisting with paperwork. This suggests a lack of confidence among CTs in allowing STs to handle classroom activities on their own:

Our STs only observe, I don't let them teach. I only give them a part to do in front of their US, and then I repeat this myself for my pupils, to make sure they understand. (CT 2)

Other CTs were afraid STs would have a negative impact on their pupils' performance:

They could mess up my students' learning, then I'll be blamed and questioned! (CT 3)

Another reason contributing to CTs being unwilling to step back is that any low achievement on the part of their pupils directly affects their annual evaluation.

Even if I train STs, my pupils' grades are my first responsibility and that their learning should not be affected. It could also affect my annual review. This is why I ask STs to just observe. (CT 6)

Fear of being given low annual review rating was a further factor demotivating CTs:

If the performance of a CT's class is considerably low, she gets a notice from the HT and it affects her annual evaluation, even if they were taught by STs for a considerable amount of the semester. So I don't blame them for not cooperating. (MOE official 3)

Furthermore, the CT takes on full responsibility for her pupils' grades and it affects her annual performance evaluation, whether or not the ST taught her class. (MOE official 1)

My HT warned me, saying you are going to train a ST, but the pupils are your responsibility. (CT 2)

The data also revealed that society does not make it easy for the CT to hand over her class to an ST:

Parents always question STs' teaching. They can demand their children are moved to other classes. (HT 2)

I give them parts of the curriculum I have already covered, instead of having to repeat what they taught, and I never let them conduct tests. I don't want parents calling the HT, complaining that their children didn't understand the lesson, or weren't graded fairly. I prefer this system. (CT 3)

When my STs teach, parents think it's me. They think I don't know how to teach, they don't understand and they complain right away to my HT, sometimes even directly to the MOE. (CT 2)

Thus, CTs preferred to give STs a limited teaching role, including on during the US' evaluation visits. Moreover, one of the three HTs and five of the six CTs explained that they would give STs more teaching responsibility if they were better prepared:

I always need more teachers, so I would definitely give STs a schedule if I thought they were fully prepared. But this hasn't yet happened. (HT 3)

They need so much experience to be able to manage a class and teach it. I would be happy to let them teach if I felt they could, but I'm not certain. (CT 1)

This indicates that STs may not be able to fulfil their professional training, due to CTs being unwilling to allow them to take their classes. This is particularly as a result of concern for their pupils, particularly when STs are viewed as struggling.

4.5.6 Inability of HTs, CTs and UTs to meet before the practicum

The inability of HTs, CTs and USs to meet prior to the practicum is seen as a challenge to the role of CTs in the professional training of STs.

Limitations of time and transportation for female teachers in KSA creates difficulties when it comes to meetings between university and school staff, especially as both establishments have different

working hours and are located at a distance from each other. This is why most USs only visit their STs once or twice during their practicum, while most STs choose to be placed in schools close to their homes rather than the university. (MOE official 1)

Most of the time, the USs come when my CTs are teaching, so they give me their STs' papers and tell me their instructions to pass on. (HT 2)

Furthermore, CTs and HTs were found to have little wish to interact with USs, as the latter tend to view themselves as in a superior position:

No, never. We never talk, not even when a US comes to observe her STs. She can observe all the girls in a single day and finish all her paperwork in our HT's office and no one is allowed to distract her. (CT 2)

They don't include me. The HT closes the door during meetings with USs, and I teach my lessons. Then, when I come back, I am given orders. Why, why? I do the work, so I should attend their meetings! (CT 1)

Similarly, one HT expressed the difficulties it of arranging a meeting with the US:

I always ask the university for support for my CTs, but receive no reply. The US doesn't give me any numbers or names I could contact about the STs they send to my school. I always try to sit down with their US when she first brings them, but she doesn't pay me much attention! (HT 3)

Both HTs and CTs also acknowledged the importance of initial meetings with USs to discuss the STs' practicum experience:

I think it's important to know exactly what's expected of myself as somebody who's going to be supporting the ST. (CT 1)

The US should make sure we understand what she wants. How else can we know what are we supposed to expect from STs? She should have a conversation with us first. (CT 5)

The data indicates that this lack of communication between CTs and USs can significantly hinder the effectiveness of the CTs' support in the professional learning of STs. Part of this problem can be attributed to individuals, while some

can be linked to the relationships between schools and universities, including the inability of some USs to allow CTs to take the lead in the STs' practicum, as well as a failure to undertake initial meetings as a result of a restricted school-university partnership.

4.5.7 The evaluation of STs

The data revealed that USs are responsible for 50% of the evaluation, with the HT providing 10% and the CT 40% (see Trainee Evaluation Form, Appendix 6). All evaluation forms are provided by the university, with only USs being familiar with the criteria prior to the STs' practicum. In many cases, USs participate in creating the evaluation and choosing its criteria, but are the least available for schools during STs' practicum.

All twelve participants stated that their USs only evaluated STs once or twice during the practicum:

The US comes on the first day to bring her STs, then comes again at the end of the practicum to evaluate all her STs. She asks that we arrange all their lessons to take place within one day. (HT 2)

By contrast, the HT evaluated STs on their attendance, cooperation, adherence to school rules and participation in extra-curricular activities and substitution classes:

Well, I evaluate them according to their attendance. (Pause) It's the US's job to evaluate the STs' work. My job as HT is to make sure that the STs attend every day and that they dress appropriately. (HT 1)

I'm not responsible for any teaching evaluation. (Pause) Even the evaluation sheet they give me at the end of the practicum only requires information on their attendance, cooperation, uniform and punctuality. (HT 3)

Evaluation created a number of challenges for CTs, including the failure of the evaluation form to apply to everyday classroom teaching:

Evaluation has caused a disagreement between me and the US, because our reality is different from that of the university. (CT 6)

Moreover, these evaluation forms have been designed by the university, following educational theories that can be difficult for some teachers to understand:

I hate those evaluation forms! I wish they would let us evaluate the STs in our own way. Plus, some of the criteria in those forms are difficult to understand and don't apply to every subject we teach. (CT 4)

The word 'hate' is an example of some of the interesting words found in the analysis stage (fully discussed in Section 4.6.4), as it expresses the CTs' strength of feeling towards filling in their STs' university evaluation forms. It is also interesting because it reflects the depth of alienation between the perspective of CTs and USs.

Evaluation caused a disagreement between me and the US, because our reality as teachers differs from that of the university. Plus, sometimes I don't agree or even understand some of the criteria in the evaluation sheets the US gives me to fill in! So I told her to either fill them in herself or allow me to create my own evaluation criteria. (CT 6)

Moreover, the CTs found filling in these evaluation forms to be time-consuming, on top of an already busy schedule and her own pupils to evaluate:

Sometimes, I have over twenty STs, plus my own pupils. It's too much paperwork, so I end up taking the work home. And, as you know, I'm a mother. In addition, some USs asks us to fill out weekly reports besides the evaluation sheets that we do at the end. It's too much. (CT 2)

The data also revealed that CTs believed they should have been consulted in the design of the evaluation, or to evaluate the completed forms:

It's my subject, my class, and I have been teaching it for over fifteen years. I feel I should have been consulted, or at least asked about the forms' efficiency and success in really evaluating the STs. When you read the forms, you feel that these are made for professional teachers with experience, when in reality the STs have barely covered some of the basics. This is why I never give them full marks,

because they would never apply what is written in those evaluation forms!! (CT 1)

I don't see the US that much, but when I do, we have heated arguments about the forms. She thinks I don't understand because she has a PhD or something. I have experience, and I think these forms don't serve the STs well - they are not realistic! But she ignores me and my HT doesn't do anything about it. (CT 4)

Nevertheless, all participants stressed the importance of CTs' involvement in STs' assessments:

I think it's vital. I mean, I don't think it's a question of it having some advantages and disadvantages. I think it's an absolutely essential part of the process. That's the whole thing about supervising and training STs. But it should be a collaborative process. (CT 5)

This finding reveals that, although the majority of the evaluation marks are in the hands of the USs, CTs view their own role as being essential in the assessment and professional development of STs. However, some CTs are sceptical about the university evaluation forms on STs' performance, while others find it difficult to gauge what is required. Some participants were also concerned that involvement of CTs in STs' assessments can pose challenges for her role both as a teacher and ST trainer.

As previously discussed, all six CTs felt that, due to a lack of time and appropriate training, the responsibility could be overwhelming. However the three MOE officials and three HTs indicated that this role should be assigned while introducing some fundamental changes to the role itself, the STs' ITE programmes and the school practicum policy.

4.5.8 Educational culture

The hierachal educational system in Saudi Arabia has had a profound influence on school culture, posing many challenges to the role of CTs during STs' practicum. The data suggests that all twelve participants held their educational culture in great respect, but identified a number of issues at many different levels of

operation within practicum, including: decision making, authority/stature, teachers' learning, pupils' learning and how society views the practicum.

All twelve participants acknowledged decision-making to be central and that it should not be questioned. Thus, CTs are restricted in their decision-making due to occupying the lower levels of the hierarchy. They are expected to follow their HTs' instructions, who, in turn, follow those of the USs.

There is a real power struggle, I think, during practicum. I think it's quite easy for us to take over the decision-making from the CT, because we in the MOE contact both HTs and US directly with our latest decisions. Another reason maybe is that normally USs and MOE officials have higher degrees. (MOE official 2)

All six CTs indicated that they followed the rules, rather than actively participating in the practicum. Moreover, they felt they were unable to dispute any specific aspects, as this is considered disrespectful in the school culture and could directly influence their annual review:

I agree to do it because my HT asked me, and, you know, I want to get a good annual review. (CT 2)

They simply don't say no. They CAN'T, because they fear that their annual evaluation would be affected. (MOE official 2)

Refuse? No, no. I've never faced that with my teachers. They never object to supervising STs. (HT 2)

Similarly, CTs' authority over their STs is also evident, because they expect their STs to follow their instructions without question. Therefore, ideas can be passed on from a higher level, but tend to be shared and discussed within the same level (i.e. CT to CT, ST to ST) because it is culturally inappropriate to question someone's knowledge in a higher position in the chain of command:

My STs always listen to my ideas. They are so cooperative and polite, unlike the US, who doesn't even meet with us CTs! (CT 1)

I help my STs by telling them what they've got to teach and how they're going to teach it. (CT 2)

These statements indicate a highly restricted approach to STs' professional training, in which a CT holds a higher position than CTs and STs. However, these form important components of adult learning and thus impact on the practicum the ST. None of the twelve participants described collegial relationships between HTs and UTs or.

Furthermore, the data revealed that none of the twelve participants considered the practicum a professional learning experience. Instead, they viewed it as simply a training opportunity for STs to enact what they learned in university, using observation of CTs as a guide for practice. In the interviews, all twelve participants separated ITE for STs from PD for CTs. Neither were considered a learning activity, but rather forms of training taking place at different points of teachers' careers. Thus, some participants in this study (one MOE official and three CTs) considered that the low annual evaluations of newly appointed teachers implied that the school practicum was not beneficial to ITE. This leads to the conclusion that one of the main aims of the country's national educational reform is enhancing the quality of ITE practicum:

I believe that unless the ITE programmes go back to how they were fifteen years ago, these school placements are only a waste of everyone's time. ITE programmes used to send us well-prepared teachers. They knew everything they needed to know in theory (such as lesson planning, methods of teaching, etc.) and the practicum lasted for two whole semesters divided across two years. But now they send them for three or four weeks. Clueless! This creates a burden for our teachers, whom I appreciate for doing this job, but honestly one hand can't clap alone! (MOE official 2)

Moreover, all three HTs were under the impression that STs were sent to their schools to 'teach' rather than learn, so they criticised their lack of experience and knowledge of practicum:

They come to the school with no experience whatsoever! (HT 1)

First of all, they do not have knowledge of teaching (pause) nor do they have practice. (HT 3)

The CT hands them the schedules, and see which grades they want to teach, because sometimes they ask to teach certain grades, based on their major. (HT 2)

This misconceived idea about the practicum is not restricted to a few professionals in the field of ITE in Saudi Arabia. The data also reveals a culture of rejection and distrust of the practicum process from the wider society, which can act to deprive STs of many learning opportunities:

Parents hate STs' practicum. They start phoning to try and move their children to classes that don't have STs scheduled to teach them. While those who agree to their child being taught by a ST tend to call complaining about their child's grade, demanding that it be changed, or that the weekly tests get marked by the class original teacher. It's a headache, I'm telling you. (HT1)

Sometimes, STs bribe the pupils by giving them candy and prizes to make them quiet or get them to do the assignments ... (laughs) My daughter kept coming with candy from school and when I asked her where she got it from, she said that their ST gave them because they were good. STs are so scared of the pupils and their parents. (MOE official 1)

I feel so sad for them (STs). Even the school guard doesn't let them in or out of school without a clearance from the HT, and the cleaning staff refuse to clean their room or move desks and chairs to it, so STs normally do it themselves. (CT 3)

I think the problem starts with how we address STs in our Saudi schools. We call them 'college girls', which indicates right away that they are not teachers. This makes students and their parents (and in many cases school staff) fail to act respectfully towards them, or take them seriously. I believe we should call them teachers and give them real control of grades, so that pupils and their parents show them more respect. (MOE official 3)

This reveals the low status of STs in Saudi Arabian school culture during their practicum, shedding light on how their superiors, including their CTs, view that status in relation to Saudi society's educational culture.

The data revealed that the major focus of the participants is on pupils' learning. All three HTs and six CTs expressed concerns related to the potential for STs' practicum to negatively impact on the education of pupils, resulting in a tendency

to minimise STs' participation in classroom teaching. None of these nine participants demonstrated any understanding of how STs' practicum could have a positive impact on their pupils' learning. By contrast, all three MOE officials acknowledged the importance of STs' practicum in developing their ITE, linking it to positive outcomes for pupils.

A CT explained that she always gave her STs specific teaching instructions on how to teach, with the aim of guaranteeing that they did not jeopardise her pupils' learning:

I...sometimes have to make sure that the ST is actually teaching the right thing, because, at the end of the day, it's still my class and I'm held accountable for their education. (CT 2)

The data indicates that decision making in Saudi Arabian education is centralised, being passed from the MOE to both schools and universities. USs and HTs then pass this to CTs who finally pass the instructions on to STs. However, the data also appears to suggest a problematic relationship between CTs and the STs in this study, and in particular that it tends to be hierachal, thus implying an inability to question authority. As previously noted, the participating CTs demonstrated little sense of STs being equal, but rather used the phrase "when we were like them" in a way that reflected a feeling of superiority. None the less, a sense of professional identity can, at times, be seen in CTs. However, CTs continue to feel little sense of professional responsibility for STs.

4.6 RQ 3: What factors could contribute to overcoming challenges and developing CTs' role?

In order to answer the third research question, the participants were asked:

- From your experience what improvements can be made to further support STs' professional learning during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

- What improvements (from the participant's point of view) could be made to further support CTs in their role in supporting STs' professional development?

The following three themes emerged as the conditions with the potential to support and develop the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum:

1. National policy.
2. Co-planning ahead of practicum.
3. Improved communication and reciprocal agreements between universities and schools.

4.6.1 National Framework

The enactment of Saudi Arabia's national policy for developing education (i.e. the Tatweer Project) aims at developing teacher professionalism by enhancing the quality of ITE practicum in schools (Tatweer, 2018). This is considered a condition for facilitating the further development of the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum. All three MOE Officials interviewed agreed that this reform fully supports any necessary developments to enhance the quality of ITE programmes' practicum, including developing the role of CTs:

Teacher training exists in all MOE regional educational offices, the idea is welcomed, funded and encouraged by the Saudi MOE. The Tatweer Project really encourages it, and has it as a working programme where teachers are trained to transfer new skills from the Ministry to their schools (MOE official 3).

However, nothing is specifically aimed towards those CTs who support this project in schools:

As I mentioned before, (pause) it should be a general plan on the regional level and on the level of the country that starts from the Ministry ... In my opinion, there should be a central plan from the

MOE for choosing only the best schools for ST practicum, as a motivational environment to increase the level of STs. Secondly, choosing CTs should also be central following a set of specific requirements that every HT should follow and not kept for personal judgement. There should be a systematic practicum plan issued from the MOE. That's the only way to make a dramatic difference. (MOE official 2)

Another MOE official suggested that the STs' practicum should have its own department in the MOE:

There should be a practicum unit in the administration of education that organises the practicum and CTs' training programmes, and rewards them. Plus, CTs should be given points for training STs in their annual evaluation. (MOE official 3)

One MOE official believed that a new post should be created in schools to facilitate training STs, with dedicated staff recruited and prepared:

From my experience as a ministry educational supervisor for over ten years before I became (...), I believe that this role should be assigned to a fully dedicated person in the school for this job. Someone who dedicates themselves and their time to the mission. (MOE official 2)

However, a further MOE official disagreed:

These things always take time, and to assign a teacher solely for training STs is impossible and in my opinion boring, because the teacher needs to teach to be knowledgeable and able to train STs. I truly support reducing the workload and the number of lessons taught by CTs. (MOE official 1)

4.6.1.1 Distribution of Power

Distribution of power is linked to the issue of empowering leadership. Both HTs and CTs suggested passing some authority on to schools' HTs, in order to ease the role of CTs:

I would reduce the CTs' workload if the MOE allowed me to recruit extra help for the other activities CTs are required to perform, like extra-curriculum activities, playground supervising duties and substitution classes. Who is going to do all this? I'm already short of teachers. Or maybe they could ask me beforehand if my school and

staff are ready? Sometimes, I have three teachers on maternity leave and I can't ask for a replacement! (HT 2)

The MOE could at least provide me with a chance to go to the university to gain more understanding about STs' practicum, but I'm not allowed. So, at least they could order universities to send us HTs a leaflet or a small booklet that explains the practicum, including our role and what is expected of my staff. (HT 3)

I'm not responsible for teachers' professional development courses, they only send me a list of what is available in the MOE training centre. I'm not asked what my teachers actually need, the MOE officials decide. If I was consulted, I would suggest some preparation courses for CTs. (HT 1)

CTs agreed with the above remarks:

The MOE should create a criterion for selecting CTs, including that they should be trained, then recognised (you know, an accreditation or whatever), so there's a professional recognition and value of this role. This would help more teachers to agree to being CTs. (CT 5)

4.6.1.2 CTs' training, selection and recognition

One CT highlighted the importance of training for CTs to enhance their role, while all six CTs stressed the need for specific training instead of general CPD events, as well as being able to attend lectures at the university sending the STs:

The kind of professional development we attend is not helpful for me, or my STs! Workshops on types of thinking and using the theory of coloured hats? Long, long lectures that are not helpful at all. ...So yes, while training is definitely a good thing, a lot of the training I see is not helping me in my role as CT. (CT 6)

Well, first, the Ministry should assign specified career development paths for teachers, classifying them into: beginner teacher, performing teacher, distinguished teacher and finally an expert teacher. This expert teacher would then be given less teaching and more training duties and support for both new appointed teachers and STs coming to his/her school. (MOE official 1)

Moreover, the practicum tends to be more effective when CTs are systematically chosen, based on a clear competency framework and thoroughly trained to certification level.

All twelve participants also recommended motivating CTs in their role by means of recognition:

CTs should be given certificates of appreciation from the university and the MOE. (MOE official 3)

First, giving the CT some incentives to encourage her to do this role, like reducing her teaching load and maybe give her a thank you certificate in front of her colleagues, or in the MOE, so she can meet the relevant officials in person. The MOE should also show appreciation for everything this CT offers her ST, HT, along with the university and the STs themselves. (CT 2)

I think a title would be a great way to start. Something official and recognised by everybody, such as 'The School's Training Officer' or something like that. They can do it if they want to. (CT 3)

This title should represent a step up in their professional development, which should take place after careful selection and preparation. It should be advocated, supported and appreciated. (MOE 3)

We have a medical expert! A teacher with training in first aid! She has an office! In the same way, they should train me to be a trainer, give me a title, and office and a reduced schedule. I wouldn't ask for a reward . . . although it would be nice. (CT 4)

The analysis of the data highlights the importance of introducing a national policy focused on the selection and training of CTs as an aspect of the national Tatweer Project (see Figure 1-4 in Chapter 1).

4.6.1.3 Give equality to university and school staff in MOE practicum provision

Five out of the six CTs, and all three HTs, request that the MOE oblige USs to provide more help during the STs' practicum. In particular, it was suggested that official posts should be assigned to them in school during the practicum, as they understand more about what development skills they are looking for and know what is expected of STs' practicum.

The US knows more about her ST than we will ever do. So, she should stay with her for at least for the orientation and observation week... well, of course evaluation is her responsibility, but we don't see her ... except for maybe once or twice. (HT 2)

USs should accompany their STs, one for each subject. (CT 2)

These responses suggest that, in order to develop the role of CTs, it is vital to introduce a number of changes to MOE national policy.

4.6.2 Co-planning ahead of STs' practicum

The majority of the participants (i.e. eight out of twelve) stated that co-planning before STs' practicum is one method of reducing the previously noted gap between school and university. Moreover, they offered specific solutions to the challenges resulting from this gap, each from their own perspective:

There should be a coordinating team responsible for the STs' placement in schools. As a former head of an Educational District Office (EDO), the University would surprise me on the first day of school with lists and lists of STs distributed on my district's schools! I should see those lists beforehand, so I can prepare the field for these huge numbers and determine which schools are capable of taking on STs and which are not! (MOE official 2)

The lack of cooperation and coordination between universities and schools' EDO results in a failure to distribute STs evenly between schools. Sometimes, there can be up to forty-seven STs in one school but only six in another. (MOE official 3)

HTs should arrange individual interviews with STs before the practicum, to put a face to the name and more effectively pair them to their CTs. (MOE official 3)

The administration has to spread awareness about the practicum and the role of STs amongst pupils and teachers. (MOE official 1)

CTs and HTs also gave examples of potential co-planning activities to take place ahead of the STs' practicum:

Well, I would like to take a look at their training plan and see if it's suitable for the school's plan. I can then take out things that are not

allowed in our school or not realistic to achieve, and discuss that with their US. (CT 5)

I think that, before the practicum starts, there also should be a cooperative booklet or manual produced from universities in association with the MOE that describes the job description or responsibilities of CTs, so that I can hold my CTs accountable for their job. The booklet should also include a complete description of STs' practicum. (HT 3)

Universities could also all agree on unified dates for their practicum, so that we, as schools, can plan our curriculum accordingly. This would also mean I have an opportunity to give my outstanding teachers fewer schedules, to help them become more effective CTs and so benefit STs. (HT 2)

The data demonstrates the participants' awareness of the gap existing between schools and universities, along with outlining their suggestions for its reduction by means of early co-planning activities. The following point develops this concept of prior co-planning into improved cooperation and communication during the practicum.

4.6.3 Improved communication and reciprocal arrangements

The participants indicated that a key condition for the success of the ST's practicum (and the effectiveness of the CT's role) consists of effective communication and improved reciprocal arrangements between university and schools.

The theories that STs learn in their university courses need to be practised if they are to be transformed into skills. Gaining this practical experience will not take place without effective communication and the full cooperation of the CT and the school administration. (MOE official 3)

I think there would be a more realistic expectation of us in the practicum. We'd be able to deliver better training of STs if there was more communication between teachers and the university (rather than just sending us evaluation forms to fill in), and if the USs were more aware of us as individuals (including our experience) and if there was a forum for communication before we started. (CT 6)

Four out of the six CTs also added that their role in supporting STs' professional learning could be developed by active involvement in the school-university partnership:

I think it's really important, because it can be very easy for the CT to have their own idea as to what works, and then their US may have a totally different view. I also have a different view of what is expected from STs, so I think the only way we can all achieve the same goal is to work collaboratively. (CT 5)

All twelve participants wished to encourage more reciprocal arrangements between universities and schools, including USs and CTs exchanging visits and sharing ideas related to teaching and learning:

The tasks of both CTs and STs should be pre-assigned and determined by both the Ministry and the university. Like a job description: as a CT you should do one, two, three, and as a ST we expect you to do one two three. (MOE official 2)

I think USs should come to school and give workshops on the practicum programme, so that my CTs could understand it more and know what to expect from STs. (HT 1)

Also, I suggest that universities hold training programmes for CTs, to introduce them to the goals they are trying to achieve from the practicum, including the subjects that STs study and their system of evaluation, etc. They don't have to be during the practicum itself, they can always hold them during the summer. (MOE official 3)

I need to know what STs learn in university, and how, so I know when they tell me that they never heard of something or don't know how to do something, maybe they are right, maybe they're lying! How am I supposed to know? (CT 5)

The US should come every day to supervise the STs. She should follow up on them, not just attend once. No, she should come every day so that they can become admirable teachers. (HT 2)

Eleven out of the twelve participants stressed the importance of the active involvement of the school HT.

The administration needs to spread awareness amongst pupils and teachers about the practicum and the role of STs. (MOE official 3)

I think it would be helpful if the head office could help us in keeping an eye on the STs and making sure that there's a suitable room for them that has a table and chairs for meetings and things like that, because we waste time going around the school to look for a quiet spot. (CT 6)

The head office could give STs orientation workshops on the rules and regulations of the school. I also think they should get involved more in the training. They were teachers, you know, before they were promoted to HT - and the best! (MOE official 1)

I wish they could work with me more and not restrict me to choosing only one CT in one subject. If they would let me, I would choose CTs from different subjects, so I could distribute the responsibilities and schedules evenly among my teachers. (HT 2)

Although the above statements represent the views of eleven out of the twelve participants who felt that HTs should do more, one HT noted:

It is not fair! I have my own responsibilities. The EDO should send me someone to help supervise them, or their US should accompany them and help us out. Frankly, there's no connection between the three of us, and there needs to be cooperation. (HT 3)

The data implies that, in order to ensure successful co-provision of the practicum (as well as reducing the gap between universities and schools in the Saudi ITE context), it is vital to promote additional discussions by means of face-to-face interaction, along with additional time spent in both establishments and greater involvement from HTs and CTs. Moreover, according to all three MOE officials, such arrangements can help clarify notions held by CTs concerning STs' ITE programmes at university and help STs obtain an improved sense of classroom situations and how theories can be applied in classrooms under different circumstances.

4.7 Summary of the findings from interviews

The participants in this study described the role of CTs in the STs' practicum in a number of different ways. At the same time, they tended to agree on the nature of the challenges. While the data revealed that the role of the CT is beneficial to STs' professional learning, the findings also indicated a number of issues related

to aspects of teacher professionalism and the conditions of the school-university partnership.

These challenges are not impossible to overcome, as the role of CTs in STs' practicum can be endorsed and enhanced, particularly when the expectations of the MOE and school HTs and CTs are complementary. There were variations in the expectations of the role of CTs, due to the lack of a clear unified system or framework. However, agreement was established on the need to develop that role.

In addition, the findings also identified a number of conditions for the development of the role of CTs in the professional training of STs during their practicum. These include: (1) introducing changes in some of the MOE policies concerning ITE in Saudi Arabia; (2) decentralisation; (3) improving teachers' professional learning; (4) changing school culture; and (5) enhancing the arrangements between school and university partnerships.

The following chapter discusses the findings in relation to the final stage of analysis (i.e. producing the theory). The findings are discussed in relation to theories from ITE literature focussing on mentoring.

Chapter.5 Discussion of Findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical links between the findings presented in Chapter 5 and the literature review presented in Chapters 1, 2 and 3. By identifying similarities and differences between my findings and those of previous researchers, my study can provide in-depth insights into the reality, challenges and prospects effecting CTs, and how they impact STs' professional learning in the Saudi ITE context.

As discussed in the Methodology chapter, the methodological background to the thesis is critical constructivism under the interpretive paradigm using a constructivist GT methodology. It is believed that grounded theories are not tied to any pre-existing theory, and therefore, are often fresh, novel and hold the potential for innovative discoveries in the social sciences (Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017; McCann and Polacsek, 2018).

Therefore, as explained previously (in chapter 4), the data was categorised according to the research questions, and themes were generated for each category based on the participants' answers to the interview questions (see Table: 4-2). Subsequently, these themes were linked to theories discussed in the literature review (see trustworthiness of qualitative research, section 3.7) which represent its underlying theoretical framework. The findings' (themes) and the concepts they relate to in ITE literature are displayed in Table (6-1), and will be fully discussed in this chapter.

Discussion of Findings

Categories	Themes	Concepts in ITE literature
Research Question 1: CTs' role	Acknowledgement of role identity and responsibilities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of guidance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School induction • Demonstration of good practice • Understanding school culture 	Conceptualisation of mentor role
Research Question 2: Challenges	Selection and preparation	Teacher learning as an ongoing process Recognition and use of learning theories in CTs' preparation
	STs' Evaluation	Role of feedback and evaluation in sts' professional learning
	Time differences in views between school and university Pedagogical knowledge Inflexibility and difficulty with stepping back Inability of CTs and STs to meet before field experience	School-university partnership
	Educational culture	Empowering School Leadership Introducing a culture of collegial communities of learning in ITE
Research Question 3: Suggestions	National policy	Mentoring framework
	Co-planning ahead of practicum Better communication and reciprocal arrangements between universities and schools	School-university partnership

TABLE 5-1: ITE LITERATURE LINKS TO THIS STUDY'S FINDINGS

In the above table, the categories and themes extend beyond the CT role, challenges and recommendations to link the findings to theoretical underpinnings reported in ITE literature (rather than simple reporting of facts) for the research, as explained in Chapter 4 when describing Grounded Theory methodology (discussed in sections 4.6.2 and 4.6.3). Many scholars have concluded that teacher education research demands a complex assessment, accounting more fully for teacher education's contexts and processes, together with their impact on STs'

learning (European Commission, 2013; Cochran-Smith et al., 2014; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015). Cochran-Smith and her team (2014) argue that integrating complexity theory with key ideas from critical realism can enable researchers to more effectively examine how things work in the domain of teacher education, not simply how they are (Charmaz, 2017; Mills, Bonner and Francis, 2017), which aligns with the interpretive paradigm of this research (as explained in section: 4.2).

It must be noted also that discussions of findings are grounded within an understanding that the concept and practice of formal teacher mentoring is new to Saudi ITE. Thus, the findings from this study are linked to the international literature when preparing to offer recommendations and implications for practice in the final chapter. The following sections to discuss these conceptual links to ITE literature in detail.

5.2 Conceptualisation of Mentor Role and Identity

Bullough (2005) defines identity as: “the way one is with and for others; it is the basis of an individual’s claims both to dignity and to authenticity; it is a framework for action and the personal grounding of practice” (Bullough, 2005a, p. 144). He adds that self-knowledge is thus central to being and becoming a teacher and teacher educator and in forming a teacher’s or teacher educator’s professional identity. Henkel (2000), Murray and Male (2005) and Swennen et al. (2010) also purport that identity is built in a socio-constructive way within a community, where knowledge is acquired and reshaped, language and theories are developed and values and agendas are determined. However, literature reports a number of challenges for school teachers making the transition into becoming teacher educators and in identifying themselves as such (White, 2014).

Similarly, evidence illustrates that CTs do not view themselves as mentors. All six CTs indicated that they identify themselves principally as: “teacher supervisors” and “teacher trainers”, rather than as “teacher educators” (Livingston, 2014, p. 225). Their responsibilities were described by the participants as “training”, “teaching”, “telling”, “showing”, “guiding” and “evaluating”.

Moreover, the data revealed the role of CTs was not identified by the other participants in this study as mentoring. None of the three MOE officials, or the three HTs who participated in the study used the term “mentor” or “teacher educator”, nor did they describe the responsibilities associated with mentoring. The responsibilities the CTs recognised in regard to their STs’ professional learning were not systematic, and they observed that there was no recognised framework made available by the Saudi MOE, which meant the role did not exist in terms of teachers’ professional development training plans, or their annual performance evaluations (MOE, 2018b).

The challenge of conceptualising the teacher educator\mentor role and identity is commonly reported in the international literature (discussed in chapter 2, section 2.5.2). In fact, the diversity of teacher educators’ identities and roles has been identified as an issue demanding greater recognition and understanding (Gambhir et al., 2008; Rice, 2008; Menter et al., 2010; Livingston, 2014). According to Livingston (2014):

Many teacher educators, particularly those in schools, are not recognised as teacher educators and do not recognise themselves as such. Consequently, their contribution to teacher education is not sufficiently valued and support for their professional development is limited or non-existent. (Livingston 2014 p. 219)

Bullough’s study (2005) focused on the responsibility of school-based mentors supporting STs, noting that they encountered challenges formulating their identities as teacher educators. He argues that “simply declaring” teachers to be teacher educators (or mentors) is insufficient to develop a mentoring role (Bullough, 2005a, p. 144). In their 2008 study, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008) state that the identity of teacher educators must be defined to ensure the professional development of teacher educators can be taken seriously (Cochran-Smith and Fries, 2008), which is an important consideration of this study’s suggested mentoring scheme.

Research, such as that produced by McGee et al. (2001), concluded that mentors who identify and understand their own and other’s roles are better able to support the development and growth of professional relationships during the practicum

(Mcgee, 2001). The ITE Literature reviewed suggests the need for a systematic selection/recruitment scheme (Cameron, 2014; Tatto, 2015). In order to provide STs with effective mentors, the scope of the knowledge, skills and expertise that teacher educators need to acquire (i.e. their curriculum-specific training and preparation), must be addressed clearly (Nasser-Abu Alhija and Fresko, 2014; Izadinia, 2015; Klieger and Oster-Levinz, 2015; Pfund et al., 2015).

In terms of CTs' responsibilities, the participants considered that these include modelling good practice, providing orientation for STs about school culture, and establishing good relationships with members of the school community.

The data reflected CTs' practice from an apprenticeship perspective (as will be discussed in full in the following section 6.3.2), as mentors are considered a source of academic and professional expertise, and STs are expected to study and imitate their teaching approach (Tharp and Gallimore, 1988; Wang and Odell, 2007 in Asante 2011). All 12 participants believed the CTs' primary responsibility was to model good practice for STs. However, this was done formally in "model lessons" within the Saudi education system. These "model lessons" are pre-planned lessons carefully selected to demonstrate teachers' skills, and usually contain PowerPoint presentations, elaborate teaching aids and props, and a selection of six to eight excellent pupils, i.e. conditions that differ from everyday teaching. Nevertheless, model lessons provide teachers with excellent opportunities to demonstrate ideal teaching skills when MOE officials' visit their schools, or during annual evaluations.

The key component of good practice was that reported by all six CTs and all three HTs as classroom management. Good practice indicates the capability of both CTs and STs, and clarifies that having a CT whose classroom management skills are evident and can be adapted is essential to support STs' professional learning. This concurs with the literature in Chapter 3 that highlights the importance of classroom management strategies when mentoring STs' general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) (Grossman and Richert, 1988; Hudson, 2013b; König, 2013; Louws *et al.*, 2017) (as discussed in section 3.3).

Oliver and Reschly (2007) explained that although effective classroom management might not always translate into effective teaching, it nevertheless provides a context in which it could take place (Oliver and Reschly, 2007). In Hobson's study (2009), STs indicated that being able to teach using different methods with the support of their mentors was highly beneficial (Hobson, Ashby et al., 2009). It has also been documented that the capacity of mentors to demonstrate pedagogical expertise is viewed as important to STs' professional learning (Hudson, 2013b; Orland-Barak, 2014; Helgevold, Næsheim-Bjørkvik and Østrem, 2015). Thus, STs can learn much about classroom management and pedagogical skills when such practices are being modelled (Hudson, 2005; Tolmie et al., 2010; Jarvis et al., 2014; Lejonberg, Elstad and Christophersen, 2015; Louws et al., 2017). By implication, STs could learn from CTs through modelling. However, for good practice to be modelled, focusing on management skills might not be enough (Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015).

The data also revealed that one of the responsibilities associated with the CTs' role was to provide STs with orientation within the school setting. This finding matches practices reported by Orland-Barak (2001), Murray (2008a), BERA (2014), and Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen (2014). All six CTs agreed it is necessary for STs to understand the school culture and system. It is also well-documented in the literature that mentoring as a practical process can be successful when consideration is afforded to the context in which learning takes place (Aderibigbe 2012; Cochran-smith et al. 2014).

In relation to orientation, the data also highlighted the significance of CTs' ability to establish and maintain good relationships with school colleagues, and more importantly with their STs. The most effective examples of orientation result from CTs' capacity to establish good relationships, as they are then able to assist STs' to navigate the school system. From the literature regarding effective mentoring skills (section 3.3), it emerged that Hudson (2016) concluded establishing good relationships between mentors and STs is essential if professional learning is to be effective. All three HTs in this study confirmed that CTs should be encouraged to develop good relationships with members of the school community to facilitate STs' professional learning during the practicum. Three CTs confirmed the HTs'

view and explained that ensuring good working relations among staff improves support for STs easier (section 5.4.5).

This finding corroborated evidence from the literature. For example, Hobson et al. (2009) reported that STs' emotional responses to members of the school community can be influenced by the types of relationships established (Hobson, Ashby et al., 2009), and thus, conversely, poor relations might have a negative effect. This finding revealed that STs' learning continues beyond the classroom, occurring throughout the entire school. However, the data also revealed that despite acknowledging this, CTs were unable to establish relationships with STs in the schools studied, due to the hierarchical nature of the Saudi ITE context. This hierarchy was discussed in Chapter One when deliberating upon the challenges present in the Saudi ITE system (section 1.2.7.1), and in Chapter two in relation to issues faced by mentoring in ITE literature (section 2.6.5).

It is concluded that for STs to maximise their professional learning, better preparation and CPD needs to be provided for school staff, and CTs in particular, to clarify their role identity and responsibilities. The European Commission (2014) also advocates that 'it is necessary to have both high quality ITE and a coherent process of continuous professional development' (European Commission, 2014, p. 5).

Drawing on this data, it is apparent that the CT\mentoring role was viewed from different perspectives by the study participants. Unsurprisingly the participants' perspectives varied, as mentoring is a complex topic that integrates a variety of possible definitions and practises (Murray, 2008a; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014). Different experiences and educational cultures can also influence individuals' understanding and conceptualisation of mentoring (Brydson, 2011; Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015; Hudson, 2016). This is apparent from how all six CTs viewed their teaching skills when they were STs studying in Teachers' Colleges of Education (before their closure in 2006, as discussed in section 1.2.5), as opposed to STs' current teaching skills as part of the more recent one-year diploma.

This seems to suggest that weak conceptualisations of mentoring by the participants in this study might result from a limited knowledge of international ITE literature regarding mentoring. The findings suggest little awareness that training STs requires professional learning opportunities be offered, rather than merely a modelling good practice. This was discussed in Chapter 2 in the literature review, which investigated the role and skills of effective mentoring in ITE (section 2.3).

5.3 Teacher Professional Learning

5.3.1 As an ongoing process

The importance of teacher education as a life-long learning process, has been widely recognised (Allen and Peach, 2007; NIE, 2009; Al-Thumali, 2011; Al-Rabai, 2014; Orland-Barak, 2014; Livingston, 2014; O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014; Burn and Mutton, 2015; McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Grieser and Hendricks, 2018; Ellis and Childs, 2019). Conway *et al.* (2009) undertook an international study of teacher education policy and practice in nine countries (Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, England, Finland, US, Poland, Singapore and New Zealand), and suggested that a continuum of teacher education had become a key policy focus for national governments, transnational agencies and inter-governmental bodies (Conway, Murphy and Rath, 2009).

However, the CTs interviewed in this study described their teacher education as multi-staged, the first being ITE within Colleges of Education, and the second as fragmented CPD courses accessed throughout their teaching career. The resultant challenges have proven common to many teachers (Schwille, Dembélé and Schubert, 2007; OECD, 2010). Livingston reports that professional development remains restricted for many teachers, who must select from a catalogue of short ‘one-off’ pre-planned courses (Livingston, 2014, p. 222). Herein, all three HTs reported being given no responsibility for PD courses, and that they were not consulted about what their teachers needed. They were permitted to only choose from what was made available by the MOE training centre.

Moreover, according to the data, none of the six CTs in this study fully understood what was required from them to support STs' professional learning. Further, no specific PD events had properly prepared them for supporting STs' professional learning during their practicum. Thus, the analysis underscores that CTs need to be better prepared for mentoring STs if the goals of their professional learning during practicum are to be achieved. It also indicates that CPD workshops for CTs need to be offered continuously throughout their teaching career, and linked to professional preparation for STs' in ITE programmes.

This finding also emphasises the importance of CTs being equipped with different pedagogical skills and approaches to allow them to develop themselves as effective mentors for STs (Grieser and Hendricks, 2018; Kang, Donovan and McCarthy, 2018). The data highlighted the limited support provided to CTs, to enable them to support STs' learning, and CTs specific developmental needs for their roles also remained unclear to them. The participants also provided a detailed description of the process of teacher education in Saudi Arabia, and all 12 participants considered that STs' professional learning ends by graduating with educational diplomas; thus separating ITE from teachers' PD courses. This view contradicts the ITE literature concerning common policies shared by top-performing ITE systems (reviewed in Chapter 1, section 1.4), in which teacher education is intrinsic to the CPD continuum.

Introducing the vision of a seamless continuous life-long professional learning process is essential for developing Teacher Professionalism (one of the Tatweer Project's aims) within the Saudi Education system. However, it must meet teachers' individual learning needs, and be balanced with school and MOE needs. This would lead to acceptance of a wider definition of teacher education and would also re-conceptualise the role of CTs as mentors, or as teacher educators (Livingston 2014).

5.3.2 Use of mentoring models and approaches

Chapter 2 established the lack of application of mentoring models and approaches in the Saudi TE context (see section 2.3). This is reflected in the findings, as the

researcher examined how mentoring models and approaches were utilised in teachers' professional learning (chapter 2, section 2.4), and then used it as a theoretical framework that served as a basis upon which to compare and contrast practices reported in the ITE literature, with practices employed by CTs when supporting STs' learning in the Saudi ITE context.

Although mentoring models and approaches were not mentioned by any of the 12 study participants, the researcher recognised a considerable resemblance between the Behaviourist Theory of learning (discussed in section 2.4.1) and approaches to STs' professional learning. In addition, CTs' roles and responsibilities resembled practices the researcher then associated with Apprenticeship Theory. These will be discussed separately.

According to Behaviourist Theories of Learning, the learning or development of an individual can be observed and measured externally (Cameron, 2014). This belief was shared by all 12 participants, when asked to describe the process of STs' learning during practicum in ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia (discussed in section 5.4). They all described the current system, wherein STs' observe CTs' teaching over a period of time before they themselves are then observed teaching (by their USs and CTs) to assess their progress. However, the assessment criteria proffered are associated with successfully completing a pre-defined set of activities, rather than evaluating examples of professional learning (discussed in section 5.5.7).

Modelling practices were identified by all six CTs as essential to them during an ST's practicum. However, when teachers model behaviour, learners may or may not decide to adopt the practices witnessed (Bandura 1977). Behaviourist ideas stress the observable, measurable outcomes of learning and seek out available signs that learning has taken place (Owens 1997, cited in Cameron 2014, p.42). This emphasis is shared by the MOE's evaluation scheme, which is in place for all teachers in Saudi Arabia. All six CTs explained that their annual performance evaluation takes place once a year during a 'model lesson' attended by the school's HT and a supervisor from the MOE's educational district office (fully discussed in section 5.4.4).

The CTs vocally expressed their frustration with how their pupils' grades, which are an important factor in their annual evaluation, are compromised when they are taught by STs (reported by five out of six CTs). This quantitative measurement of teachers' achievement (through their pupils' grades), resulted in CTs finding it difficult to step back to teach classes independently (a challenge reported in the findings' chapter, section 5.5.5). Similarly, many ITE Programmes have globally deployed controlled trials in education, where quantifiable data concerning pupils' learning outcomes determine the efficacy of specific interventions (Cameron, 2014). The requirement for STs to meet pre-defined standards in ITE, where evidence must be presented to show professional learning has taken place, follows a behaviourist tradition, and is common practice in traditional settings (Conway et al., 2009) .

According to a significant number of ITE researchers, the apprenticeship approach is the most commonly applied in ITE (Krull, 2005; Helgevold, Næsheim-Bjørkvik and Østrem, 2015; Klieger and Oster-Levinz, 2015; Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016). It is especially preferred in developing countries (Asante, 2011). Krull (2005) explains that this could be because following an apprenticeship approach to mentoring allows CTs to demonstrate the significance of their experience to STs, to promote the development of relevant professional knowledge and skills (Krull 2005). This accords with the findings of this study, wherein all six CTs were experienced teachers (based on years of teaching and good annual evaluations) and expressed the view, along with two of the HTs, that their role was to teach STs how to teach like them, and the extent to which the STs adopted the practices of their CTs indicates their success during the practicum (section 4.4.4). The CTs also opined that another role they performed was to deliver guidance, which can be associated with the concept of a Cognitive Apprenticeship, and determine how STs can be effectively inducted into schools' systems by understanding the ethos and culture of schools (Brown et al., 1989, in Zhang et al. 2012). Moreover, Lofstrom and Eisenschmidt (2009) conclude that an apprenticeship approach can help STs understand and adjust to school norms and culture (Löfström and Eisenschmidt, 2009). However, although the findings revealed most participants (two of the three HTs, the three MOE officials, and four of the six CTs) share the view that CTs are responsible for STs' guidance and induction into the school

environment, two CTs emphasised this responsibility was in addition to their multiple other responsibilities, and questioned whether school HTs or administrative staff could be more involved. All the CTs used words such as “show” and “tell” to describe how they taught STs teaching skills; this suggests they expect them to replicate these skills and instructions to pass their practicum successfully (as discussed in section 4.4.4). This can be attributed to CTs’ own learning experience, which was based on imitation’ this is a notable challenge, also reported in the ITE literature (Cook, 1996; Carver, 2004; Lopez-Real and Kwan, 2005; Murray, 2014) in general and Saudi ITE literature in particular (Kabli, 1999). However, evidence suggest an apprenticeship approach can be beneficial when teachers are enthusiastic, empathetic and able to navigate through different scenarios to realise educational goals (Aderibigbe, 2012).

On the other hand, apprenticeship practices in ITE have been criticised on the basis of a number of their features. For instance, they do not recognise the natural ability of STs, in terms of their existing skills and knowledge (Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Löfström and Eisenschmidt, 2009; Nguyen, 2009; Ronfeldt *et al.*, 2018). This was apparent from the fact that two out of three HTs, and five out of six CTs did not recognise STs as having any existing skills. They complained about STs’ lack of knowledge of teaching skills, and the teaching curriculum (as discussed in section 4.5.4). Only one HT expressed appreciation over STs’ efforts to arrange extra-curricular activities, while another CT who recognised that STs are more imaginative about using technology in the classroom. In this regard, Kafai *et al.* (2008) argues that the apprenticeship approach is reliant on an implicit notion of “deficit thinking” in mentoring, as it frames the role of the mentee as a performer within a given context, in which he/she has to fit (Kafai *et al.*, p. 193 in Aderibigbe *et al.* 2016, p.11).

Moreover, some researchers believe that, while socialisation is undoubtedly very significant to teachers’ career development, it also restricts their learning, by excluding a multiplicity of agencies, languages, and cultural influences on learning in twenty-first century societies (Shea, 2002). It also privileges years of experience, regardless of quality, and places emphasis on compliance with

existing practice, while discouraging new approaches to teaching and learning (Rippon and Martin, 2006). According to Löfström and Eisenschmidt (2009):

The apprenticeship or instructional approach regards mentoring as a modelling of various behaviours to be developed by the mentee. The mentor's role is primarily instructive and prescriptive. (Löfström and Eisenschmidt, 2009, p. 683)

As noted previously, students can gain much by observing and putting what they have learned into practice, especially if enthusiastic effective teachers serve as models. However, this approach could also negatively affect STs, as it does not allow them to think deeply about the implications of certain approaches, and fails to afford a space for innovation; instead fostering the adoption of a particular approach at the expense of informed practice. Apprenticeship theory also suggests mentors are vast in knowledge, and may have little or nothing to learn from their mentees (Asante, 2011). This view was expressed by all 12 participants in this study, including the CT, who acknowledged that STs' assisted her with technology in the classroom because "they are young" not because they are knowledgeable.

In summary, it appears that in the Saudi ITE context, CTs have absolute control over STs' learning, and they are perceived as principal sources of information. They are also granted decision-making power, as they are the STs' superiors according to the Saudi educational hierarchy (fully explained in Challenges that face the Saudi ITE System, section 1.2.7.1). This finding reflects the criticism by Kafai et al. (2008, p. 193), who described the apprenticeship approach as "implicit deficit thinking of mentoring", in that it considers mentees as incapable of making or contributing to decisions. This affords an insight into the current ITE system in Saudi Arabia, in which STs are considered only as recipients of the learning process, unable to participate in decision making as part of their professional learning process. It also provides insights into CTs' role in the professionalisation of STs.

5.4 Role of Feedback and Evaluation

The literature reports that on-going support to enhance the professional learning of STs could be facilitated through both feedback and advice (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2005; Burns *et al.*, 2006; Frels, R.K., Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Bustamante, R.M., Garza, Y., Nelson, J.A., Nichter, 2013; Spriggs and Boggs, 2016; Şen, Öztekin and Demirdögen, 2018). However, the evidence from this study reveals STs are formally evaluated by forms completed by their US, the school HT, and their CT. This evaluation occurs once at the end of the practicum, after one lesson has been evaluated by the CT and another by the US, while HTs consider STs' attendance, cooperation, clothing and conduct. It also emerged that CTs found completing their University evaluation forms frustrating; principally because they are time consuming, difficult to understand and seem not to relate to their daily teaching activities. All six CTs claimed that their opinions and suggestions were not considered when it came to the design of the STs' evaluations, which created a challenge for their role in students' professional learning.

All 12 participants expected the CTs to provide STs with "comments" or (constructive) "criticism", but the CTs were concerned that the STs did not take them seriously. The term "feedback" was never used by the participants, suggesting a more traditional perspective on the evaluations, which are normally associated with summative assessments in Saudi educational culture (Alghamdi and Abduljawad, 2018). In contrast, the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 in relation to the roles of mentors (section 2.3), identified feedback as a significant facet of effective mentoring, making it clear that STs benefit most when feedback is given in an encouraging way (Smith, 2001; Hudson, 2005; Barrera, Braley and Slatec, 2010; Benson *et al.*, 2014; Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014; O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014).

Bleach (2001) argues that the power of assessment could result in mentors making STs into mirror images of themselves in what would then be an apprenticeship model of teacher training. This could perpetuate existing beliefs, standards, and practices, whether they are relevant in contemporary practice or not. Thus, the implication of this finding is that feedback can prove counter-productive if not

given carefully and professionally. It also suggests that communication should be taken seriously by CTs if feedback is to be constructive and not discourage STs.

Evaluation forms were found to pose difficulties: specifically, five of the 12 (two MOE officials and two CTs) participants revealed that STs might be awarded lower grades, not because of their abilities but because of CTs' inability to fill in the evaluation forms accurately. CT4 explained in (section 4.6.7) that she would never award a ST full marks, because, in her opinion, the evaluation form did not directly relate to everyday teaching. Thus, the data highlighted a need for CTs' input to be included in the design of the evaluation forms, placing emphasis on professional accuracy rather than judgement. This in turn, relates to the Tatweer Project's aim to develop teachers' professionalism by enhancing the quality of the practicum in ITE programmes in Saudi Arabia. The international literature considers the ability to carry out an effective evaluation an important professional skill for teachers when assessing their pupils and their STs (Hennissen et al., 2011; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; Spriggs and Boggs, 2016).

A more specific study on the efficacy of training CTs was conducted by Gareis and Grant in 2014. They found that training CTs,

Reduced the likelihood that a CT's overall impression of a ST would directly influence the CT's evaluation of a specific skill of that ST, and studies comparing trained and untrained CTs have found that trained CTs are more likely to provide evaluative comments, interact with their STs in planning and preparation, engage in the clinical supervision process, and be non-judgmental in their feedback. (Gareis and Grant, 2014, p. 78)

Dialogue among USs and CTs could advance understanding, and provide a mechanism through which to improve the design and accuracy of STs' evaluations. Emphasis also needs to be placed on assessment and writing procedures for evaluation reports for future CTs' CPD events.

5.5 National Mentoring Framework

A national ITE framework for teacher development was discussed when reviewing top-performing ITE systems (Chapter 1, section 1.4). It was also discussed in

Chapter 2, where it was identified as an important issue mentioned in the ITE literature (section 2.5.6). The data in this study also indicates the importance of a national policy for the ITE system, to develop the CTs' role in STs' professional learning.

This was expressed through participants' demands for a clear framework of criteria to choose CTs (all 12 participants), to undertake specific preparation courses covering the CTs' role (two MOE officials and all six CTs), and a list of specific responsibilities for CTs to carry out and later be held accountable for (one MOE official, one HT and three CTs), as well as a dedicated department\staff in the MOE to be responsible for STs' school practicum (two MOE officials). This finding was consistent with the view that a formal framework is necessary for any mentoring process to be effective (Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2015; Garza *et al.*, 2019). As discussed in Chapter 1 (section 1.4), ITE systems, such as the ones in Scotland, Ireland and Singapore employ formal frameworks that recognise the role of mentoring in STs' professional learning. The Irish ITE framework highlights continuous teacher's learning, collegial professionalism, and the key role of mentoring in induction (Conway, Murphy and Rath, 2009); all of which are key points raised by this study's findings in relation to the ITE literature, as reviewed in Chapter 2.

The data also revealed three skills the participants considered to be vitally important for CTs to have: communication skills, interpersonal skills and good teaching skills. In the international literature, communication skills are identified as critical for effective mentoring (Ambrosetti, 2012; Cochran-Smith *et al.*, 2015; Powell, 2016; Nolan and Molla, 2017). Active listening, good questioning and the ability to evaluate were all examples of communication skills shared by participants; this concurred with recommendations in the literature regarding the communication skills mentors should have (Hudson, 2013a; Rizvi and Nagy, 2015; Powell, 2016).

Interpersonal skills were also identified in the literature as important for "supporter teachers", "mentors" and "CTs", if they are to maintain good working relationships with their STs to advance their professional learning (Delaney, 2012;

Freis, Zientek and Anthony, 2013; Nasser-Abu Alhija and Fresko, 2014; Cochran-Smith et al., 2015; Vong and Kaewurai, 2017). However, the characteristics identified with good interpersonal skills were found to be highly subjective; this situation is described by researchers as commonplace in the absence of a clear framework or competency chart (Weiss and Weiss, 2001; Bloomfield, 2009; Gareis and Grant, 2014; Alomair, 2015).

Finally, the data also affirms the viewpoint in the literature, which states that good teaching skills are essential for teachers to model or engage in good practice. However, perceptions about how CTs' teaching skills are measured varied among participants. The CTs' annual evaluation scores were mentioned by all 12 participants as measures of how good CTs can be identified. Class management was also considered a common indicator of good teaching (1HT and six CTs), as were years' of experience (one MOE official, three HTs and three CTs linked good teaching skills with experience), and having attended more PD courses than other teachers (three MOE officials, one HT and two CTs).

To conclude, although the participants expressed awareness about the importance of the above skills to the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs, all 12 agreed there was a lack of specific skills training (as discussed above, section 4.2 and in the literature in Chapter 2, section 2.6.4). Thus, the data highlights the importance of tailoring CTs' training towards the attainment of vital skills if the effectiveness of their role is to be enhanced. Clarke et al. (2014), reported that trained "CTs" demonstrated better skills and awareness of STs' professional learning needs than untrained CTs did (Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen, 2014). Significantly, Margolis (2007) argues that training would enable CTs to forge different identities, separate from that of classroom teacher, when taking on the role of mentor (Margolis, 2007).

All 12 participants emphasised the importance of allocating sufficient time to the effective planning and implementation of STs' practicum, as is also recommended in the international literature (Arnold, 2006; Barrera, Braley and Slatec, 2010; Freis, Zientek and Anthony, 2013; Tahir *et al.*, 2015; Garza *et al.*, 2019), where it was highlighted that STs require time to develop relevant professional

knowledge and skills. Similarly, the findings revealed the duration of STs' practicum in schools to be a challenge. All 12 participants concurred that spending a period of just three or four weeks in school was not enough. However, the literature does not agree upon an ideal duration for STs' practicum, with some scholars suggesting that a shorter practicum (fewer than six weeks) is best (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015), while others recommend that STs spend a full academic year in school, to properly prepare for the reality of teaching (Darling-Hammond 2000; Rucker 2014).

As reported in the findings chapter (section 4.6.1), all three MOE officials stressed that for Saudi teachers to raise their level of professionalism some kind of framework or competency chart must be implemented. The MOE officials also raised the point that the lack of a clear ITE framework means there are no clear job descriptions defining the CT's role, which limits the professional accountability of and to all stakeholders. CTs either volunteered, or were chosen and therefore did not view their role as important.

All three HTs agreed with the three MOE officials that supervising/training for STs should be included in teachers' job descriptions; which reinforced the view that being a mentor is generally not mandated as an integral part of a teacher's job (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015, p. 103), and that teachers generally volunteer for the role and rely on limited training, limited formal knowledge of supervising STs' professional learning, and limited support and facilitation (Hobson et al. 2009). However, no one explained changing teachers' job descriptions would help, beyond possibly encouraging teachers to more willingly accept the role of CT. None of the 12 participants addressed this.

Moreover, the MOE officials and HTs did not communicate plans for any specific preparation to be associated with this role. They only mentioned that CTs should ideally be selected from among the school's best teachers (based on their annual evaluations), and preferably those who have also completed some general CPD courses; such as, leadership and use of technology in the classroom. Notably, the preparation for the CT role did not seem to be a priority in terms of the intention to issue specific policy documents. Two MOE officials, one HT and four CTs,

demanded that universities either clarify in writing what they expect from school based CTs during STs' practicum and publish it, or as one MOE official recommended, CTs should be trained by the universities (section 4.6.1.2).

The above view challenges the literature concerning teachers' CPD (discussed above in section 5.3.1), in that it should not be restricted to supporting only school-based mentors or teacher educators (Livingston 2014). Rather, it should be inclusive; open to all teachers, to meet their diverse professional learning needs by applying multiple learning approaches to access knowledge, skills and expertise in practice and research. The continuous professional learning approach reinforces the necessity for stronger partnerships between ITE providers (in the Saudi system case: University and school) and the fostering of greater interaction and interdependence, especially since both are unified under the MOE. In this case, the unity within the Saudi education system is an advantage, as it makes collaboration much easier; there is one policy, one budget, and one top legislation board able to make decisions swiftly and guarantee funding and logistical support.

5.6 School-University Partnerships

The challenges facing CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during practicum reflects the gap between schools and universities in the ITE context in Saudi Arabia. The data revealed limited preparation for CTs to take on the role of mentor or teacher educator, resulting from the school-university communication gap (section 4.5.3), as was also reported by Saudi researchers (see Chapter 1, section 1.2.6). This was also raised in the literature review (section 2.6.5), which argued that preparing CTs requires collaboration between all those involved in ITE programmes (Davis and Fantozzi, 2016; Hudson, 2016; Irby *et al.*, 2017; Willegems *et al.*, 2017). At present CTs and STs are overseen by different institutions, and overseen by different people (Livingston 2014). In the Saudi system (as in many other systems) ITE for STs and CPD for school teachers are managed separately. The first stage puts forward universities' colleges of education for theory, and schools for practical training. The second stage (CPD) is offered to school teachers through MOE training centres. The data reflected the participants' awareness of

the significance of the gap between the two stages, and the general lack of cooperation between the establishments involved. MOE officials confirmed that training centres did not provide courses designed to support the universities' requirements of CTs, and noted that they did not consult schools about teachers' professional learning needs. They also urged universities to be more proactive about running their own training courses for CTs, including printing booklets and manuals detailing STs' practicum requirements and their expectations from CTs.

Schools, in contrast, expressed frustration with their limited communication with universities and staff responsible for supervising STs' practicum. They agreed upon the need for universities to work closely with them to prepare CTs and to directly supervise STs' during their practicum. This echoes Zeichner's (2006, p. 334) suggestion that creating a more effective teacher education programmes entails:

Moving teacher education away from the traditional sink-or-swim model of field experience and toward a model like the professional development school or partner school where university faculty and staff provide instruction about teaching that is situated in relation to specific teaching contexts and where expertise of P-12 teachers informs this instruction and the general planning and evaluation in the teacher education program as a whole. (Zeichner (2006) in Allen et al. 2013, p.100)

In addition, the data identified some issues associated with enhancing collaboration between schools and universities: restrictions including time, conflicts in working hours, transportation difficulties (especially among working females, because universities are usually outside city centres).

CTs and HTs noted an incompatibility in the perspectives of universities and schools, viewing this as a serious challenge to the role of CTs involved in the professional learning of STs during their practicum. For example, from the CTs' perspectives, STs were expected to know about the school curriculum, having both pedagogical and practical knowledge. Thus, they found it shocking that some STs lacked basic skills, such as the ability to prepare a lesson plan or design a test, and so blamed the university for not properly preparing them. Although the literature argues that STs need to demonstrate practical experience, there is debate over what is considered adequate pedagogical knowledge for an ITE

programme (Grieser and Hendricks, 2018; Kang, Donovan and McCarthy, 2018; Sen, Öztekin and Demirdögen, 2018; Yang, Liu and Jr., 2018). Undoubtedly, the findings to date underscores the need to bridge the gap between the course content of universities' ITE programmes and the schools' curriculum. Furthermore, the literature indicates that STs must both learn about curriculum and educational theories, and develop practical knowledge of how to teach with support from mentors (van Ginkel et al., 2016).

The data highlights variations in the values and opinions of CTs and USs, probably due to their different institutional conditions and agendas, which strain the partnership between universities and schools. Consequently, this research underscores the need for USs, CTs and STs to engage in a professional dialogue to clarify the goals of STs' professional learning during practicum (Jarvis et al., 2014). Doing this might provide beneficial opportunities, enabling expectations to be clarified and then met. It has been widely reported that the beliefs and perceptions of teachers about learning can influence their teaching approach, and so STs' learning (Nokes *et al.*, 2008; Nasser-Abu Alhija and Fresko, 2014; McCauley, Martins Gomes and Davison, 2018). Similarly, STs prior notions of teaching and learning might also influence their learning and their relationship with their mentors or participating teachers (St John *et al.*, 2018).

When stressing the differences between the two institutions' agendas, while emphasizing the importance of meeting before STs' practicum, the data revealed that CTs were not given the opportunity to meet USs. The findings indicated a pressing need for universities to facilitate CTs' and USs' meetings before STs embark on their practicum. The benefits of prior meetings would ensure both parties understand one another's plans, goals and assumptions.

Better communication and reciprocal arrangements between universities would guarantee support for CTs to ensure the professional learning of STs during their practicum (section 4.6.3). As the findings showed, two-way communication between schools and universities would involve including CTs in discussion with USs. These might include: clarifying goals and expectations, pre-practicum meetings to align school and university values and agendas. The interviews also

suggest the enhancement of school-university reciprocal agreements to improve communication. Recommendations proposed were: clear guidelines from university ITE programmes concerning the expectations of STs practicum in schools, issuing a practicum handbook and sending it to all schools, hosting the practicum before the STs arrival, and ensuring the availability of phone numbers and the e-mail addresses of USs for school staff.

The data highlighted the importance of communication to better understand the expectations of CTs, STs and USs. Through such arrangements, it was established that CTs would be able to familiarise themselves with university educational theories and clarify their assumptions while at the university. On the other hand, USs would be expected to acquire more knowledge about the school system. In summary, the data highlights the need for better communication and reciprocal arrangements between universities and schools, in order to foster the development of CTs' role in the STs' professional learning during practicum in the Saudi ITE context.

The complexity of partnerships between universities and schools is evident in the literature, and also in the data from this study, where it involves potential misconceptions, misunderstandings and conflict (Pitfield and Morrison, 2009; Allen, Howells and Radford, 2013; Livingston, 2014; Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015; Montecinos, Cortez and Walker, 2015; St John *et al.*, 2018). For Livingston (2014), successful partnerships among teacher education providers depend on participants' capacity to work collaboratively, while recognising each other's' distinct contribution to teacher education, and their willingness to engage in building trust, which requires time and commitment. Livingston and Hulme (2014), also provide examples of closer partnerships between universities and schools that offer opportunities for them to close the research/practice gap (e.g. the creation of networks of hub schools (Donaldson, 2011, p. 8, in Livingston and Hulme, 2014, p. 183). These examples provide opportunities for developing countries like Saudi Arabia, to learn more about the benefits for teachers' continuous professional learning, the qualities of teacher educators, and the value of collaborative partnerships in continuous teacher education.

5.7 Empowering School Leadership

The participants also believed that empowering school leadership was important when supporting the CT's role. As the participants pointed out, it was the responsibility of the school HT to choose CTs with the requisite skills, interested in contributing to supporting and maintaining an effective school environment. From the data, it seemed necessary that the chosen teachers be passionate about supporting STs. If school leadership fails to select teachers who are interested in mentoring, the role would be more challenging and STs' learning and pupils' learning could be compromised. School leaders can also facilitate collaboration by providing necessary resources, such as suitable learning and meeting spaces. This is consistent with the view that "effective school leadership" plays an important role in supporting teachers' motivation and practice, to improve teaching and learning (European Commission, 2014; Alameen, Male and Palaiologou, 2015; McMahon, Forde and Dickson, 2015; Montecinos, Cortez and Walker, 2015; Tahir et al., 2015). More specifically, McIntyre (2006) found that full teachers' engagement with senior staff in schools is required for partnership to be effective, and that Local Education Authorities are expected to strengthen partnerships by ensuring that HTs can adapt teachers' responsibilities if they are to serve as mentors to new teachers (McIntyre, 2006). Thus, the data underscores the need for school leadership to select CTs carefully and provide environments that enable teachers and STs to bond (Ronfeldt 2012; Montecinos et al. 2015). The findings also revealed that school leaders faced notable challenges. They need greater empowerment plan and coordinate their school practicum programmes to support STs' professional learning. The data presented the allocation of time as the most prominent challenge for CTs. As CT 4 explained, time issues require the support of the school HT. However, all three HTs acknowledged difficulties creating opportunities to support their CTs (e.g. reducing their schedule, sending them for CPD workshops etc.), because of their restricted decision-making capacity. By implication, this finding implies school leadership also need more freedom to make decisions, to facilitate different situations to enhance their CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum. More importantly, the findings underlined the key role of school leadership in promoting a culture of dialogue

and collaborative learning. The introduction of a new professional culture can only be fostered within equal learning communities, as will be discussed in following section.

5.8 School Culture and Mentoring Relationships in ITE

The findings confirmed the sources in the literature that argued ITE in Saudi Arabia is challenged by the hierachal culture, in which decision-making power lies in the hands of a few people at the top of the hierarchy. The data also highlighted that CTs' role in the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE context may be characterised by the degree of power resulting from the hierachal structure. All 12 participants placed CTs in a lower position than that of the HT, with the HT wielding more power than the CT, and the US having more power than the HT. Thus, the CTs only have power over STs, who are at the very bottom of the Saudi ITE hierarchy. This complicates cooperative decision making and collegial relationships, which in turn hinders STs' professional learning. As all 12 participants explained, CTs were not involved in decisions made regarding STs' professional learning, nor did CTs themselves involve STs in decisions about class activities, on the basis that they "know better"; the same was true of HTs and USs. This is commonplace in hierachal societies like Malaysia, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Ghana and Chile; where respect is won by age and authority (Al-Seghayer, 2014b; AL Ahbabi, 2016). Asante (2011) notes that in Ghana, which also has a hierarchical culture, teachers are subservient to those in higher ranking positions. This effects mentoring relationships, which are consequently not equal (Asante, 2011, p. 120).

In contrast to this, the international literature views mentoring as a process of joint decision making and shared responsibility (Awaya et al., 2003; Hudson, 2013a, 2016; Jarvis et al., 2014; Mena et al., 2015). It is not restricted to the apprenticeship view that STs rely principally on their mentors' knowledge. Rather, it is a multi-dimensional activity, wherein STs take responsibility for, and participate in, joint decision-making, as they develop their professional learning (Sibgatullina, 2015). It also underscores the importance of collegial collaboration

for effective teaching and learning in the classroom, as ITE organisations need to view mentoring as an equal and non-hierarchical process, whereby mentors and STs can collaborate and learn from each other to improve their professional practice. Zeichner et al. (2015) argues that hierarchical relationships need to be minimised on teacher training programmes, and that a variety of viewpoints should be taken into account (Zeichner, Payne and Brayko, 2015, p. 123). To avoid creating hierarchies among professionals, Balduzzi and Lazzari recommend “equating educational with organisational functions” (Balduzzi and Lazzari, 2015, p. 135).

Despite recommendations in the literature that hierarchies need to be reduced, it was apparent that CTs did not consider STs their equals; although as mentioned earlier, CTs were observed to have excellent working relationships with their peers (sections 4.4.3 and 4.4.4). In some cases, CTs viewed STs only as a means by which extra-curricular activities and substitution classes might be covered. The data revealed a need to alter these perceptions, so that CTs would view themselves as partnered with STs, and be willing to learn from one another (Acton and Glasgow, 2015). The findings also underlines the need for CTs to take the issue of joint classroom coordination seriously, if they are to act as a trusted friends, advisers, teachers, and councillors to help STs develop professionally (Lindqvist, 2012). It is also important for them to be in the classroom with STs. This finding was in line with other studies, which revealed that some CTs believe that they do not have to collaborate when STs are teaching, and that it is better for them to stay away from the classroom (Jackson and Burch, 2019).

Moreover, CT-ST relationship issues were further challenged by how STs were introduced to school staff, CTs and pupils. All 12 participants stated that STs are introduced as “college girls”, and five participants (three MOE officials and two CTs) opined that this not only impacts on their relationship with CTs but also their relationship with school staff, pupils, and parents. As the data revealed, pupils believed CTs had more power and authority than STs. This underlines the importance of how STs are introduced in the school, which needs to be addressed by CTs. Indeed, all three MOE officials insisted that STs were to be seen and presented as teachers, with the aim that this would earn them more respect from

pupils. In the literature, it is documented that the manner in which STs are introduced to pupils by supporting teachers may determine the level of respect given to them. The term pre-service teacher is frequently used in the international literature, and is recommended by this study for general use in Saudi Arabia.

The data also revealed a negative attitude from CTs with regard to supervising STs during their practicum. The participants revealed that not all the CTs were interested in supporting STs, as the majority (four out of six) viewed doing so as a burden. This outlook was shared by two MOE officials and two HTs. The majority of CTs (five out of 6) believed that STs were routinely instructed to perform certain tasks to safeguard their pupils' learning. This might not necessarily indicate that there could be no collaboration. It might simply suggest that STs may need to be guided in some situations, as discussed previously. All the CTs in this study acknowledged that it was somewhat challenging for them to step back from what they saw as protecting pupils' learning and their own annual evaluations, which are strongly linked to their performance. This was evident in how CTs took charge of the teaching that took place in the classroom. Indeed, four of the CTs stated that they would rather have the STs repeat some lessons to pupils than risk parents' complaining that their children had not understood STs lessons. Although Feiman-Nemser (2001) contends that good mentors need to focus on their pupils' learning (Feiman-Nemser, 2001), it is important that they step back and give their STs a chance to practice their teaching skills in real-life situations (discussed in section 4.5.5).

According to the interview participants, STs were expected to respect their schools' systems and culture, to succeed in their professional learning during the practicum. This was in line with the consensus in the literature that explains ITE is guided by rules and an ethos that STs must respect to succeed in their practicum (Feiman-Nemser, 2012; Nasser-Abu Alhija and Fresko, 2014). Researchers, such as Hudson (2016), include the transference of teaching traditions and school culture to STs as one of the main responsibilities of mentors. However, the need to comply with school standards could hinder STs' capacity for innovation, especially in situations where teachers prefer a traditional approach to learning (Rippon and Martin, 2006). It could also lead to STs' becoming frustrated when the school

system is hierachal, does not empower teachers to develop partnerships, and over-emphasises evaluation (Cochran-Smith and Villegas, 2015).

The provision of enabling environments and communities of learning cannot be over-emphasised in relation to STs' personal and professional development. The findings indicate that STs are in a position to learn a great number of professional skills from competent CTs. They also reinforce the need for teachers' professional learning to be viewed as an equal and non-hierarchical process, whereby CTs and STs can collaborate to improve their professional practice (Dorner and Kumar, 2016; Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Yang, Liu and Jr., 2018). This highlights one of the important implications of this study, which will be revisited in the recommendations section of the following chapter, and situates STs' professional learning within a professional teaching community and school culture supportive of the ongoing learning of teachers (Fulton *et al.*, 2005). This model requires a fundamental shift from teaching as an independent practice to teaching as an interdependent practice.

5.9 Summary

In this chapter, the key findings of this study were discussed; drawing on key issues in the reviewed international literature relating to mentoring in ITE. The interview data provided different perspectives regarding the participants' views of the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in the Saudi context, key challenges, and the suggestions provided for its improvement.

From the discussion, it can be said that conceptualisations of the CTs' role and responsibilities by the participants in this study are based on traditional apprenticeship views of teaching and learning. Furthermore, mentoring is faced with many challenges. These challenges include differences in the views of those involved in STs' professional learning, the universities' and schools' perspectives, inflexibility from HTs and CTs, CTs' difficulties with stepping back, and the lack of support from USs for CTs in the form of meetings before field experience commences. Those challenges were discussed in the light of international

literature, which provides professional insights into how similar challenges have been depicted and resolved in other contexts.

Moreover, the data also suggests that the CTs' role can be supported through co-planning ahead of lessons, school leadership developing a collaborative philosophy, better communication and reciprocal arrangements between USs and CTs. Similarly, this chapter also discussed suggestions to develop CTs' role in relation to the current ITE literature, examining how experiences from other successful ITE mentoring programmes could be utilised to raise the level of teacher education to inform practice in Saudi Arabia. Thus, this chapter enabled reflection on the different theoretical perspectives of behaviourism and social-constructivism and the challenges of shifting theoretical positions. It also provided a platform for development of a hybrid approach to support CTs and their STs and recommendations, which will be presented in the final, chapter of this thesis, which follows.

Chapter.6 Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

This study investigated the role of CTs in supporting the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools. The aims of the study were to better understand the CT's role, including the challenges and opportunities for improvement, and to explore how the role could be developed to effectively contribute to the Saudi ITE practicum development. It also led to the development of recommendations to propose a Saudi mentoring programme for CTs to develop quality Saudi ITE programmes emphasising teacher professionalism, which are inter-dependent aims set out in the national Tatweer project for developing education (see the Tatweer Project Aims chart, Figure 1-4). Specifically, the study addressed the following research questions:

- 1- What role do CTs play in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
- 2- What challenges CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?
- 3- What factors could contribute to overcoming these challenges, and help to develop the role?

In the first chapter, teacher education in Saudi Arabia was discussed. This included outlining context, history, strengths, criticism and growth under the new national educational reform Tatweer Project. Plus, an investigation of significant contributions and gaps in both Saudi and international research on Saudi ITE over the past 30 years were outlined (see chapter 1, section 1.2). A review of the literature was then conducted to contrast ITE systems in Saudi Arabia with those elsewhere; to introduce features of top-performing ITE systems globally, and to establish the importance of utilising mentoring models and approaches for STs and

mentors/CTs to provide a platform for the study's analysis of the findings in relation to the CT's role in the professional learning of STs in Saudi ITE.

Qualitative data was gathered from stakeholders in Saudi ITE to gain an updated understanding of the CT's role, by identifying its current status, challenges and prospects. Then the findings were analysed against the international ITE literature. 12 semi-structured interviews were conducted with different stakeholders in the Saudi ITE context (three MOE officials, three HTs and six CTs). The findings were presented in Chapter 4 and examined while considering the socio-cultural context of Saudi ITE. The evidence was then combined in the form of theory and recommendations for policy and practice so as to advance the CTs' role supporting the professional learning of STs in the Saudi ITE system.

Under the interpretive paradigm, and from the critical constructivist viewpoint, a constructivist grounded theory approach was deployed (as discussed in section 3.6.3), to extend the research beyond the simple identification and description of themes to the development of a contextually relevant theoretical perspective. An additional benefit was that the researcher forged a deeper understanding of the conceptual relationships among the themes/categories identified by the interviewees (as discussed in Chapter 5).

In accordance with the CGT methodology, the data themes presented in Chapter 4 were linked to ITE theories. The link was clarified in Chapter 5 by reviewing and analysing each theme in reference to the ITE literature discussed in Chapter 2. The discussion of the findings highlighted the following points:

- The diversity of teacher educator's identities and roles.
- Teachers' learning as an ongoing process.
- The role of feedback and evaluation in STs' professional learning.
- The role of the National ITE framework in developing teacher professionalism.

- School-University partnership.
- School leadership.
- Introducing a new professional culture within communities of learning.

The new practical approach that would contribute to blending theoretical approaches in a novel way in ITE in Saudi Arabia will be presented in this chapter as a basis for future recommendations for policy and practice in ITE contexts in Saudi Arabia. The following section summarises the findings by research question.

6.1.1 Findings in relation to RQ 1

RQ1: What is the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

The findings revealed that all the participants' conceptualisations of their mentoring role and responsibilities were based on the traditional apprenticeship model (see Chapter 6, section 6.3.2). They identified themselves mainly as teachers; they did not acknowledge nor express the duality of their role as teacher educators/mentors for STs and teachers for school pupils. They treated their role in the practicum as an extra duty in their role as teachers.

Another significant factor that emerged was the hierarchical culture of the Saudi educational system, which highly respects teachers (see section 1.2.1). Many of the participants' reports echoed challenges identified in the international literature (see Chapter 5, sections 5.5, 5.6, and 5.8). The significance of the Tatweer Project (see Figure 1-4) in developing teacher professionalism and enhancing the quality of ITE practicum in Saudi schools should be underlined once more here (Tatweer, 2018).

6.1.2 Findings in relation to RQ 2

RQ2: What are the challenges facing the CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

The findings illustrated that the role of CTs in the professional learning of STs was not entirely effective (see Chapter 4, section 4.6). However, all 12 participants acknowledged the importance and need to support CTs' in their role, especially post-merging of colleges of education with bigger universities. The findings revealed that Saudi CTs struggle with their role and identity as teacher educators as opposed to their role and identity as teachers in the Saudi educational system. This reported struggle with identity, deficient knowledge of their role and responsibilities, a heavy workload, absence of reward and performance review fears. Other challenges mentioned (Chapter 4, section 4.5) included: time restrictions, selection, preparation, evaluation and educational culture which were also reported in the reviewed ITE literature (Hobson, Ashby et al., 2009; Barrera, Braley and Slatec, 2010; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015). In Chapter 5 (sections 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.6), the challenges facing the CT role in Saudi Arabia were found to mirror reports from ITE research in developing countries with similar socio-cultural conditions, including Ghana (Asante, 2011), Nigeria (Aderibigbe, 2012) and Pakistan (Akhter, 2013). The key issue was the educational culture in Saudi that separates CTs' professional development from STs' learning. It also fosters a hierarchical CT-ST relationship and the exclusion of CTs from participating in the design or evaluation of STs' practicum (Menter, 2010; Brydson, 2011; Ambrosetti, Knight and Dekkers, 2014; Helgevold, Næsheim-Bjørkvik and Østrem, 2015; Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Jackson and Burch, 2019)(discussed in section 5.8) suggested minimal collaboration between the stakeholders involved in STs' ITE practicum.

6.1.3 Findings in relation to RQ 3

RQ3: What factors could contribute to overcoming the challenges facing the CT's role, and help to develop that role?

The most notable recommendation in the reviewed ITE literature is to the introduction of a standardised ITE framework. Having a systemised framework for ITE, as a well-established component of effective ITE programmes reported in international literature (discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.5). Some reconsideration of the devolution of power was also advised, which is a challenge in a traditional and centralised system of education (see chapter 5, section 5.7). Furthermore, mentor selection and preparation need to be predefined and set to maintain a consistent level of professionalism that would guide school HTs' decision-making. Similarly, reassigning the responsibilities of ITE to distribute them equally between university faculty members and school staff is equally important.

The findings also showed the need for better co-planning ahead of the practicum and better communication and reciprocal arrangements between universities and schools, to enhance teachers' professional development for both CTs and STs. This was observed in previous studies (Livingston and Robertson, 2001; Kafai *et al.*, 2008; Pitfield and Morrison, 2009; Allen, Howells and Radford, 2013; Mason, 2013; O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014; Burn and Mutton, 2015; Irby *et al.*, 2017; Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Jackson and Burch, 2019). Furthermore, the participants in senior positions (MOE officials and HTs) recommended pre-planning for managerial purposes, including a better selection of schools and better distribution of STs, as is also mentioned in the ITE literature (Shahin, 2007; Montecinos, Walker and Maldonado, 2015; Mackie, 2018; Ronfeldt *et al.*, 2018; St John *et al.*, 2018).

6.1.4 Summary of Findings and its Contribution to ITE literature

This study's findings report that Saudi CTs struggle with identifying their role and responsibilities as teacher educators as opposed to their role and identity as teachers in the Saudi educational system and it is recommended that their role as teacher educators/mentors should be developed through a carefully constructed framework for their professional development that incorporates a novel hybrid approach which includes a cooperative learning approach as well as aspects of the current behaviourist learning approach which are currently used in the ITE system in Saudi Arabia. This proposes a gradual shift in approach taking account of deep-

rooted beliefs and practices. The behaviourist aspects such as having measurable observable outcomes should be retained because they comply with some of the deeply-rooted traditional hierarchical procedures in the Saudi educational context like the evaluation system that depends heavily on written forms (discussed in chapter 1, section 1.2.6.1 & 1.2.6.2). A move away from this approach would be a longer-term goal and require consideration of the cultural hierarchical traditions within and beyond education.

ITE research reports that teachers with dual roles as teachers and as teacher-educators/mentors/CT struggle with identifying themselves as teacher educators (Bullough, 2005a; Grossman, 2009; Borg and Alshumaimeri, 2012; Livingston, 2013, 2014; Loughran, 2014; Czerniawski, Guberman and MacPhail, 2017; Willegems *et al.*, 2017; Andreasen, Bjørndal and Kovač, 2019), and that professional learning is essential to shaping the CTs' role as teacher educators/mentors/CT and in forming their professional identity as teacher educators (White, 2014).

This study makes a contribution to international ITE research concerning the nature and organisation of teacher education, teacher educators' qualifying requirements and quality assurance. It brings new insights into moving traditional centralised hierarchically organised systems (such as the SA system) towards approaches underpinned by different philosophical and theoretical underpinnings. This practical hybrid model attempts to bring together different theoretical approaches and contributes to shifting traditional behaviourism approaches.

In addition, the inclusion in this study of an investigation of Saudi CTs' views regarding their role in the professional learning of STs (using a CGT approach) add to the field, because it provides an account of genuine/authentic challenges faced, and realistic prospects for developing their role. This study is the first to attempt to explore the perceptions of MOE officials, school HTs and CTs in relation to the CTs' role in ITE in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, it is noteworthy in that it exposed misconceptions about the CT role and emphasised the need for a pre-defined framework for selection criteria, preparation, responsibilities, evaluation criteria and rewards.

Conducting interviews with three female MOE officials also proved valuable as the data/perspectives obtained not only reflect the development of female education in Saudi Arabia (as discussed in Chapter one, section 1.2.2), but also strengthen the position and findings of this study. Interviews with MOE officials are rarely included in research because of fear of complicated meeting procedures, contradictions or misconceptions. Therefore, it is significant that this study was able to present a novel and positive impression of the Saudi MOE officials within the context of the new educational reform (*Tatweer*). This study also foregrounded Saudi female teachers' views, allowing them to be heard by the Saudi MOE, universities, faculty staff, school HTs, fellow teachers and STs as well as the wider research community.

Another challenge is related to this study's fast-growing educational setting and constant educational reforms (e.g. *Tatweer* project, see chapter 1, section 1.2.3) which triggered this research with the aim of developing teachers' professionalism. The challenge of developing an understanding of self-identity in a context that is rapidly shifting is explored by White et al. (2013). They explain that in response to such a context the identity of teacher educators should be dynamic, configured, held and re-configured in response to the changing landscape within which they work. To address this challenge, this study advocates that the professional identity of the school-based teacher educator could be nurtured through involvement with a group of school-based and university-based teacher educators that see 'grappling with questions of identity formation' as part of their role; creating a sense of belonging where identities could be reconceived (Bullough 2005, p. 153). This could be a step that could contribute in bridging the reported school-university gap that is further intensified in the Saudi context by the one-way hierarchical top-down system of education discussed in the beginning of this study as one of the challenges facing ITE in Saudi Arabia. The following Figure 6.1 shows the current ITE Learning System and it is therefore the starting point for introducing change to the Hybrid Learning Approach set out in Figure 6.2:

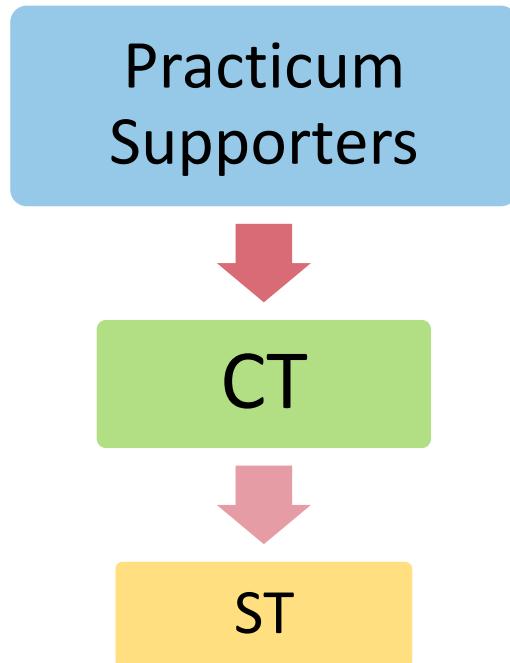


FIGURE 6-1: CURRENT SAUDI ITE SYSTEM OF LEARNING

Therefore, to achieve Tatweer's project aims of developing teachers' professionalism and developing ITE programmes practicum, the contribution of this study is the following:

Developing the CT role in Saudi ITE is of great importance for them to be able to identify themselves as teacher educators that play an equally important role in STs' education as the USs. This development entails introducing a transitioning hybrid model of learning that combines aspects of the existing apprenticeship approach (e.g. modelling good practice, acknowledging experience and respecting it, school culture awareness, see chapter 4, sections: 4.4.2, 4.4.3, 4.4.4, 4.4.5) with collaborative methods of learning (e.g. co-planning ahead of practicum, joint meetings in both university and school, collegial relationships between US, HT, CT & ST, see chapter 5, sections: 5.6, 5.7, 5.8) in the professional learning of all those involved in ITE practicum: CTs, STs and their supporters in both university and school (USs, HTs, school staff) in a collegial triadic relationship (see the following figure, Figure 6.2).

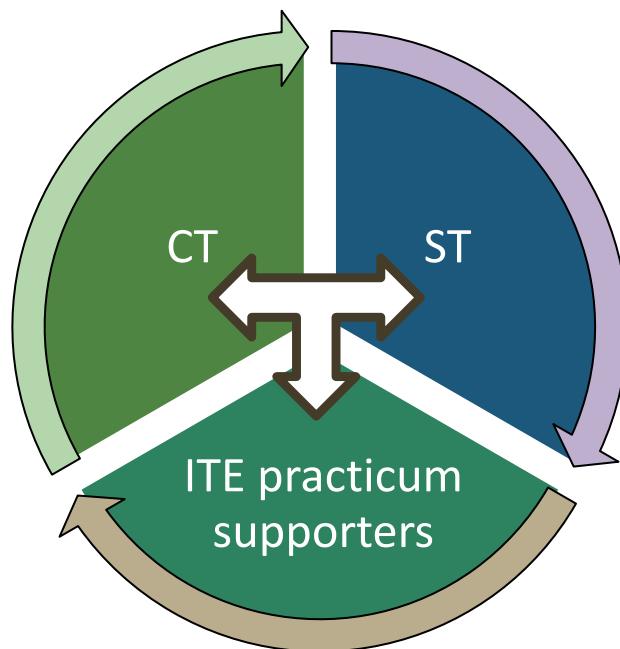


FIGURE 6-2: PROPOSED HYBRID LEARNING APPROACH WITHIN A TRIADIC RELATIONSHIP

This triadic relationship is a cycle of learning from and for all involved participants which is a novel compared to the one-way hierarchical top-to-bottom learning relationship the participants currently have (US to HT to CT to ST).

This new hybrid model in SA has the potential for developing a collegial learning environment in an attempt to reduce the hierarchy in the current CT and ST relationship in Saudi ITE and help reduce the school-university gap by enabling improved teacher learning through a cooperative continuum between them.

I would now like to draw on the findings to introduce a number of recommendations for practice in the Saudi MOE, as well as further implications for introducing the mentoring programme to develop the CTs' role in ITE in Saudi Arabia.

6.2 Recommendations

As established previously (Chapter 4, 4.6.1, Chapter 5, section 5.5), the development of a new Mentoring Framework with regard to mentoring practice in general within the Saudi ITE context is necessary. New policies are required concerning how CTs are selected, trained and rewarded in terms of recognition,

certification, and reduced workloads. Moreover, the three MOE officials interviewed, believed it to be essential for the MOE, universities and schools to undertake joint efforts to set goals for the STs' practicum in ITE in advance (Chapter 5, section 5.6.1.3). All 12 participants advocated school-university co-planning strategies, also suggesting the introduction of communication and reciprocal arrangements to develop the role of CTs, as it informs the professional learning of STs (Chapter 4, sections 4.6.1.3, 4.6.2 and 4.6.3).

Moreover, the challenge of the Saudi hierarchical school-culture was reported in Saudi ITE literature (Chapter 1, section 1.2.7.1), and discussed in the international ITE literature as it relates to the mentoring relationship (see mentoring relationship in theories of learning, Appendix 5, pp. 256). In the findings reported in Chapter 5, the hierarchy was identified as a factor contributing to the challenges that face the role of CTs as they seek to ensure the professional learning of STs in the Saudi educational culture (Chapter 4, section 4.5.8). To reduce the impact of this hierarchical culture, the study findings (Chapter 4, section 4.6.11) suggests decision-making should be distributed more evenly among ITE stakeholders (STs, CTs, USs, and HTs). In addition, empowering school leaders, and encouraging the introduction of equal and collaborative learning opportunities for all professionals working in the Saudi education system would also contribute to changing the Saudi educational culture (discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.7, 5.8).

Since the Saudi education system is hierachal, the recommendations proposed are first directed towards the Saudi MOE, in preparation for the formal introduction of the proposed mentoring scheme. Subsequently, the proposed scheme's implications for the Saudi MOE, CTs, university and school leadership will be introduced (see section 6.4).

6.2.1 Introducing mentoring theories to ITE and CPD courses

The study findings revealed a need to develop a shared understanding of what constitutes teacher professional learning and theoretical underpinnings of mentoring by involving senior officials at universities, heads of departments, MOE

district offices, and training centres, as well as practising teachers. Agreement has to be achieved between stakeholders to avoid variation in content over what constitutes mentoring models and approaches in ITE, to avoid future confusion and misunderstanding. It is strongly advised to initiate more specific university-led conferences regarding the use of mentoring in ITE might be beneficial, especially if inviting researchers who have conducted internationally recognised research into what mentoring involves in ITE, while also providing opportunities for Saudi researchers to meet researchers for discussion purposes.

6.2.2 Updating the evaluation system in ITE

The evaluation system in Saudi ITE requires serious re-consideration (as discussed in relation to data findings and the ITE literature in Chapter 5, section 5.4). The school educational system underwent major reforms during the Tatweer Project, transforming the entire primary assessment method from written exams to continuous evaluation and quarterly portfolios (MOE, 2017). Equally, new forms of assessment need to be introduced in the context of ITE based on training. This will require the development of university-wide policies and an agreed framework for evaluation criteria for both CTs and STs wishing to engage in continuous learning and development.

6.2.3 Adding mentoring to the Tatweer Project

The Ministry also needs to include mentoring as part of the national Tatweer Project for developing education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Mentoring should be introduced to enhance the quality of the Saudi ITE practicum in schools (Tatweer, 2015), to strengthen the school-university partnership. Two additional essential procedures are: to cooperate with universities to align their ITE programmes with MOE standards, and include universities in the CPD of in-service teachers. School-university partnerships are one of seven strategies employed to achieve the eighth aim of the Tatweer Project, which is Teacher Professionalism (see the Tatweer Project Aims chart, Figure 1-4). The proposed mentoring scheme should be added to the national Tatweer Project Aims Chart in the following

position (under enhancing the quality of practicum in student-teachers' ITE programmes):

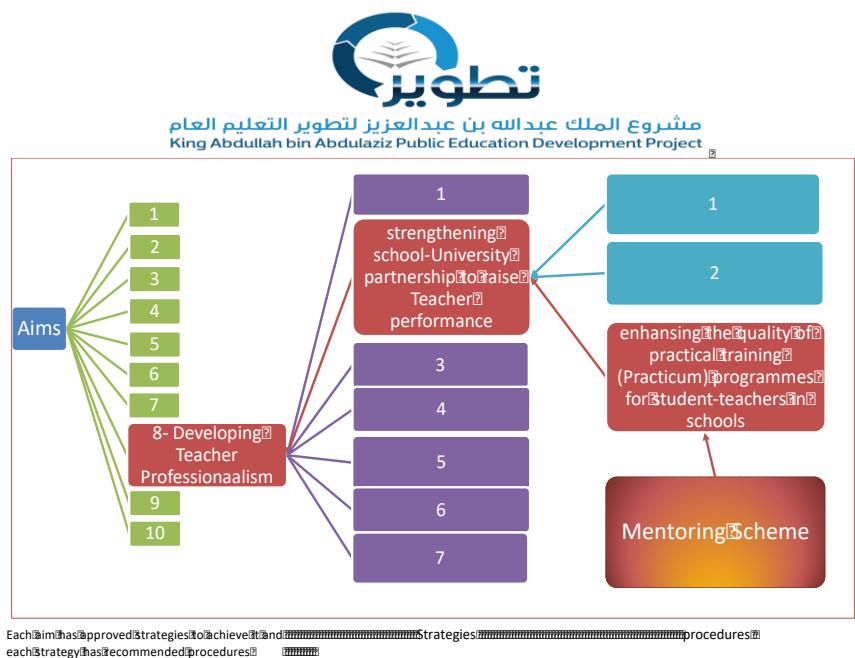
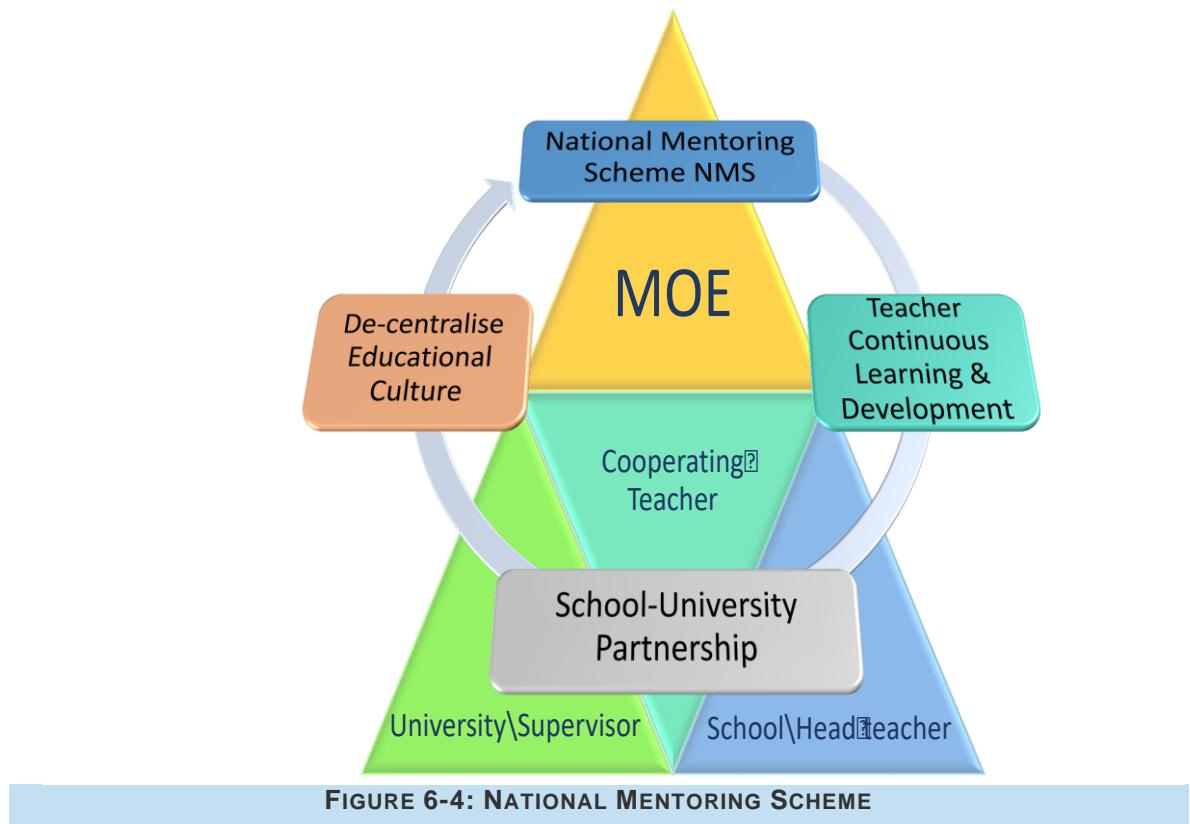


FIGURE 6-3: MENTORING SCHEME POSITION IN TATWEER PROJECT

6.2.4 Distribution of decision-making authority

Ideally power should be de-centralised from the MOE to schools. Recently, the MOE has begun to add a margin of freedom to decision-making (as apparent in some initiatives, such as recent female HT positions that include decision-making authority), but the findings suggest changes are insufficient to effect genuine change. The researcher, however, acknowledges the challenges associate with altering an entire system's hierachal decision-making practices. A possibility would be start with schools and then consider universities. This study finds that introducing a more equitable professional culture in Saudi schools, while allowing some authority to reside with both universities and school leaders will help facilitate the proposed new scheme (e.g. providing school HTs with the ability to sub-contract substitute teachers directly to provide cover for CTs, so that they can attend CPD/mentoring training programmes).

6.2.5 Introducing a National Mentoring Scheme



Chapter 2 reviewed the literature regarding top-performing educational systems, focusing on policies (framework/scheme) that helped develop and sustain a high performing ITE programmes: (discussed in detail in section 2.3). Later in the findings chapter, having a national framework for ITE was one of the factors suggested by the participants that could contribute to developing the CT role and overcoming the challenges they face in supporting STs professional learning (chapter 4, section 4.6.1). Moreover, having a national framework for mentoring was later discussed in detail in chapter five in relation to both the policies of the high-performing ITE programmes (chapter two) and chapter four findings (see section 5.5). The associated implications for introducing a mentoring scheme in the Saudi ITE context is explained in the following section.

6.3 Implications

The research findings have established the need for a National Mentoring Scheme for the Saudi ITE system, which takes into account the local socio-cultural context.

6.3.1 Implications for the Saudi MOE

- Adding mentoring to the Tatweer Project's Aims.
- Introducing a mentoring model based on a hybrid-theoretical approach to STs' ITE programmes at universities, and CTs' professional development courses in MOE training centres. Also linking these together to create one continuous professional learning and development plan for teachers.
- Encouraging all 42 MOE training centres to cooperate with universities, to prepare mentoring training courses for CTs.
- Adding mentoring to CTs' annual appraisal system.
- Cooperating with the university to issue a booklet on practicum, and the role of mentoring in it. This booklet should be annually updated in correspondence with the MOE Research Centre. It should also be posted on the MOE's website and made available to download and print.
- There is also a need to pass some authority to universities and school HTs, to facilitate the preparation of mentors and address their role in the STs' Practicum.
- Opening a department at the MOE to oversee STs' practicum in schools (e.g. coordinating distribution of STs to appropriate schools and facilitating visits from universities to schools and vice-versa).
- Adding mentoring research to the Ministry's Research Centre topics, to inform and evaluate practice.

6.3.2 Implications for CTs

STs need guidance, orientation and support to advance their learning and acquire knowledge and teaching skills, as well as constructive assessment and feedback and emotional support from CTs. However, these should be provided in a manner consistent with the needs of individual STs. For this purpose, CTs need to observe STs in the classroom, while also stepping back and allowing STs to lead class activities. This entails CTs overcoming the fear of being evaluated by their pupils' learning outcomes and trusting that STs could positively impact their pupils' learning and enrich the classroom environment. Moreover, CTs need to be more conscious of when and how to guide STs to realise their learning goals. The following are some implications resulting from the suggested mentoring scheme:

- CTs need to recognise mentoring as a process through which mutual learning can take place between them and STs, to improve their professional practice. They need to show a willingness to learn from others, and must be willing to get along with others in the learning environment. They also need to provide an empowering environment in which they can make contributions to the course of teaching and learning in the classroom. This can also be promoted by schools and universities, as a vital element of mentor preparation.
- CTs need to engage STs in activities that focus on the development of pedagogical skills. Crucially, they should also use mentoring models and approaches with STs, and feedback should be provided carefully. For this to happen, CTs also need to address the development of different pedagogical skills and take diverse approaches to teaching seriously. Hence, it is important that they be given the opportunity to attend the pedagogical courses for ITE programmes at universities.
- CTs need to introduce STs to their pupils as teachers, rather than college students. This would improve the probability that pupils would respect them and their teaching methods and grading.

- CTs need to be aware of the goals and expectations from the STs' practicum. Clarifications of these expectations are necessary if professional learning goals are to be achieved.
- CTs need to continuously reflect and provide feedback to STs about their teaching approach and check their learning progress. This could be achieved in an informal and friendly manner, instead of through a formal evaluation system (i.e. filling in reports) that restricts both STs' learning and CTs' guidance.

6.3.3 Implications for universities

- Universities should introduce and integrate additional pedagogy courses into their ITE programmes, and ensure courses are offered to CTs to unify goals and expectations. Pedagogy courses for CTs were considered necessary by the participants in the study, as CTs expressed a need to understand what they are working with (i.e. to form expectations concerning the level of STs' GPK). Summer courses, along with both printed and online materials exemplify how university ITE programmes might engage CTs.
- There is a need to intensify efforts to facilitate the professional dialogue among USs, CTs and STs, to achieve the chief goals of the practicum.
- Effort needs to be intensified by universities to strengthen the connection between university courses and schools' curriculum. Continuous evaluation of courses must take place consistently with changes to schools' curriculum. This would ensure STs remain up to date. Further information may also be given to STs when they start their practicum if required.
- There is a need for routine meetings between CTs and USs before students commence their practicum. Having meetings prior to a practicum offers opportunities for USs and CTs to learn about each other's expectations and address assumptions.

- CTs' CPD programmes need to be tailored to develop shared aims between universities and schools. That is, CTs should be encouraged to engage in collaborative investigations of their practice with STs, so as to improve practice. Emphasis also needs to be placed on the effective use of communication, interpersonal and teaching skills by CTs, to foster collaboration with STs. Additional skills, such as management, organisation, assessment and report writing, planning, and understanding of when and how STs should step back, needs to be emphasised at CPD events.
- Aside from a practicum booklet, on-line materials should be made more accessible; i.e. in a simplified cost-effective downloadable form where possible.
- Better communication channels should be established with schools, as well as prompt responses to inquiries by CTs, which are also important. Sharing telephone numbers and emails with USs could exemplify this.
- Reciprocal arrangements need to be set up, whereby USs and CTs can make exchange visits and actively engage in activities to understand university ITE programmes and school practicum better. As the data revealed, this would also help improve communication between universities and schools.
- Courses on mentoring that cover various models and their advantages need to be incorporated into both STs' and CTs' orientation/training programmes. This would help strengthen their understanding of mentoring, and underscore the need to develop mentoring roles for CTs to assess STs' professional learning during their practicum.
- Effort needs to be intensified to ensure a more workable distribution of STs' across schools. Moreover, communication with schools should include MOE participation, in the form of the provision of details of schools' profiles to universities. Knowing a school's capacity, size, location and resources would help with improve the choices made for practicum, and ensure a suitable number of STs is allocated to each school.

6.3.4 Implications for schools/HTs

- Schools/HTs should allocate adequate time to CTs to allow them develop the necessary professional knowledge and practical skills in mentoring.
- School HTs need to be meticulous when selecting CTs, and ensure they provide them with the resources they need.
- School HTs need to promote a culture of equality, dialogue and collaborative learning. They must also plan and coordinate their school's practicum in a manner that facilitates mentoring. For instance, they need to provide an opportunity for pupils to become accustomed to the presence of two teachers in the classroom. They can also encourage all school staff to help support and facilitate student-teachers' professional learning. This would include pupils being involved in the practicum process to reduce the sense of threat from new visitors. They could also reach out to parents at home to inform them about the practicum, reassuring them that their children's education will not be adversely affected, and requesting their support and understanding.

6.4 Research Limitations

The limitations of this study are outlined as follows:

The first limitation of the study was that there was only one form of data collection, which took the form of a semi-structured interview. While I contend that a semi-structured interview can be effective for gathering useful data, focus groups might also provide a means of gathering more in-depth explanations and perspectives about the role of CTs. However, due to the time limitations that influenced the duration of the data collection process and the complex arrangements surrounding the set-up of interviews, this method provided a data set which could be collected and analysed for this thesis. I would like to use focus groups if I have the opportunity to develop my research in the future.

Secondly, the interviews were carried out with a small number of participants: three MOE professionals, three HTs and six CTs (reasons discussed in chapter 3, section 3.4.1.6). All the participants were female, to make it legal for the researcher, who is also female to enter the female departments at the MOE, as well as the girls' schools, and have relaxed and lengthy discussions about her research. This is a process that would have been very difficult or restricted if only phone interviews had been possible, as would have been the case if the study had included male participants.

Thirdly, the interviews were conducted at the Saudi MOE, and then in three different primary schools located in three parts of the capital city of Riyadh; university staff were not involved. The restriction to four locations was due to the difficulty of transport; as Saudi women were not allowed to drive at the time of the data collection took place.

Notwithstanding the limitations mentioned, the sample size was considered appropriate, as the researcher's intention was to seek out better understanding of the CTs role in this context. All 25,977 Saudi schools follow a single system for all 543,158 male and female teachers in Saudi Arabia (MOE, 2017). This means it was also possible to log on to a single website (the Saudi MOE) to view relevant rules and any new policies, view their annual evaluation, apply for requests (leave, compensation, transfer, complaints) and upload pupils' grades to the Noor system (MOE, 2017). Thus, only three schools at the same city were chosen, because the Saudi system of Education is strictly applied at every school in the Kingdom. Thirdly, the unified system of education is the same for both males and females in Saudi Arabia.

6.4.1 Researcher Position

Over the course of this study, my preconceived notions about ITE were challenged several times. The reason is that I have personally experienced many stages of ITE in Saudi Arabia; from 1999-2002 as a ST, and from 2006-2008 as a teacher. However, in 2009-2010 I was fortunate to do my Masters in Educational Training and Development in the University of Edinburgh which involved complete

immersion in how to train the trainer. The MOE officials, HTs and CTs I interviewed, gave me a realistic view of ITE in Saudi Arabia that contested theoretical view of what ITE should look like according to the much-reviewed international literature. I began to compare and analyse contrasting educational settings, research development, and governing policies. Moreover, I had to redefine and clarify many of the notions I had about educating the educators (CTs) that came from my previous degree (MSc in Training and Development). One of these ideas became a central topic for this study, which was that I had assumed that ITE in Saudi Arabia was designed for both CTs' and STs' professional development. While initially the concept of "professional development" seemed self-explanatory to me, over the course of the research I came to see that this was clearly not the case. The participants and the Saudi educational resources (literature and official documents) showed no distinction between teaching pupils at schools and educating teachers. This educational background also impacted how themes were identified in the data. As discussed in chapter one (section 1.2.5) the educational system has many challenges in regards to ITE and these challenges were strongly influenced with the unique social context of Saudi Arabia. Similarly, while in the early stages of the study I was quite sure that introducing mentoring in Saudi ITE programmes would prove unquestionably beneficial, research showed that such an assumption needed to be realistically studied and investigated to be based on findings from local research and stakeholders. The extensive research, literature reviews, and most importantly, the actual communication with stakeholders, have allowed me to amend and expand my perspective, making it more multifaceted and perceptive to the complexities that exist.

6.5 Recommendations for further Research

Future research might usefully take the form of a large scale study focused on the CTs' involvement with STs, including both CTs and STs, to compare STs' perspectives with the views of their CTs. Wang et al. (2008) contended that establishing a mentoring framework in line with mentors' perceptions, without addressing students' views might result in mentor-centred practices (Wang et al.

2008, in Zhang et al. 2012). A comparative study of Saudi ITE programmes at universities, and with other ITE providers across developed countries could also be considered in the future.

Moreover, some of the questions asked in this study may be adopted or adapted in future research. For example, questions relating to how mentoring is conceptualised, and the challenges and factors required to develop mentoring, may be reconsidered and developed. Questions could also review different aspects: for example, the most effective ways of sharing and exchanging information among Saudi ITE stakeholders could be explored in the future. This would help to strengthen effective communication among stakeholders. The effects of CTs' years of experience on STs' learning could also be explored in any future study. This would help highlight the importance of CTs' experience to STs' learning, and to mentoring relationships in Saudi Arabia.

It would also be worthwhile to comprehensively study the roles of school leaders as they influence the professional learning of both STs and CTs in the Saudi ITE context. This would also identify HTs' views regarding mentoring and how they believe it should be practised. The involvement of university partnerships with schools might also be necessary to strengthen further studies on mentoring in the Saudi ITE context. As the data demonstrated, communication has been a major barrier to effective collaboration between schools and universities. Thus, the involvement of school administrators and university staff would help identify causes of delayed communication between universities and schools. The challenges associated with school leadership might also be explored and better addressed when other stakeholders, such as university staff and school administrators, are involved in future studies.

6.6 Conclusion

This research has focused specifically on investigating CTs' role in the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools, viewing them as mentors. The analysis was contextualised by referring to educational reforms

concerning teachers' professionalisation; which is one of the aims of Tatweer, the Saudi national project for developing education.

The underlying aims of this thesis were to seek a better understanding of the CTs' role and how it could be developed, and any challenges could be overcome. The aims of this study were achieved by extensively reviewing the literature and analysing the data collected. Therefore, mentoring has been explored in this study as a tool to facilitate mutual learning by sharing experience and class spaces with other teacher educators in partnership. It is believed that introducing a national mentoring Scheme to Saudi ITE, informed by the latest international research would have the potential to facilitate both mutual learning and the development of both CTs and STs. It is also maintained that successful mentoring in the Saudi ITE context cannot be enacted without encountering some challenges for policy and educational culture. However, the opinion held is that the proposed hybrid-learning approach (Figure 6-2) and guiding principles encapsulated in the proposed national mentoring framework for Saudi ITE: (teacher continuous learning and development, de-centralised educational culture, school-university partnership, Figure 6.4) can reduce these challenges and enhance the actualisation of mentoring roles over time to advance both the professional learning of STs, and the professional development of CTs.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: THE SAUDI EDUCATION JOURNEY (1922-2016)

Time Period	Development of Education
1922	<p>The first formal educational institution in Saudi Arabia was established in 1922 (boys only), prior to the unification of the Kingdom (Alsahli, 2012; Albedaiwi, 2014). The foundation of this institution indicated the King's emphasis on education even though the country was new and had to deal with different local and international situations (Al-Harthi, 2014 in Albedaiwi 2014).</p>
1924	<p>In 1924 the Directorate of Education was established to spread and direct the expansion of learning and knowledge. The Directorate opened primary schools and secondary schools (Al-Sadan, 2000).</p>
1927	<p>English was taught after 1927 as a subject at secondary level as more foreigners were moving to Saudi Arabia to work in oil companies - this gave Saudis an opportunity to work in the oil industry as well (Albedaiwi, 2014).</p>
1953	<p>In 1953, the previous Directorate of Education was transformed to create the Ministry of Education. The new Ministry was given the specific task of expanding the national schooling system, to bring it in line with the Western states (Al-Sadan, 2000). The first minister was Prince Fahad Al-Saud, who later became King in 1982.</p>
1955	<p>The first school for girls was opened in 1955. 30 girls were enrolled at the Dar al-Hanan school in Jeddah, founded by Queen Faisal's wife, Queen Effat Al-Saud (Hamdan, 2005).</p>

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<p>1957</p> 	<p>The first University in the Kingdom, King Saud University, was established in 1957 with 21 students and 9 staff (Alsahli, 2012). The building was King Saud's palace in Riyadh along with the surrounding grounds (Pavan, 2013).</p>
<p>1958</p>	<p>In 1958, regional educational offices were opened throughout the country to act as local representatives of the Ministry of Education, with the duty of administering and supervising education in their districts (Al-Sadan, 2000).</p>
<p>1958-Now</p>	<p>There are five stages to the Saudi education system: preschool /kindergarten (children under 6 years), elementary (between 6-11 years), primary (between 12-14), secondary level (between 15-18 years) and the university level (between 19-24) (Albedaiwi, 2014).</p>
<p>1970</p>	<p>Riyadh University for women was founded in 1970.</p>
<p>1975</p>	<p>Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) was established in 1975 as a separate entity from the Ministry of Education (Alsahli, 2012).</p>
<p>1990</p>	<p>In the 1990s, the Saudi government re-examined the usefulness of the existing school curriculum and in 1994-1995, a 5-year reform plan was introduced (Albedaiwi, 2014).</p>
<p>2007</p>  مشروع الملك عبد الله بن عبد العزيز للتطوير التعليم العام King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Public Education Development Project	<p>Tatweer Project: Tatweer is King Abdullah Bin Abdul Aziz's National Education Development Project for developing the Saudi education system. It is an attempt to align with the highest international standards (MOE, 2018b). In 2008 up to US\$ 3.1 billion in funds were allocated for developing all aspects of general education in Saudi Arabia, including teacher education (Albedaiwi, 2014; Tatweer, 2018).</p>
<p>2009</p>	<p>In 2009, within the framework of the Tatweer Project, Saudi Arabia launched Aafaq (Arabic translation for 'Horizon'), "The Future Plans for Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia". Aafaq is a 25-year plan defining the vision for Saudi Higher Education, its mission, needs, types, output quality and funding methods (MOE, 2018b).</p>
<p>2009</p> 	<p>In September 2009, as a result of a US\$ 10 billion initial grant from King Abdullah, King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST) was opened (KAUST, 2018). KAUST is an international research university for post-graduate studies, and the only coeducational university in the country.</p>

 2009	<p>The King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP), is one of the largest Saudi educational initiatives introduced in recent years and is one of the largest government scholarship programmes in the world (Al Mousa, 2010, p. 719 in Pavan 2013). It is estimated that there are between 110,000 and 125,000 Saudi male and female students studying in 23 different countries, the highest percentage of students studying under government grants in the world, and the third highest number of students studying abroad, after China and India (ArabNews, 2011).</p>
 2010	<p>On the 5th of January 2010, the female department in the Saudi MOE's building was opened. It consists of an office for the first female deputy of the minister of education: Dr. Munara Al-Faiz, 30 departments and a over 700 female employees. They have their own entrance and all-female security staff (MOE, 2018b)</p>
 2011	<p>Riyadh University for women was renamed by King Abdullah in 2008: the 'Princess Noura bint Abdul Rahman University for Women'. At present it is the largest female-only university in the world. The new campus (opened in 2011) can accommodate 40,000 students and 12,000 staff, and has a 700-bed teaching hospital plus its own tram to facilitate moving around its vast grounds (8 million square metres) (P.N.U, 2018).</p>
 2013	<p>King Saud University, the Kingdom's largest university (more than 8300 faculty members and more than 70,000 students), as well as the oldest in the Kingdom and throughout the Arabian Peninsula. In its latest developmental plan, it was granted in 2013 nearly US\$ 2.6 billion, which is considered by Saudi officials the largest sum ever budgeted to any Saudi university (Pavan, 2013; MOE, 2018a).</p>
 2015	<p>Uniting the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) with the Ministry of Education to become the Ministry of Education (MOE).</p>
 2016	<p>In 2016, the revolutionary 2030 Vision was introduced, and includes all the sectors including education. The 2030 Vision states: "Saudi Arabia, the heart of the Arab and Islamic worlds, the investment powerhouse, and the hub connecting three continents" (VISION, 2018)</p>

Appendices

APPENDIX 2: SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN 3RD YEAR, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION 2002

**Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
 Ministry of Higher Education
 Riyadh' University for Girls
 College of Education/Literary Departments
 Vice Dean's Office for Students Affairs (Regular Students)**

Graduate's Name: Shatha Hamdan Ahmad AlGamdi **Specialization:** English Language
Graduation Date: 1412/1423. H. **B.A. Grade:** Very Good **GPA:** (83.24%)

Transcript Records of Third Year 1421/1422 A.H.

First Semester

Course	Grade	Mark	Weekly hours
Morphology and Syntax	V.Good	80	2
Essay-Writing	Excellent	91	3
Translation	Excellent	91	2
Prose (3)	V.Good	86	2
Drama (3)	V.Good	88	2
Poetry (3)	V.Good	82	2
The Financial and Economic System in Islam	Pass	66	2
Arabic Language (Art of Novel)	V.Good	84	2
The Islamic Education	Good	79	3
The Psychology of Growth	Excellent	91	3
Special Methods of Training (1)	Excellent	91	2

Second Semester

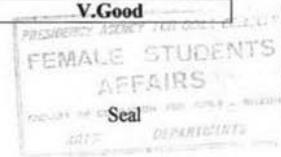
Course	Grade	Mark	Weekly hours
Morphology and Syntax	V.Good	87	2
Essay-Writing	Excellent	91	3
Translation	V.Good	84	2
Prose (3)	V.Good	84	2
Drama (3)	Excellent	100	2
Poetry (3)	Excellent	93	2
The Islamic Ethics	Good	78	2
Arabic Language (Art of Drama)	Good	74	2
Special Methods of Training (2)	Good	75	3
Educational Psychology	V.Good	81	2
Media and Technology in Education	Excellent	93	2
Practical Teacher's Training	Excellent	96	Two weeks
General grade	V.Good		

Vice Dean for Students Affairs

Dr. Fuzia Al-Dosari

Dean

Dr. Situlhusun Hamid Al-Juhani



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APPENDIX 3: SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN 4TH YEAR, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION 2002

**Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
 Ministry of Higher Education
 Riyadh' University for Girls
 College of Education/Literary Departments
 Vice Dean's Office for Students Affairs (Regular Students)**

Graduate's Name: Shatha Hamdan Ahmad AlGamdi **Specialization:** English Language
Graduation Date: 1412/1423. H. **B.A. Grade:** Very Good **GPA:** (83.24%)

Transcript Records of Fourth Year 1422/1423A.H.

First Semester

Course	Grade	Mark	Weekly hours
General Linguistics	V.Good	83	2
Essay-Writing	Pass	65	2
Translation	Excellent	98	2
Prose (4)	Good	77	2
Drama (4)	V.Good	83	2
Poetry (4)	Pass	60	2
History of English Language	Excellent	97	2
The Islamic World Today	Excellent	98	2
Arabic Language (Art of Essay)	Excellent	97	2
The Educational Policy and System in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	V.Good	85	2
Curricula	V.Good	81	3 weeks
Educational Evaluation	Good	70	2
Practical Teacher's Training	Excellent	99	3 weeks

Second Semester

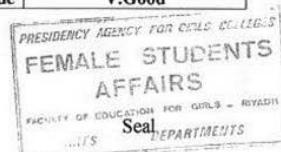
Course	Grade	Mark	Weekly hours
General Linguistics	Good	70	2
Essay-Writing	Excellent	92	2
Translation	Excellent	94	2
Prose (4)	V.Good	82	2
Drama (4)	V.Good	81	2
Poetry (4)	V.Good	87	2
History of English Language	V.Good	83	2
Hygienic	V.Good	88	2
Arabic Language (The Modern Literary Criticism)	Excellent	99	2
The Development of the Educational Thought	Excellent	93	2
Educational Management and Planning	V.Good	80	2
Psychological Health	Excellent	96	2
Educational Sociology	Excellent	90	2
General grade	V.Good		

Vice Dean for Students Affairs

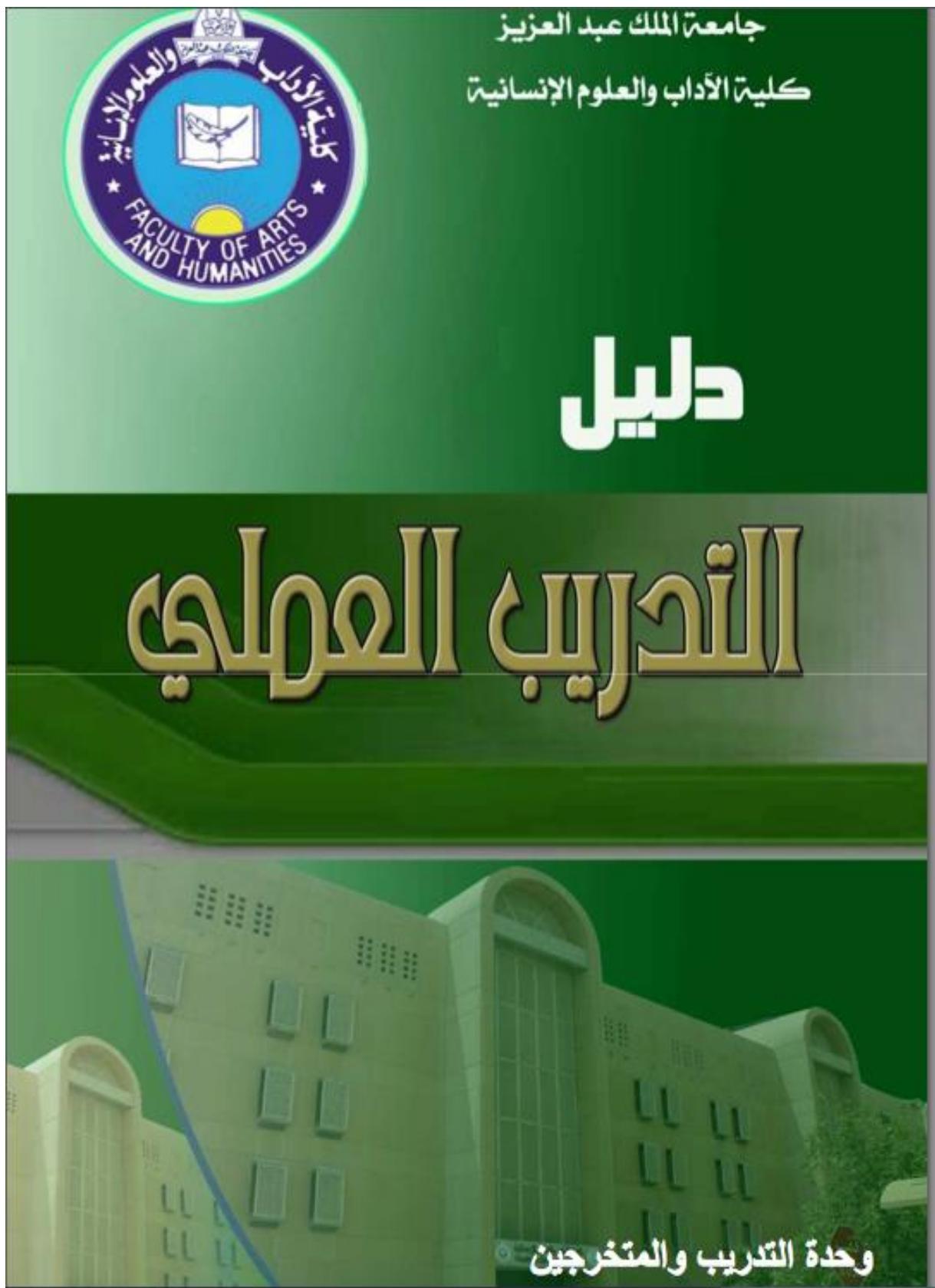
Dr. Ruzia Al-Dosari

Dean

Dr. Situlhusun Hamid Al-Juhani



APPENDIX 4: TRANSLATION OF THE GRADUATE TRAINING UNIT MANUAL OF KAU



As part of the process of bridging the gap between the Educational institutes outcomes and the needs of the workplace; the College of Arts and Human sciences has reconstructed its curriculums to accommodate the market's demands. The reason is that the real success of any educational institutes is measured by how much the society benefits from those institutes' graduates getting employed in different work sectors and contributing to the society's development plans.

The practical training program plays an important role in filling the gap between what the students studies theoretically and what type of skills he or she need to succeed in the job market. Therefore, designing a successful training program will in turn positively affect the outcomes of the education process by raising the quality of the students' qualification and by exposing them to the real working environment. This will also help them quickly adapt to work conditions after they graduate.

Thus, the faculty called for completing six hours of practical training as a requirement for graduation.

What is Training

A training program is " a program that aims to achieve maximum compatibility between what students learn in their specialized field and what is required and practiced in the real work environment through the collaboration of educational institutes and multiple work places in training students on the responsibilities of each specialization during the period of study following specific regulations"

Training goals

The training program fulfills many objectives that can be summed in the following:

Giving the student the opportunity to experience real working conditions that are likely to be similar to what he/she would experience in a job he/she would take on after graduation.

Having the student perform practical work in a real sector to complete his preparation professionally and artistically.

Linking education outcomes with the labor market requirements during training helps increase job opportunities for graduates.

Benefits of training

The training program provides many benefits for all participating parties (trainee – education institute – training place) and is as follows:

a) For trainees:

Giving students the opportunity to explore real work, and apply all the theoretical information and skills acquired throughout the period of study; plus giving them the chance to gain work experience and training before graduation.

Helping students find the right sector that best fits their preferences and goals.

Helping students get jobs shortly after their graduation by giving them a chance to display their worthiness plus their theory and practice competence for institutes willing to hire them.

Getting students used to work ethics and professional behavior like: punctuality, meeting deadlines, responsibility, working in a team, patience, cooperation . . .

Helping students identify their strengths and weaknesses to help develop their skills before they enter the job market officially.

b) For Education institutes:

Helping institutes identify the work place prospective on the students' levels.

Helping institute recognize the work place requirements which would help in evaluating its academic courses regularly to help them meet those requirements.

Exchanging expertise between specialists from the education institute and the work place.

c) For the Training place:

1- introducing the public and private institutes to the qualified human resources the university has.

2- giving the work place sector the chance to participate in the process of developing the education institute curriculum and learning courses by suggesting some changes and additions to the current curriculum and subjects.

3- changing businessmen's point of view of graduates from Arts and Social Colleges.

Increasing cooperation between the private sector and the educational institutes in the area of training.

Participating units

There are multiple parties sharing the responsibilities of supervising, organizing and executing the training program; each of which operating on its own specific agenda. These parties' responsibilities are:

The training and graduates' unit

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Providing training opportunities by working between the academic departments and both public and private institutes to create training opportunities for the College's students based on the following conditions:

The organization must have training opportunities that are suitable for the student's general major.
The student should be trained in a job position that meets his specific specialization as much as possible.

The organization should have a complete training program that clearly states the student's responsibilities and the time frame his training is going to follow during the training period.

The training and graduates unit also collaborates with the academic departments to create a database for organizations interested in training College students, and when the student apply for training in a certain organization of their choice, the unit reviews the application and takes its decision based on points a, b, c, in point 1) and that the institute is not owned by the student or any of his/her relatives.

The trainee

The trainee chooses the suitable organization or institute he/she after consulting the training supervisor. Then the student starts his/her training following the rules and regulations of the place of training while using and filling the required training forms.

The academic department

This department has the following responsibilities:

Sending students to the suitable training organizations and making sure that there is variation in sector.

Balancing the number of students sent to different training institutes or organizations.

Providing the training and graduates unit with reports that show students' name and place of training so that it could keep track of the training process in its different stages.

Assigning an equal number of students to every department's faculty (15 students per teacher, this may vary according to the number of students in each department), teacher training supervision is part of the faculty assigned teaching duties.

The academic department training supervisor

He or she is a member of faculty and has the following responsibilities:

Participating in choosing every student training institute and informing the head of department. Giving two lectures in the science department with the student trainees; one at the beginning of the term to explain the concept of training, its process, the trainee's responsibilities and how he or she would be evaluated.

Following up with the student trainee to make sure that he/she is benefitting from the practical training program and working on resolving any problems that could face the student during the training period.

Carrying out at least one field visit to the student trainee in the training place.

Supervising the writing of the "practical training report" that the student trainee submits at the end of the training period.

Evaluating the student's performance and awarding the final mark at the end of the semester.

The training organization

It is the institute where the training takes place, and its main responsibility is providing a suitable environment for the training progress following the plan agreed with the academic department while using the assigned training forms.

Training supervision

The trainee is supervised by the:

Training Supervisor in the training organization, and his/her duties are:

Supervising the training program and monitoring the student trainee's performance during the training period.

Filling reports on the student's performance to the University training supervisor in the academic department.

Training supervisor in the academic department:

He/she is one of the faculty members in the student's original department, and his/her responsibilities are as follows:

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Following up on the student's performance through the field visits and through the reports provided by the training organization.

Helping the student with any problems he/she could face during training.

The training and graduates unit:

It supervises the students by:

Contacting the organization's training supervisor regularly to make sure that the training program is going on as planned.

Monitoring the training process through the reports provided by the practical training supervisors in all the academic departments.

Training Evaluation

At the end of the student training period a full evaluation is done for both student and training organization

The student:

The student is evaluated on the specially prepared forms (see forms) according to the following: the training organization evaluation during the training program according to certain criteria in the given evaluation form, and the mark for this evaluation is forty and it is (40%) of the total mark.

The academic supervisor's evaluation through field visits that he/she pays the trainee/student in the job location, and the mark for this is twenty, which is (20%) of the total mark.

A practical training report on the training program that the student/trainee submits to the academic supervisor plus a presentation on the training he/she had in front of the academic supervisor and another faculty member, and the mark for this is forty (40%).

The training organization:

The training organization or institute is evaluated by the student, the academic training supervisor, and the training and graduates unit; using the evaluation form that is specifically designed for this type of evaluation (see form). The score of this evaluation will determine whether this organization will be chosen again for training the students, or will be replaced by other alternatives that would commit to fulfilling the assigned criteria.

How training takes place

The student has two options for training:

Training during the summer where students are fully trained for a period of 6 to 10 weeks and this type of training is called (summer training)

Training in the seventh or eighth semester especially for those students who must train in organizations that do not work during the summer vacation like public schools and this type of training is called (cooperative training).

The training program also includes a preparation period where workshops are held in all academic departments to explain the importance of practical training and of designing training programs as well as appointing the right training organizations. Officials from both the public and private sectors are invited to speak in some of those workshops.

Illustration of Training courses in College departments

European Languages (English)

Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training in language 1	LAN 462	3
Practical training in language 2	LAN 463	3

European Languages (French)

Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	LANF 482	3
Practical training 2	LANF 483	3

History

Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	HIST 485	3
Practical training 2	HIST 486	3

Geography

Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	GEOG 481	3
Practical training 2	GEOG 482	3

Information Science

Subject	Subject number	Hours
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Field training 1	IS 461	4
Field training 2	IS 462	4
Sociology		
Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	SOC 451	3
Practical training 2	SOC 452	3
Media		
Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training (journalism)	COM 428	3
	COM 429	5
Practical training (radio & television)	COM 447	3
	COM 448	5
Practical training (public relations)	COM 476	3
	COM 477	5
Arabic Language		
Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	ARAB 462	3
Practical training 2	ARAB 463	3
Islamic Studies		
Subject	Subject number	Hours
Practical training 1	ISLS 453	3
Practical training 2	ISLS 454	3
Psychology		
Subject	Subject number	Hours
Field training 1	PSY 461	3
Field training 2	PSY 463	3

Theoretical Underpinnings of Mentoring

This section will demonstrate how the work of reflective and constructivist theorists such as Schon and Kolb contribute to a theoretical underpinning for models of mentoring in ITE.

Reflective learning model

A number of models of mentoring, arising from the “reflective practitioner tradition” (Rice, 2008, p.84), were identified in the extant ITE literature. These models, which were influenced by the work of Schön (1983), have been extremely influential in ITE mentoring.

Schön (1983) challenged the view that professionals acquire skills through training, and then simply practise them (behaviourist theory). Instead, he suggested that these skills are acquired through a process of reflection, both ‘reflection-on-action’ and ‘reflection-in-action’, with the former being subsequent to the action, and the latter being a contemporary action.

According to Schön’s (1978) theory of reflection, a mentor should assist their STs to reflect on their practical teaching experience, with the aim of improving their professional practice, thereby acting as a coach, as they guide and support the STs to develop the necessary skills for effective teaching. In order to employ reflection effectively, and to help STs to learn, a mentor must be skilful and patient in examining their own work (self-reflection). It is important that this process of self-examination is considered on mentor preparation programmes (Bates, Ramirez and Drits, 2009 cited in Aderibigbe, 2012, p.65). However, despite its advantages, a key requirement for reflection is a pool of relevant knowledge derived from prior experience, which may not be available in some STs’ ITE systems, as is the case in Saudi Arabia where the practicum is undertaken at the end of the programme, when the ST has no prior teaching experience. In addition, Smith (2001) argued that when it is necessary to make decisions within a very short time, there may be limited, or no room for reflection. Moreover, CTs in traditional ITE settings, such as that in Saudi, may require prior training in employing reflective strategies as a learning process (Bradbury and Koballa Jr., 2008).

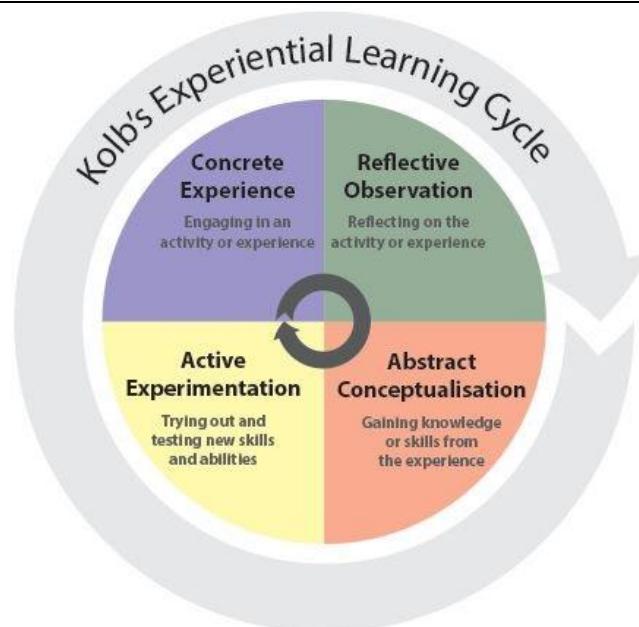
Experiential learning model

The experiential learning model proposed by Kolb (1984) is considered to be a comprehensive model for mentoring teachers (Asante, 2011; Baqadir and Growth, 2013; König, 2013; Cameron, 2014). This model is based on a four-step cycle of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation. This section discusses each of these steps in relation to mentoring STs:

1. *Concrete experience:* This is the concrete experience of STs obtained during their practicum/clinical placement, during which they have the opportunity to explore teaching situations first-hand. According to the model, STs learn via the CT/mentor's demonstrations, explanations, lectures, and provision of facts. Although this is similar to the observation period in the Saudi ITE system, in which the STs spend their first part of their practicum observing their CTs.
2. *Reflection and observation:* Once the ST establishes their concrete involvement, they become reflective observers, observing and reflecting on the meaning a situation holds for them. Learning occurs through question and answer periods, discussions, or individual reflection. This step assumes that STs already possess reflective skills, which is not the case with STs in the Saudi ITE system, in which it is necessary for such skills to be introduced in the preparation programmes of both STs and CTs to achieve this second step in the cycle.
3. *Abstract conceptualisation:* This step constitutes the reflection and observation stage in which the STs analyse situations and form theories, generalizing from the particular to the hypothetical. As with the previous step, the skills and tools necessary for analysis are lacking in the Saudi ITE system, and it would therefore be beneficial to introduce them to teacher education in the country.
4. *Active experimentation:* Finally, the STs formulate a plan or strategy, in order to apply the newly attained information to their own situation to discover for themselves the applications of their acquired knowledge. This step is practised in the practicum period in Saudi ITE, in which STs are required to present a full lesson to a class at the end of their practicum for evaluation purposes. However, this only occurs on a single occasion, and it takes place in front of the CT, the school HT, and the US, which is extremely stressful for the ST, and means that they lack the opportunity to learn from, and reflect on, their performance.

The experiential learning cycle

This cycle is represented in the figure below, in which the stages represent both the process, and the various learning styles involved, reflecting the developmental stages of learning. The most important aspect of this cycle, in terms of mentoring STs in the Saudi ITE system, is that this is not a definitive four step process, and is not necessarily entirely applicable in its current form, and each of the stages would require adaptation and preparation before application.



KOLB'S EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING CYCLE.

Personal learning styles

In his 2014 work, Cameron recommended that mentors should adjust their training in order to address each stage of the above learning cycle, and argued that this approach would best address each ST's learning preferences, and help them to expand their skills regarding dealing with different learning situations. The training design should take each ST through a process that encourages each stage of the cycle, as experience and reflection without application may engender problems for the STs in applying these ideas in the classroom (*ibid.*). The process should also recognise and address individual STs' learning needs, and concurrently challenge them to cross boundaries and participate in parts of the learning process they might otherwise ignore. None the less, critics say that learning styles are not fixed but are dynamic and change over time and circumstance (Bergsteiner, Avery and Neumann, 2010).

Motivation

Motivation is an important aspect of a person's ability to learn (Friesen & Osguthorpe, 2018). Environmental distractions, unmet needs, and personal trauma can divert a learner's attention from the task at hand, therefore ITE programmes in Saudi should heed both CTs' and STs' motivation to learn. Mentoring motivates professional learners by informing them why it is important to learn a particular element, enabling them to direct themselves, and relating the topic to their experiences. Moreover, "people will not learn until they are ready and motivated to learn, which requires helping overcome inhibitions, behaviours, and beliefs about learning" (Pew, 2007, p. 17 in Blackley & Sheffield, 2015).

Well-prepared trainers should be able to recognise the importance of understanding learners' levels of motivation and be prepared to adjust their training programmes accordingly. The extant literature provided various definitions of motivation in relation to learning, broadly defining it as the level of effort an individual is willing to expend toward the achievement of a certain goal (Pew 2007, p.14 in Blackley & Sheffield, 2015), while McDevitt and Ormrod (2006, p.13) noted that "motivation energises, directs and sustains behaviour and can be either intrinsic or extrinsic".

When considering introducing the science of understanding learners' motivation to ITE and CPD courses in Saudi colleges of education, it is important to understand that it spans both philosophical and practical disciplines, and could offer recommendations for best practice. According to Pew (2007), theories of motivation include behavioural, cognitive, humanistic, and biological viewpoints, which can be synthesised as follows.

- Behavioural theories: describe the processes of increasing the desired behaviour by using either positive consequences, or avoidance of negative stimuli as extrinsic forms of motivation (Korthagen and Kessels, 2001; Blackley & Sheffield, 2015);
- The cognitive view (Korthagen, 2010; König, 2013) emphasises the arousal of cognitive disequilibrium as a means to motivate students to learn something new. Cognitive theory emphasises intrinsic motivation, and creates situations in which students are stimulated to seek answers;
- The humanistic view is based on Maslow's (1954) work on 'Motivation and Personality', which describes how students seek to attain five different levels of hierarchical needs. The theory proposes that if the basic physical and safety needs of students are met, their needs for belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualisation will intrinsically motivate them to achieve (Alrasbi, 2013). Achievement motivation theory proposes that most people want to achieve, and have goals they want to reach;
- The biological or neural basis of motivation proposes that "neural activity in the brain guides us towards or away from particular results and it is these synaptic events that influence behavioural outcomes" (Pew, 2006, p.15 in Blackley & Sheffield, 2015).

It is contended that if a trainer/mentor is able to recognise the above motivational needs of their learners, they will be better prepared to respond to training problems that arise from such motivations and needs.

A consideration of the motivational needs in an environment of professional learning, such as that in Saudi ITE, possesses two implications, the first of which is that those who teach/train STs must possess an understanding of the

difference between teaching children and teaching professionals, and how each are motivated to learn.

The second implication is that, in professional learning, the responsibility for STs' learning motivation lies primarily with the ST, with support from the trainer. In contrast, in settings like Saudi Arabia, the responsibility for motivating learners lies with the teacher/trainer. However, utilizing the trainer, whether a university faculty or mentor, as a primary source of motivation may result in the educator's complicity in creating a student culture of self-indulgence in which the responsibility for student success lies with someone else. Therefore, teachers/trainers in higher education might be more successful if they are aware of the importance of motivating STs.

This would require two changes in the approach of teachers/trainers: first, they must realise that knowledge of internal student motivators is unavailable to them directly, and second, that what motivates them as educators may or may not motivate their STs. According to Pew (2007), this involves a complex relationship analysis that is seldom part of the preparation of teachers/trainers in higher education. This is significant in relation to this present study's third research aim regarding possible factors for developing the role of CTs, as it implies that studying learners' motivation is an important consideration for CTs' preparation in the suggested mentoring scheme for Saudi ITE.

Facilitative learning model

Brookfield's notion of "facilitative learning" is based on learners, whom he defines as, "proactive, initiating individuals engaged in a continuous re-creation of their personal relationships, work worlds, and social circumstances rather than as reactive individuals, buffeted by uncontrollable forces of circumstance" (Brookfield, 1986, p.11).

The notion of individuals learning through participation closely follows the work of Kolb, and is a relatively novel way of thinking about learning in third world countries such as Ghana and Saudi Arabia, where knowledge is disseminated from above (Asante, 2011). Knowledge is typically communicated in lecture form and is believed to be immutable, which contradicts Brookfield's view that the source of learning should serve as a "facilitating educator", whose key role is one of "presenting alternate ways of interpreting the world" (Brookfield, 1986, pp.14, 286).

The words: facilitate, educate, present and interpret are considered new terminology in Saudi Arabia; however, they can offer valuable lessons for CTs especially in conceptualising their role in STs professional learning. Since they already carry this responsibility within STs' ITE, prospects of developing their role from supervisors to facilitators or educators need a theory like the above to explain its significance to their STs who can learn through participation. Participation promises a starting point for a more collegial relationship between

CTs and STs. It could also prove influential in altering CTs' conception of themselves as a source of knowledge in the Saudi ITE system hierarchy (see chapter 1, section 1.2.6.1) to more of a participating facilitator.

Mentor/mentee relationship

In viewing 'mentoring as a relationship', Anderson and Shannon (1995) claim that the distinctive feature of mentoring is that it is an "ongoing caring relationship" (p. 29). Similarly, Roberts (2000) believes that mentoring is characterised by a supportive relationship. This is a more traditional model of mentoring as the mentoring functions are conducted within the context of an ongoing relationship between the more experienced and the inexperienced. It provides a three-part model of mentoring for the mentors; firstly, as role model, nurturer and caregiver; secondly through teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling and befriending and finally by acting as an observer who offers feedback and facilitates social support for the mentee (Anderson & Shannon, 1988). This distinction between the two reflects the status of CTs and their STs in Saudi Arabia, and the term 'experienced' is widely used when referring to CTs in the Saudi ITE context. However, some the characteristics of this model may be challenging to practice in the Saudi hierarchical socio-cultural context, as follows:

- The process of nurturing: This is difficult to perform in the Saudi education context, due to the formal hierarchical relationship between CTs and STs, and also because culturally it would be associated with weakness, and the inability to lead or manage;
- The five mentoring functions (teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling, and befriending) are performed by CTs (see Chapter 2), and are mainly associated with pedagogical practices (teaching children), such as telling and showing. As with sponsoring, encouraging, counselling, and befriending, these are difficult to perform in the current Saudi ITE context for the reasons associated with nurturing;
- The focus on professional and/or personal development: This is challenging in the current Saudi ITE context, as the act of training STs is not yet recognised as a CT's professional development skill, and there are no dedicated professional development training courses, nor is it mentioned in the annual teacher appraisal system as a rewarded responsibility (MOE, 2018b);
- The ongoing relationship: There are many challenges to the creation of a continuous relationship between CTs and STs in Saudi ITE. First, STs are not permitted to obtain CTs' phone numbers, and most of the experienced CTs do not prefer, or even use email (Alfares, 2014). Therefore, because of the CTs' teaching schedule-related time constraints, the majority of their work is conducted in school, during

teaching hours. In addition, the STs' practicum occurs at the end of the academic year, and lasts between three and four weeks, when the CTs are busy with their pupils' evaluations, and their own end-of-year evaluations. Moreover, the duration of the practicum period is very short for establishing a relationship, especially of a continuous nature;

- The act of serving as a role model: Mentoring as role modelling is highly applicable to the Saudi ITE context, compared with the previous characteristics of the Anderson and Shannon (1988) model, as it is already associated with CTs in the Saudi education context, in which all providers of knowledge (teachers) are highly regarded, and are therefore deemed worthy of respect and imitation (see Section 1.2.1).

Many researchers (Cain, 2009; Asante, 2011; Cameron, 2014; Manit and Chowwalit, 2016) advocated that this model of mentoring has the potential to enhance STs' personal and professional development. According to Delaney (2012), features such as nurturing, caring, encouraging, counselling, and sponsoring make STs feel safe, welcomed, and emotionally settled in schools. However, this model is based on the experience of CTs/mentors, as they are responsible for nurturing, serving as role models, and caring for the STs (Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016), which aligns with the apprenticeship theory (see Section 2.4.2.2), as it emphasises the relationship between experienced teachers and STs, without recognizing the potential of collaborative relationships in professional development.

A key issue of Anderson and Shannon's (1988) mentoring model is the assumption of significant differences between the CT/mentor and ST/mentee, in terms of both age and life, or work experience (Asante, 2011). Thus, the relationship that is the focus in the definition is that between a young, inexperienced mentee, and an older, experienced mentor (O'Dwyer and Atlı, 2014). This is similar to the socio-cultural context in developing countries like Saudi Arabia, where age is associated with rank, experience, and skill. Therefore, if CTs were chosen on this basis, they would expect to be respected and imitated by STs as role models of the teaching profession.

Co-planning model

The co-planning model was developed by Feiman-Nemsar and Beasley (1997) to assist the professional development of STs by employing socio-cultural theories of learning through collaborative efforts to explain that mentoring involves a process through which a mentor/CT encourages a ST to participate actively in classroom activities as a partner (Aderibigbe, 2012). Shared understanding and the co-construction of knowledge regarding teaching and learning can be facilitated through the joint participation of a ST and a mentor. Co-planning as also a process by which mentors can assist STs to learn the necessary components of teaching as an academic field, which is described as "assisted performance" (Feiman-Nemsar and Beasley, 1997, p.110). It also advocated that dialogue is a necessity for co-planning to translate into an effective mentoring

relationship between a CT/mentor and a ST. The components of the co-planning model of mentoring are classified as follows:

- *Exploring content*: a joint effort to explore the curriculum content, in order to determine relevant classroom activities;
- *Designing learning activities*: a joint decision regarding the learning activities to be designed;
- *Coaching for teaching*: Unlike the first two components, in which a mentor and a ST are co-learners and partners, coaching for teaching features a situation in which a mentor provides insight regarding how to coordinate classroom activities.

The co-planning concept is consistent with the Anderson and Shannon (1988) model and the Furlong and Maynard (1995) model, in which cooperation is key for a ST's professional learning, and it offers valuable lessons for strengthening the school-university partnership in developing countries with hierachal education systems, such as Saudi Arabia. In the extant literature, many Saudi researchers recommended the need for more cooperation between universities and schools to strengthen Saudi ITE (Alzaydi, 2010; Baqadir and Growth, 2013; Al-Seghayer, 2014b; 2014a; Alrashidi and Phan, 2015a), although details regarding how this cooperation could be enacted were limited. Meanwhile, some researchers proposed that a collaborative conversation between university faculties and school teachers could provide STs with the opportunity to share ideas, and learn how to improve their practice (Brydson, 2011; Lupu, 2011; Lindqvist, 2012; Aderibigbe, 2013; van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015; Dorner and Kumar, 2016). This study raised the key issues of co-planning, cooperation, and collaboration in ITE, and these are discussed in Chapters 4 and 5 (Sections 4.6, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.7) of this present thesis, in relation to RQ3 concerning the conditions that could contribute to the development of the CTs' role in Saudi ITE.

However, Smith (2004) warned that the co-planning model can be counter-productive if the STs involved hold the belief that the experience of the CT in charge can be questioned, and the wider literature also noted a possible tension in collaborative teaching between CTs/mentors and STs, especially when questioning their teaching practice (Murray and Male, 2005; Tolmie et al., 2010; Aderibigbe, Colucci-Gray and Gray, 2016), which relates to the discussion of power in the Saudi ITE hierarchical setting in Section 1.2.7.1, and supports the claim of Nokes et al. (2008) that contradicting superiors/CTs could engender abuse of power in which they recommended that STs should disengage, in order to avoid causing offence.

Furthermore, Feiman-Nemser and Beasley (1997) warned that individual knowledge and perception of values may affect the co-planning process. Therefore, individual differences between the knowledge and skills of STs and

CTs should be considered for successful co-planning in mentoring. While mentoring can be collaborative and effective when the STs and CTs involved in the co-planning process share the same values and aspirations (Vescio, Ross and Adams, 2008; Bullough, 2012), the relationship can be challenging, and the goals of mentoring may not be achieved when these values and aspirations are not shared.

Summary of theoretical underpinnings of mentoring

This section examined certain theoretical approaches to mentoring, together with their potential implications in the ITE context. A shared view exists in the relevant literature that mentors should approach STs' professional learning as one of 'co-thinking' (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Ellis & Childs, 2019), creating a zone of 'pedagogical construction' that allows STs to reconstruct their teaching experiences, and to situate these experiences within their personal theories of teaching/mentoring (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015). Successful CTs/mentors accomplish this from a professional stance of translating collaborative enquiry into practice (Orland-Barak, 2010; Feiman-Nemser, 2012), in which the CT/mentor is willing to engage in mutual learning about teaching with the ST, during the mentoring process (van Ginkel, Verloop and Denessen, 2015).

APPENDIX 6: TRAINEE EVALUATION FORM AND TRANSLATION

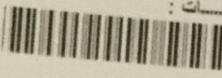
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Appendices

Trainee Evaluation Form – regular

Trainee info.	Name: _____ ID: _____ Academic department: _____																																																																										
U. Training Sup.	Name: _____ Academic department: _____ Tel: _____ email: _____																																																																										
Training place	Training Organization: _____ Training department: _____																																																																										
School Training Supervisor Evaluation of the Trainee	<p>Please use the following table to evaluate the trainee by ticking the right choice, then calculating the final grade by awarding 1 for (average), 2 for (good), 3 for (very good) and 4 for (Excellent)</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th rowspan="2">Criteria</th> <th colspan="4">Level</th> <th rowspan="2">Comment</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Average</th> <th>Good</th> <th>Very Good</th> <th>Excellent</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>1 Applying academic theory to practice</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>2 Communicating with others successfully</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>3 Productivity & quality of work</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>4 Ability to work in a team</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>5 Completing assigned tasks</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>6 Discussion & Expressing opinion</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>7 Personality and general appearance</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>8 Punctuality</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>9 Seriousness in training</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> <tr><td>10 Adhering to rules of place of training</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr> </tbody> </table> <p>- Evaluating the trainee performance during training: Full mark (40) Mark awarded ()</p> <p>-School Training supervisor: _____ signature: _____</p> <p>-Head of training place evaluation: Full mark (10) Mark awarded () signature:</p> <p>Now... please place this form in the attached envelope and return it back with the trainee while keeping the grade confidential.</p>					Criteria	Level				Comment	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent	1 Applying academic theory to practice						2 Communicating with others successfully						3 Productivity & quality of work						4 Ability to work in a team						5 Completing assigned tasks						6 Discussion & Expressing opinion						7 Personality and general appearance						8 Punctuality						9 Seriousness in training						10 Adhering to rules of place of training					
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APPENDIX 7: MOE APPROVAL FORM FOR DATA COLLECTION

<p>مكتب المدير العام الرقم : ٣٨٢٩٦٣٠٠ التاريخ : ١٤٣٨/٠٤/٢٤ المرفقات :</p> 	 <p>المملكة العربية السعودية وزارة التعليم الإدارة العامة للتعليم بمنطقة الرياض مكتب المدير العام</p>	<p>سعادة البرفسور كي لينقستون</p> <p>مع التحيه</p> <p>إشارة لخطابكم حول طالبة الدكتوراه/ شذى حمدان الغامدي ، يسربنا الموافقة على طلبكم بقيام الطالبة بجمع البيانات وجهاً لوجه من خلال المقابلة لمساعدتها في إكمال متطلبات مرحلتها الدراسية ، بشرط الالتزام بأخلاقيات البحث المتابع في الجامعة.</p> <p>ولكم تحياتي ، ، ،</p> <p>مدير عام التعليم بمنطقة الرياض</p> <p>د. عبدالله بن محمد المانع</p> <p>١٤٣٨ - ٤ - ٢٨</p> 
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APPENDIX 8: UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW ETHICAL APPROVAL



College of Social Sciences

24/01/2017

Dear Shatha Alghamdi

College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Project Title: The Role of Cooperating Teachers in improving the professional Learning of Student Teachers during their Practicum: Reality, Challenges & Prospects Ministry, Head Teachers and Cooperating Teachers

Application No: 400160063

The College Research Ethics Committee has reviewed your application and has agreed that there is no objection on ethical grounds to the proposed study. It is happy therefore to approve the project, subject to the following conditions:

- Project end date: 01/08/2017
- The data should be held securely for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project, or for longer if specified by the research funder or sponsor, in accordance with the University's Code of Good Practice in Research:
*(http://www.gla.ac.uk/media/media_227599_en.pdf) (Unless there is an agreed exemption to this, noted here). *The applicant has indicated that research data will not be retained for 10 years, in accordance with the University's Code, and has provided an explanation in 8e of Application of the reasons. This is noted, but the applicant should be aware that best practice is to store for 10 years to be able to respond to any issues/claims that may arise.*
- The research should be carried out only on the sites, and/or with the groups and using the methods defined in the application.
- Any proposed changes in the protocol should be submitted for reassessment as an amendment to the original application. The *Request for Amendments to an Approved Application* form should be used:
<http://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/socialsciences/students/ethics/forms/staffandpostgraduatestudents/>

Yours sincerely,
Dr Muir Houston
College Ethics Officer

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Lecturer
nches Ethics Officer
d Lifelong Education Research
Andrew's Building, 11 Eldon Street

APPENDIX 9: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS' THEMES



Interview questions' themes

Shatha Hamdan Alghamdi

6/12/2016

1. As [an] MOE [official/head] teacher/cooperating teacher; what is your understanding [of the role of] cooperating teachers [in] student teachers' professional learning during their practicum in Saudi primary schools?

كمعلم متعاونة/كمديرة، ما هو فهمك لدور المعلمة المتعاونة في التعليم المهني للمتدربات أثناء التدريب العملي في المدارس الابتدائية السعودية؟

2. What is the importance [from the participants' point of view] of the role [of] the Cooperating Teacher [in the support of] student teachers' professional learning [during their] practicum?

من وجهة نظرك، ما هي أهمية دور المعلمات المتعاونات في دعم طالبات التربية العملية (معلمات المستقبل) أثناء فترة التدريب العملي؟

3. Can you explain the school placement process of student teachers in Primary schools in Saudi Arabia?

هل يمكن ان تصف عملية تدريب الطالب المعلمين في المدارس الابتدائية في المملكة العربية السعودية؟

4. What are the challenges [from the participant point of view] encountered by Coordinating Teachers [in the professional learning of] student teachers during their practicum in Saudi Primary schools?

ما هي التحديات (من وجهة نظر المشاركون) التي تواجه المعلمات المتعاونات خلال فترة التدريب العملي للطالبات المتدربات في المدارس الابتدائية السعودية واجهتها؟

5. From your experience what improvements can be made to further support student teachers' professional learning [during their] practicum in Saudi primary schools?

من تجربتك ما هي التحسينات التي يمكن إدخالها على التعليم المهني (التربية العملية) للطلاب المعلمين خلال فترة التدريب العملي في المدارس الابتدائية السعودية؟

6. What improvements [from the participant's point of view] that could be made to further support Coordinating Teachers [in their role in supporting the development of] student teachers' professional development?

ما هي التحسينات (من وجهة نظر المشاركون) التي من الممكن ان تضيف المزيد من الدعم لدور المعلمات المتعاونات في دعم تطوير التدريب المهني للمعلمات الطالبات؟

APPENDIX 10: PARTICIPANTS' LANGUAGE STATEMENT



College of Social Sciences

Participant
معلومات البحث

Information Sheet

عنوان البحث: Title of project

The Role of CTs in improving the professional Learning of STs during their Practicum: Reality, Challenges & Prospects

Ministry, Head Teachers' and CTs' Perspectives

دور المعلمات المتعاونات في التعليم المهني (التدريب العملي) للمعلمات الطالبات خلال فترة التدريب العملي في المدارس: الواقع، التحديات والامكانيات من وجهة نظر المعلمات المتعاونات والمديرات ووزارة التعليم بالمملكة العربية السعودية

Researcher: Shatha Alghamdi

الباحثة: شذى الغامدي

Supervisor: Kay Livingston & Beth Dickson

المشرفين: كاي ليفينقستون و بيت ديكسون

Course: PhD of Education, teacher training

البرنامج: دكتوراه في التربية، تدريب المعلمين

You are being invited to take part in a research project into the Role of CTs in improving the professional Learning of STs during their Practicum in Saudi Primary schools.

This is part of my work towards gaining a PhD of Education degree at the University of Glasgow. Before you decide if you want to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the information on this page carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

انت مدعو للمشاركة في البحث المذكور أعلاه، كجزء من عملية جمع المعلومات للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في التربية من جامعة جلاسجو، اسكتلندا. قبل ان تواافق على المشاركة، من المهم ان تعي أهمية البحث وما سيتضمنه. الرجاء اخذ الوقت الكافي لقراءة المعلومات هنا بدقة ومناقشتها مع الباحثة إذا اردت ذلك. اسأل عن أي شيء تريده ايضاحه او تود ان تعرف المزيد من المعلومات عنه. خذ الوقت الكافي لتقرير ما إذا اردت المشاركة او لا.

What the project will involve ما سيتضمنه البحث

The purpose of this study is to investigate the role of CTs in the professional Learning of STs during their Practicum in Saudi primary schools, its challenges and the prospects of a training programme for CTs.

الهدف من هذه الدراسة هو دراسة دور المعلمات المتعاونات في التعليم المهني (التدريب العملي) للطلاب المعلمات خلال فترة التدريب العملي في المدارس السعودية الابتدائية، التحديات التي تواجهها وإمكانيات تطوير برنامج تدريب (مينتور) للمعلمات المتعاونات لتعزيز دورهم.

I hope to find out if there are particular factors which could contribute to making the CTs' role more effective from Saudi MOE officials, head teachers', and CTs' perspectives. I hope to have completed my data collection by the end of March 2017.

المل من هذه الدراسة اكتشاف ما إذا كانت هناك عوامل قد تساهم في تعزيز دور المعلمات المتعاونات في تدريب طلاب التربية العملي وجعله أكثر فعالية من وجهة نظر المعلمات المتعاونات انفسهن، مديرات المدرسة ومنسوبي وزارة التعليم. أهدف الى الانتهاء من مرحلة جمع المعلومات بنهاية مارس ٢٠١٧.

You are being asked to take part because you are part of the professional learning of STs during their practicum in Saudi primary schools. If you decide to take part, I would arrange to interview you about your views on the role of CTs, its challenges and its prospects for further developing STs' professional learning during their practicum. The interview will last about 60 minutes and will be arranged at a time to suit you, on school premises. I will audio-record the interview; a transcript will be returned to you for checking before I use it in my analysis.

لقد طلب منك المشاركة لأن لك دورا في تعليم الطلبة المعلمين وتدريبهم في المدارس الابتدائية السعودية، إذا قررت المشاركة سوف أعد لمقابلة شخصية معك في الوقت المناسب لك لمعرفة رأيك في دور المعلمات المتعاونات في تدريب الطالبات المعلمات خلال فترة التدريب العملي لهن في المدارس والتحديات التي يرايكم أنها تواجههن وامكانيات تطوير هذا الدور وعوامل تعزيزه. المقابلة سوف تستغرق ٦٠ دقيقة في وقت ومكان يناسبناتك. سوف أسجل مقابلة صوتيا ثم اكتبها، ونسخة من مقابلة المكتوبة سوف يعاد إليك إذا رغبت للتحقق منها قبل أن استخدمها في بحثي.

Taking part in this project is entirely voluntary. Should you decide to participate, you are still free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

المشاركة في هذا المشروع اختياري وإذا قررت المشاركة فلكل خيار الانسحاب في أي وقت بدون إعطاء أي أسباب.

الحفظ على سرية المعلومات

All data will be stored in a locked cabinet or in a locked file on my computer and will be dealt with confidentially. It will only be seen by myself and my supervisor. You will be referred to as (CT) neither you nor your school will be identified by name in any assignment or publication arising from the project.

كل ما سيتم جمعه من معلومات سوف يحفظ في ملف مغلق في جهازي المحمول الشخصي وسيتم التعامل معه بسرية تامة. لن يطلع عليه إلا أنا وشرفي. سوف يطلق عليك لقب (معلمة متعاونة، مديرية مدرسة، منسوب وزارة التعليم) بحسب دورك ولن يذكر اسمك أو اسم مدرستك او مركزك باي حال من الأحوال في أي تقرير او منشور ناتج من هذه الدراسة (اتباعاً لقانون اخلاقيات البحث التابع للجامعة).

نتائج هذه الدراسة

I will present my findings in the dissertation I am writing for the degree of PhD of Education. I may also present these at an education conference, and use the information to write a journal article. I will provide a written summary of my findings for all participants and can come back to your school to discuss this with you if you wish. You may request a copy of the dissertation.

سوف أقدم نتائجي في الرسالة المقدمة لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في التربية. وقد ألقى بها في مؤتمر تربوي مقالة تربوية مشاركة. سوف أعد أيضاً تقريراً بالنتائج يكون متاحاً لكل المشاركين إذا أرادوا الإطلاع عليها. وإذا أرادوا نسخة من الرسالة بعد الانتهاء منها أنا على أتم استعداد لإرسالها.

الجهة المدققة للرسالة

This study has been reviewed and agreed by the College Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow

لقد تم مراجعة هذه الدراسة والموافقة عليها من لجنة اخلاقيات البحث بكلية التربية، جامعة جلاسكو.

Contact for further Information

If you have any questions or any concerns about the conduct of this study, you can ask me, Shatha

Alghamdi (s.alghamdi.2@glasgow.ac.uk) or my supervisor, Professor Kay Livingston

([Kay.Livingston @glasgow.ac.uk](mailto:Kay.Livingston@glasgow.ac.uk)) or College Ethics Officer, Dr Muir Houston,

Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

Thank you for reading this.

*Confidentiality will be respected unless there are compelling and legitimate reasons for this to be breached. If this was the case, we would inform you of any decisions that might limit confidentiality.

APPENDIX 11: PARTICIPANTS' CONSENT FORM



College of Social Sciences

The Role of CTs in improving the professional Learning of STs during their Practicum: Reality, Challenges & Prospects
Ministry, Head Teachers and CTs' Perspectives

دور المعلمات المتعاونات في التعليم المهني (التدريب العملي) للمعلمات الطالبات خلال فترة التدريب العملي في المدارس: الواقع، التحديات والامكانيات من وجهة نظر المعلمات المتعاونات والمديرات ووزارة التعليم بالمملكة العربية السعودية

اسم الباحثة: شذى الغامدي Name of Researcher: Shatha Alghamdi

Consent Form

موافقة على المشاركة

عنوان البحث: Title of Project:

I confirm that I have read and understand the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

١ - لقد قرأت وفهمت موضوع البحث وأتيحت لي الفرصة لطرح الأسئلة.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

٢ - اعى ان مشاركتي تطوعية ولني الحق في الانسحاب في أي وقت دونما ابداء أي اسباب.

I agree to be audio recorded.

٣ - اوفق على التسجيل الصوتي.

I acknowledge that participants will be referred to by pseudonym.

٤ - اعلم بان المشتركون سوف يشار اليهم برموز وأرقام لا تتشير الى أسماءهم او هوياتهم باي شكل من الاشكال.

The material will be treated as confidential and kept in secure storage at all times.

٥ - المادة (التسجيلات الصوتية) سوف تعامل بسرية تامة وسوف تحفظ في مكان امن في كل الارواح.

The material will be retained in secure storage for use in future academic research.

٦ - سوف تحفظ النتائج في مكان امن حتى تستخدم في ابحاث اكاديمية مستقبلية

The material may be used in future publications, both print and online.

٧ - قد تستخدم النتائج في المستقبل في مادة مطبوعة او الكترونية.

I agree to take part in this research study

أوفق على المشاركة في هذا البحث

Name of Participant

اسم المشترك

Date

التاريخ

التوقيع

Researcher

الباحث

Date

التاريخ

التوقيع